e-ISSN: 2149-5939

International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research

Volume:5 Issue:1
Year: 2019, January

e-ISSN: 2149-5939

IJ§ER

Volume:5 Issue:1
Year: 2019, January

International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research

IJ§ER
ISSN: 2149-5939
International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research
Online, http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijsser
Volume: 1(1), 2015

Editors/Editörler

Contact / İletişim

Address/Adres: Isparta Uygulamalı Bilimler Üniversitesi, Turizm ve Otelcilik Yüksekokulu Eğirdir, Isparta - Türkiye
Tel: +90 (246) 3133447
Fax: +90 (246) 3133452
E-mail: journal.ijsser@gmail.com
Web: http://dergipark.ulakbim.gov.tr/ijsser

IJ§ER
ISSN: 2149-5939
International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research
Online, http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijsser
Volume: 1(1), 2015

SCIENTIFIC AND ADVISORY BOARD / BİLİM VE DANIŞMA KURULU

Focus and Scope: *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research* is a peer-reviewed online journal which publishes original research papers. *IJSSER* welcomes submissions related to academic and scientific practices, approaches, applied research studies, critical reviews on major issues, development of new technologies and tools in social science and education research in English or Turkish.

Peer Review Process: All submitted manuscripts by author(s) are subject to initial appraisal by the section editors to peer review as a double-blind by at least two independent and expert referees. For the article to be published, at least two referees agree on the publication of the work.

Indexes & Databases:

- ***OAJI- Open Academic Journals Index***
- ***Google Scholar***
- ***RAS- Russian Academic Science***
- ***tei-Turkish Education Index***
- ***ESJI - Eurasian Scientific Journal Index***
- ***ISI - International Scientific Indexing***
- ***DRJI - Directory of Research Journals Indexing***
- ***SIS - Scientific Indexing Services***

Odak ve Kapsam: Uluslararası Sosyal Bilimler ve Eğitim Araştırmaları Dergisi orijinal araştırma makalelerini yayınlayan hakemli online bir dergidir. IJSSER Sosyal Bilimler ve Eğitim Araştırmaları ile ilgili uygulamalar, yaklaşımlar, araştırma çalışmaları, önemli konularda kritik yorumlar, yeni teknolojilerin ve araçların geliştirilmesini içeren akademik ve bilimsel içeriğe sahip İngilizce veya Türkçe hazırlanmış her türlü makaleyi kabul etmektedir.

Değerlendirme süreci: Yazar(lar) tarafından gönderilen çalışmalar öncelikle bölüm editörleri tarafından değerlendirilerek alanından uzman ve birbirinden bağımsız, yazarlarla akademik olarak eş düzeydeki en az iki hakeme gönderilmektedir. Makalenin yayımlanması için en az iki hakemin olumlu görüş bildirmesi şarttır.

İndeks ve Veri tabanları:

- ***OAJI- Open Academic Journals Index***
- ***Google Scholar***
- ***RAS- Russian Academic Science***
- ***tei-Turkish Education Index***
- ***ESJI - Eurasian Scientific Journal Index***
- ***ISI - International Scientific Indexing***
- ***DRJI - Directory of Research Journals Indexing***
- ***SIS - Scientific Indexing Services***

IJ§ER
ISSN: 2149-5939
International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research
Online, http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijsser
Volume: 1(1), 2015

Table of Contents / İçindekiler

IJ§ER
ISSN: 2149-5939

International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research

Online, http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijsser
Volume: 5(1), 2019

"Homelang" or how to live in a language

Maria-Zoica Balaban[1]

Received Date: 01 / 09 / 2018 Accepted Date: 30 / 12 / 2018

Abstract

The society we are living in is the society of a simple click that opens the world, breaks the barriers and gives access to any type of information no matter time or space. Today, we can live, without any problems, in almost any language. It depends on the person's interest and willingness to live in a certain language. The study aims at placing the term "home" in a close connection with the term "language" by determining whether the word is the only house that we have and accepting that language is a continuously changing and lifelong battlefield.With the help of metaphors (living metaphor, distance metaphor, mother metaphor, birth and family metaphor, etc.) that are among our principle tools for understanding the construction of linguistic, social and political reality, we have tried to conduct a double levelled research: on one side, the paper aims to identify the identity framework of living in a language (as a mother tongue, as a regional language – dialects, as a national language or official language, as a foreign language learning – which undoubtedly implies foreign culture learning by increasing awareness and developing people's curiosity towards the target culture and their own, and, of course, helping people to be able to make comparisons among cultures or as a European language according to the Common European Framework for Foreign Languages which provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks across Europe or as a lingua franca). On the other side, the paper aims to highlight the fact that there are also risks related to the language leaving phenomenon. We live in a language in different ways, but at the same time, for different reasons, people are tempted to leave the language: immigration, high-tech effects, etc. Living in a language vs. leaving a language interfere and the two phenomena still raise questions among researchers and linguists.

Keywords: *language living, language learning, language leaving, identity framework, conceptual metaphor*

1. Introduction

Living in a language has become a challenging and debatable issue in the last decades due to some important factors: technology development, internet usage, online/virtual communication, unlimited and unrestricted access to any type of information, no matter time or space, the directives of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), cross-cultural and media studies, generation gaps. Bearing in mind the above-mentioned factors that have changed the way in which people live in a language, it's logical to ask ourselves *How do we live in a language? Which are the livable levels of a language?* and *Where to in the future?* Therefore, this paper aims to provide answers to these critical questions based on a double levelled research which emphasizes, on one side, the ways in which people live in a language or in more languages at the same time and, on the other side, the potential risks speakers are exposed to when they leave the language/languages, without effectively being aware of this phenomenon. Any language is a continuously changing and lifelong battlefield. Learning a language and living in it involve a pathway with enduring misunderstandings that arise principally when there is a clash that has to

[1] Correspondence author: Maria-Zoica Balaban Asst.Prof.Dr., Babeş-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca, Romania e-mail: zoica_ghitan@yahoo.com

ISSN: 2149-5939

be overcome. From pronunciation to basic vocabulary, from grammar to pragmatics, from competence to performance there is a long way with ups and downs, be it a mother tongue, a non-native language or a foreign one. Living in a language requires a lot of skills that each speaker needs to possess: a good linguistic background (namely, grammar and vocabulary), good knowledge and experience of how to handle and functionally use the language resources (discourse, interpersonal communication strategies, conversation management) and also the ability of activating the knowledge and using it effectively in social, cultural or international contexts.

2. Literature

The society we are living in is the society of a simple click that opens the world, breaks the barriers and gives access to any type of information no matter time or space. The contact between cultures and civilizations, the globalization forces that are here to stay and the massive migration phenomenon have led to a profound change into the linguistic patterns and the linguistic contact. Today, we can live, without any problems, in almost any language. It depends on the person’s interest and willingness to live in a certain language. It is the case of so many writers who decided to drop their own mother tongue and switch to a foreign language (in case of Romanian writers and philosophers it is worth mentioning Emil Cioran, Eugen Ionescu, Mircea Eliade or the world-wide recognized writers like Joseph Conrad, Vladimir Nabokov, Salman Rushdie or Milan Kundera).

The metaphor *language as a house of being* is not a new concept. Briefly, the concept has been debated since ancient times by Aristotle who considered that the language is the basics of any society, by Humboldt (2008) who strongly believed that the human being weaves himself through language, but the metaphor as it is, was strongly activated by Martin Heidegger. According to the German philosopher (Heidegger, 1983) the human being is the only creature who is allowed to live and build his/her living both in space and time as compared to animals that look for a shelter or just hide themselves. Heidegger states that each language is unique and it is the house of a specific vision of the world that makes it unique as compared to other visions of the world rendered by other languages. He also pointed out that the language is, to a certain extent, the external manifestation of a people’s spirit.

When cultures collide, languages connect and interfere leading to a phenomenon with its own riches, the exploration of which could yield incalculable benefits for us, both in terms of wider and more profitable policies and activity. People of different cultures share basic concepts but view them from different angles and perspectives, leading them to behave in a manner which we may consider irrational or even in direct contradiction of what we hold sacred. The behavior of people of different cultures is not something willy-nilly. There exist clear trends, sequences and traditions. (Lewis, 2006, p.XVI)

Before moving on to the next stage to emphasize what methodology consists of it would be beneficial to mention the fact that the concept *Homelang* is the result of a strong connection between the concept of home and the concept of language. Few explanations would be recommended.

What do we mean by *home*? According to Chambers Dictionary (2001) definition, a home is a place that is related to one’s roots, a place of origin, a safe place. What do we mean by *language*? According to the above-mentioned dictionary, a language is conversation, speech, communica-

ISSN: 2149-5939

tion, verbalizing, expression, rhetoric. These two concepts join their forces to create the homelang, a safe place of origin where the interior monologues, the results of thoughts, of an internalized language, are conducted into words, whether expressed aloud or not. The concept as we have thought about it is an experimental one, based on motivations that mostly come from philosophy, linguistics and didactics. Last, but not least, we shouldn't forget mentioning the fact that when living in a language, as a mother-tongue, as a dialect, as a second language or as a foreign language, we must pass the threshold of it effectively and efficiently.

3. Methodology

One of the most effective tools for understanding the construction of linguistic reality is the cognitive linguistics that highlights the role of the metaphor in the way we think, what we experience as human beings and what we do every day (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Since ancient times there have been different philosophical theories with different views on language and metaphor. Plato, for example, in his *Republic* (Plato, 2005) stated the fact that the truth is absolute and the metaphor should be banned as it would blind people's eyes from the objective reality (Cameron & Low, 1999). Moreover, Aristotle strongly believed that the metaphor should be valued positively because with the help of the metaphor people learn and understand things. The classical approaches, valuing the role of objectivity in understanding the construction of linguistic reality were continued during the Romantic period, where objectivity lost its important role from the classical period being replaced with subjectivity, where imagination, more specifically the metaphor seems to gain ground more and more. Along with the development of cognitive linguistics at the beginning of the 20th century, the concept of metaphor came into being as an invaluable tool for deciphering one's experience.

In *Metaphors we live by* (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), the authors consider that the concepts that govern our thought are not just matters of the intellect. They also govern our everyday functioning, down to the most mundane details. Our concepts structure what we perceive, how we get around the world, and how we relate to other people. Our conceptual system thus plays a central role in defining our everyday realities. If we are right in suggesting that our conceptual system is largely metaphorical, then the way we think, what we experience, and what we do every day is very much a matter of metaphor. But our conceptual system is not something we are normally aware of. In most of the little things we do every day, we simply think and act more or less automatically along certain lines. Just what these lines are is by no means obvious. One way to find out is by looking at language. Since communication is based on the same conceptual system that we use in thinking and acting, language is an important source of evidence for what the system is like. (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p.4)

The aforementioned studies are an indication that the conceptual metaphor has gained considerable attention from language researchers and philosophers. Having in mind Lakoff's theory regarding the metaphor, we have tried to use and apply his theory into the homelang approach. We have tried to identify, starting from his theory, a number of five conceptual metaphors that describe the homelang process, namely: the living metaphor, the distance metaphor, the mother metaphor, the birth metaphor and the family metaphor. Each one of them encompasses a specific way of living in a language from the mother-tongue and the regional language (dialects) to the national/official language or from a foreign language and a European one to lingua franca.

ISSN: 2149-5939

4. Findings

As we have stated above our main goal is to present how to live in a language by applying the conceptual metaphor theory. There are more possibilities of living in a language; first of all, the conceptual *mother metaphor* applies to living in a language as a mother tongue, as a native speaker. Any mother tongue is our home, an identity, a face, and a destiny. The mother tongue is the language in which you think and you feel and you develop yourself from a spiritual point of view. The mother tongue is alive thinking, the one we owe a great amount of our human qualities and inner thoughts. One's mother tongue becomes, to a certain extent, the so-called *forma mentis* owned by everybody who shares the thoughts in that specific language.

It is the first convention the child learns, our first way to come together with the others. The first steps in education are done through correcting the language mistakes. The child enters the world in the name of the language he has been taught to speak and comes out of the world leaving behind the mark of the language he spoke. While in a foreign country the misspoken language excludes you from the others' community, the language spoken at home is the one that includes you, integrates you and makes you equal to the others. It is the union carriage of society. If you spoil the language, all the rules the society is based on will be disregarded on the model of the spoiled language. (Liiceanu, 2017, pp.106-107)

Secondly, we can live in a language as speakers of certain dialects/sub-dialects/regional language/official language, inside or outside the country's borders. The distance metaphor based on space orientation (in-out/central-peripheral/up-down) might be of real help when explaining how to live in a regional/national language. Orientational metaphors are not metaphors which "structure one concept in terms of another but instead organize a whole system of concepts with respect to one another" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p.14). Let's take the example of Romanian language. The Romanian language has four dialects: the Daco-Romanian dialect (which is spoken all over Romania, inside the borders of the country, and is the official language), and outside the border of the country there are numerically reduced communities that are still speaking the other three dialects of the Romanian language: the Macedo-Romanian (which is spoken in some parts of Macedonia), the Istro-Romanian dialect (which is spoken in the Istria Peninsula) and the Megleno-Romanian dialect (which is spoken in the northern part of Greece). There has been a sort of a "linguistic battle" due to the fact that there are distinctive phonetical and lexical features that do not diminish the value of each of them separately, but, more than that, contribute to the cultural linguistic richness. It is worth mentioning – as a general rule for all languages – that speakers consider their own dialect, the one they were born with and raised up with as being the standard language version. As a whole, the conclusion is that this phenomenon confirms one more time how powerfully lived is the language spoken at home.

Moreover, from a sociological point of view, the homelang process is of critical importance, because it sets up, in a way, the ground rules that tie up and separate people, not only as individuals but also as members belonging to the same community. Another important aspect is represented by the regional languages, inside the borders of a country, spoken by the minorities. The regional languages are different idioms (that do not include the dialects), distinct from the official language and used by a numerically reduced community in a specific area/region. According to the *European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages* (1992, 2018) "the recognition of the regional or minority languages is an expression of cultural wealth" and shows "the respect of the geographical area of each regional or minority language in order to ensure that existing or new

ISSN: 2149-5939

administrative divisions do not constitute an obstacle to the promotion of the regional or minority language in question" (*European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages* 1992, 2018, p.3).

Moreover, a language could be lived in as a foreign language (L2 – second language acquisition). On one side, any language could be a foreign language (taking into consideration the relationship with the Other) or it could be a European language in a multilingual environment. Living in a language as a foreign language is of critical importance nowadays; it's part of all curricula in schools and also in universities. It's *a must* taking into consideration the world we are living in. Only one foreign language is no longer enough. In the Romanian educational system, from the primary school to the high school, pupils have to learn two foreign languages (English, French, German, Italian or Spanish) depending on the highschool's profile.

At university, the situation stays the same: from compulsory foreign language courses to elective ones, from line of studies in a foreign language (Romanian, English, French, Hungarian, German) to Bachelor's Degrees or MA programs or even Ph.D Studies in a foreign language. There is a market demand for professionals in the field of foreign languages. No matter the profile and the area of expertise, there is a foreign languages trend. We live in a foreign language because we have to: studies, workplaces, careers, all these are, to a certain extent, determined be the necessity of learning at least one foreign language. From an educational point of view, living in a language at this level, is standardized by the European linguistic policy and by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).

In addition to the first category of learners, there is also a second category of people who are tempted to live in a language for personal matters; according to a survey that I conducted few years ago among foreigners who were willing to learn Romanian as a foreign language at the question what determined you to enroll in a course of language and Romanian civilization, the respondents were separated into two different categories: on one side there were respondents who considered that Romania is different (in a positive way), it has other customs, other coordinates and other cultural landmarks, other landscapes, another architecture (for the respondents who haven't been to Romania before; on the other side, there were respondents who have already visited the country and found out these cultural landmarks and got into contact with them, for these reasons being determined to also learn the language.

There is tremendous demand for all these cultural coordinates, they are willing to find out in the courses exactly what they experienced by themselves, from food, drinks, to traditions, weddings, funerals, that are different (Moldovan & Ghiţan, 2010). Moreover, the living metaphor in such a situation has multiple meanings: so far, we have seen that people could live in a language because they have to, positively forced in a way by the educational system; they could also live in a language because they are willing to do this due to their cultural awareness of a certain language. But there is also another perspective of living in a language due to the migration phenomenon. At this level the language is lived unequally, they are forced to live in a language not because they are willing to do so, but because of financial and social reasons. Looking for a place where to feel fulfilled and satisfied, requires sacrifices, at our level, linguistic sacrifices. These are made differently by the adults, on one side, and by the children, on the other side because in case of immigrants there are two faces of the same coin: the mother tongue and the host language. Adapting to a wholly new society involves a slow and difficult linguistic process in the case of

ISSN: 2149-5939

adults; not everybody manages to feel like home in the host language, because people are culturally rooted in their own mother tongue. The birth metaphor and the family metaphor act as preserving identity sources that keep the adults deeply rooted to their origins.

The house – language is an escape, a place where we rest when we are tired to find the warmth and the mother smell, where we always come back in crisis situation to restore the energy. The speakers who come back to their mother tongue, justify this gesture by saying that they use the language of tiredness. In other words, the mother tongue becomes, similar to a house, the language in which they rest (Platon, 2010).

This phenomenon has implications not only on a linguistic level but also on culture, traditions, cuisine and immigrants' lifestyle. Taking into consideration these situations, we can say that the mother tongue is "a stability anchor" for the people who live and work abroad. As a result of this, immigrants tend to speak both languages, at different levels – the mother tongue at home and the foreign language at the work place, but in most of the cases they will remain outsiders, giving birth to a hybrid language, which is an unsatisfactory combination of the mother tongue and the host language. As far as it concerns children, the situation is different; being born or raised up in a host country, dealing with the host language from an early age, they no longer feel the pressure of being outsiders. They feel and think in the host language, because they are educated in the host language and steadily they lost interest and comfort in the mother tongue. For these children, mother tongue recovery is of high importance. For these children, the living metaphor is a journey in which they have to face and deal with linguistic obstacles. They are exposed to both living in a language and leaving a language. These two phenomena interfere and still raise questions among researchers and linguists.

5. Conclusions

In recent years it has become more and more obvious that successful language living is no longer restricted by the classroom environment mostly due to a lot of factors that we have tried to present in the above lines. Nowadays we are living in a society that is highly shaped by the digital technologies. Today's borders are ideal because they open the door to an unlimited number of cultural horizons and learning how to live in a language turns into a lifelong intercultural adventure that starts from the moment when we meet for the first time the other culture. In the light of the previous findings that we have already referred to, we should conclude that, in addition to advantages of knowing how to live in a language, there are also a lot of risks, that instead of helping us to live better in a specific language, make us more willing to leave that language: overwhelming immigration and exaggerated high-tech usage are just a few of the main reasons that impede living properly in a language.

The immigration phenomenon has become an overwhelming issue in the last years due to massive movements of population from one country to another in a search for a better life. The mixture of languages that these people speak (at home, the mother tongue, at the workplace, the foreign language at different levels of proficiency) impedes proper living in a language. As a result of it, these people cannot live correctly, efficiently and effectively not just in their mother tongue but also in the host language. Barriers to effective living will definitively arise: faulty information, not having enough information, not knowing how to communicate effectively, not understanding accurately the language or culture of the other person, not being able to think ahead, not listening well enough or trying hard enough to make sense of the other's person message.

ISSN: 2149-5939

When we make linguistic choices, we should be aware that racism and ethnocentrism can find expression in any culturally diverse community. In such a context we are particularly concerned with uses of language which can be interpreted as racist or ethnocentric regardless of the intentions of the writer or speaker. When such a situation happens we should aim to be inclusive, make the language more accessible and ensure that, as far as possible, we should take account of the cultural and linguistic diversity in the wider society. On the other hand, the exaggerated use of high-tech, especially in the case of the young generation, has led to an endangered homelang.

The homelang corruption by/from its own speakers is the result of several factors: lack of reading and well-written books, replacing them with other sources that, grammatically and graphically, spoil the language, the TV with the multitude of programs in which there are a lot of “unauthorized negligence phenomena, not to mention the language corruption in the public space. Last, but not least, there is also a values crisis, manifested by a by a remote-controlled existence dominated by rankings (top 10, top 100, top 300, etc.). This value crisis leads a drift of patterns, culminating in their complete loss, the concept of value being determined by fluctuating criteria that designate value for some people and non-value for others.

The respect for language gradually disappears in press, on television, in institutions, etc. In a nutshell, we have to protect our homelang. There will always be risks but as long as we fight for the house of our inner thoughts, for the word as a founding ontological concept, we can live for a long in a language. Nichita Stănescu (Stănescu, 2003), one of our greatest poets that Romania has ever had, made one of the most touching description of the word that has to be lived: “the word is not a memory, the word is the treasury of some scattered people, the word is the constitution of a nation, the word is our only home, if we have a home. Otherwise, the landscape is noble, and death is worthwhile to forget” (Stănescu, 2003, p.859). That’s the way in which we should live in a language; in an authentic way and with the modesty of the expressed thought.

References

Cameron, L., & Low, G. (Eds.) (1999). *Researching and applying metaphor*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chambers Compact Thesaurus (2001). Edinburgh: Chambers.

European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages 1992. (2018, October, 15). Retrieved from https://rm.coe.int/168007bf4b

Heidegger, M. (1983). *Originea operei de artă*. Bucureşti: Editura Univers.

Humboldt, W. (2008). *Despre diversitatea structurală a limbilor şi influenţa ei asupra dezvoltării spirituale a umanităţii*. Bucureşti: Editura Humanitas.

Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors we live by*. London: University of Chicago Press.

Lewis, R.D. (2006). *When cultures collide* (3rd ed.). Boston. London: Nicholas Brealey International.

Liiceanu, G. (2017). *România. O iubire din care se poate muri.* Bucureşti: Humanitas.

Moldovan, V., & Ghiţan, M.Z (2010). Componenta culturală în predarea limbii române ca limbă străină. In R.Zafiu & F.Sâmihaian (Eds.), *Limba română. Controverse, delimitări, noi ipoteze. III Limba şi literatura română: noi abordări didactice.* Actele celui de al 9-lea colocviu al catedrei de limba română, Bucureşti, 4-5 decembrie 2009 (p.96). Bucureşti: Editura Universităţii din Bucureşti.

Plato (2005). *Republica.* Bucureşti: Antet.

Platon, E. (2010). A trece pragul unei limbi: implicaţii de natură antropologică. In N.Neşu (Ed.), *Romania Orientale. La Lingua come dimora*. Atti del Convegno, Roma, 24-25 marzo (154-155). Roma: Bagato Libri.

Stănescu, N. (2003). *Opere.*Vol.4.Bucureşti: Editura Academiei Române, Univers Enciclopedic.

ISSN: 2149-5939

IJ§ER
ISSN: 2149-5939
International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research
Online, http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijsser
Volume: 5(1), 2019

Testing the pecking order model of corporate leverage: An empirical investigation of Turkish firms[1]

İsmail Kalash[2]

Received Date: 05 / 10 / 2018 Accepted Date: 01 / 01 / 2019

Abstract

This research investigates the pecking order model of corporate leverage for a sample of 53 Turkish industrial firms listed on Istanbul stock exchange during the period from 2008 to 2017. The study tries to concentrate on the predictions about how corporate leverage varies with investments, profitability, risk, firm size and tangibility. The coefficients of corporate leverage determinants are estimated by using Ordinary Least Squares and Binary Logistic regressions. Confirming the pecking order model, it is found that firms prefer internal cash flows over external financing to fund investments. Moreover, the empirical results also show that more profitable and risky firms tend to borrow less. On the other hand, firms with more investments and larger firms tend to have more leverage. The findings of this study will help the managers to design a better strategy about capital structure which can maximize firm's performance.

Keywords: *Pecking Order Model, Leverage, Turkish Firms.*

1. Introduction

Capital structure decisions play a crucial role in determining and improving firm's performance. Choosing an appropriate mix of debt and equity that maximizes shareholders' value requires analyzing and investigating the determinants of capital structure. The finance literature offers two competing models of financing decisions, trade-off theory and pecking order theory. In the trade-off model, firms identify their optimal leverage by weighing the costs and benefits of an additional dollar of debt (Fama & French, 2002: 1). As an alternative to the trade-off theory, Myers (1984) suggests the pecking order theory. This theory is based on a financing pecking order. Firms prefer internal finance, if external finance is required, firms issue the safest security first. That is, they start with debt, then possibly hybrid securities such as convertible bonds, then perhaps equity as a last resort (Myers, 1984: 581).

This research investigates the pecking order model of corporate leverage for a sample of 53 Turkish industrial firms listed on Istanbul stock exchange during the period from 2008 to 2017. The findings of this study will help the managers to design a better strategy about capital structure which can maximize firm's performance.

[1] This paper has been presented at the 2nd International Conference on New Approaches in Social Sciences and Humanities held in Istanbul (Turkey), October 26-28, 2018

[2] ismailkalash2@gmail.com

ISSN: 2149-5939

Kalash, I. (2019). Testing the pecking order model of corporate leverage: An empirical investigation of Turkish firms. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 8-15.

2. Literature

The tradeoff model of corporate leverage assumes that agency costs of debt and bankruptcy costs push firms to issue less debt, while agency costs of equity and the tax benefits of debt push firms to issue more debt (Bradley, Jarrell and Kim, 1984; Fama & French, 2002; Frank & Goyal, 2009). Accordingly, larger firms and firms with more profitability, less risk, less growing opportunities, high tax rates and more tangible assets tend to have high leverage.

The pecking order model suggests that the financing costs that produce pecking order behavior include the transaction costs associated with new issues and the costs that arise because of management's superior information about the firm's prospects and the value of its risky securities. Because of these costs, firms finance new investments first with retained earnings, then with safe debt, then with risky debt, and finally, under duress, with equity (Fama & French, 2002: 1). The pecking order theory predicts that firms with less profitability, less risk, more investment and less tangible assets tend to have high leverage.

Numerous studies have focused on determinants of capital structure choice. Titman and Wessel (1988), Karadeniz, Kandir, Balcilar and Onal (2009), Gülşen and Ülkütaş (2012), and Goh, Tai, Rasli, Tan and Zakuan (2018) found that, as predicted by the pecking order model, profitable firms tend to have less leverage. Rajan & Zingales (1995), Chen & Hammes (1997), Gaud, Jani, Hoesli and Bender (2003) and Frank & Goyal (2009) showed that larger firms and firms with more tangible assets tend to have more leverage while more profitable and growing firms have less leverage. Shyam-Sunder and Myers (1999) found greater confidence in the pecking order model (which predicts external debt financing driven by the internal financial deficit) than in the target adjustment model (which predicts that each firm adjusts gradually toward an optimal debt ratio). Fama and French (2002) provide evidence that leverage is negatively related to profitability and investment. They also pointed out a positive relation between leverage and firm size. Frank and Goyal (2003) indicated that net equity issues track the financing deficit more closely than do net debt issues, debt financing do not dominate equity financing in magnitude.

Zhang and Kanazaki (2007) find that firms with more tangible assets, more non-debt tax shields and larger firms have more leverage while profitability was shown to be negatively related to leverage. Fosberg (2008) argues that firms finance their financial deficits with debt. Furthermore, debt capacity enhances the positive relation between financial deficits and debt. Güner (2016), and Burucu and Öndeş (2016) studied the variables affecting capital structure decisions of Turkish firms. They showed that firm size, liquidity and profitability negatively affect the debt ratio. However, Güner (2016) pointed out a negative relation between leverage and growth opportunities while Burucu and Öndeş (2016) showed that growth rate and growth opportunities are positively related to leverage. Erol, Aytekin and Abdioğlu (2016) found that profitable firms and firms with more liquidity, less growth opportunities, and more tangible assets tend to have more leverage. Ilyukhin (2017) found that leverage is negatively related to growth opportunities and profitability, and positively related to firm size and industry mean leverage. On the other hand, the effects of business risk and tangibility are insignificant.

M'ng, Rahman and Sannacy (2017), and Cevheroglu-Acar (2018) found a negative relation between leverage and profitability. Moreover, they found that larger firms and firms with more tangible assets tend to have more leverage. Khémiri and Noubbigh (2018) found a non-linear (U-shaped) relationship between leverage and profitability. Vijayakumaran and Vijayakumaran

ISSN: 2149-5939

(2018) indicated that leverage increases with tangibility and firm size, and decreases with profitability, risk and growth opportunities. Kiracı and Aydın (2018) examined the factors affecting total debt, short-term debt and long-term debt ratios. According to the results of the study, total debt ratio decreases with growth opportunities and liquidity; long-term debt ratio increases with fixed assets, firm size and liquidity, and decreases with growth opportunities; short-term debt ratio decreases with firm size, growth opportunities, fixed assets and liquidity.

3. Data and methodology

3.1 Data

The data have been obtained from financial statements belonging to 53 industrial firms listed on Istanbul Stock Exchange during the period from 2008 to 2017. The resulting unbalanced panel data provide 507 firm-year observations.

3.2 Estimation techniques

To investigate empirically the pecking order model of corporate leverage, this study employs two stages. In the first stage we examine whether firms with more investment opportunities relative to operating cash flows have higher leverage compared to firms with lower investment opportunities relative to operating cash flows. In this context, we consider the current and future investment. Fama and French (2002) argue that in a simple pecking order world, debt increases when investment exceeds internal funds and falls when investment is less than internal funds. In a more complex view of the model, firms with larger future investment maintain low-risk debt capacity and tend to have less current leverage.

The operating cash flows ratio (OCF) is measured as (operating cash flows / total assets) and is used as a proxy for internal funds. Our proxy for investment opportunities (INV) is (total assets t – total assets t-1) / total assets t (Fama and French, 2002: 8). The investment opportunities in period (t) have been considered as current investment. Future investment is the investment opportunities in period (t+1).

Firm-years are broken into two parts based on the median value of operating cash flows ratio. Firm-years with high (low) operating cash flows ratio are those ranked in above (below) the median value. The firm-years are also independently divided into two parts based on the median value of current investment. Firm-years with high (low) current investment are those ranked in above (below) the median value. Then, we select two groups. The first group (G1) contains firm-years that have high current investment and at the same time have low operating cash flows ratio (a group with more current investment relative to internal funds). The second group (G2) contains firm-years that have low current investment and at the same time have high operating cash flows ratio (a group with low current investment relative to internal funds). We employ T-Test and Man-Whitney Test to investigate whether the two groups have different leverage. Leverage (Lev) is calculated as the ratio of total debt to total assets. The previous procedures and tests will be repeated in the same way for future investment. In this case, we construct two groups as follows. (FG1) contains firm-years that have high future investment and at the same time have low current operating cash flows ratio while (FG2) contains firm-years that have low future investment and at the same time have high current operating cash flows ratio.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Kalash, I. (2019). Testing the pecking order model of corporate leverage: An empirical investigation of Turkish firms. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 8-15.

Furthermore, to confirm our results, we employ a binary logistic regression model to predict whether or not firms with high investment relative to internal funds have higher leverage. We use the following logistic regression models:

$$\text{logit (Y)} = \ln\left(\frac{\pi}{1-\pi}\right) = a + \beta_1 (G_{it}) + \beta_2 (Size_{it}) + \beta_3 (Tangibility_{it}) \qquad \text{(L1)}$$

$$\text{logit (Y)} = \ln\left(\frac{\pi}{1-\pi}\right) = a + \beta_1 (FG_{it}) + \beta_2 (Size_{it}) + \beta_3 (Tangibility_{it}) \qquad \text{(L2)}$$

where:

Y: is a dummy variable and represents leverage (Lev). Accordingly, Y is a variable set to one if Lev is higher than or equal to the median value (highly levered firms), and set to zero otherwise (less levered firms).

π: is the probability of a firm i to be highly levered in period t.

G_{it}: is a dummy variable set to one if a firm i in period t belongs to the first group (G1), and set to zero if a firm i in period t belongs to the second group (G2).

FG_{it}: is a dummy variable set to one if a firm i in period t belongs to the group (FG1), and set to zero if a firm i in period t belongs to the group (FG2). This variable considers the future investment.

Size: is firm size and computed as the natural logarithm of total assets (Frank and Goyal, 2009; Fama and French, 2002). Frank and Goyal (2009) argue that the pecking order model predicts a negative relation between leverage and firm size. Large firms are better known, as they have been around longer. On the other hand, Fama and French (2002) argue that larger firms are likely to have less volatile earnings and net cash flows. If so, then the pecking order theory would predict a positive relation between leverage and firm size. Accordingly, the pecking order model makes an ambiguous prediction on the relation between leverage and firm size.

Tangibility: is the ratio of tangible assets to total assets. Low information asymmetry associated with tangible assets makes equity issuances less costly. Thus, the pecking order model predicts a negative relation between leverage and tangibility (Frank and Goyal, 2009: 9).

In the second stage we concentrate on the predictions about how corporate leverage varies with investment opportunities, profitability, business risk, firm size and tangibility, using OLS regressions. We estimate the following OLS regressions:

$$Lev_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (INV_{it}) + \beta_2 (ROA_{it}) + \beta_3 (Risk_{it}) + \beta_4 (Size_{it}) + \beta_5 (Tangibility_{it}) + \varepsilon_{it} \qquad \text{(M1)}$$

$$Lev_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (INV_{it}) + \beta_2 (ROA_{it}) + \beta_3 (Size_{it}) + \beta_4 (Tangibility_{it}) + \varepsilon_{it} \qquad \text{(M2)}$$

ROA: is profitability and measured as the ratio of earnings before interest and taxes to total assets (Titman and Wessel, 1988: 6). Rajan and Zingales (1995) argue that changes in profitability will be negatively correlated with changes in leverage if dividends and investments are fixed, and if debt financing is the dominant mode of external financing.

Risk: is a variable estimates earnings volatility and computed as the standard deviation of (ROA) for the previous 4 years. Using this variable reduces the firm-year observations from 507 to 295. We estimate additional model without the variable Risk (the second model). However, Fama and French (2002) argue that firm size may serve as a proxy for risk (volatility). We use the variable (Size) in both models.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Kalash, I. (2019). Testing the pecking order model of corporate leverage: An empirical investigation of Turkish firms. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 8-15.

4. Empirical results

4.1 spearman rank correlation results

Table 1. Spearman rank correlation coefficients

	Lev	ROA	OCF	Size	Risk	Tangibility	INV (t)	INV (t+1)	N
Lev	1								507
ROA	-0.16**	1							507
OCF	-0.039	0.398**	1						507
Size	0.04	0.314**	0.314**	1					507
Risk	-0.141*	-0.012	-0.006	-0.14*	1				295
Tangibility	0.068	-0.25**	0.025	-0.022	-0.10	1			507
INV (t)	0.226**	0.239**	-0.061	0.105*	0.02	-0.08	1		452
INV (t+1)	0.158**	0.112*	0.094*	-0.007	0.01	-0.04	0.13**	1	452

N is the number of observations. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$.

Table (1) shows the results of the non-parametric Spearman rank correlation coefficients between leverage and other variables. We find that leverage is negatively related to profitability and risk. The relation between leverage and both the current and future investment is positive. On the other hand, the correlations between leverage and operating cash flows, firm size and tangibility are not significant. We also find that the relation between risk and firm size is negative, which is consistent with the argument that larger firms are less risky. Finally, the results indicate a positive relation between current investment and future investment, which means that investment is persistent.

4.2 T-Test and Man-Whitney Test results

Table (2) presents mean and median values of leverage, operating cash flows ratio and investment for the groups G1, G2, FG1, FG2. We find that G1 (a group with more current investment relative to operating cash flows) has higher leverage compared to G2 (a group with low current investment relative to operating cash flows). The mean and (median) values of leverage for G1 are higher [0.51 (0.51)] compared to G2 [0.386 (0.355)]. The difference between the two groups is significant at 1% level based on T-Test and Man-Whitney Test. These results are consistent with the predictions of the simple version of pecking order model. We also find similar results for future investments. Table (2) shows that FG1 (a group with more future investment relative to current operating cash flows) has more leverage compared to FG2 (a group with low future investment relative to current operating cash flows). The mean and (median) values of leverage for FG1 are higher [0.478 (0.488)] compared to FG2 [0.37 (0.33)], which is inconsistent with the complex version of pecking order model.

Table 2. T-Test and Man-Whitney Test results

	N	**Lev**	**INV (t)**	**OCF**
G1	110	0.51 (0.51)	0.242 (0.205)	-0.025 (-0.004)
G2	115	0.386 (0.355)	0.0059 (0.038)	0.117 (0.104)
T-Test (Sig)		0.000**	0.000**	0.000**
Mann-W (Sig)		0.000**	0.000**	0.000**
	N	**Lev**	**INV (t+1)**	**OCF**
FG1	112	0.478 (0.488)	0.204 (0.172)	-0.021 (-0.0025)
FG2	112	0.37 (0.33)	0.004 (0.037)	0.104 (0.087)
T-Test (Sig)		0.000**	0.000**	0.000**
Mann-W (Sig)		0.000**	0.000**	0.000**

Figures without parentheses are mean values. Median values are in parentheses. N is the number of observations. ** significant difference between the two groups at 1% level.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Kalash, I. (2019). Testing the pecking order model of corporate leverage: An empirical investigation of Turkish firms. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 8-15.

4.3 Binary Logistic Regressions results

Table (3) presents the results of logistic regressions. Following the results of the first model, we find a positive and significant relation between the probability of the firms to be highly levered and the variable G. This result indicates that firms with more current investment relative to operating cash flows (firms in G1) are more likely to be highly levered compared to firms in G2. The estimated coefficient on firm size is positive and significant. Thus, larger firms have more leverage. On the other hand, the tangibility coefficient is not significant. In the second model we find a positive sign for the variable (FG) which considers future investment. Hence, firms with more future investment relative to operating cash flows (firms in FG1) are more likely to be highly levered. However, the estimated coefficients on Size and Tangibility are not significant.

Table 3. Binary Logistic Regressions results

Models	Constant	G	FG	Size	Tangibility	Nagelkerke R^2	Sig	N
L1	-6.26** (0.002)	1.51** (0.000)	-	0.257** (0.008)	1.057 (0.201)	0.161	0.000	225
L2	-1.1 (0.593)	-	1.16** (0.000)	0.01 (0.92)	0.392 (0.646)	0.102	0.001	224

N is the number of observations. Sig represents the significance of the model based on (Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients). P values are reported in parentheses. ** indicate significance at the 1%, level.

4.4 OLS Regressions results

Table (4) presents OLS regressions predicting leverage level. The first model shows that the coefficients of profitability, risk and investment are consistent with the pecking order model. We find that leverage decreases significantly with profitability and risk, and increases significantly with investment. However, the coefficients of firm size and tangibility are not significant. The second model is estimated without the variable Risk. The coefficients of this model are consistent with the estimates of the first regression, except for Size, which has a positive and significant coefficient. We have found in (table 1) that the relation between size and risk is negative. Thus, we can conclude that the positive sign on firm size in the second model is in line with the negative effect of risk in the first model, indicating that larger firms are less risky and consequently tend to have more leverage.

Table 4. OLS Regressions results

		Dependent Variable: Leverage	
Models	**Leverage predictions of the pecking order model**	**M1**	**M2**
Constant		**0.260** (0.098)	**0.160** (0.200)
INV	Positive	**0.164*** (0.033)	**0.190**** (0.002)
ROA	Negative	**-0.632**** (0.000)	**-0.427**** (0.001)
Risk	Negative	**-0.624*** (0.042)	-
Size	Positive/ Negative	**0.013** (0.098)	**0.014*** (0.028)
Tangibility	Negative	**0.044** (0.507)	**0.048** (0.399)
Adjusted R^2		0.079	0.042
F		6.033** (0.000)	5.96** (0.000)
N		295	452

N is the number of observations. P values are reported in parentheses.

*, ** indicate significance at the 5%, 1% levels, respectively.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Kalash, I. (2019). Testing the pecking order model of corporate leverage: An empirical investigation of Turkish firms. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 8-15.

5. Conclusion

The pecking order model of corporate leverage (discussed by Myers (1984)) suggests that the information asymmetry problem causes a firm to finance their investment opportunities first with internal funds. Firms would prefer to issue debt rather than equity if the internal funds are not sufficient. Issuing equity will be the last resort. This research investigates the pecking order model of corporate leverage for a sample of 53 Turkish industrial firms listed on Istanbul stock exchange during the period from 2008 to 2017. We test whether firms with more investments relative to internal funds have more leverage compared to firms with low investments relative to internal funds. To investigate this issue, we employ a binary logistic regression model. The results showed that firms with more investments relative to operating cash flows are more likely to be highly levered. We also concentrate on the predictions about how corporate leverage varies with investments, profitability, risk, firm size and tangibility. Using Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regressions, we find that leverage increases with investment opportunities and firm size, and decreases with profitability and business risk. On the other hand, the ratio of tangible assets to total assets is not significantly related to corporate leverage. Confirming the pecking order model, these results imply that more profitable and risky firms tend to have less leverage. Moreover, larger firms and firms with more investment tend to have more leverage. Overall, these results indicate that pecking order model can explain financing decisions of Turkish firms.

References

Bradley, M., Jarrel, G. A., & Kim, E. H. (1984). On the Existence of an Optimal Capital Structure: Theory and Evidence. *Journal of Finance*, 39(3), 857-878.

Burucu, H., & Öndeş, T. (2016). Türk İmalat Sanayi Firmalarının Sermaye Yapısını Etkileyen Faktörlerin Analizi. Çankırı Karatekin Üniversitesi, *İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 6(1), 201-225.

Cevheroglu-Acar, M. G. (2018). Determinants of Capital Structure: Empirical Evidence from Turkey. *Journal of Management and Sustainability*, 8(1), 31-45.

Chen, H., & Hammes, K. (1997). Capital Structure, Theories and empirical results - a panel data analysis. *Paper presented at Conference on Financial Regulation*, Groningen, Netherlands.

Erol, A. F., Aytekin, S., & Abdioğlu, N. (2016). İşletmelerin Sermaye Yapılarının Belirlenmesinde Finansal Hiyerarşi Teorisinin Kullanımı ve BIST'te Bir Uygulama. *KSÜ Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi,* 13(1), 113-128.

Fama, E. F., & French, K. R. (2002). Testing Trade-Off and Pecking Order Predictions about Dividends and Debt. *Review of Financial Studies*, 15(1), 1-33.

Fosberg, R. H. (2008). Debt Capacity and Debt Financing. *Journal of Business & Economics Research*, 6(8), 21-26.

Frank, M. Z., & Goyal, V. K. (2003). Testing the pecking order theory of capital structure. *Journal of Financial Economics 67*, 217–248.

Frank, M. Z., & Goyal, V. K. (2009). Capital Structure Decisions: Which Factors Are Reliably Important?. *Financial Management*, 38(1), 1-37.

Gaud, P., Jani, E., Hoesli, M., & Bender, A. (2003). The Capital Structure of Swiss Companies: An Empirical Analysis Using Dynamic Panel Data. *The International Center for Financial Asset Management and Engineering (FAME), Research Paper 68*, 1-28.

Goh, C. F., Tai, W. Y., Rasli, A., Tan, O. K., & Zakuan, N. (2018). The Determinants of Capital Structure: Evidence from Malaysian Companies. *International Journal of Supply Chain Management*, 7(3), 225-230.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Gülşen, A. Z., & Ülkütaş, Ö. (2012). Sermaye Yapısının Belirlenmesinde Finansman Hiyerarşi Teorisi ve Ödünleşme Teorisi: İMKB Sanayi Endeksinde Yer Alan Firmalar Üzerinde Bir Uygulama. *ZKÜ Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 8(15), 49-59.

Güner, A (2016). The Determinants of Capital Structure Decisions: New Evidence from Turkish Companies. *Procedia Economics and Finance 38*, 84 – 89.

Ilyukhin, E. V. (2017). The Determinants of Capital Structure: Evidence of Russia. *Journal of Corporate Finance Research,* 14(4).

Karadeniz, E., Kandir, S. Y., Balcilar, M., & Onal, Y. B. (2009). Determinants of Capital Structure: Evidence from Turkish Lodging Companies. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 21(5), 594-609.

Khémiri, W., & Noubbigh, H. (2018). Determinants of capital structure: Evidence from sub-Saharan African firms. *The Quarterly Review of Economics and Finance 70*, 150-159.

Kiracı, K., & Aydın, N. (2018). Determinants of Capital Structure: Empirical Evidence from Traditional Airlines. *International Journal of Economic and Administrative Studies 21*, 173-186.

M'ng, J. C. P., Rahman, M., & Sannacy, S. (2017). The determinants of capital structure: Evidence from public listed companies in Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. *Cogent Economics & Finance 5*, 1-34.

Myers, S.C. (1984). The Capital Structure Puzzle. *Journal of Finance*, 39(3), 575-592.

Rajan, R.G., & Zingales, L. (1995). What Do We Know About Capital Structure? Some Evidence from International Data. *Journal of Finance*, 50(5), 1421-1460.

Shyam-Sunder, L., & Myers, S.C. (1999). Testing Static Tradeoff against Pecking Order Models of Capital Structure. *Journal of Financial Economics 51*, 219-244.

Titman, S., & Wessels, R. (1988). The Determinants of Capital Structure Choice. *Journal of Finance*, 43(1), 1-19.

Vijayakumaran, S., & Vijayakumaran, R. (2018). The Determinants of Capital Structure Decisions: Evidence from Chinese Listed Companies. *Asian Journal of Finance & Accounting,* 10(2), 63-81.

Zhang, R., & Kanazaki, Y. (2007). Testing Static Tradeoff against Pecking Order Models of Capital Structure in Japanese Firms. *International journal of accounting & information management*, 15(1), 24-36.

ISSN: 2149-5939

IJ§ER
ISSN: 2149-5939
International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research
Online, http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijsser
Volume: 5(1), 2019

Academic internationalization: Academics as marketing actors in higher education[1]

Figen Karaferye[2]

Received Date: 22 / 10 / 2018 Accepted Date: 04 / 01 / 2019

Abstract

Internationalization in the academic world has been a major research subject for the last several decades. Academic connections and collaborations between universities from different countries via joint research projects, education and training activities are very valuable. In establishing such connections, academics in staff mobility programs can play an important role in introducing their institution and carry a potential marketing element for future academic collaborations. In this respect, the aim of this study is to explore the awareness of academics on their role in academic marketing in the international higher education arena and to explore their expectations toward improving international education activities.

Keywords: *Academic internationalization, Education marketing, Academics, Higher education, Mobility*

1. Introduction

Academic internationalization is one of the major trends of higher education worldwide (Altbach, 2002; European Parliament Report, 2015; Knight, 2013). It has been a major research subject for the last several decades. Scholars and policy-makers have grown increasing attention to the subject. Universities have spared units for internationalization and strengthened their strategic planning to expand & sustain their education and research activities in the international arena (Allen & Ogilvie, 2004; OECD, 2012; Yemini & Sagie, 2016).

Cooperation between Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in exchange programs is one of the many important multifaceted steps in the internationalization of higher education, which lets academia get closer in global aspects. Academic staff mobility within exchange programs is one of the most active and frequent activities that increase intercultural interaction (European Commission, 2015; Streitwieser, 2014; Yemini & Sagie, 2016). Academic staff mobility ensures that universities and academics converge and interact (Dunn & Wallace, 2006; European Parliament Report, 2015). By participating in the mobility, academics carry out teaching & training activities related to their field of specialization in various universities abroad while they have the closest and concrete informational role for the host universities and students in respect to their home institution and teaching programs. Therefore, academic staff mobility is an activity that carries a

[1] Short version of the study was presented at the Innovation and Global Issues in Social Sciences II Congress, Antalya, Turkey, 2017.

[2]Dr., Kutahya Dumlupinar University, Kutahya/TURKEY, figen.karaferye@dpu.edu.tr

ISSN: 2149-5939

potential marketing element for future academic collaborations and activities, providing promotion for both the relevant academic staff and the university affiliated (Dunn & Wallace, 2006; Hemsley-Brown & Goonawardana, 2007; Svetlik & Lalic, 2016).

For this reason, it is believed that supporting competencies and leadership skills of the academic staff within the scope of international/intercultural teaching (e.g. in teaching, academic life, institutional processes and student leadership) before mobility would be useful both for the institution and the academics (Chang, 2007; Poole & Ewan, 2010). In this respect, the aim of this study is to explore the awareness of academics on their role in academic marketing in the international higher education arena and to explore their expectations toward improving international education activities. To do so, following research questions were asked in the study:

- In what ways do academics find academic mobility beneficial for them and for their institution?
- How do academics get prepared for their activities in the host university before mobility?
- How do academics find pre-mobility professional development activities in their institution?
- What things do academics believe to be done to improve international education and training activities in their institution?

Today, while the internationalization policies of universities accelerate, it is believed that exploring the awareness of academics toward their education marketer role and exploring their expectations toward improving international education & training would contribute to the literature and practices.

2. Methodology

In this qualitative study, interview method was used to explore the awareness of academics toward their education marketer role and their expectations & needs toward improving international education & training facilities. The gathered data were supported with document analysis and observation to examine the attitudes of academics toward internationalization within their own case (Creswell, 2012; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2008).

A semi-structured interview form was used to collect data. It included demographic information and 4 open-ended questions. The interview questions were designed to explore how aware the academics are of their role in academic marketing in the international higher education arena: how beneficial they find academic mobility for their professional development and for their institution; how they get prepared for their activities in the host university before mobility; how they would find pre-mobility professional development activities in their institution and what could be done to improve international education & training activities in their institution.

Document analysis was done by examining the academic teaching staff mobility policy & procedure documents and guidelines of the HEI provided on its website. The International Relations Office in the HEI which is the office of academic mobility was contacted for further inquiry and confirmation on the policy & procedure documents and guidelines. Also, the pre-mobility and post-mobility stages of some academics in the institution were observed.

Purposive sampling method was used to obtain the most information (Aziz, 2010). The reason to apply this method is that the study targeted academics with (and without) academic staff mo-

ISSN: 2149-5939

bility experience, to be able to discover from the reflections of academics concerning their lectures/courses, interaction with international academics/students, intercultural sharing, academic presentation, etc. The participants involved in the study were among from the academics working as Foreign Language Instructors in the same school in a HEI. 10 academics with academic mobility experience composed the population of the study. Additionally, data were gathered from 4 academics without academic mobility experience to explore their needs and expectations before mobility. Here the aim was to find out whether there were differences between the two groups (with or without mobility experience) in order to gain further understanding for the possible future pre-mobility professional development activities.

In the analysis of the data, content analysis technique was used for coding, categorizing the themes & sub-themes and interpreting. By examining the frequency of words/phrases and categorizing them to interpret, this technique enables a detailed contextualized interpretation (Elo & Kyngas, 2008; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2008).

3. Findings and discussion

In the present study, to explore the awareness of their role and the attitudes of academics toward internationalization within their own case in a school in a HEI, the data were gathered from 10 academics with academic mobility experience. Additionally, some data were gathered from 4 academics without academic mobility experience to explore their needs and expectations before mobility with the aim to find out whether there were differences between the groups. This finding would give further understanding for the preparation of the possible future pre-mobility professional development activities. It is obtained that the data gathered from both groups showed a lot of similarities.

According to the findings of the study, all participants believe that academic mobility contributes to their professional development. They stated that they find academic mobility beneficial since it enhances personal and academic confidence; increases professional satisfaction; increases professional recognition; provides academic networks; updates professional knowledge; offers opportunities to vary pedagogical approaches; increases awareness toward good practices.

Almost all participants mentioned meeting academics and students in a HEI in a different country provided them with novel perspectives. They could make comparisons, and they could get to know novel things regarding teaching, pedagogies & strategies. Most of them stated that they found themselves refreshed and more innovative in school when they got back to their home institution. One participant stated that she had some bias before mobility, but she had the chance to see things in the first place herself, and things turned out positively. Bias could be the result of cultural differences and stereotypes, which is also mentioned in Poole and Ewan's study (2010), where they examined university offshore programs in Australia with the academics as part-time marketers. The participants also mentioned that they find academic mobility beneficial since it increases cultural awareness.

On the other hand, in terms of contribution to the institution, the views were not as varied from all participants compared to the ones in terms of contribution to the academics. The participants who explicitly mentioned the contribution to the institution stated that academic mobility can increase the prestige of the institution within the competence of the academic; it can provide mutual agreements/collaborations between institutions and keep them going; it can prepare for potential partnerships for projects/research; it increases the international visibility of the HEI; it

ISSN: 2149-5939

gives the opportunity to see differences in education and administration between the institutions and it increases awareness toward good practices. The other participants mentioned the benefits of academic staff mobility to the professional development and self-development of the academic. Hence, the academic would reflect what has been gained on teaching and on the work, this way it would provide an indirect benefit to the institution.

The findings show that the preparedness and competence of the academic to introduce his/her institution shapes the dimensions of academic mobility between institutions. Increasing the preparedness and competence of the academic is also emphasized in the other studies on the internationalization of higher education (Dunn & Wallace, 2006; Svetlik & Lalic, 2016). Here, increasing the preparedness and competence of the academic involves a variety of topics from developing intercultural dialogues & teaching in multi-national classes to introducing their home institution with its philosophy and values.

Three participants stated that they are still in touch with the academics they met during their mobility, and they are planning to start research projects & collaborations in the near future, which is a target of mobility programs (European Commission, 2017). Two participants stated that they experienced some organizational problems regarding the dates of educational terms in the host university, which affected their experience negatively in terms of academic exchange. However, they stated that the mobility was still worthwhile in terms of socio-cultural exchange. Similarly, in Halat & Hocaoglu's study (2014), where they examined the perspectives of academic staff regarding the academic and sociocultural effectiveness of Erasmus Mobility programs, they put forth that in some aspects, socio-cultural factors had more effect on the scholars than academic collaborations in the mobility programs.

Regarding the question how academics get prepared for the mobility, all participants stated that they do comprehensive research on the department & university they are going to visit and on the students. And they get prepared with the documents & arranged subject to deliver. Nearly half of the participants stated that they bring visual/audio-visual aids, such as video-clips, brochures and leaflets to introduce their home institution in the host university. Two of those participants stated that this way it is more effective to present a more concrete image of the home HEI. Here, it is seen that a mutual understanding and implementation of an institutional presentation is needed. In this sense, all participants stated they would find pre-mobility professional development activities in their institution and institutionally-prepared tools (video-clips, brochures, etc.) helpful and necessary. In OECD's report (2012) on internationalization as a guide for higher education institutions, it is stated that HEIs should support faculty in every challenge resulting from internationalization in order to optimize the implementation of its internationalization strategies. To obtain greater achievements in the internationalization goals of the HEIs, those strategies need to be developed comprehensively by taking all stakeholders' needs and expectations into consideration (Çalıkoğlu & Arslan, 2018). Thus, it is best for the institution to provide faculty with tools aligning with its strategic approach to internationalization to obtain more effective interactions.

Four participants emphasized the need for support on the document preparation and support on the arrangements with the host university to eliminate problems. Five participants stated the need for support on developing intercultural dialogue, cultural exchange, overcoming bias and designing educational activities in multi-national classes. It is obtained that since the academic acts like a "cultural ambassador" of the HEI and the home country, it would provide much more

ISSN: 2149-5939

fruitful outcomes both for the academic and the institution if some orientation activities & workshops on topics, such as developing intercultural dialogue, are provided in the institution before mobility.

Regarding the question what to be done to improve international education & training activities in their institution, most of the participants stressed the need for increasing grants to make mobility experience more frequent and this way to present a chance for more academics in the institution. In Yılmaz's study on internationalization of Turkish universities (2016), it is also stated that financial resources for internationalization need to be increased in Turkish universities. In some studies, the need among academics to improve their foreign language skills is also stated (Yılmaz, 2016). However, since the participants were instructors in the School of Foreign Languages in this study, they did not mention experiencing language problems in communication. Yet, based on their observation, they stated that for more effective academic mobility implementations, there is a need to improve foreign language skills of the academics in their HEI.

Finally, it is stated that there is a need for an online platform to share academic mobility experiences among academics, and to maintain contact & collaboration by reaching the academics in the host university through the platform. This kind of a platform would eliminate the problem of maintaining contact & collaboration among academics for future joint research projects and other joint education & training activities. In Halat & Hocaoglu's study (2014), it is also stated that the motivation level of academicians is low to do further academic work~~s~~ in the host university, so they need to be encouraged. With the usage of that kind of a platform, contact between academics can continue even after the mobility experience, and by sharing their reflections and works on the platform, novel joint works may arise in the long run. Moreover, that kind of a platform would increase the visibility of the institution.

4. Conclusions and recommendations

In this study, it was aimed to explore the awareness of academics on their role in academic marketing in the international higher education arena, and to explore their expectations toward more developed international education and training activities. In this respect, academics were interviewed through semi-structured interviewing. Moreover, the gathered data were supported with observation and document analysis, which included the procedure and guidelines of academic staff mobility in the HEI. The interview-data were gathered from the School of Foreign Languages in the HEI to examine the attitudes of academics toward internationalization within their own case. Since the participants were language instructors, language barrier was not mentioned, which was pre-intended by the researcher to be able to explore academic mobility interactions between HEIs and comprehend communication issues thoroughly other than focusing on merely not speaking the language problem.

In the internationalization policy and standards of HEIs, it is seen that academic collaboration between universities from different countries via joint research projects, workshops, seminars, summer schools and conferences is very valuable. In order to establish such connections, it is believed that academics in staff mobility programs play an important role in introducing their home institution as being representative, which sets a potential marketing element for future academic collaborations and activities. Thus, it is believed that it would bring bigger achievements to HEIs on academic internationalization to fulfill the needs and expectations of their academic staff before mobility.

ISSN: 2149-5939

The findings show that there is a need to raise the awareness of academics on their role in academic marketing. The perception that the mobility contributes to professional gains is high whereas concerning university introduction and sustainable interactions between institutions, academics need to be supported. Firstly, they need to be supported with some institutional tools aligning with the HEI's strategic approach to internationalization. Academics are already provided with the necessary documents & guidelines to apply for academic staff mobility programs. However, the findings show that they also need to be provided with some institutional marketing tools of the HEI, such as digital packs showing how to provide information about the HEI in the host university, regarding its philosophy, values, faculties, graduates, employability statistics, international research and agreements portfolio, etc. This would eliminate the differences among academics on introducing their home HEI and optimize the outcomes of the interactions for both HEIs.

Preparing online/offline or face-to-face tutorials on how to increase the effectiveness of academic mobility both for increasing professional gains of the academics and for the institution's internationalization policy would be useful. It is obtained in the study that academics are willing to attend pre-mobility professional development activities if they are provided by the HEI on various topics to be chosen. The mentioned activities include how to develop intercultural dialogues, how to maintain academic contact and collaboration afterwards, how to teach in multi-national/trans-national classes, how to prepare educational materials before the mobility, how to lead the way for the future research/exchange agreements between the departments of the HEIs, and so on. Since that kind of a professional development activities' planning requires a huge workload and a thorough preparation, it is suggested to set up a centre/division in the HEI specifically working on professional development activities. This kind of a professional development unit would also provide academic staff and managerial staff with support on various topics from teaching pedagogies to leadership skills. Examples of that kind of units with their research & support areas could easily be seen in some HEIs in Turkey and various HEIs abroad (Karaferye, 2017).

Based on the findings, it is suggested that providing faculty with pre-mobility orientation & a digital pack, educational activities and workshops aligning with the strategic approach to internationalization at the home institution would be fruitful both for the academics and the institution.

Based on the findings of this study, it is also suggested to follow up with a quantitative data collection (a survey) with a large number of participants in parallel with contacting the International Relations Office in the institution (since there is not a Centre for Professional Development in the HEI available) to be able to pilot a pre-mobility program.

Although the study was limited to the views of a small sample, it led to an in-depth study of academics in a school on their role in academic internationalization concerning mobility. Furthermore, it is concluded that a university, in the direction of its internationalization strategies, need to do some more on the implementation level to obtain the optimum benefit from academic mobility for both itself in institutional aspects and for the academics' in professional aspects.

References

Allen, M. & Ogilvie, L. (2004). Internationalization of higher education: potentials and pitfalls for nursing education. *International Nursing Review*, 51(2), 73-80.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Altbach, P. (2002). Perspectives on internationalizing higher education, *International Higher Education*, 27, 6-8.

Aziz, A. (2010). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Araştırma Yöntemleri ve Teknikleri*. 5. Baskı. İstanbul: Nobel Yayınları.

Çalıkoğlu, A., & Arslan, H. (2018). Türkiye'deki akademisyenlerin uluslararasılaşması: uluslararası etkinliklere katılım ve CHAID analizi ile bir inceleme, *Eğitimde Kuram ve Uygulama,* 14(2), 215-230. DOI:10.17244/eku.426885

Chang, S. (2007). Academics and international education: the forgotten segment of Australia's international education program?, *presented at the Australian International Education Conference*, 9-12 October, Melbourne.

Creswell, J.W. (2012). *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research*. 4th edition. Boston: Pearson.

Dunn, L. & Wallace, M. (2006): Australian academics and transnational teaching: an exploratory study of their preparedness and experiences, *Higher Education Research & Development*, 25(4), 357-369.

Elo, S. & Kyngas, H. (2008). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 62(1), 107–115.

European Commission (2015). *Education & Training: Erasmus Facts & Figures & Trends*. Retrieved from: http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/education_culture/repository/education/library/statistics/erasmus-plus-facts-figures_en.pdf

European Commission (2017). *Presenting and promoting Erasmus+ opportunities*. Retrieved from: https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/sites/eacea-site/files/eplus_guidancedocument_eud_he_youth_oct2017-final_0.pdf

European Parliament Report, 2015. *Internationalisation of Higher Education*. Retrieved from: http://www.europarl.europa.eu/studies

Halat, E. & Hocaoglu, N. (2014). Impacts of the Erasmus Exchange Program on academicians, *The Online Journal of Counseling and Education*, 3(2), 32-49.

Hemsley-Brown, J. & Goonawardana, S. (2007). Brand harmonization in the international higher education market, *Journal of Business Research*, 60, 942-948.

Karaferye, F. (2017). Academics' needs and expectations toward academic management & leadership programs, *Ulakbilge,* 5(17), 1895-1915. DOI: 10.7816/ulakbilge-05-17-09

Knight, J. (2013). The changing landscape of higher education internationalisation – for better or worse?, *Perspectives: Policy and Practice in Higher Education*, 17(3), 84-90.

OECD, 2012. Approaches to internationalisation and their implications for strategic management and institutional practice. Retrieved from: https://www.oecd.org/edu/imhe/Approaches%20to%20internationalisation%20%20final%20%20web.pdf

Poole, D. & Ewan, C. (2010). Academics as part-time marketers in university offshore programs: an exploratory study, *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 32(2), 149-158, DOI: 10.1080/13600800903575447

Streitwieser, B. (2014). *Internationalisation of Higher Education and Global Mobility*. Oxford: Symposium Books.

Svetlik, I. & Lalić, A.B. (2016). The impact of the internationalisation of higher education on academic staff development – the case of Slovenian public universities, *Studies in Higher Education*, 41(2), 364-380, DOI: 10.1080/03075079.2014.942266

Yemini, M. & Sagie, N. (2016). Research on internationalisation in higher education- exploratory analysis, *Perspectives: Policy and Practice in Higher Education*, 20(2-3): 90-98, DOI: 10.1080/13603108.2015.1062057

Yıldırım, A. & Şimşek, H. (2008). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri*. 6. Baskı. Ankara: Seçkin Yayınları.

Yılmaz, D.V. (2016). Uygulayıcıların penceresinden Türk üniversitelerinin uluslararasılaşma deneyimi, *SDÜ Fen Edebiyat Fakültesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 37, 91-109.

ISSN: 2149-5939

IJ§ER
ISSN: 2149-5939
International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research
Online, http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijsser
Volume: 5(1), 2019

Variations in the career preferences of senior secondary students towards curricular programs in tertiary education

Roberto C. Buenaflor[1] and Elesia B. Buenaflor[2]

Received Date: 14 / 10 / 2018 Accepted Date: 04 / 01 / 2019

Abstract

Career decision-making is a critical scenario among senior secondary students and their parents. This study determined their level of occupational along the courses on medical or health related; business, safety and social related; technical and technological related; engineering; and teacher education. The results revealed the "less preference" of students in courses for medical and health related; business, safety, and social related; technical and technological; engineering; and teacher education. Nevertheless, in teacher education careers the students pegged nearly a moderate preference level. The students were claimed similar regards to these clustered courses. However, the study is conclusive that the teaching profession and those dealing with computer courses are highly desirable tertiary careers in the area of study. Imperative of the tertiary schools is giving priority of offering teacher education related careers, and other courses that demands mathematical and critical review. The guidance services shall include the career information drive.

Keywords: *Variation; Career Preferences; and Secondary Students*

1. Introduction

Career is a lifetime choice. It requires an intelligent decision what a person would want to be based on his personal and environmental resources and demands. As (Taber 2012) stressed, decision-making rest upon what is available to a person, what he thinks about his background and what kind of results will it contribute to his future. Hence, this decision carries the many patterns of various interlocking factors linked to a sounder decision for future lifestyle. The study of Lipscomb (n.d. pointed out that the way a person is brought up, and the kind of society he lives with, greatly influence his career decision. The varied impacts of his encounters with human and natural phenomena are contributory matters for such a choice. He makes his decisions premised on the kind of effects he gets and relates them to what he would like to become in the future. Corollary to this view, Borchert (2002) advanced that the kind of career decision that the student made is the result of the interplay between and among the factors of the environment, opportunity, and personality.

2. Literature

For the secondary students, choosing a career is a complex matter. It takes the process that undergoes a thorough examination of the kind activities they like, the values they presently possess. It weighs the influences of their parents, peers, friends and other significant persons in their

[1]Ph.D., robibuenaflor@gmail.com
[2]DPA

ISSN: 2149-5939

life. It also involves considerations of the financial capacity of the facility and the employability after graduation. In the study of Edwards and Quinter (2011), secondary students are facing this problem of matching their abilities and school performance of the career they prefer in the future. In many cases, the students tend to take a tertiary course that totally deviates from what they chose. Nevertheless, the availability of opportunities for advanced learning and experiences, and the opportunity to apply skills were found very significant to affect their career choices. The gender factor was not a remarkable issue in their choices. In addition, Fizer (2013) accounted for the influence of parents, coaches, religious figures and role models for a student, but the highest and most influential are the parents. On the other hand, Badri et al. (2016) advanced the pedagogies employed in helping the students learn different areas of knowledge did not have sufficient power to sway them into choosing the careers related to those taught.

In this present investigation, parents are conceptualized as a significant factor in the career decision-making process of the student due to their close contact with their children. They project the kind of image to their children in terms of rearing the entire family, which includes the problems and successes of the family. They serve as daily models of activities for the children to evaluate whether they like to follow or not. The experiences, they gave to their children during their early formation stage, are likely the springboards for the children to decide what course to enroll in college. If they do not like what their parents are doing, they may enroll in courses that offer more satisfying impact on their future. On the other hand, if they appreciate their work together with their parents they like to emulate the same and continue modeling their parents in the future.

Moreover, cognizant of these factors on career choices of the students, one of the most important elements is the availability of these careers in the nearby locality. The foregoing reviews have focused merely on the different factors and criteria of students in career decision-making, of which only takes place in the initial stage of decision-making. They do not explore the point where the students think of the availability of the chosen course within the confines of their limited resources. If ever these chosen careers are not available in the locality, students may go for another option that in a way waste in making tedious decisions. Studies on the influences of the above cited factors may have been set in the mind of educational leaders, yet a gap between the chosen careers and the availability in the tertiary schools remained unresolved. Thus, the nearby educational communities are challenged to problem in responding to the chosen careers is still not addressed nearby educational communities.

This problematic educational scenario may become intense where the tertiary school offers the careers outside the preferences of the students. Thus, this stage requires addressing the educational opportunity needs of the senior secondary students of the Surigao del Norte and Surigao City. The result will serve the basis for prioritizing the course offerings available in the tertiary schools in the area of study.

3. Methodology

The researcher adopted the following methods to address the descriptive and inferential designs of the investigation.

ISSN: 2149-5939

3.1 Instrument

The only source of data in this study was the researcher-made instruments which contained the clustered course according to major professions or disciplines. A 5-point scale corresponding to each course was provided to determine the career preference. Every identified course belonging to each cluster was given the activities or job descriptions for the respondents to decide and express the extent of their preferences.

For *validity*, few copies of the research instrument were administered to the professionals representing each clustered careers for content validity. Suggestions and comments were employed in the revision of the same. Five copies of the revised instrument were distributed to 10 senior secondary students to determine the clarity of the items to the targeted final respondents. The research device was found valid after having all the items were immediately answered without any clarification.

As to the *reliability*, the researcher prepared no less than thirty (30) copies of the same instrument and administered twice to the same set of 15 samples. Using the run-rerun reliability method, the ratings of the respondents in the first and second run were compared using the Spearman rank correlation coefficient. The coefficient of 0.872 was obtained to indicate that the research instrument was highly reliable for the study.

3.2. Respondents

A total of 1,020 students were used in the investigation. The stratified sampling was employed after using the Slovin formula, and the drawing of the sample from a population was done in random numbers with reference to the student list in every target class.

3.3 Data analysis

The mean, ordinal rank and Chi-square (X^2) test of independence were the statistical methods employed in the study. The mean was used to measure the extent of career preference while the ordinal rank was used to indicate the hierarchical order of preferences of the respondents. The chi-square test for independence was used to determine the presence or absence of significant difference in the preferences of the respondents among the clustered careers. The 5% error margin was used to test the hypothesis.

4. Result

The obtained data revealed the following information.

4.1. On medical and health related courses

The data on the extent of preferences of the respondents are shown in Table 1. As reflected in the Table, all of the identified courses were rated “less”. The respondents marked the grand mean of 2.08 in these courses. However, the highest extent in this cluster was addressed to rural health services with the mean of 2.27 and the second in rank was the career on medical technology that got the mean of 2.20. There was a tie of ranks between the careers of doctor of medicine and nursing, both got the mean of 2.19 for the third and fourth ranks respectively.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Buenaflor, R.C., Buenaflor, E.B. (2019). Variations in the career preferences of senior secondary students towards curricular programs in tertiary education. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 23-32.

Table 1. Extent of student preferences in medical and health related careers

Rank	Career	Mean	Preference
1	Rural Health Services	2.27	Less
2	Medical Technology	2.20	Less
3.5	Doctor of Medicine	2.19	Less
3.5	Nursing	2.19	Less
5	Pharmacy	2.14	Less
6	Dentistry	2.02	Less
7.5	Midwifery	2.01	Less
7.5	Physical Therapy	2.01	Less
9	Veterinary Medicine	2.00	Less
10	Ophthalmology	1.94	Less
11	Optometry	1.92	Less
	Grand Mean	**2.08**	**Less**

Preference Scale: *None at All* – 1.00 to 1.49, *Less* – 1.50 to 2.50, *Moderate* – 2.51 to 3.49, *High* – 3.50 to 4.50, and *Very High* – 4.51 to 5.00

The result indicates the less interest of the students to become health specialists and to render the services related to the medical treatment of people. They are less interested to work within the confines of an environment filled with people suffering physical and biological illnesses. They find it difficult to be dealing with sick individuals and rendering medical treatment for them. In reference to Lees et al. (2016), the cultural awareness and information can be improved through participation and immersion program. This suggests that information related to these medical and health related careers can only be improved when students are exposed to practical fields.

Apparent in the study is the idea that offering courses related to health services is not likely marketable in the area of study. It may become a waste of procuring and investing various educational resources for the offering of such course when the same are not attractive to the students in the locality. Thus, closer analysis of the data in these clustered careers may prove helpful for educational managers whether to offer or not in their schools. Deciding to offer any of these courses the next few years may place the tertiary school at risk.

4.2. On business, safety, and social related careers

The grand mean of 2.36, reflected in Table 2, secures the information that the students have “less” preference on theses identified course. Specifically, the data provides that business management, criminology, accountancy and hotel and restaurant management belonged to the top 4 priorities of the students though they expressed “moderate” preference. The course on social works, mass communication, international relations, political science and psychology went to the lowest five of their options.

The finding suggests that the students less likely to work which activities give them the financial advantage in investing money for profit. To them, dealing activities involving financial matters are not attractive. They also lack high interests to serve protectors of the civilian authorities and law enforcers of the community. They do not want to indulge in saving the lives and properties of people at risks and improve their ways of life. Emphatic of the study is the fact that the respondents dislike the work involving stressful and life-struggling conditions where the source of support exudes from them. They find these careers very risky to properties and human lives.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Buenaflor, R.C., Buenaflor, E.B. (2019). Variations in the career preferences of senior secondary students towards curricular programs in tertiary education. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 23-32.

Dealing with business transactions places the individual manager, including the personnel, into financial and security risks. The economic and financial regulations and peace security measures may cause such risks. Du Toit and Cuba (2017) remarked that based on the return on average assets, the profit efficiency of the financing corporation changes over in periods, and the type of ownership does not significantly relate to any business performance. In this study, the contention of the said author supports that with possible changes in the economic and business-related policies and regulations will likely result to financial risk. On the other hand, issues on politics and governance may contribute to social and economic risks. As political leaders change at any certain term, governance will also change on account of new laws and policies enforced. With the many political ideologies taking place at any point in time among leaders, conflicts in the priorities of governmental program priorities are likely to exist and thus peace culture suffers.

Table 2. Extent of student preferences in business, safety, and social related careers

Rank	Career	Mean	Preference
1	Business Management	2.63	Moderate
2	Criminology	2.57	Moderate
3	Accountancy	2.56	Moderate
4	Hotel and Restaurant Management	2.54	Moderate
5.5	Police Force	2.49	Less
5.5	Military Force	2.49	Less
7	Custom Administration	2.43	Less
8	Secretarial/Office Management	2.39	Less
9	Banking and Finance	2.36	Less
10	Law	2.29	Less
11.5	Economics	2.25	Less
11.5	Social Works	2.25	Less
13	Mass Communication	2.23	Less
14	International Relations	2.14	Less
15	Political Science	2.13	Less
16	Psychology	2.03	Less
	Grand Mean	**2.36**	**Less**

Preference Scale: *None at All* – 1.00 to 1.49, *Less* – 1.50 to 2.50, *Moderate* – 2.51 to 3.49, *High* – 3.50 to 4.50, and *Very High* – 4.51 to 5.00

Although peace is of universal interest among cultures, yet there is no globally accepted best political strategy to achieve it. The claim for a stable democratic ground takes the lead towards the fundamentals of domestic and international peace culture. Hence, the realm of the issue towards peace is not on democratization but creating the path for a stable democracy, and that creating a long-term peace largely depends on the internalization of democratic tenets the norms and values among people across states or nations (Tremlay, Nikolenyi & Otmar, 2003). Given the data in the study, the responses of the students elicit information of their negative views on existing conflicting state of political agenda, economics, and the practices that define democratization in Philippine context. As a consequence, they manifest their desire to evade from any of these clustered careers.

4.3. On technical and technological careers

The highest preference, although only "moderate", was on computer technology, from which the food technology followed. The fishery, automotive, garment, cosmetology courses landed to the lowest preference. Of the 18 identified courses, only 1 came out to have "moderate" extent

ISSN: 2149-5939

of preference. The rests were all given "less" preference. An arrived grand mean of 2.26 marked the less preference in this cluster. Table 3 unleashes the data.

Table 3. Extent of student preferences in technical and technological careers

Rank	Career	Mean	Preference
1	Computer Technology	2.62	Moderate
2	Foods Technology	2.45	Less
3	Refrigeration and Air-conditioning	2.37	Less
4	Electronics Technology	2.36	Less
5	Drafting	2.33	Less
6	Marine and Transportation	2.32	Less
7.5	Agricultural Technology	2.30	Less
7.5	Forestry	2.30	Less
9	Civil Technology	2.28	Less
10	Mechanical Technology	2.24	Less
11	Architecture	2.19	Less
12	Instrumentation Technology	2.18	Less
13	Welding and Fabrication	2.15	Less
14	Electrical Technology	2.14	Less
15	Fishery Technology	2.13	Less
16	Garments Technology	2.12	Less
17	Automotive Mechanics	2.10	Less
18	Cosmetology	2.06	Less
	Grand Mean	**2.26**	**Less**

Preference Scale: *None at All* – 1.00 to 1.49, *Less* – 1.50 to 2.50, *Moderate* – 2.51 to 3.49, *High* – 3.50 to 4.50, and *Very High* – 4.51 to 5.00

The result implies that the students find the work in these clustered courses less attractive. They avoid tinkering some parts of the machines and gadgets. They lack the interest to see more of them able to operate and repair various equipment and facilities in the industry. They dislike a job that allows them to improve or develop new products and project performances. Implied further in the study is the thought that the secondary students are not still convinced to Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA) related programs on blue-collared jobs. They like to maintain themselves well-groomed while at work. To these students, they see these courses inviting to some discomforts as they may see themselves uncomfortable working in the possible noisy and messy environment, and to certain extent handling dirty tools and materials. Implied further from the data that these courses are also very risky as it involves heavy equipment and tools one employed to the chosen careers. Notwithstanding, the critical analysis of some measurement for the learning outcomes of the course. However, courses that are descriptive of the computer utilization is found worth offering in every tertiary institution.

4.4. On engineering careers

Reflected in Table 4, the 2 top engineering courses were on the computer and civil that obtained the "moderate" extent. The courses that belonged to the top 5 were the mechanical, industrial, nautical and agricultural. The lowest career were the geodetic and aeronautics. The grand mean of 2.33 suggests the less preference of the students on theses clustered courses.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Buenaflor, R.C., Buenaflor, E.B. (2019). Variations in the career preferences of senior secondary students towards curricular programs in tertiary education. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 23-32.

Table 4. Extent of student preferences in engineering careers

Rank	Career	Mean	Preference
1	Computer Engineering	2.69	Moderate
2	Civil Engineering	2.60	Moderate
3	Mechanical Engineering	2.43	Less
4	Industrial Engineering	2.38	Less
5.5	Nautical Engineering	2.37	Less
5.5	Agricultural Engineering	2.37	Less
7	Electrical Engineering	2.36	Less
8	Marine Engineering	2.35	Less
9	Chemical Engineering	2.29	Less
10	Electronics Engineering	2.28	Less
11	Mining Engineering	2.24	Less
12	Instrumentation Engineering	2.15	Less
13	Geodetic Engineering	2.09	Less
14	Aeronautics Engineering	2.08	Less
	Grand Mean	**2.33**	**Less**

Preference Scale: *None at All* – 1.00 to 1.49, *Less* – 1.50 to 2.50, *Moderate* – 2.51 to 3.49, *High* – 3.50 to 4.50, and *Very High* – 4.51 to 5.00

The study disclosed the average interests of the students to become innovators and change agents in business and industry. They like a job that allows them to discover new methods and processes for producing new machines and products for humanity. They, however, lack the high interest to become inventors in the field of technology and explore some challenges in sciences across disciplines. As these courses requires the mathematical and analytical skills of the students, they are likely not inclined to selecting courses which demands critical thinking. In addition, a deeper analysis of the data suggests that the students are not risk takers. They like to be in the job where they work demands lesser in physical strength or efforts and are distant from hazardous environment. They do not like to explore working in the environment where they are surrounded with some chemicals and direct exposure to electrical hazards. For them, exploring the world through working in deep waters or at the areal heights is as if putting their lives to extreme risk.

With these findings, the tertiary schools have to take extra care in offering courses that deals with the navigable waters as well as those that require working in deeper grounds. They have to have a deeper examination of offering courses that may put risk of electrocution and chemical burns. Offering farming related courses in the locality is also less attractive to the millennial generations. For them, taking careers related to agriculture is as if continuing the works available in their environment and just a perpetration of the sources of income their parents and the common residents in the locality engaged into.

4.5. On teacher education course

Of the 24 listed specializations, only 11 captured the “moderate” extent of preference, as disclosed in Table 5. These include language related courses, computer, foods, general and social sciences, natural sciences, mathematics, physics, and agriculture. The courses, that placed towards the lowest rank were the fishery, welding, garments, statistics and cosmetology, The grand mean of 2.46 supports the “less” preference in education courses for the students.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Buenaflor, R.C., Buenaflor, E.B. (2019). Variations in the career preferences of senior secondary students towards curricular programs in tertiary education. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 23-32.

The findings unfold the sufficient interest of the students to be prime deliverers of knowledge in various fields of learning. They like to be the leading agents in developing and improving the lives of people through a responsive and high level of quality education for children. They are interested to become models for the growing children and explore new things available for advanced learning in various courses. They find the better investment of their services in the young learners, as professional deliverers of knowledge, for the holistic development and growth of the millennial generation.

On specific terms, the students like to see themselves soon being surrounded with young learners wanting for knowledge and skills on languages, and those dealing with computers and home related activities. They are also inclined to work with young generations who have the interest in exploring the world of natural sciences. The view is furthered when Faikhamta, Ketsing, Tanak, and Chamrat (2018) considered this profession as key driver of reforms in science education, where it takes the challenge of "providing sufficient teacher preparation in respect to pedagogical content knowledge and reflective and research-based activities". For those students who desired to become language teachers, the study suggests of their becoming linguist amidst multilingual nature of Filipinos. This view is advanced in study of Ziegler (2013) where it emphasized that being continually confronted with issues of "multilingual education and diversity on various and exceedingly heterogeneous levels with regard to plurilingual' realities, stakeholders and key decision-makers have developed visions of the situation of language teacher education and its structures".

Table 5. Extent of student preferences in teacher education careers

Rank	Career	Mean	Preference
1	Filipino	2.99	Moderate
2	Computer	2.78	Moderate
3	Foods	2.71	Moderate
4	English	2.63	Moderate
5	General Science	2.57	Moderate
6	Social Science	2.55	Moderate
7.5	Biology	2.54	Moderate
7.5	Chemistry	2.54	Moderate
9.5	Mathematics	2.53	Moderate
9.5	Physics	2.53	Moderate
11	Agriculture	2.50	Moderate
12	Industrial Arts	2.45	Less
13	Drafting	2.40	Less
14	Electronics	2.39	Less
15	Automotive	2.37	Less
16	Mechanical	2.36	Less
17.5	Electrical	2.33	Less
17.5	Refrigeration and Air-conditioning	2.33	Less
19	Civil	2.30	Less
20	Fishery	2.27	Less
21	Garments	2.25	Less
22	Welding and Fabrication	2.24	Less
23	Statistics	2.20	Less
24	Cosmetology	2.16	Less
	Grand Mean	**2.46**	**Less**

Preference Scale: *None at All* – 1.00 to 1.49, *Less* – 1.50 to 2.50, *Moderate* – 2.51 to 3.49, *High* – 3.50 to 4.50, and *Very High* – 4.51 to 5.00

ISSN: 2149-5939

On these bases, the tertiary schools have the great opportunity to offer teacher education courses in various disciplines that permeates the desires of the students to engage into the various the various activities on teaching-learning process.

4.6. On summary

The holistic picture on the career preferences of the senior secondary students are revealed in Table 6.

Table 6. Summary data on extent of student career preferences

Rank	Career	Mean	Preference
5	medical and health related careers	2.08	Less
2	business, safety, and social related careers	2.36	Less
4	technical and technological careers	2.26	Less
3	engineering careers	2.33	Less
1	teacher education careers	2.46	Less
	Grand Mean	**2.30**	**Less**

Preference Scale: *None at All* – 1.00 to 1.49, *Less* – 1.50 to 2.50, *Moderate* – 2.51 to 3.49, *High* – 3.50 to 4.50, and *Very High* – 4.51 to 5.00

Chi-square values: $X^2 = 0.035$ $df = 4$ $X^2_{.05} = 9.49$

The data unleased information that of the 5 clustered careers, the respondents proved their highest on the teacher education careers with the mean of 2.46, ranked 1; and ranked second were on business, safety, and social related careers that marked the mean of 2.36. Although these clustered careers were all labeled with less preference, the lowest went to the medical and health related careers that scored a mean of 2.08, ranked 5. In sum, the preference of the respondents on these clustered careers was "less" as marked by the grand mean of 2.30. Nevertheless, the data implied the priority courses to be offered in the tertiary schools will be on teacher education while on the medical or health related courses will be the least. This further implied that the senior secondary students find their better employment after graduation in teacher education, thus, they evade from becoming contributors of unemployment.

Unemployment and underemployment are generally hinged with the unintelligent career decision-making that makes the college graduates misfit in the needed workforce of various employment markets. Their career preferences of secondary students are remarkably related to their academic achievements and the availability of work opportunities after graduation. In consideration of the occupation of their fathers, they much choose professional and scientific related courses but least in agricultural fields (Pascual, 2014). The findings of the author in the reference tend to be strengthened with the inclusion of the availability of the courses within the reach of the students in the locality. The respondent in this study gave high preference and vet to enroll in teacher education, on account that it is offered in all Higher Education Institutions in the province of Surigao del Norte.

4.7. Hypothesis test

The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the preferences of the students among the 5 clustered careers was tested using the chi-square for independence. The computed Chi-square of 0.035 proves that there was no significant difference in the career preferences of students. Hence, the null hypothesis was accepted as it did not reach or exceed the required

ISSN: 2149-5939

critical value of 9.49 at 5% error margin and 4 degrees of freedom. Thus, the respondents expressed no remarkable variations in their career preferences. This further suggests that these identified courses in each clustered career may be offered at the same time, although their highest preference was set on Teacher Education programs. The incoming college freshmen of the Surigao del Norte province and Surigao City have their highest preference in the teaching profession, and also those dealing with computers. Moreover, the career preferences of the secondary students are likely similar to all the 5 clustered careers.

The tertiary institutions in the school divisions of Surigao City, Surigao del Norte, and Siargao are encouraged to prioritize offering the courses leading to teacher education with specializations in language sciences, natural sciences, mathematics, computer sciences, technical, and technological careers. School administrators are also urged to facilitate the procurement of the needed materials and equipment for smooth operation of the programs. In addition, the guidance offices are heartened to design annual program on disseminating career information every year to senior secondary students to help the latter make intelligent-career decision making.

References

Badri, M., Alnuaimi, A., J. Mohaidat, J., Rashedi, A.A., G. Yang, & Mazroui, K.A.. (2016). "My science class and expected career choices—a structural equation model of determinants involving Abu Dhabi high school students"**.** *International Journal of STEM Education. 3:12. Available:* https://doi.org/10.1186/s40594-016-0045-0, March 4, 2018

Borchert. M.T. (2002). *Career choice factors of high school students*. Retrieved on December 7, 2014 from, http://www2.uwstout.edu/content/lib/thesis/2002/2002borchertm.pdf

Du Toit, E. & Y.Z. Cuba, Y.Z. (2017). Cost and profit efficiency of listed South African banks pre and post the financial crisis. Available: https://repository.up.ac.za/handle/2263/62848

Edwards, K. & Quinter, M. (2011). *Factors influencing students career choices among secondary school students in Kisumu Municipality, Kenya*. Retrieved on December 4, 2014, from http://goo.gl/WRmS0z

Faikhamta, C., Ketsing, J., Tanak, A., & Chamrat, S. (2018). Science teacher education in Thailand: a challenging journey. *Asia-Pacific Science Education, **4**:3. Available:* https://doi.org/10.1186/s41029-018-0021-8, March 4, 2018

Fizer, D. (2013). *Factors affecting career choices of college students enrolled in agriculture*. Retrieved on November 25, 2014 from, http://www.utm.edu/departments/msanr/_pdfs/Fizer_Research_Project_Final.pdf

Lees, J., Webb, G., Coulston, F., Smart, A., & Remedios. L. (2016). Health professional workforce education in the Asia Pacific. *Population and global health in health professional education. 5:1. Available*: http://jphres.org/index.php/jphres/article/view/658

Liscomb, D. (n.d.). *Socialization and culture influences on career choices*. Retrieved on December 7, 2014, from http://work.chron.com/socialization-culture-influences-career-choices-26088.html

Pascual, N.T. (2014). Factors affecting high school students career preference: A basis for career planning program. *International Journal of Sciences: Basic and Applied Research. Available*: http://gssrr.org/index.php?journal=JournalOfBasicAndApplied&page=article&op=view&path%5B%5D=2261, March 12, 2018

Taber, B.J. (2012). *Time perspective and career decision-making in adults*. Retrieved on December 3, 2014 from http://jca.sagepub.com/content/21/2/200.short

Tremblay, R.C., C. Nikolenyi, C., & Otmar, L. (2003). Peace and Conflict: Alternative Strategies of Governance and Conflict Resolution. *Journal of Comparative Policy Analysis.* 5:2-3. *Available*: https://link.springer.com/article/10.1023/A:1023808318550

Ziegler, G. (2013). Multilingualism and the language education landscape: challenges for teacher training in Europe. *Multilingual Education, 3:1. Available:* https://doi.org/10.1186/2191-5059-3-1, March 4, 2018

ISSN: 2149-5939

IJ§ER
ISSN: 2149-5939

International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research

Online, http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijsser
Volume: 5(1), 2019

Yetişkin psikolojik istismarını tanımak*

Recognizing psychological abuse

Nesrin Duman[1]

Gönderilme tarihi: 24 / 10 / 2018 Kabul tarihi: 02 / 01 / 2019

Öz

İstismar türleri arasında yer alan duygusal istismar diğer bir deyişle psikolojik istismar; bir kişinin başka bir kişiyi bir davranışa tabi tutması ya da maruz bırakması ile karakterize edilen ve anksiyete, kronik depresyon ya da travma sonrası stres bozukluğu da dahil olmak üzere psikolojik travma ile sonuçlanabilen bir istismar türüdür. Psikolojik istismar diğer istismar türlerini şemsiyesi altında toplamasına rağmen; yakın ilişkilerde görülen diğer istismar türlerine (cinsel, fiziksel) nazaran daha az ilgi görmektedir. Psikolojik istismarda gözle görülebilen fiziksel bir bulgunun olmaması bu istismar türünü yıllarca saklı kılabilmektedir. Hatta kişi bu istismar türü ile ebeveynleri vesilesiyle çocukluğunda tanıştıysa, yıllarca psikolojik istismara uğradığının farkında bile olmadan yaşamını sürdürebilmektedir. Bu çalışmada yetişkin psikolojik istismarının daha net anlaşılabilmesi ve konu hakkında farkındalığının arttırılması hedeflenmiştir. Bu amaçla romantik ilişkisi olan 85 katılımcıya psikolojik olarak istismar edici davranış anketi uygulanmıştır. Sonuç olarak katılımcıların romantik ilişkilerinde orta düzeyde istismar edici davranışlara maruz kaldıkları ortaya konmuştur. Ayrıca bu davranışlara maruz kalan katılımcıların %51,28'i farkındalıklarını anket ile sağladıklarını ifade etmişlerdir. Pek az kişinin tanıyabildiği psikolojik istismar, hem bireysel hem de toplumsal sağlığın korunması için fark edilmesi gereken elzem bir konudur.

Anahtar sözcükler: *Psikolojik istismar, psikolojik şiddet, duygusal istismar, yetişkin, ruh sağlığı*

Abstract

Emotional abuse, in other words psychological abuse; is a type of abuse characterized by an individual's exposure to or subordinate to another person, which may result in psychological trauma, including anxiety, chronic depression, or post-traumatic stress disorder. Although psychological abuse collects other types of abuse under its umbrella; it gains less interest than other types of abuse (sexual, physical) seen in intimate relationships. The fact that there is no physical evidence visible in psychological abuse can keep this type of abuse hidden for years. Even if a person is introduced to this type of abuse by his or her parents through his childhood, he can continue his life for years without even realizing that he has suffered psychological abuse. In this study, it is aimed to understand the psychological abuse of adults more clearly and to raise awareness about the topic. For this purpose, 85 participants who have romantic relationship were subjected to a psychologically abusive behavioral questionnaire. As a result, participants were exposed to moderately abusive behaviors in romantic relationships. In addition, 51,28% of the participants exposed to these behaviors stated that they gained their awareness through questionnaires. The psychological abuse that few people can define is an essential issue to be recognized for the protection of both individual and social health

Keywords: *psychological abuse, psychological violence, emotional abuse, adult, mental health*

[1] Dr. Öğretim Üyesi, Bartın Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü, Bartın/TÜRKİYE, nesrinduman@bartin.edu.tr
*Bu çalışma, yazarın "2nd International Conference on New Approaches in Social Sciences and Humanities"te sunduğu "Recognizing Psychological Abuse" başlıklı sözlü bildirinin tam metin bildirisidir.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Duman, N. (2019). Yetişkin psikolojik istismarını tanımak. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 33-43.

1. Giriş

Arapçadan dilimize geçmiş olan "istismar" sözcüğü Türk Dil Kurumu Sözlüğü'nde "sömürme", "birinin iyi niyetini kötüye kullanma" olarak tanımlanmaktadır ("İstismar", t.y.). "İstismar etmek" ise, kişi ya da kişilerin iyi niyetini kötüye kullanarak istifade sağlamak, yararlanmak, bir düşünceyi kötüye kullanarak zarar vermeyi hedeflemek, karşısındakinin kendi rızası olmadan ve iradesini dikkate almadan sömürmek gibi anlamları içermektedir ("İstismar hakkında", t.y.). İstismar tüm toplumlarda karşılaşılan, kültüre, ırka ve dine bağlı olmadan her toplumda ve her gelişim düzeyinde yaşanan bir olgudur (Ersanlı, Yılmaz ve Özcan, 2013). Tanımlardan anlaşılacağı üzere "istismar" kelime anlamıyla sadece belirli bir yaş grubundaki insanları değil tüm gelişim düzeyindeki (çocuk, ergen, yetişkin, yaşlı) bireyleri kapsayıcı bir nitelikte kullanılıyor olsa da; Türk Ceza Kanunu (TCK)'nda özellikle çocuklara yönelik suç oluşturan eylemleri tanımlarken "istismar" kelimesinin (örneğin TCK-103. madde: çocukların cinsel istismarı); yetişkinler için ise "saldırı" ve "şiddet" gibi kelimelerin (örneğin TCK-102. madde: cinsel saldırı) kullanılıyor olması kelimenin kullanım alanını daraltmakta, terminolojik karışıklığa mahal vermektedir. Ülkemizde hal böyle iken yabancı literatüre bakıldığında istismar (abuse) kavramının daha geniş bir kullanım alanına sahip olduğu; terimin sadece çocuklar için değil tüm yaş grupları için kullanıldığı görülmektedir. Araştırmalar da istismarın farklılıklar gösterse de sadece çocuk, kadın ve yaşlı olarak gruplanamayacağını, yetişkin bireylerin geniş bir yelpazede bu olguya maruz kaldığını göstermektedir (Ersanlı, Yılmaz ve Özcan, 2013). Bu çalışmada da istismar kelimesi yetişkinlere yönelik sömürücü davranışları tanımlamak için kullanılmıştır.

2. Psikolojik istismar nedir?

İstismar türleri arasında yer alan duygusal istismar diğer bir deyişle psikolojik istismar; bir kişinin başka bir kişiyi bir davranışa tabi tutması ya da maruz bırakması ile karakterize edilen ve anksiyete, kronik depresyon ya da travma sonrası stres bozukluğu da dahil olmak üzere psikolojik travma ile sonuçlanabilen bir istismar türüdür ("What is", 2017). Psikolojik istismar tek başına gözlemlenebileceği gibi, diğer istismar türlerine de eşlik ederek ortaya çıkabilmektedir (Ersanlı, Yılmaz ve Özcan, 2013). Klinik çalışmalar psikolojik istismarın fiziksel bir istismar/şiddet bulgusu yokken ortaya çıkabildiğini, ancak fiziksel istismarın/şiddetin psikolojik istismar olmadan ortaya çıkmadığını göstermektedir (Shepard ve Campbell, 1992:293). Bu haliyle psikolojik istismar diğer istismar türlerini de kapsamaktadır (Garbarino, Guttman, & Seeley, 1986). Olgunun diğer istismar türlerini şemsiyesi altında toplamasına rağmen; psikolojik istismar yakın ilişkilerdeki diğer istismar türlerine (cinsel, fiziksel) nazaran daha az ilgi görmektedir (akt. Abowitz, Knox & Zusman, 2010:118). Shepard ve Campbell (1992) mağduru terörize etmek için fiziksel gücün kullanılmadığı istismar edici davranışların artan bir şekilde gözlemlendiğini belirtmiştir. Psikolojik istismarda gözle görülebilen fiziksel bir bulgunun olmaması bu istismar türünü yıllarca saklı kılabilmektedir. Shepard ve Campbell (1992) bu davranışların oldukça geniş bir yelpazede vuku bulduğunu eklemiştir. Pek çok yazara (örneğin Schneider v.d., 2005; Iwaniec v.d., 2006; Shaffer, Yates ve Egeland, 2009) göre psikolojik (duygusal) istismar bütün istismar türlerinin merkezinde yer alan ve ayırt edici bir problem olarak da görülmektedir (akt. Ersanlı, Yılmaz ve Özcan, 2013). Neredeyse bütün fiziksel istismar mağdurlarının psikolojik veya duygusal istismara da maruz kaldıkları bulgusuna rağmen, psikolojik istismara gösterilen ilginin boyutu yine değişmemektedir (akt. Abowitz, Knox & Zusman, 2010:118).

ISSN: 2149-5939

Duman, N. (2019). Recognizing psychological abuse. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 33-43.

Psikolojik istismar, duygusal istismarın yanı sıra literatürde pek çok farklı kavram ile de adlandırılmaktadır. Psikolojik istismar konusunun anlaşılmasında bir diğer kavram karmaşasına yol açan bu durumun da açıklanması önemlidir.

3. Psikolojik istismar ile benzer kavramlar

Literatürde psikolojik istismar ile birbiri yerine kullanılan pek çok kavram yer almaktadır (Tablo 1).

Tablo 1. Psikolojik istismar ile benzer kavramlar

Terim (TR)	Sonuç sayısı (TR)	Terim (EN)	Sonuç sayısı (EN)
Duygusal istismar	188	Emotional abuse	19.966
Psikolojik istismar	55	Psychological abuse	19.080
Psikolojik kötü muamele	3	Psychological maltreatment	2.794
Duygusal kötü muamele	0	Emotional maltreatment	2.154
Mental işkence	0	Mental cruelty	1.483
Psikolojik olarak hırpalama	0	Psychological battering	120

Not: Ebscohost veri tabanı 26.09.2018 tarihinde taranmıştır.

Akademik araştırmalar için önemli bir veri tabanı olan Ebscohost üzerinde Tablo 1'de yer alan Türkçe ve İngilizce terimler ile tarama yapılmıştır. "Duygusal istismar" anahtar sözcüğü ile yapılan taramada Türkçe dilinde 188 yayının bulunduğu; "emotional abuse" anahtar sözcüğü ile yapılan taramada ise İngilizce dilinde 19.966 yayının olduğu görülmüştür. "Psikolojik istismar" anahtar sözcüğü ile yapılan taramada Türkçe dilinde 55 yayının bulunduğu; "psychological abuse" anahtar sözcüğü ile yapılan taramada ise İngilizce dilinde 19.080 yayının olduğu görülmüştür. Tablo 1'den anlaşılacağı üzere Türkçe yayınlarda da en çok "duygusal istismar" anahtar sözcüğü ile yayınların bulunduğu, "psikolojik istismar" kelimesiyle yapılan yayınların ikinci sırada olduğu; bu haliyle ülkemizde bu olgunun "duygusal istismar" adlandırması ile daha yaygın olarak bilindiği söylenebilir. "Psikolojik kötü muamele" ve "duygusal kötü muamele" ifadelerinin Ebscohost ver tabanında Türkçe yapılan yayınlarda kullanılmadığı ortaya çıkan bir diğer sonuçtur.

ABD'de, psikolojik kötü muamele veya psikolojik istismar terimi, 1983 Uluslararası Çocuk ve Gençlik Psikolojik İstismarı Konferansı'ndan beri giderek daha fazla kullanılmaktadır ve genel olarak duygusal istismar kategorisini dahil etmek veya kapsamak için kullanılmaktadır (O'Hagan, 1995). "Mental işkence" ifadesi de Türkçe yayınlarda kullanılmayan ancak İngilizce kaynaklarda karşılaşılan bir diğer terimdir. Mental işkence; fiziksel şiddet içermeyen ancak başka birinin duygusal olarak acı çekmesine neden olan davranışlar olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Mental işkence Amerika'da boşanma davalarında tarafların boşanma gerekçeleri olarak mahkemeye sunduğu, bu davalarda sıklıkla karşılaşılan bir ibaredir. Şüphe, kıskançlık, yalan, anlaşılmaz-belirsiz kişisel şikayetler gibi davranışlar mental işkenceye örnek davranışlar arasında sayılabilmektedir (Levinger, 1966). Türkçe yayınlarda geçmeyen "Psikolojik Olarak Hırpalama" ifadesi ise ilk kez Garbarino, Guttman ve Seeley (1986) tarafından kullanılarak literatüre kazandırılmıştır. Garbarino ve arkadaşları (1986) çocuklara yönelik her türlü kötü muamelenin psikolojik bir yanı ve sonucu olduğunu, bu sonuçların sosyo-kültürel bağlama ve çocuğun içinde bulunduğu gelişim evresine göre farklılaştığını ileri sürmüştür (akt. Gil, 1987).

Görüldüğü gibi literatürde psikolojik istismar ile birbiri yerine kullanılan benzer kavramlar yer almaktadır. Bazı yazarlar duygusal istismarın anlaşılması güç bir kavram olmasından dolayı

ISSN: 2149-5939

sıklıkla psikolojik istismar olarak kullanıldığını ileri sürmektedir (akt. Ersanlı, Yılmaz ve Özcan, 2013). Ancak bu noktada olguyu psikolojik istismar ya da duygusal istismar olarak (ya da başka bir ifadeyle) adlandırmanın kavramsal bir farklılaşmaya yol açmayacağı pek çok çalışmacı tarafından ileri sürülmektedir. Glasser (2002)'a göre psikolojik istismar ile duygusal istismar arasında bir ayrıma gitmek yararlı değildir. Royse (2016) çocuklar üzerine yaptığı araştırmalarında duygusal olarak istismar edilmiş çocukların psikolojik olarak da istismar edildiklerini; bu nedenle bu iki kavram arasında ayrım yapmaya değmediğini ifade etmektedir (s.5). Sonuç olarak psikolojik istismar ile birbiri yerine kullanılan kavramlar arasında ayrım yapılmasının konuya bir katkı sağlamayacağı aşikârdır. Bu nedenle kavramsal farklılaşmalarla fazla vakit kaybedilmesinin bir anlamı bulunmamaktadır.

4. Psikolojik istismar davranışları nelerdir?

Çay (2006) yaptığı araştırmada kadınların duygusal istismar olarak kabul ettikleri davranışları herkesin içinde küçük düşürülmesi, kendisine küfredilmesi, aptal, salak gibi yakıştırmalar yapılması; düşüncelerine değer verilmemesi, bağırılması, utandırılması, şiddet ve korkuya dayalı iletişim kurulması, gücünün ya da yeterliliğinin kabul görmemesi, duygusal olarak kabul görmemesi, jest ve mimiklerle korkutulması, telefon ya da elektronik postalarının kontrol edilmesi olarak sıralamaktadır gösterilmektedir (akt. Ersanlı, Yılmaz ve Özcan, 2013). Aldatmak, terk etmek (Kumar v.d., 2005) küsmeler, yok saymalar, başkalarına kendi yanında daha fazla değer verilmesi gibi tutum ve davranışlar da duygusal istismar içinde gösterilmektedir (akt. Ersanlı, Yılmaz ve Özcan, 2013). Bazı fiziksel davranış türleri, fiziksel şiddeti temsil ettikleri için duygusal istismar olarak kabul edilebilir (Marshall, 1996). Bu davranışlar arasında; nesnelerin fırlatılması, duvarın tekmelenmesi, mağdura karşı parmak sallanması ya da yumruğun sıkılması, mağdur arabadayken pervasızca araç kullanmak ya da mağdur için değeri olan objeleri yok etmekle tehdit etmek sayılabilir. Mala verilen zarar, ciddi psikolojik, sosyal ve ekonomik maliyetlerle sonuçlanan "sembolik şiddet" olarak kabul edilen bir duygusal istismar biçimidir (Engel, 2002). Mağdurun evcil hayvanlarına uygulanan zarar, hem insanlarda hem de hayvanlarda acı çekmeye neden olması itibarıyla duygusal olarak kötü muameleye yol açabilmektedir (Faver & Strand, 2007). Genel bir sıralama yapılacak olursa, psikolojik istismarın işaret ve semptomları arasında sıklıkla;

- Kişiyi görmezden gelme,
- İzole etme,
- Taklit etme,
- Alay etme,
- Dışlama,
- Onun için önemli olan bir şeyi elinden almakla ya da terketmekle korkutma/tehdit etme,
- Kişiyi yetersiz kılma ya da kendisini yetersiz hissettirme,
- Hakaret etme,
- Aşağılama,
- Düzenli olarak hatalarını ve eksiklerini vurgulama,
- Kontrol etmeye çalışma,
- Çocuk gibi muamele etme,
- 'Fazla hassas' olmakla suçlama,
- Davranışlarını düzeltme,
- Başarı-hayal ve umutlarını küçümseme,

ISSN: 2149-5939

Duman, N. (2019). Recognizing psychological abuse. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 33-43.

- Cinselliği kontrol ve manipüle etmek için kullanma sayılabilmektedir.

5. Risk altındaki gruplar ve özellikleri

Duygusal (psikolojik) istismar sınıf ortamı, iş yeri, kişinin geldiği aile, kendi ailesi gibi ortamlarda çalışılmıştır (akt. Abowitz, Knox & Zusman, 2010:118). Psikolojik istismar üzerine yapılan ilk dönem çalışmaları; kadınların erkeklere göre daha yüksek mağduriyet yaşadıklarını göstermiş olsa da (Shepard ve Campbell, 1992); yıllar geçtikçe ortaya çıkan istatistikler erkeklerin de mağduriyet oranının artmakta olduğunu (Harned, 2001) göstermiştir. Yapılan son dönem çalışmalar (Anderson, 2010; Holtzworth-Munroe, 2005; Sears, Byers, Whelan, & Pierre, 2006) erkeklerin de kadınlar kadar romantik ilişkilerinde istismar mağduru olabildiğini ortaya koymaktadır (akt. Abowitz, Knox & Zusman, 2010:117). Bu haliyle kadınlar ve erkeklerin her ikisi de istismarın yıkıcı fiziksel ve zihinsel sonuçlarından muzdariplerdir (akt. Abowitz, Knox & Zusman, 2010:117).

Romantik ilişkilerdeki istismar ne yeni bir konudur ne de yaş, cinsel yönelim, ırk ya da sosyo ekonomik düzey ile ilişkilidir (akt. Abowitz, Knox & Zusman, 2010:117-8). Duygusal (psikolojik) istismar, diğer yakın ilişkilerdeki istismar türlerinde olduğu gibi birçok ilişki teorisyeni tarafından kişinin partneri üzerinde güç kazanması ve kontrol sahibi olması için kullanılan bir taktik olarak kavramsallaştırılmaktadır (akt. Abowitz, Knox & Zusman, 2010:119). Sears ve arkadaşları (2006) dokuzuncu ve onbirinci sınıf öğrencilerinin yakın ilişkilerindeki istismar üzerine yaptığı araştırmada, genç erkeklerin maskülenlik kurmak ve kontrol sağlamak amacıyla psikolojik istismarı kullandıklarını ileri sürmüştür. Johnson (2009) gibi bazı çalışmacılar duygusal istismarı; davranışları kontrol etmekten başlayan zorlama ve tehdit, taklit etme, aşağılama, küçümseme, eleştirici yorumlarda bulunmak, günah keçisi yapmak ve izole etmeye uzanan geniş bir yelpazedeki davranışları içeren "yakın terörizm" (intimate terrorism) olarak adlandırmaktadır (akt. Abowitz, Knox ve Zusman, 2010:119).

Loring (1994) duygusal olarak istismar edilmiş kadınların, fiziksel istismara maruz kalmış kadınlardan daha yalnız ve umutsuz olabildiklerini ileri sürmüştür. Jacobson ve arkadaşları (1996), istismarcı bir evliliğin sona ermesi için, fiziksel şiddetin sıklığından ziyade duygusal istismarın yoğunluğunun daha iyi bir gösterge olabildiğini, zamanla duygusal istismarın, fiziksel istismar kadar güçlü bir kontrol yöntemi olduğunu ileri sürmüştür. Yaş açısından bakıldığında genç – yaşlı kadınlar arasında istismar oranlarının benzer olduğu, kadınların ömür boyu risk altındaki hassas bir grup oldukları görülmektedir (Karakurt ve Silver, 2013:5).

6. Çalışmanın amacı

Bu çalışmada yetişkinlerin romantik ilişkilerinde psikolojik istismar davranışlarına maruz kalma düzeyleri ile psikolojik istismar hakkında farkındalık seviyelerinin ne olduğunun araştırılması amaçlanmıştır.

7. Yöntem

7.1. Araştırma modeli

Bu araştırma için çok sayıda elemandan oluşan bir evrende, evren hakkında genel bir kanıya varmak amacıyla "genel tarama modeli" kullanılmıştır (Karasar, 2018:111).

ISSN: 2149-5939

7.2. Evren ve örneklem

Bu araştırmanın evrenini romantik ilişkisi olan yetişkin bireyler oluşturmaktadır. Uygun örneklem seçiminde evrendeki tüm elemanların birbirine eşit seçilme şansına sahip oldukları "oransız eleman örnekleme" yöntemi uygulanmıştır (Karasar, 2018:151). Facebook sosyal medya platformunda arkadaşlık gruplarına üye olan yetişkinlerden ilişkisi olanlar örneklem kapsamına alınmıştır. Araştırma sorularına yanıt vermiş toplam 85 katılımcı bulunmaktadır.

7.3. Veriler ve toplanması

Veri toplama tekniği olarak yazılı iletişim yoluyla veri toplama tekniği olan "yazışma" kullanılmıştır (Karasar, 2018:221). Belirli bir amaç ve plana göre düzenlenmiş soru listesi olan "anket", bu veri toplama tekniğinde yaygın olarak kullanılan araçlardandır (Karasar, 2018:221). Anket, elektronik ortamda doldurulması istenerek uygulanabilmektedir (Karasar, 2018:225). Çalışmada araştırmacı tarafından hazırlanan online anket web tabanlı anket çözümleri sağlayıcısı olan "SurveyMonkey" aracılığıyla 2018 Temmuz ayında katılımcılara ulaştırılmıştır.

7.4. Gereç

Araştırma için 17 maddeden oluşan psikolojik istismar davranışlarını (PİD) içeren anket (sormaca) ile 5 sorudan oluşan Kişisel Bilgi Formu (KBF) hazırlanmıştır.

Psikolojik İstismar Davranışları (PİD) Anketi: 17 maddeden oluşan bu anket "SurveyMonkey" yazılımı ile çevrimiçi olarak hazırlanmıştır. Anketi (sormaca) cevaplayanların PİD algıları "(0) hiçbir zaman, (1) nadiren, (2) bazen, (3) sıklıkla" şeklinde dörtlü Likert ölçeğine göre düzenlenmiştir. Anketin sonucunda 0-17 puan düşük, 18-34 puan orta, 35-51 puan yüksek düzeyde psikolojik olarak istismar edici davranışa maruz kalış olarak değerlendirilmiştir.

Kişisel Bilgi Formu (KBF): Toplam 5 sorudan oluşan KBF; yaş, cinsiyet, gelir düzeyinin belirlendiği demografik bilgileri içermektedir. PİD Anketin sonunda yer alan iki soru katılımcıların psikolojik olarak istismar edici davranışlar hakkında bilgi sahibi olduktan sonra, konu hakkındaki farkındalık düzeylerini ölçmeyi amaçlamaktadır.

7.5. Verilerin çözümlenmesi ve yorumlanması

Araştırmanın uygulama kısmında veriler "SurveyMonkey" web sitesi aracılığı ile toplanmıştır. Elde edilen nicel veri ilk aşamada web sitesi analizleri ile sağlanmış, ikinci aşamada tanımlayıcı istatistikî analizler SPSS-22 ististiksel analiz programı ile yapılmıştır. Yanıtların karşılaştırılmasında parametrik testlerden tek yönlü varyans analizi (ANOVA), bunun dışındaki yanıtların değerlendirilmesinde soruların her maddesi için her bir verinin yinelenme sayınını gösteren (Karasar, 2018:259) frekans analizi yapılarak sıklık yüzdeleri bulunmuştur. Verilerin çözümlenmesi ve yorumlanmasında .05 anlamlılık düzeyi kullanılmıştır (Duman, 2018).

8. Bulgular

Katılımcıların %86'sını kadınlar, %14'ünü erkekler oluşturmaktadır. Katılımcıların yaş dağılımı Dünya Sağlık Örgütü (WHO) 2016 yılı gruplandırmasına göre; %94,81'i 19-65; %3,90'ı 15-18; %1,30'u 66-79 yaş aralığındadır. Bu kişilerin gelir düzeyleri incelendiğinde %83,12'sinin orta gelirli; %9,09'unun düşük gelirli; %7,79'unun yüksek gelirli olduğu görülmektedir (Tablo 2).

ISSN: 2149-5939

Duman, N. (2019). Recognizing psychological abuse. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 33-43.

Tablo 2. Katılımcılara ilişkin veriler

		N	%
Cinsiyet	Kadın	73	86
	Erkek	12	14
Yaş	15-18	3	3,9
	19-65	81	94,8
	66-79	1	1,30
Gelir düzeyi	Düşük	8	9,09
	Orta	71	83,1
	Yüksek	6	7,7
Toplam		85	100

Araştırma sonuçlarında cinsiyete göre PİD maruz kalma düzeyi anlamlı düzeyde farklılaşmış olup ($p<.05$); farklılaşmanın yönü kadınlar lehine bulunmuştur. Bunun dışında yaş ve demografik değişkenlere göre anlamlı farklılaşma tespit edilememiştir ($p>.05$). Katılımcıların PİD anketine verdikleri yanıtların puanlarına bakıldığında; katılımcıların ortalama 31 puan ile romantik ilişkilerinde orta seviyede PİD'e maruz kaldıkları görülmektedir. PİD frekans analizi sonuçlarına bakıldığında "kontrol etmeye çalışma" (%48), "davranışları düzeltme/tenkit etme" %47 oranla sık karşılaşılan psikolojik olarak istismar edici davranışlar arasında gösterilmektedir (Tablo 3).

Tablo 3. Psikolojik istismar davranışları frekans analizi sonuçları

Psikolojik istismar davranışları	**%**
Görmezden gelme	%39
İzole etme	%34
Taklit etme	%35
Alay etme	%34
Dışlama	%26
Kişi için önemli olan bir şeyi elinden almakla korkutma/tehdit etme	%24
Yetersiz kılma ya da yetersiz hissettirme	%36
Terk etmekle korkutma/tehdit etme	%30
Hakaret etme	%32
Aşağılamak	%29
Düzenli olarak hataları ve eksikleri vurgulama	%45
Kontrol etmeye çalışma	%48
Çocuk (ya da hizmetçi) gibi muamele etme	%34
"Fazla hassas" olmakla suçlama	%44
Davranışları düzeltme/tenkit etme	%47
Başarı-hayal ve umutları küçümseme	%31
Cinselliği kontrol ve manipüle etmek için kullanma	%24

Katılımcıların PİD anketi sonunda, elde edilen puan göz önüne alınarak psikolojik olarak istismar edici davranışlara maruz kaldıklarını düşünüp düşünmedikleri sorulmuştur. Psikolojik olarak istismar edici davranışlara maruz kaldıklarını düşünüyorlarsa bunu ilk ne zaman fark ettikleri sorusuna verdikleri yanıtlar incelendiğinde; katılımcıların %51,28'i bu anketi yaparken fark ettiğini; 48,72'sinin ise durumun daha önceden farkında oldukları tespit edilmiştir.

9. Tartışma, sonuç ve öneriler

Bu çalışmada yetişkinlerin romantik ilişkilerinde psikolojik istismar davranışlarına maruz kalma düzeyleri ile psikolojik istismar hakkında farkındalık seviyelerinin ne olduğunun araştırılması amaçlanmıştır. Araştırma sonucunda yetişkinlerin romantik ilişkilerinde psikolojik olarak

ISSN: 2149-5939

istismar edici davranışlara orta düzeyde maruz kaldıkları ortaya konmuştur ($\bar{X}$=31). Karakurt ve Silver (2013) romantik ilişkilerde psikolojik (duygusal) istismarın ABD'de yaygın olduğunu ve muhtemelen ilişkilerdeki kötü muamelenin en yaygın biçimi olduğunu ileri sürmektedirler (s.3). Çalışmamız literatürde yer alan bu bilgiyi destekler nitelikte sonuçlara ulaşmıştır.

Araştırmada bir diğer ilgi çekici bulgu ise, katılımcıların %51,28'inin bu davranışlara maruz kaldıklarını yapılan anket sonucunda tanımlayabildikleri, daha önceden bu durumun farkında olmadıklarıdır. Abugideiri (2010) Amerika'da pek çok kadının istismar edici bir ilişkide olduklarını ancak terapi seanslarında tanımlayabildiklerini ifade etmiştir. Araştırma sonuçları katılımcıların yarısının (%51,28) romantik ilişkilerinde karşılaştıkları psikolojik olarak istismar edici davranışların farkında olmadıklarını, farkındalığın uygulama sonucu kazanıldığını göstermektedir. Bu bulgu dikkatleri psikolojik istismar hakkında farkındalığın neden düşük olduğuna dair yanıtlara yöneltmektedir. Konu hakkında yapılan çalışmalar kişinin bu istismar türü ile ebeveynleri vesilesiyle çocukluğunda tanıştıysa, yıllarca psikolojik istismara uğradığının farkında bile olmadan yaşamını sürdürebildiğini göstermektedir ("Dr.James Garbarino", 2013). Bu bakımdan bireylerdeki düşük farkındalığın sebepleri üzerine ebeveyn yetiştirme tutumları, çocukluk döneminde duygusal istismara maruz kalma, algılan duygusal istismar davranışları gibi alanlarda yapılacak yeni çalışmalara ihtiyaç vardır. İleriki dönem çalışmalarından elde edilen verilerin; bu konunun nedenlerine ilişkin daha açıklayıcı bilgiler sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir.

Son söz olarak psikolojik istismar içsel duygu ve düşünceleri etkileyebildiği gibi kişinin hayatı üzerinde de kontrol sahibi olabilen, oldukça yıkıcı etkilere sahip bir istismar türüdür. Psikolojik olarak istismar edilmek kişinin kendini etrafındaki dünyada belirsiz, kendi evinde bile güvensiz hissettirebilmektedir. Bireyin yakın ilişkilerini, arkadaşlıklarını ve hatta kişinin kendisiyle olan ilişkisini altüst edip yıkabilen ancak pek az kişinin tanıyabildiği psikolojik istismar, hem bireysel hem de toplumsal sağlığın korunması için fark edilmesi gereken elzem bir konudur.

10. Sınırlılıklar

Çalışma araştırmaya katılan 85 katılımcı ile sınırlıdır. Örneklem büyüklüğü Türkiye'de romantik ilişkisi olan bireyleri temsil için yeterli değildir.

Kaynakça

Abowitz, D. A., Knox, D. & Zusman, M. (2010). Emotional abuse among undergraduates in romantic relationships. *International Journal of Sociology of the Family*, Vol. 36, No. 2 (Autumn 2010):117-38.

Abugideiri, S. (2010). The peaceful families Project: addressing domestic violence in muslim communities. *Partner Abuse*, 1(3): 363-76.

Anderson, K. L. (2010). Conflict, power, and violence in families. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 72 (3): 726-42. Doi: https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2010.00727.x

Çay, C. (2006). *Çalışan Kadınların İşyerinde Kadın İstismarı Konusundaki Görüşlerinin İncelenmesi.* (Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi). Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Ankara.

Dr. James Garbarino on 'The Psychologically Battered Child' (2013, 5 Aralık). Yayıncı: PsychAlive [Video]. Erişim adresi: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=omH7diUeddM

Duman, N. (2018). Koruyucu ve destekleyici önlem olarak çocukların mağdur olarak bulunduğu davalarda hayvanların kullanımı. R*&S - Research Studies Anatolia Journal*, Vol:1, Issue:2; pp: 368-375.

Engel, B. (2002). *The emotionally abusive relationship: How to stop being abused and how to stop abusing.* New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

Ersanlı, K., Yılmaz, M. ve Özcan, K. (2013). Algılanan duygusal istismar ölçeği (adiö): geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması. *Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 2013, 32(1), 147-64.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Faver, C. & Strand, E. (2007). Fear, guilt, and grief: Harm to pets and the emotional abuse of women. *Journal of Emotional Abuse*, 7:51–70.

Garbarino, J., Guttman, E., & Seeley, J. W. (1986). *Psychologically Battered Child*. Jossey-Bass Publishers: San Francisco.

Gil, D. G. (1987). *The psychologically battered child, (Book Review).* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, pp.286. https://doi.org/10.1002/1098-2337(1987)13:6<377::AID-AB2480130606>3.0.CO;2-T

Glaser, D. (2002). Emotional Abuse and Neglect (Psychological Maltreatment): A Conceptual Framework. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, 26:697-714.

Harned, M. S. (2001). Abused women or abused men? An examination of the context and outcomes of dating violence. *Violence and Victims*, 16:269-285.

İstismar (t.y.). Türk Dil Kurumu güncel Türkçe sözlük içinde. Erişim adresi: http://www.tdk.gov.tr/index.php?option=com_gts&arama=gts&guid=TDK.GTS.5bdc7fd7aa5dc9.64972835

İstismar hakkında bilgiler (t.y.). Nedir sözlük içinde. Erişim adresi: https://nedir.ileilgili.org/istismar

Iwaniec, D., Larkin, E., Higgins, S. (2006). Research review: risk and resilince in cases of emotional abuse. *Child and Family Social Work*, 11: 73-82.

Karakurt, G. & Silver, K. E. (2013). Emotional abuse in intimate relationships: the role of gender and age. *Violence Vict.* 2013; 28 (5): 804–21.

Karasar, N. (2018). *Bilimsel araştırma yöntemi: kavramlar temel ilkeler teknikler*. (33.basım). Nobel: Ankara.

Kumar, S., Jeyaseelan, L., Suresh, S., Ahuja, R. C. (2005). Domestic violence and its mental health correlates in Indian women. *British Journal of Psychiatry*, 187:62-7.

Levinger, G. (1966). Sources of marital dissatisfaction among applicants for divorce. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 36 (5): 803-7. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1939-0025.1966.tb02407.x

Marshall L. (1996). Psychological abuse of women: Six distinct clusters. *Journal of Family Violence*, 11(4):379–409.

O'Hagan K. P. (1995). Emotional and psychological abuse: problems of definition. *Child Abuse & Neglect,* 19 (4):449-61.

Parker, B., Mcfarlane, J., Soeken, K., Torres, S., & Campbell, D. (1993). Physical and emotional abuse ın pregnancy. *Nursing Research*, 42(3):173-8. doi:10.1097/00006199-199305000-00009

Royse, D. (2016). *Emotional abuse of children essential information*. New York and London: Routledge Taylor&Francis Group.

Schneider, M. W., Ross, A., Graham, J. C., Zielinski, A. (2005). Do allegations of emotional maltreatment predict developmental outcomes beyond that of other forms of maltreatment? *Child Abuse&Neglect*, 29:513-32.

Shaffer, A., Yates, T. M., Egeland, B. R. (2009). The relation of emotional maltreatment to early adolescent competence: developmental process ın a prospective study. *Child Abuse&Neglect*, 33:36-44.

Shepard, M. F. & Campbell, J. A. (1992). The abusive behavior inventory a measure of psychological and physical abuse. *J Interpers Violence*, 7: 291-305. DOI: 10.1177/088626092007003001

What is psychological abuse? what does psychological abuse mean? psychological abuse meaning. (2017, 5 Mayıs). Yayıncı:The Audiopedia. [Video]. Erişim adresi: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=A9yjLAUpB9U

ISSN: 2149-5939

Duman, N. (2019). Yetişkin psikolojik istismarını tanımak. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 33-43.

Extended abstract in English

Psychological abuse, also referred to as “psychological violence”, “emotional abuse”, “chronic verbal aggression” or “mental abuse”, is a form of abuse, characterized by the subjecting, or the exposing of a person to another person with behavior that may result in psychological trauma including anxiety, chronic depression, or post-traumatic stress disorder. Ignoring, isolating, mocking, humiliating, exclusion, Threats of abandonment of him/her or threatening to take away something that is important to them, making them incapable or making someone feel inadequate or insulted, regularly pointing out mistakes and deficiencies, trying to control, belittling, underestimating their feelings, accusing them of being “too sensitive” in order to deflect their abusive remarks, correcting behaviors, trivializing accomplishments, hopes and dreams, withhold sex as a way to manipulate and control can be considered as some of the signs and symptoms of psychological abuse. This type of abuse can be hidden for years because of the lack of visible physical evidence. Even more if the person has met this abuse by his or her parents in childhood, they can continue their lives for years without being aware of being psychologically abused.

Aim of the study: This study was conducted to investigate the frequency of emotionally abusive behaviors in adults' romantic relationships.

Research question: How often individuals experience emotionally abusive behaviors in romantic relationships is the question of the study.

Research model: A questionnaire which is a quantitative research model has been used to asses emotionally abusive behaviors.

Participants: 85 participants who are in a romantic relationship volunteered the study on social media. Participants were divided into three age groups according to World Health Organization (WHO) age classification. The first age group included 15-18 years old with a ratio of 3.90%; the second age group included 19-65 years old with a ratio of 94.81% and the last group was from between the age of 66-79 with a ratio of 1.30%. In the study 85.71% of participants were female and 14.29% were male. According to their incomes 83.12% of the participants had middle socio economic level, 9.09% of the participants had low socio economic level and 7.79% of the participants had high socio economic level.

Method: Participants answered the online survey which consists of 17 questions through the surveymonkey.com website. Data were collected in July 2018.

Materials: This study used the questionnaire which was prepared by the researcher. The items were examined with 4-point Likert type (never -1 point-, rarely -2 points-, sometimes -3 points-, often -4 points-) scale. These 17 items consist of the most experienced emotionally abusive behaviors in the adult romantic relationships described in the literature. The score between of 0-17 points showed low exposure; 18-34 points showed middle exposure; 35-51 showed high exposure of emotionally abusive behaviors.

Analysis: Frequency analysis has been made in the surveymonkey.com analysis page. One-way ANOVA analysis was used to determine the significant difference between of demographical variables and 17 items.

Results: Participant responses were concentrated in the 31% range which means middle exposure to emotionally abusive behavior in their relationships. Among these behaviors described in the literature as psychologically abusive, “accusation of being too sensitive” was found to be 44%,

ISSN: 2149-5939

Duman, N. (2019). Recognizing psychological abuse. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 33-43.

"regularly pointing out mistakes and deficiencies" 45%, "correcting /criticizing behaviors" 47%, and "trying to control" 48%. The other abusive behaviors described in the literature such as ignoring, isolating, mocking etc. were found between of 29-34% prevelance in adult's romantic relationships. The duration of psychological abuse was 72,50% for a period of several months; 1-2 years with a rate of 12.50% and with a period of 6-10 years; 2-5 years with a rate of 2.50%. It has been found that 48.72% of the participants had realized that they had been exposed to emotionally abusive behaviors before the questionnaire were taken and 51.28% of participants stated that with the help of questionnaire, they gained awareness of these behaviors.

Conclusion: Psychological abuse can take control over one's life, severely affect their feelings and thoughts. One may feel uncertain and unsafe in the world around them, even in their own home. Psychological abuse also defined as emotional abuse, which can destroy individual's close relationships, friendships, and even the person's relationship to himself/herself, nevertheless only a few can perceive, is an essential issue that must be recognized for both individual and social mental health. This research was conducted in order to better understand the frequency of emotionally abusive behaviors and raise public awareness.

Keywords: psychological abuse, psychological violence, emotional abuse, adult, mental health.

IJ§ER
ISSN: 2149-5939
International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research
Online, http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijsser
Volume: 5(1), 2019

Understanding EFL students' motivation for participating in extracurricular contests: Insights from China

Xiaoquan Pan[1] and Zhengdong Gan[2]

Received date: 22 / 10 / 2018 Accepted date: 05 / 01 / 2019

Abstract

This study aims to provide an understanding of English as foreign language (EFL) university students' perception and experience of participating in extracurricular English contests in China. In this study, the extrinsic factors and intrinsic beliefs that contribute to university students' motivation to participate in extracurricular English contests during their study at university were examined. Forty-nine students who have participated in extracurricular English contests were investigated in questionnaire, eight of whom were invited for in-depth semi-structured interviews. Research findings show that instructors' support is the highest external factor that motivated students to participate in extracurricular English contests. On the other hand, rewards (monetary or honorary) constituted a very important factor, and school's support and parent's/friends' encouragement are other important factors that contribute to their willingness to participate. Additionally, the research also revealed the crucial importance of their strong intrinsic beliefs.

Keywords: *student motivation, EFL students, extracurricular contest*

1. Introduction

With the deepening of higher education reform, colleges and universities in China pay more and more attention to the development of students' core literacy. it is increasingly recognized that colleges and universities represent a viable venue in which to teach competencies and inherently have mandates aimed at promoting students' holistic development and all-round success (Kinzie & Kuh, 2017) rather than solely emphasizing success on standardized tests (Scales et al., 2006). Therefore, to comprehensively facilitate university students' positive development, extracurricular activities, which are defined as developmental activities performed by students that fall outside of the normal school curriculum and are practiced outside of regular class hours (Forneris, Camiré & Williamson, 2015), are widely utilized. As Feldman and Matjasko (2005) state "extracurricular activities offer a means to express and explore one's identity, generate social and human capital, and offer a challenging setting outside of academics" (161). Relevant research evidence (eg. Chan, 2016; Han and Kwon, 2018) revealed that extracurricular activities may enhance students' academic outcomes, academic confidence, and their sense of self-efficacy at schools, cultivate students' problem-solving, analytical and critical skills, and foster students' positive psychological characters and interpersonal competence. However, these studies that focused on identifying the effect of extracurricular activities on students' academic outcomes and behavioral or psycho-

[1] Correspondence author, Assoc. Prof., Xingzhi College, Zhejiang Normal University, Jinhua, Zhejiang Province, China / Institute of Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics, Zhejiang Normal University, Jinhua, Zhejiang Province, China, E-mail: pxq@zjnu.cn
[2] Assoc. Prof., Faculty of Education, University of Macau, Macao, China

ISSN: 2149-5939

logical changes could only provide a partial and crude account of the nature of students' participation in such activities. What matters more are students' perception, understanding and beliefs of extracurricular activities for their overall development, namely, their lived experience with extracurricular activities. Thus, to gain an in-depth understanding of extracurricular activities, it is important to take a students' perspective and survey the terrain of extracurricular activities with regard to the nature of their participation experience. And quite apart from that, there exists a paucity of research on the understanding of university students' participation in extracurricular contests.

The current study examined the motivating factors which promoted EFL university students to participate in extracurricular contests and the participants' perception and experience of participating in extracurricular English contests, attempting to further probe into the extrinsic factors and intrinsic beliefs that contribute to their motivation to participate. It is hoped that findings from this study can provide some contextual foreground for the future longitudinal studies and bring implications for the construction of more effective extracurricular activities in the future.

2. Literature review

Achievement motivation theorists attempt to explain the reason why people choose tasks, persist on those tasks, and vigorously conduct them (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). People's definite behaviors can be attributed to motivation. Motivation refers to the desire to achieve a goal or a certain performance level, leading to goal-directed behavior (Franken, 1994). Many researchers have conducted related study on the relationship between motivation and certain behaviors. Georgiou & Kyza (2018) investigated whether students' immersion on learning in Augmented Reality settings was influenced by their motivation, finding that immersion was positively predicted by specific motivation and in turn, learning outcomes were positively associated with the level of immersion that students achieved. Zainuddin (2018) examined students' learning performance and perceived motivation in a gamified flipped classroom, identifying that students motivated to compete and beat other students during the gamification activities and their motivation to compete also promoted their learning performances. Within the context of Rogers theory of perceived attributes, Raman, Vachharajani & Achuthan (2018) investigated students' motivation to adopt programming contests, revealing that student motivations were strongly related to attributes like relative advantage, peer influence, perceived enjoyment and perceived usefulness, and that students generally expressed positive attitude towards participating in programming contests as it helped strengthen their problem solving and programming skills. When we refer to college students as being motivated, we mean that they are making efforts to attempt to accomplish certain tasks. The present study investigated college students' engagement in extracurricular English contest activities, namely, effort and persistence. Understanding students' participation in those activities is imperative, for the evidence from motivation theory suggested that the level of students' participation is significantly related to their expectancy on outcomes and various achievements and performance (Furrer & Skinner, 2003). The expectancy-value theory explained how motivation influences people's choice, persistence, and performance. When participating in extracurricular English contest activities, they expected to obtain good performances and thus could benefit from those activities. In this study, we adopted the expectancy-value theory of motivation (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Pintrich, 1989; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000) as a framework to conceptualize college students' motivation. The expectancy factors (such as language skills improved; social experience

ISSN: 2149-5939

obtained; other forms of self-efficacy) have been described as college students' intrinsic motivation to perform English contest tasks and meanwhile the extrinsic component (such as school's support; teacher's instruction; etc.) constituted important influential factors (Pintrich & de Groot, 1990). Ryan, Rigby & Przybylski (2006) pointed out that the events and conditions that promote a person's sense of competence and autonomy enhance their intrinsic motivation, which in turn, can produce feelings of enjoyment and interest (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In his discussion about motivation, Bandura (1997) included the perspective of expectancies by distinguishing between efficacy expectations and outcome expectancies. He contended that expectancy-value theorists tended to focus on outcome expectations in their research models while easily neglected that efficacy expectations are more predictive of performance than are outcome expectations. Many researches have demonstrated that self-efficacy contributed to students' personal effort and persistence (Cox & Whaley, 2004; Fan, 2011) and showed a positive relationship between students' self-efficacy and academic engagement (e.g. Zeldin, Britner & Pajares, 2008; Restubog, Florentino & Garcia, 2010). That is, students with high self-efficacy are more likely to actively take part in diverse academic tasks and make greater effort to accomplish them, and consequently these behaviors enhance academic outcomes. According to Rodgers et al (2014), self-efficacy triggered students' goal pursuit, behavioral engagement, and persistent efforts. Based on the expectancy-value theory, Wu & Fan (2017) investigated the relationship between college students' achievement motivation and achievement-related behaviors, showing that students' academic self-efficacy and subjective task value constituted two important components. Thus, current literature has yielded some insights into the relationship between motivation and behaviors. However, there are a few explorations about students' motivation to participate in extracurricular English contests, especially under China's cultural contexts. This study aimed at enriching our understanding of this issue by examining the nature of China's EFL university students' extracurricular activities.

3. Research design

3.1 Participants

The study was conducted at a teacher-education oriented university in eastern China. This university whose primary goal is to cultivate future teachers highlights the characteristics of Teacher Education, thus attaching great importance to the development its students' professional skills as a teacher. As a part of extracurricular extensive learning activities, this university actively organizes and encourages students to participate in extracurricular English contests so as to improve their language proficiency and professional skills. During the three years from 2015 to 2018, more than 50 English as foreign language (EFL) students from this university had won the third prize and above in a variety of English contests at the provincial level and above, five of whom had won the first prize in the national English competition. Certainly, only forty-nine students agreed to be invited to participate in this study, and only eight of the 49 students were willingly and voluntarily participated in the follow-up interviews.

3.2 Data collection and analysis

In this study, a blend of quantitative and qualitative method of data collection was adopted. Firstly, a questionnaire was conducted to survey the motivating factors of students' participation in extracurricular English contests, and statistical SPSS was utilized to analyze collected questionnaire data. The questionnaire surveyed the factors that the interview participants reported having influenced their engagement in extracurricular English contests and that the existing literature

ISSN: 2149-5939

concerning intrinsic and extrinsic motivation has identified as major factors that influence students' behaviors, including instructor support, school support, parents/ friends/ peers support, and performance expectancy (i.e. perceived useful of the behavior for personal development) (Dörney, 2001; Pintrich, 2004). All the items were measured using a 6-point Likert scale, with 1 being strongly disagree and 6 being strongly agree. The instrument was pilot tested (a=0.91) on 20 foreign language learners at this university for their understanding of each item in the survey, showing a good variability. Qualitative data pertinent to students' perception and experience of participating in extracurricular English contests come from in-depth semi-structured interviews with the eight participants. The interview on each participant lasted for about 1 hour with questions focusing on students' motivation and suggestions on participating in English contests, including such questions as "what's your purpose of participating in English contests?", "what instructors and your school did to help you?", "what's your suggestions on English contests?", etc. The aim of the interviews and its procedure were clearly explained to all participants. The semi-structured interviews were verbatim transcribed and analyzed through a hybrid approach of inductive and deductive thematic analysis (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). Transcripts were sent back to the respondents for validating before used for analysis.

4. Findings

4.1 Motivating factors of students' participation in extracurricular English contests

The questionnaire consists of both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation factors (See Table 1). Extrinsic motivation factors are from instructors, school, and parents/friends/peers/, while intrinsic motivation factors are about students' considerations for personal development. From the investigation result, it can be found that both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation factors significantly promoted students' participating in English contests. Among extrinsic motivation factors, the motivation factors from instructors are more prominent, especially instructor's tutoring attitude (M=5.1633) and instructor's tutoring remarks (M=5.1633). In terms of the motivation factors from school, compared with other 5 factors, monetary or honorary obtained from participating in English Contest comparatively highly promoted students (M=5.0816). As for the motivating factors from parents/friends/peers, it can be found that parents' and friends' encouragement is more significant (respectively M=4.8163 and M=4.8367). Additionally, the result demonstrated that intrinsic motivation highly promoted students' participation in English contests, especially they believed that participation in English contests can enrich their insights (M=5.0816) and enrich their experiences (M=5.1224).

In the questionnaire, students' suggestions on extracurricular English contests were also covered (See Table 2). The investigation result indicated that students hoped that English contest can be related to their learning (M=5.1429) and future career (M=5.2653), demonstrating students' essential motivation in participating in English contests.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Table 1 Motivating factors of students' participation in extracurricular English contests (N=49)

Motivating factors	Mean	Std. Deviation
Motivation factors from Instructors		
Instructor's encouraging words motivated me	5.0612	1.12561
Instructor's professional knowledge promoted me	5.1224	.99232
Instructor's tutoring strategies promoted me	5.1020	1.08484
Instructor's tutoring experiences promoted me	5.1020	.96274
Instructor's tutoring attitude promoted me	5.1633	.92075
Instructor's tutoring remarks promoted me	5.1633	.92075
Motivation factors from School		
School's support on English Contest promoted me	4.8776	.92720
School's environment and atmosphere of English Contest promoted me	4.8980	.79700
School's prize mechanism of English Contest motivated me	4.9592	.84061
School's issuing information on English Contest promoted me	4.4490	.98025
School's propaganda of students' obtaining prizes promoted me	4.3673	1.01435
Money or honor obtained from participating in English Contest promoted me	5.0816	.83757
Motivation factors from Parents/ Friends/Peers/		
Parents' encouragement motivated me	4.8163	1.01393
Friends' encouragement motivated me	4.8367	.98630
Peers'/ classmates' encouragement motivated me	4.7959	.99957
Peers'/Classmates' model motivated me	4.6122	1.09576
Motivation factors from the considerations for personal development		
Participating in English Contest can help utilize my professional knowledge	5.0204	.87773
Participating in English Contest can help enlarge my insights	5.0816	.86209
Participating in English Contest can help enrich my experiences	5.1224	.94940
Participating in English Contest can help enrich my interpersonal interactivity	4.8367	1.06745
Participating in English Contest can help cultivate my psychological quality	5.0612	.96627

Table 2. Participants' suggestions on extracurricular English contests (N=49)

	Mean	Std. Deviation
I hope English Contest can be related to my current major learning	5.1429	.93541
I hope English Contest can contribute to my future career	5.2653	.88448
I hope my school will create more opportunities of English Contests	5.0408	.99915
I hope my school will make English Contests diverse	5.1224	.94940

4.2 Participants' perceptions of participation in extracurricular English contests

Understanding how students perceive of their participation in English contests enables us to gain a more comprehensive view of their motivation and to support their professional learning. In this study, the semi-structured interview was conducted, and findings are discussed as follows.

Instructor's help. Every respondent seems to agree that instructor's help plays an important role in their participation motivation, leading them to be active and success in English contests. All of them believed that instructors have rich professional knowledge, tutoring experiences and tutoring strategies, which helps them very much during training and preparation for contests. Instructor's attitude and remarks have a high impact on them. When asked about instructor's help, some respondents stated:

ISSN: 2149-5939

"With her rich tutoring experience, the instructor guided me to collect related language materials, helped me to modify my intonation and accent, and more importantly taught me how to answer questions." (Respondent 1)

"My instructor asked me to watch videos of other students who have won prizes of high levels, and taught me how to imitate their gestures, oral expressions, and speaking speed." (Respondent 2)

As a tutor, the instructor is very influential and helpful. Students will abide by instruction and guidance of the instructor, as one respondent said:

"The instructor is the motivator and guidance for us. Besides, the instructor could help in enhancing student performance by encouraging them to be more confident. Therefore training, guiding, motivating and helping are the duty of the instructor. On his guidance, attitude and personality, the instructor should be the role model. Therefore the instructor can steer students into achieving their greatest potential." (Respondent 3)

Based on the respondents' point of views, the instructor is a tutor and motivator for students to be more motivated and successful in English contests. The findings revealed the significant role that instructors can play to motivate students' participating in contest.

School's support. Respondents stated that school's support is mainly embodied in the organization of English contests, the construction of atmosphere, the information issuing, and the prize mechanisms of English contests.

"Our school helps to issue the notice about the contest information and organizes teachers to instruct us. In a good atmosphere where many students participate in English contest, we will be more motivated to participate." (Respondent 4)

As far as monetary reward or honor is concerned, respondents highlighted its importance by stating that

"It is a great pleasure to win a bonus or a certificate of honor in an English contest. It is not only a reward for my efforts, but also a material or spiritual encouragement." (Respondent 5)

"Winning a prize or an honorary certificate is an affirmation of my professional ability. They are the fruits of my growth. Especially the honorary certificates can enhance my self-confidence." (Respondent 6)

Parents'/friends'/ peers' encouragement. Respondents perceived that the encouragement from parents, friends or peers did have impact on their motivation to participate in English contests. Perhaps parent are the closest person to these participants and they are still dependent of their parent as they are still studying at school. Their parents encouraged them to be more active at school and improve their professional potential by participating more extracurricular activities. This can be seen when one respondent said:

"My parents have contributed a lot of energy and support for my success in extracurricular activities. For Example, they asked me about my preparation for the competition, and backed me up. This encouraged me to make more efforts." (Respondent 7)

ISSN: 2149-5939

Not only spiritual encouragement from parents will lead those participants to be involved in English contests, the encouragement from friends, peers or classmates is also an important factor for them to be self-motivated.

> "My friends and peers gave me help when I was preparing the competition. They even helped me look for related materials for the competition." (Respondent 8)

> "My peers acted as judges, and they would help correct some problems in my English speech, such as intonation, gesture and facial expression." (Respondent 9)

Intrinsic motivation: considerations for personal development. Accounts from the participants revealed that their intrinsic motivation constituted a decisive factor for their participation in extracurricular English contests. Almost without exception, they participated in contests for personal development, either for professional study or future career development, which can be seen from two representative respondents' reports.

> "As English majors, we can put the professional knowledge we have learned into practice by taking part in extracurricular English contests. The practice of classroom knowledge needs a platform, and English contest is a good platform to show and exercise myself." (Respondent 10)

> "My dream job is to be an English teacher. Now I need to improve my skills, especially my spoken English, so taking part in the English speech contest can not only help me improve my spoken English, but also improve other related skills as a normal university student." (Respondent 11)

Almost all the respondents agreed that the purpose of their participating in English contests is to promote the practical application of knowledge, exercise language skills, and train themselves for the future career as a teacher. This could be quite understandable, for as normal university students they should equip themselves with adequate skills for their future teacher careers.

5. Discussion

This study focused on survey what motivated China's EFL university students' participation in extracurricular English contests and their perceptions and experience. The data from questionnaire demonstrated that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors motivated students' engagement. The extrinsic factors significantly derived from instructors' support and the consideration of rewards. All participants agreed that instructors play an extremely important role in steering them into active participation and success in contests. As one participant stated "the instructor's knowledge, experience, and skillful instructions help us make good preparations for contests and her attitude, and motivational words motivate us to be confident". Additionally, they felt happy to obtain rewards either in monetary or honorary form or both by participating in extracurricular English contests activities. Certainly, the intrinsic factor, that is, students' beliefs on the usefulness of extracurricular English contests activities on their future personal development is crucial.

The analysis of the interview transcripts revealed that all eight participants rated the extracurricular English contests high. Firstly, they perceived that the extracurricular English contests provide a platform for them to improve learning and show themselves, not only stretching their English language ability, but comprehensively fostering their competence in language knowledge ap-

ISSN: 2149-5939

plication, judgment analysis, logical speculation, on-the-spot reaction and psychological adjustment. Secondly, they stated that extracurricular English contests helped enrich their experience and make them more mature and calmer. Thirdly, they believed that they met different people during the contests, established a good interpersonal relationship, learned a lot from them, and broadened their horizons. According to the interviews from the eight participants, school's supportive atmosphere did have the very influential role in triggering students' involvement in contests, for the school provided them with myriad convenient conditions, such as arranging tutor/s, organizing training and sessions, publicizing award-wining students on college's website, etc. In fact, it is the propaganda of these award-winning students from college's website, one participant reported, that motivates her to take an active part in the contests activities by following their example. On the other hand, they assumed that parent's/friends' encouragement are other important factors that contribute to their motivation and willingness to participate.

Additionally, the analysis of interview transcripts also revealed the crucial importance of their strong intrinsic beliefs, because they felt that they did encounter some negative experience, such as much time and energy consumed in preparing for contests; physical and mental pressure; unexpected faults made in contests.

6. Conclusion and implications

The implications of this study for higher education are prominent. Given the positive feedback from the EFL university students who participated in the extracurricular English contests, this study helped to reinforce the notion that, no matter the context, higher education should create opportunities through multifaceted levels for more if not all students rather than having a limited number of extracurricular contests available. In particular, this study demonstrated that extracurricular contests could be utilized as an effective way of fostering pre-service teacher's comprehensive competence, and accelerating pre-job preparation and role-learning for the students of normal institutions. The perceptions from participants specifically highlighted the importance of tutor's instruction and their motivational words, which indicates that, to increase students' access to extracurricular contests and reduce tutors' workload, a greater number of teachers should be encouraged to be involved in instructing the activities. Furthermore, help from instructors, especially for students' psychological adjustment during contests, particularly entails. Additionally, it should be noted that although financial rewards from winning a prize may be a factor which motivates students to participate, students should be ritually reminded that utilizing contests activities to promote competence development is the top priority. Certainly, although as a preliminary research with some limitations of self-reported data and a comparatively small number of samples, this study enabled to bring some enlightenment to similar topics. It is hoped that further research will be conducted to probe into the specific mechanisms that explain the effects of and relationships between extracurricular contests and university students' academic outcomes.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

Funding

This work was supported by the classroom teaching reform project of Zhejiang province's higher education funded by Department of Education of Zhejiang Province [grant number kg20160564].

ISSN: 2149-5939

Pan, X., Gan, Z. (2019). Understanding EFL students' motivation for participating in extracurricular contests: Insights from China. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 44-53.

References

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York, Ny: W. H. Freeman.

Chan, Yiu-Kong. (2016). Investigating the relationship among extracurricular activities, learning approach and academic outcomes: A case study. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 17(3), 223-233.

Cox, A. E., & Whaley, D. E. (2004). The influence of task value, expectancies for success, and identity on athletes' achievement behaviors. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 16, 103-117.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.

Dörney, Z. (2001). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Eccles, J. S., & Wigfield, A. (2002). Motivational beliefs, values, and goals. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 53, 109-132.

Fan, W. (2011). Social influences, school motivation and gender differences: An application of the expectancy-value theory. *Educational Psychology*, 31, 157-175.

Feldman, A. F., & Matjasko, J. L. (2005). The role of school-based extracurricular activities in adolescent development: A comprehensive review and future directions. *Review of Educational Research*, 75(2), 159-210.

Fereday, J., & Muir-Cochrane, E. (2006). Demonstrating Rigor Using Thematic Analysis: A Hybrid Approach of Inductive and Deductive Coding and Theme Development. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 5(1), 80-92.

Forneris, T., Camiré, M., & Williamson, R. (2015). Extracurricular activity participation and the acquisition of developmental assets: Differences between involved and noninvolved Canadian high school students. *Applied Developm*ental *Science*, 19(1), 47-55.

Franken, R. (1994). *Human motivation*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Furrer, C., & Skinner, E. (2003). Sense of relatedness as a factor in children's academic engagement and performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95, 148-162.

Georgiou, Y., & Kyza, E. A. (2018). Relations between student motivation, immersion and learning outcomes in location-based augmented reality settings. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 89, 173-181.

Han, A., &. Kwon, K. (2018). Students' perception of extracurricular activities: A case study. *Journal of Advances in Education Research*, 3(3), 131-141.

Kinzie, J., & Kuh, G. (2017). Reframing student success in college: Advancing Know-What and Know-How. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning*, 49(3), 19-27.

Pintrich, P. R. (1989). The dynamic interplay of student motivation and cognition in the college classroom. In C. Ames & M. L. Maehr (Eds.), *Advances in motivation and achievement: Motivation-enhancing environments* (Vol. 6, pp. 117-160). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Pintrich, P. R. (2004). A conceptual framework for assessing motivation and self-regulated learning in college students. *Educational Psychology Review*, 16, 385-407.

Pintrich, P. R., & de Groot, E. V. (1990). Motivational and self-regulated learning components of classroom academic performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82(1), 33-40.

Pintrich, P. R., & Schunk, D. H. (1996). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Merrill-Prentice Hall.

Raman, R , Vachharajani, H ., & Achuthan, K . (2018). Students motivation for adopting programming contests: Innovation-diffusion perspective. *Education and Information Technologies*, 23(5), 1919-1932.

Restubog, S. D., Florentino, A. R., & Garcia, P. M. (2010). The mediating roles of career self-efficacy and career decidedness in the relationship between contextual support and persistence. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 77, 186-195.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Rodgers, W. M., Markland, D., Selzer, A-M, Murray, T. C., & Wilson, P. M. (2014). Distinguishing perceived competence and self-efficacy: An example from physical exercise. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 85, 527-539.

Ryan, R. M., Rigby, C. S., & Przybylski, A. (2006). The motivational pull of video games: A self-determination theory approach. *Motivation and Emotion*, 30(4), 344-360.

Scales, P. C., Benson, P. L., Roehlkepartain, E. C., Sesma, A., & van Dulmen, M. (2006). The role of developmental assets in predicting academic achievement: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Adolescence*, 29(5), 691-708.

Wigfield, A., & Eccles, J. S. (2000). Expectancy-value theory of achievement motivation. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(1), 68-81.

Wu, F., & Fan, W. (2017). Academic procrastination in linking motivation and achievement-related behaviors: A perspective of expectancy-value theory. *Educational Psychology*, 37(6), 695-711.

Zainuddin, Z. (2018). Students' learning performance and perceived motivation in gamified flipped-class instruction. *Computers & Education*, 126, 75-88.

Zeldin, A. L., Britner, S. L., & Pajares, F. (2008). A comparative study of the self-efficacy beliefs of successful men and women in mathematics, science, and technology careers. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 45, 1036-1058.

ISSN: 2149-5939

IJ§ER
ISSN: 2149-5939
International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research
Online, http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijsser
Volume: 5(1), 2019

Amatör lig futbolcularında sporda ahlaktan uzaklaşma, güdüsel iklim ve karar verme

Amateur league footballers' moral disengagement in sport, motivational climate and decision-making

Ayşe Türksoy Işım[1], Burcu Güvendi[2] ve Turhan Toros[3]

Gönderilme tarihi: 27 / 10 / 2018 Kabul tarihi: 06 / 01 / 2019

Öz

Araştırmanın amacı amatör lig futbolcuların güdüsel iklim ve karar verme stilleri ile sporda ahlaktan uzaklaşma düzeylerinin incelenmesidir. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu 228 futbolcu ($\bar{X}_{yaş}$ =21,62±3,81 ve $\bar{X}_{Spor\ yılı}$ =10,39±4,48) oluşturmuştur. Veri toplama aracı olarak; Sporda Ahlaktan Uzaklaşma Ölçeği, Melbourne Karar Verme Ölçeği ve Sporda Algılanan Güdüsel İklim Ölçeği'' kullanılmıştır. Verilerin analizinde; betimleyici istatistikler, t testi, ANOVA ve Pearson Korelasyon analizi kullanılmıştır. Futbolcuların kaçıngan, panik ve erteleyici karar vermek yerine karar verirken kendisine güvenerek dikkatli kararlar vermeye çalıştıkları görülürken cezalı futbolcuların daha kaçıngan kararlar verdiği belirlenmiştir. Ayrıca performans iklimine sahip futbolcuların sahalarda daha fazla ahlaktan uzaklaştığı saptanmıştır.

Anahtar sözcükler: *Futbol, ahlaktan uzaklaşma, karar verme, güdüsel iklim*

Abstract

The aim of the research is to investigate amateur league footballers' motivational climate and decision making styles and Moral Disengagement in Sport levels. The study group of the study included 228 male football players ($\bar{X}_{age}$=21,62±3,81 ve $\bar{X}_{sports\ year}$ =10,39±4,48) As a data collection tool; The "Moral Disengagement in Sport Scale" ,the "Melbourne Decision Scale " and the "Motivational Climate Scale" were used. In the analysis of the data; descriptive statistics, t test, ANOVA and Pearson Correlation analysis were used. While footballers are trying to make careful decisions by trusting themselves instead of making decisions about avoidance, panic and delay, it has been determined that the penalized footballers make more inevitable decisions. It was also found that footballers with a performance climate are moving away from morality on the grounds.

Keywords: *Football, sport, moral disengagement, decision making, perceived motivational climate*

1. Giriş

Futbol dünyanın en popüler sporları arasında yer almaktadır. Futbolun bu kadar popüler olmasının en önemli nedenlerinden biri; ani yön değiştirmeler, sprintler, sıçramalar gibi oyunun gidişatını bir anda değiştirebilen yüksek şiddetli ve kısa süreli aktiviteler içermesidir (Stolen ve ark., 2005). Futbol bir takım oyunudur ve takım oyunlarında bireysel hedeflerden ziyade takımı oluşturan her bir oyuncunun motivasyon ve güdülenme düzeyi alınan sonuçta etkili olmaktadır. Güdüsel iklim özellikle takım sporlarında başarıyı etkileyen psikolojik özelliklerdendir (Arıburun ve

[1]Doç. Dr., İstanbul Üniversitesi Cerrahpaşa, İstanbul/TÜRKİYE, ayseturksoy@hotmail.com,
[2] Arş. Gör. Dr., İstanbul Üniversitesi Cerrahpaşa, İstanbul/TÜRKİYE, burcu.guvendi@istanbul.edu.tr
[2] Doç. Dr., Mersin Üniversitesi, Mersin/TÜRKİYE, turhantoros@mersin.edu.tr

ISSN: 2149-5939

Aşçı, 2005). Bir spor ortamında iki farklı güdüsel iklim vardır. Birincisi beceri gelişimini içeren öğrenmeyi ve antrenman yapmayı destekleyen ustalık iklimidir. İkincisi, rakibin yeteneklerine ve yaptıklarına odaklaşmayı kolaylaştıran, yıldız olmayı, rakibini alt etmeyi güçlendiren performans iklimidir (Roberts **ve** Ommundsen, 1996). Aşırı kazanma isteği kimi zaman sportif kuralların yok sayılmasına neden olmaktadır. Bu durum da sporun saygı, barış, sosyalleştirici ve eğitici yönünün dışına çıkılarak, saldırgan, rahatsızlık verici ve huzur bozucu davranışların ortaya çıkmasına sebebiyet vermektedir (Tanrıverdi, 2012). Spor branşlarının her birinin kendine özgü bir sistemi, uyulması gereken kuralları, yarışma-karşılaşma alanı ve biçimleri vardır. Bir sporu benimsemek ve onu yapmayı istemek daha baştan onun tüm kurallarını kabul etmeyi, onlara uymayı, onlara karşı çıkmamayı, onları savunmayı gerektirmektedir (Erdemli, 2006). Çeşitli nedenlerle sporcularda yaratılan ya da sporcunun kişiliğinde var olan bu aşırı kazanma isteği ya da kazanma hırsı sporcunun hem sportif ahlaktan uzaklaşmasına etki ederken, bu durum sporcunun karar verme sürecinide etkileyebilmektedir.

Karar verme insanın yapısı gereği her aşamada karşılaştığı doğal bir süreçtir. Karar verme süreci başlangıçta kolay gibi görünse de karmaşık bir süreç olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır (Pekdoğan, 2015). En kısa haliyle sunulan seçenekler içerisinden en uygun olanın tercih edilmesi olarak tanımlanan (Tatlılıoğlu ve Deniz, 2011); karar verme ve karar verme stili bireyin günlük yaşamında olduğu gibi, spor ortamında da büyük önem taşımaktadır. Spor ortamında uygun ve yerinde verilen kararlar, oyunu olumlu etkileyeceği gibi; verilen yanlış kararlar ya da yanlış zamanda verilen kararlar oyun içinde sporcuyu olumsuz etkilemenin yanı sıra oyunun sonucunu da etkileyebilir (Leveaux, 2010). Birçok spor dalında sporcular, çeşitli ihtimaller arasında karar vermek zorunda kalır. Futbolcu topa ne zaman vuracağına ve nereye atacağına, jimnastikçi yeni bir hareket serisini denemeye, güreşçi belli bir kavrama tekniğini uygulamaya yönelik stiline karar verirken, içsel olarak varılan kararın uygulamaya yönelik bu aşamasında takılıp kalabilirler. Sporcu böyle bir durumda olasılıklardan birisini tercih etmesine rağmen hareketi gerçekleştirmeye yönelik adımlar ya geç atılır ya da hiç atılamaz (Baumann, 1986, s. 189).

Sporcunun güdülenmesini ya da motivasyonunu, başarı ve başarısızlığın sporcu için ne anlama geldiğini, sporcunun farklı ortamlarda neden farklı davranışlar sergilediğini, spora neden katıldığını anlamının temelinde sahip olunan hedef profillerinin bulunması birçok araştırmacıyı farklı spor branşlarında yer alan sporcuların hedef profillerini ve o spor branşlarında sporcuların ortamı nasıl algıladıklarını araştırmaya yönlendirmiştir (Arıburun ve Aşçı, 2005).

Bu bağlamda çalışmanın amacı amatör lig futbolcuların güdüsel iklim ve karar verme stilleri ile sporda ahlaktan uzaklaşma düzeylerinin bazı bağımsız değişkenlere göre incelenmesi ve aralarındaki ilişkinin ortaya konulmasıdır.

2. Yöntem

Evren ve örneklem

Araştırmanın evrenini amatör ligde oynayan futbolcular oluştururken örneklemini ise İstanbul İli Amatör liginde oynayan ortalama yaşı 21,62±3,81 olan ve ortalama 10,39±4,48 spor yılına sahip 228 erkek futbolcu oluşturmuştur.

Veri toplama araçları

Araştırmada veri toplama aracı olarak; Sporda Ahlaktan Uzaklaşma Ölçeği , Melbourne Karar Verme Ölçeği ve Sporda Algılanan Güdüsel İklim Ölçeği kullanılmıştır.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Türksoy Işım, A., Güvendi, B., Toros, T. (2019). Amateur league footballer's moral disengagement in sport, motivational climate and decision-making. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 54-62.

Sporda ahlaktan uzaklaşma ölçeği: Boardley ve Kavussanu (2008) tarafından sporcuların ahlaktan uzaklaşma mekanizmalarını ölçmek üzere geliştirilmiş ölçeğin Türkçe geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması Gürpınar (2015) tarafından yapılmıştır. Ölçek 7'li Likert tipi bir ölçektir. Hiç katılmıyorum (1), katılmıyorum (2), biraz katılmıyorum (3), tarafsızım (4), biraz katılıyorum (5), katılıyorum (6) ve tamamen katılıyorum (7) şeklinde puanlanan 8 maddeli ve tek faktörlüdür. Maddelerin tümü olumsuz anlam taşımaktadır. Ölçekten alınan yüksek puanlar, sporcuların daha çok ahlaktan ayrıldıkları anlamına gelmektedir.

Karar verme ölçeği: Mann vd., (1998) tarafından geliştirilen ölçek, Deniz (2004) tarafından Türkçe' ye uyarlanmıştır. Ölçek 28 madde ve iki kısımdan oluşmaktadır. Birinci kısımda 6 madde ve bir alt boyut; karar vermede özsaygının belirlenmesi, ikinci kısımda; 22 madde ve 4 alt boyut; Dikkatli karar verme stili, kaçıngan karar verme stili, erteleyici karar verme stili ve panik karar verme stilinden oluşmaktadır. Ölçek "Doğru (2)", "Bazen Doğru (1), "Doğru Değil (0)" şeklinde puanlanmaktadır. Dikkatli Karar Verme Stili: Bireyin karar vermeden önce özenle gerekli bilgiyi araması ve alternatifleri dikkatlice değerlendirdikten sonra seçim yapma durumudur. Kaçıngan Karar Verme Stili: Bireyin karar vermekten kaçınması, kararları başkalarına bırakma eğiliminde olması ve böylece sorumluluğu bir başkasına devrederek karar vermekten kurtulmaya çalışma durumudur. Erteleyici Karar Verme Stili: Bireyin kararı geçerli bir neden olmaksızın sürekli erteleme, geciktirme ve sürüncemede bırakma durumudur. Panik Karar Verme Stili: Bireyin bir karar durumu ile karşı karşıya kaldığında, kendini zaman baskısı altında hissederek aceleci davranışlar sergileyip çabuk çözümlere ulaşma çabası durumudur (Deniz, 2004).

Güdüsel iklim ölçeği: Walling, Duda ve Chi (1993) tarafından yapılan güdüsel iklim ölçeğinin Türkçe geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması Toros (2001) tarafından yapılmıştır. Ölçek 9'u performans, 12'si ustalık iklimi olmak üzere 21 maddeden oluşmakta ve 5'li **L**ikert şeklindedir (1=tamamen katılmıyorum, 5=tamamen katılıyorum). Envanterde "Bu takımda, takım arkadaşlarından daha iyi oynadıklarında kendilerini iyi hissederler" ifadesi performans iklimini açıklarken, "Bu takımda oyuncular spor dalı etkinlikleri hakkında daha fazla şeyler öğrenmek istedikleri için sıkı çalışırlar" ifadesi ustalık iklimini belirlemektedir.

Verilerin analizi

Verilerin analizinde; betimleyici istatistikler, t testi, ANOVA ve Pearson Korelasyon analizi kullanılmıştır.

3. Bulgular

Amatör lig futbolcuların güdüsel iklim ve karar verme stilleri ile sporda ahlaktan uzaklaşma düzeylerinin bazı bağımsız değişkenlere göre incelenmesi ve aralarındaki ilişkinin ortaya konulması amacıyla yapılan çalışmanın bulguları aşağıdaki gibidir;

Tablo 1. Ölçeklere ait ortalama puanlar

Ölçekler	Ölçek Alt Boyutları	n	Min.	Max.	Ort.±Std.Sp.
Ahlaktan Uzaklaşma Ölçeği	Ahlaktan Uzaklaşma	228	1,00	7,00	3,61±1,20
Güdüsel İklim Ölçeği	Ustalık İklim	228	1,00	5,00	3,53±,733
	Performans İklim	228	1,00	5,00	3,17±,689
Karar Verme Ölçeği	Özsaygı	228	1,00	12,00	8,1579±2,16
	Dikkatli Karar Verme	228	,00	12,00	7,5702±2,50
	Kaçıngan Karar Verme	228	,00	12,00	5,5132±2,67
	Erteleyici Karar Verme	228	,00	10,00	4,4868±2,23
	Panik Karar Verme	228	,00	10,00	4,7149±2,29

ISSN: 2149-5939

Tablo 1' deki analiz sonuçlarına göre futbolcuların karar vermede özsaygılarının ve dikkatli karar vermelerinin yüksek, ustalık ve performans iklimin orta düzeyde olduğu ve ahlaktan uzaklaşmada tarafsız kaldıkları belirlenmiştir

Tablo 2. Ölçeklere ait korelasyon analizi sonuçları

		Ahlaktan Uzaklaşma	Özsaygı	Dikkatli Karar	Kaçıngan Karar	Erteleyici Karar	Panik Karar
Performans İklimi	r	,134*	-,055	-,234**	-,175**	-,178**	-,119
	p	,043	,411	,000	,008	,007	,072
	n	228	228	228	228	228	228
Ustalık İklimi	r	,110	,098	-,010	-,263**	-,386**	-,262**
	p	,098	,139	,881	,000	,000	,000
	n	228	228	228	228	228	228
Ahlaktan Uzaklaşma	r	1	-,049	-,091	,128	,112	,126
	p		,458	,171	,054	,091	,057
	n	228	228	228	228	228	228

Tablo 3. Mevkilerine göre Ahlaktan uzaklaşma, Algılanan güdüsel iklim ve Karar verme stilleri ölçekleri Anova analiz sonuçları

		n	Ort.±Std. Sp.	F	p	Tukey
Karar Vermede Özsaygı	Orta Saha	87	8,229±2,208	3,278	,022*	Defans-Kaleci
	Kaleci	22	7,090±2,486			
	Defans	74	8,594±2,040			
	Forvet	45	7,822±1,934			

Tablo 3' e göre, Amatör lig futbolcularında Ahlaktan uzaklaşma ve Güdüsel iklim ölçeklerinde anlamlı farklılık görülmezken (p>0,05), Karar verme ölçeğinin Özsaygı boyutunda anlamlı farklılık belirlenmiştir (p<0,05).

Tablo 4. Ceza alma durumlarına göre Ahlaktan uzaklaşma, Algılanan güdüsel iklim ve Karar verme stilleri ölçekleri t-Testi analiz sonuçları

	Hiç ceza aldınız mı?	n	Ort.±Std. Sp.	t	p
Kaçıngan Karar Verme	Evet	77	6,129±2,773	2,511	,013*
	Hayır	151	5,198±2,582		
Erteleyici Karar Verme	Evet	77	5,013±2,080	2,573	,011*
	Hayır	151	4,218±2,265		
Ustalık İklimi	Evet	77	3,395±,727	-2,010	,046*
	Hayır	151	3,600±,729		

Tablo 4' e göre, Amatör lig futbolcularında Ahlaktan uzaklaşma ölçeğinde anlamlı farklılık görülmezken (p>0,05), Karar verme ölçeğinin kaçıngan ve erteleyici karar verme boyutunda, Algılanan güdüsel iklim ölçeğinin ise ustalık iklim boyutunda anlamlı farklılık belirlenmiştir (p<0,05).

4. Sonuç ve tartışma

Amatör lig futbolcuların güdüsel iklim ve karar verme stilleri ile sporda ahlaktan uzaklaşma düzeylerinin incelendiği bu çalışmaya çoğunluğunu lise mezunun oluşturduğu toplamda 228 futbolcu katılmıştır.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Türksoy Işım, A., Güvendi, B., Toros, T. (2019). Amateur league footballer's moral disengagement in sport, motivational climate and decision-making. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 54-62.

Ölçek ortalamalarına bakıldığında; futbolcuların karar vermede öz saygılarının ve dikkatli karar vermelerinin yüksek olduğu görülürken, ustalık ve performans ikliminin orta düzeyde olduğu ve ahlaktan uzaklaşmada tarafsız kaldıkları belirlenmiştir. Buna göre, amatör lig futbolcuların spor ortamından algıladıkları iklimin zaman zaman değişebileceği ayrıca müsabakaya göre de sportif erdemden uzak davranışlar sergileyebilecekleri söylenebilir. Bu durumun nedeni olarak futbolcuların yer aldığı kategoride çok yüksek miktarlarda maddi konuların olmayışı her maça kazanma hırsı ile çıkmamaları durumu gösterilebilir. Bu çalışmaya benzer olarak, Akpınar ve ark. (2015) yaptıkları çalışmada, hokey sporcuların karar vermede özsaygı ve dikkatli karar verme stillerinin yüksek, kaçıngan ve erteleyici karar vermelerinin ise düşük olduğunu belirtmiştir. Bu çalışmadan farklı olarak, Kelecek ve ark. (2013) çalışmalarında sporcuların dikkatli karar verme stilinin en düşük, erteleyici karar verme stili ise en yüksek olduğu bulunmuştur. Ayrıca Çepikkurt ve ark. (2012) yaptıkları çalışmada futbolcuların performans ikliminin daha yüksek olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır.

Ahlaktan uzaklaşma ile performans iklimi arasında pozitif yönde düşük düzeyde anlamlı ilişki görülürken, ustalık iklim ile kaçıngan, erteleyici ve panik karar verme arasında negatif yönde orta düzeyde, performans iklim ile dikkatli, kaçıngan ve erteleyici karar verme arasında ise negatif yönde düşük düzeyde anlamlı ilişki tespit edilmiştir. Buna göre Performans iklimi arttıkça ahlaktan uzaklaşmada artmaktadır. Aynı zamanda ustalık iklim arttıkça kaçıngan, erteleyici ve panik karar verme azalmaktadır. Bununla birlikte performans iklimi arttıkça da dikkatli, kaçıngan, erteleyici karar verme azalmaktadır. Bu durumda rakibini yenmeye onu alt etmeye odaklanan sporcuların yarışma ruhunu zedeleyecek davranışlarda bulanabileceği düşünülebilir. Ayrıca futbolcuların algıladıkları her iki iklimde yani rakibini yenmek ve kazanmakla birlikte verilebilecek aşırı sorumlulukların sporcularda kaçıngan ve panik kararlar verilmesine sebep olabileceği söylenebilir. Atalay (2016) tarafından yapılan çalışmada ahlaki karar almanın tutumlarının yaş ve sporculuk geçmişi, cinsiyet ve spor branşı gibi bir çok faktöre göre değişiklik gösterdiği görülmüştür. Gürpınar (2014) tarafından yapılan çalışmada ise ahlaki karar alma tutum puanlarının temassız spor yapanlarda temaslı spor yapanlardan daha yüksek olduğunu göstermiştir.

Futbolcuların mevkilerine göre karar vermede özsaygı boyutunda anlamlı farklılık görülmüştür. Buna göre defans oyuncularının diğer mevkilerdeki oyunculara göre karar vermede özsaygıları daha yüksektir. Bu durumun farklı mevkilerin farklı fiziksel, teknik ve taktik özellikleri ve psikolojik özellikleri olmasından ayrıca defans oyuncularının daha çok savunma görevini üstlenmesi ve rakibine göre hareket ettiği ve karar vermede daha fazla zamanı olmasından kaynaklanabileceği düşünülmektedir. Bu araştırmadan farklı olarak, Akbulut (2012) çalışmasında amatör ve profesyonel erkek futbolcuların karar verme, problem çözme ve iletişim becerilerinin oynadıkları mevkilere göre farklılaşmadığı görülmüştür. Çalışmamızda güdüsel iklim ile mevkiler arasında anlamlı farklılık çıkmazken Çekiç ve Kurt (2017) tarafından yapılan çalışmada; defans, orta saha ve forvet oyuncularının ustalık iklim puanları arasında anlamlı farklılık olduğu ve en yüksek ustalık iklimi puanının defans oyuncularına ait olduğu belirtilmiştir. Aynı zamanda orta saha ve forvet oyuncularının performans iklim puanı defans oyuncularının puanından istatistiksel düzeyde farklı olduğu saptanmıştır. Bununla birlikte Arıburun ve Aşçı (2005) tarafından yapılan çalışmada Amerikan futbol oyuncularının görev yönelimli oldukları ve algılanan güdüsel iklimin takımda üstlenen rollere göre farklılaştığı özellikle defans ve hücum pozisyonunda oynayan Ame-

ISSN: 2149-5939

rikan futbolu oyuncularının güdüsel iklim açısından farklılaştığını ve hücum pozisyonunda oynayan Amerikan futbolu oyuncularının performans iklimi ortalama değerlerinin defans oyuncularından daha yüksek olduğu görülmüştür.

Futbolcuların ceza alma durumlarına göre, güdüsel iklim ve karar verme boyutlarında anlamlı farklılık görülmüştür. Buna göre ceza almayan futbolcuların ustalık iklim boyutunun daha yüksek olduğu, ceza alan futbolcuların ise daha kaçıngan ve erteleyici karar verdikleri görülmüştür. O halde sporcuların almış oldukları cezalar onların kararlarında ve kararsız olmalarına neden olduğu ve bu durumunda performansına olumsuz yansıyabileceği söylenebilir. Ayrıca ceza almış sporcuların sorumluluk ve görev alma gibi özelliklerinin ceza almayanlara göre daha düşük olduğu ifade edilebilir.

Sonuç olarak; futbolcuların kaçıngan, panik ve erteleyici karar vermek yerine karar verirken kendisine güvenerek dikkatli kararlar vermeye çalıştıkları görülürken cezalı futbolcuların daha kaçıngan kararlar verdiği belirlenmiştir. Ayrıca performans iklimine sahip futbolcuların sahalarda daha fazla ahlaktan uzaklaştığı saptanmıştır. O halde sporculara antrenörleri tarafından yaratılan başarı ortamının (Duda ve Whitehead, 1998; Xiang ve Cauningham, 2005); sporcuların ahlaki karar alma durumlarını etkilediği söylenebilir. Bu bakımdan antrenörler sporcularını kazanmaya şartladıkça spor ortamında sportif erdem ve ahlaki davranışların görme olasılığı da giderek azalmaktadır diyebiliriz.

Kaynakça

Akbulut, A. K. (2012). *Amatör ve profesyonel erkek futbolcuların karar verme, problem çözme ve iletişim becerilerinin bazı değişkenler bakımından incelenmesi.* Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Ankara

Akpınar, Ö., Temel, V., Birol, S. Ş., Akpınar, S., & Nas, K. (2015). Üniversitede Okuyan Hokey Sporcularının Karar Verme Stillerinin Belirlenmesi. *Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 9, 92-99.

Arıburun, B., & Aşçı, H. (2005). Amerikan futbolu oyuncularında hedef yönelimi ve algılanan güdüsel iklim. *Sportmetre Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Bilimleri Dergisi*, *3*(3), 111-114.

Atalay, A. (2016). Türkiye'de üniversitelerde eğitim gören öğrenci sporcuların ahlaki karar alma tutumları. *Akademik Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi, 4*(31), 53-66.

Baumann, S. (1986). *Praxis der sportpsychologie.* München: Blv Buchverlag.

Boardley, I. D., & Kavussanu, M. (2008). The moral disengagement in sport scale short. *Journal of sports sciences, 26*(14), 1507-1517

Çekiç, Ö., & Kurt, C. (2017). Farklı Mevkilerde Oynayan Futbolcularda Hedef Yönelimi ve Algılanan Motivasyonel İklim Arasındaki İlişki. *Uluslararası Spor, Egzersiz ve Anren man Bilimi Dergisi, 3*(3), 93–102.

Çepikkurt, F., Kızıldağ K. E., & Tiryaki, Ş. (2012). Futbolcuların Algıladıkları Lider Davranış ları ve Güdüsel İklim Arasındaki İlişki. *CBÜ Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Bilimleri Dergisi, 7*(2), 19-25.

Deniz, E. (2004). Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Karar Vermede Öz Saygı, Karar Verme Stilleri ve Problem Çözme Yöntemleri Arasındaki İlişkinin İncelenmesi Üzerine Bir Araştırma. *Eğitim Araştırmaları Dergisi*, *4*(15), 25-35.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Duda, J. L. & Whitehead, J. (1998). Measurement of goal perspectives in the physical domain. In JL. Duda (Ed.). Advancements in sport and exercise psychology measurement. Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology, 213- 226.

Erdemli, A. (2006). Temel Sorunlarıyla Spor Felsefesi. İstanbul: E Yayınları

Gürpınar, B. (2014). Sporcu Ortaokul ve Lise Öğrencilerinin Spora Ait Değişkenler Açısından Ahlaki Karar Alma Tutumları. *Eğitim ve Bilim,* 39(176), 413-424.

Gürpınar, B. (2015). Sporda Ahlaktan Uzaklaşma Ölçeği Kısa Formunun Türk Kültürüne Uyarlanması: Geçerlik ve Güvenirlik Çalışması. *Ankara Üniv Spor Bil Fak, 13*(1), 57- 64.

Kelecek, S., Altıntaş, A., & Aşçı, F. H. (2013). Sporcuların Karar Verme Stillerinin Belirlenmesi. *CBÜ Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Bilimleri Dergisi, 8*(1), 21-27.

Leveaux, R. (2010). Facilitating referee's decision making in sport via the application of technology. IBIMA Publishing, 1-8.

Pekdoğan, S. (2015). Karar verme stilleri araştırmaları: 2009-2013 yılları arasındaki yüksek lisans tezlerinin incelenmesi. *International Journal of Social Science,* 34, 321-331.

Roberts, G. C. & Ommundsen, Y. (1996). Effect of goal orientation on achievement beliefs, cognition and strategies in team sport, Scandinavian. *Journal of Medicine and Sport,* 6, 46-56.

Stolen, T., Chamari, K., Castagna, C., & Wisloff, U. (2005). Physiology of Soccer. *Sports Medicine*, *35*(6), 501-536.

Tanrıverdi, H. (2012). Spor ahlakı ve şiddet. *The Journal of Academic Social Science Studies, 5*(8), 1071-1093.

Tatlılıoğlu, K., & Deniz, M. E. (2011). Farklı Öz-Anlayış Düzeylerine Sahip Üniversite Öğrenci lerinin Karar Vermede Öz-Saygı, Karar Verme Stilleri ve Kişilik Özelliklerinin Değerlendirilmesi. *Bingöl Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 1*(1), 19-41.

Toros, T. (2001). *Elit ve elit olmayan basketbolcularda hedef yönelimi, güdüsel iklim ve hedeflerin özgünlük, güçlük derecesi özelliklerinin yaşam doyumuna etkisi*. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Mersin.

Xiang, P., & Couningham, G. B. (2005). Achievement goals, perceived motivational climate and their relation to students' satisfaction with physical activity. *Reserach Quarterly for Sport and Exercise,* 76, A96.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Türksoy Işım, A., Güvendi, B., Toros, T. (2019). Amatör lig futbolcularında sporda ahlaktan uzaklaşma, güdüsel iklim ve karar verme. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 54-62.

Extended abstract in English

Football is a team game and in team games each player's motivation and motivation level rather than individual goals has influence over results of the game. Motivational climate is one of psychological characteristics that affect success especially in team sports (Arıburun and Aşçı, 2005). The motivational orientation that the athlete has, may affect his decision-making style. Decision-making is the preference of the most appropriate one among the options presented in the shortest terms (Tatlılıoğlu and Deniz, 2011). The decision-making and decision-making style is as important in the daily life of the individual as much as in the sports environment. Fit and proper decisions in the sports environment will positively affect the game; whereas miscalls or decisions made at the wrong time may also affect the result of the game as well as adversely affecting the sportsman in the game. (Leveaux, 2010). Decisions made at the place where the sport is expressed as understanding and undertaking and to organise in cooperation and also to improve the ability (İlhan, 2008) and the motivational orientation of the athlete can also cause him to detach from his morality. The aim of this study is to investigate the relationship between amateur league football players' motivational climate and decision-making styles and levels of moral deterioration in sport according to some independent variables and to show the relation between them.

Method: While the researcher's universe includes the football players playing in the amateur league, its sample includes 228 male football players, who played in the Istanbul Amateur League, had age $\bar{X}$ =21,62±3,81 and year of sport $\bar{X}$ =10,39±4,48. As a means of data collection in research; "Moral Disengagement in Sport Scale" adapted by Gürpınar (2015) to Turkish, " Melbourne Decision Scale " adapted to Turkish by Deniz (2004) and "Motivational Climate Scale" developed by Toros (2001) ' were used. In the analysis of the data; descriptive statistics, t test, Single Factor ANOVA and Pearson Moments Multiplication Correlation analysis were used.

Findings: It has been determined that soccer players; have a high self-esteem and careful decision, mastery and performance are moderate in climate and neutral in detention. It has been seen that a positive relationship between detachment and performance climate is low, a moderate relationship between mastery climate and evasive, delinquent and panic decision making, and a low level of negative correlation between performance climate and careful, avoidant and deferential decision making. It has been seen that there was a low level of positive correlation between moral detachment malaise and performance climate a moderate level negative relationship between mastery climate and evasive, delinquent and panic decision making, and a low level of negative correlation between performance climate and careful, avoidant and deferential decision making. As a result; while football players are trying to make careful decisions by trusting themselves instead of making decisions about avoidance, panic and deferment, it has been determined that the penalized footballers make more inevitable decisions. It was also found that football players with a performance climate were detaching from morality on the tracks.

Conclusion: When we look at the average of the scales; it has been determined that footballers have high self-esteem and careful decision-making in decision-making, while mastery and performance are moderate in climate and neutral in detachment. It has been determined that there was a low level of positive correlation between moral detachment and performance climate a moderate level negative relationship between mastery climate and evasive, delinquent and panic decision making, and a low level of negative correlation between performance climate and care-

ISSN: 2149-5939

ful, avoidant and deferential decision making. According to this, as the performance climate increases, the detachment also increases. At the same time, as mastery climate increases, avoidant, repulsive and panic decision-making decrease. However, as the performance climate increases, careful, avoidant, and deliberative decision-making decrease. In this case, it can be considered that the athletes who focus on defeating the opponent and defeating him may display behaviours that would damage the competition spirit. In addition, it can be said that the excessive responsibilities that can be given in both climates, that is to say, defeating and winning the opponent, which may be perceived by the footballers, may lead to the avoidance and panic decisions of the athletes.

There was a significant difference in the level of self-esteem without deciding according to the positions of the footballers. According to this, the defenders have higher self-esteem than the other players. This is thought to be due to the different physical, technical and tactical features and psychological characteristics of the different locations, as well as the fact that the defenders assume more defense duty and move more than the competition and have more time to decide. There was a significant difference in the motive climate and decision-making dimensions according to the punishment situation of the footballers. According to this, it is seen that the mastery climate dimension of the non-penalized football players is higher and that the penalized football players have decided to be more avoidant and procrastination So it can be said that they have received penalties caused to the athletes in their decision and said the case may be unstable and this reflected negatively on the performance. Moreover, it can be said that punished athletes' features such as taking responsibility and duty are less than non-punished athletes. As a result; while football players are trying to make careful decisions by trusting themselves instead of making decisions about avoidance, panic and deferment, it has been determined that the penalized footballers make more inevitable decisions. It was also found that football players with a performance climate were further getting away from morality on the pitch.

ISSN: 2149-5939

IJ§ER
ISSN: 2149-5939

International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research

Online, http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijsser
Volume: 5(1), 2019

Homoeconomicus: the ultimate representative of rational economic behavior

Gelengül Koçaslan[1]

Received Date: 10 / 10/ 2018 Accepted Date: 12 / 01 / 2019

Abstract

Homoeconomicus is the top actor of economics. Economic theoretical insights, models, approaches and frameworks are built upon homoeconomicus also known as economic human. In order to act consistent with the theory and not to violate its basic tenets; homoeconomicus is equipped with some spesific characteristic properties. Homoeconomicus is designed as an unemotional, selfish, rational utility maximizer and was born as a perfect representative of the theory. Economic decision making and behavior is framed and interpreted according to this theoretical concept. In other words there is a dual structure both supports each other. Economic decisions and economic behavior under risk are discussed around a series of the axioms of the theory of expected utility which was suggested by John Von Neumann and Oscar Morgenstern in 1944. However there is a huge research provides evidence that the concept of homoeconomicus remains unsufficient to explain real life economic behavior. Economic behavior contradicts with the axioms of the theory of expected utility. This research examines the concept of homoeconomicus from a wider perspective considering axiomatic roots and rationality-irrationality, Allais Paradox, subjective expected utility, bounded rationality, prospect theory, value, gain, loss, altruistic punishment, fairness, trust and reciprocity. The aim of this research is to better understand homoeconomicus and why and how homoeconomicus fails in real economic life.

Keywords:*Homoeconomicus, rationality, irrationality, expected utility theory, axioms*

1. Introduction

In economics; economic behavior, economic decision making, decision making under risk and uncertainty are explained by the theory of expected utility which was suggested by John Von Neumann who is a mathematician and Oscar Morgenstern who is an economist in 1944 (Von Neumann ve Morgenstern, 1944). The theory of expected utility uses invariance, completeness (complete-ordering), transitivity, continuity, independence, unequal-probability, Archimedean, monotonicity, substitution (independence of irrelevant alternatives) axioms to explain economic preferences, decisions, choices and behavior. The axioms of the theory of expected utility are used to explain rational economic behavior; including rational economic decision making, rational economic choice and rational economic preferences. The theory of expected utility evaluates the concepts of rationality and irrationality in accordance with the axioms. As long as a behavior is consistent with the axioms of the theory it is called as "rational" and if it violates them it is called "irrational".

Although the theory of expected utility theory had gained great currency because of its solid axiomatic structure when it was suggested in 1944, inevitably it didn't take so long that the theory itself and its axioms were called into question. Theoretical view has been questioned since

[1]Assoc. Prof. Dr. , Istanbul University, Faculty of Economics, Department of Economics, TURKEY, kocaslan@istanbul.edu.tr

ISSN: 2149-5939

1950s by several behavioral and experimental research to draw attention to the lack of the theory to explain real life economic behavior. Correspondingly the concept of homoeconomicus has been criticized as being quite fictional. Lately neuroeconomic research has provided evidence that economic behavior in real life doesn't accompany the theoretical insights. Alternative theories have been suggested to develop canonical economic theories so far.

This research calls into question the validity of the concept of homoeconomicus. The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section one is the introduction part. In the section 2 axiomatic roots are explained within the context of the first counterexamples. Section 3 reveals homoeconomicus and alternative concepts suggested. Section 4 concludes.

2. Questioning axiomatic roots

Economic theoretical insights, models, approaches and frameworks are built upon homoeconomicus also known as economic human. In order to act consistent with the theory and not to violate its basic tenets; homoeconomicus is equipped with some specific characteristic properties. In a sense it is a dual structure both supports each other. Homoeconomicus is harmonised with the axioms of the theory of expected utility and is introduced as a rational, unemotional, selfish utility maximizer. Homoeconomicus has been the top actor of economics and was born as a perfect representative of the theory and rationality.

Several researches have investigated the concept of rationality within the context of the theory of expected utility (McFadden, 1999, Mongin, 1998, Weirich, 1986, Machina, 1981, Shoemaker, 1982, Machina 1982). The concept of rationality in economic analysis is a package where the other principle concepts such as invisible-hand and self-regulating economy are included. Consisting of several different packages that support each other and by means of very well written scenario the theory operates like clockwork consequently.

While opposing self-regulating economy Keynes were opening rationality concept up for discussion (Bastien and Cardoso, 2007:119, Keynes, 1936). In 1953 French Economist Maurice Allais revealed that economic behavior systematically violates the independence axiom of the theory which is also known as the heart and also the key axiom of the theory of expected utility. According to the independence axiom of the theory of expected utility when decisions are being made common components are ignored. For example, when a consumer is asked to make a choice between two consumption bundles A and B and if he/she prefers A; independence axiom states that if another consumption bundle C is added to the consumption bundles A and B, the consumer still prefers A to B independent of the common consumption bundle C. His finding is known as "Allais Paradox". Violation of the independence axiom is known as "the common consequence effect" or "the common consequence problem".

In 1961 Daniel Ellsberg revealed similar violations of the axioms of the theory of expected utility. In 1954 Leonard Savage suggested subjective expected utility. In 1957 Herbert Simon revealed "bounded rationality" based on psychological reasoning indicating a finite mind.

In their famous paper "Prospect Theory: An Analysis of Decision Under Risk" Daniel Kahneman and Amos Tversky presented "prospect theory" as an alternative and a critique of the theory of expected utility in 1979. Kahneman and Tversky suggested a value function where value assigned to gains and losses. The value function is also steeper in the loss domain demonstrating sensitivity towards losses. Prospect theory provides evidence that losses are evaluated

ISSN: 2149-5939

Koçaslan, G. (2019). Homoeconomicus: the ultimate representative of rational economic behavior.*International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 63-68.

more compared to same amount of gains different from the theory of expected utility that pays attention to the final asset position. According to the prospect theory suggested by Kahneman and Tversky an asset position is perceived differently depending on the reference point.

3. Questioning homoeconomicus

In spite of its excellent mathematical structure the theory fails to explain economic behavior in everyday life. It fails to serve for economic problems in everyday life and correspondingly it fails to produce effective, sustainable policies and thus becomes distanced from tangible contributions to economic troubles at individual, national and international base. Homoeconomicus serves for the mentioned perfectly working mechanism and hence behaves, decides, prefers, chooses consistent with the theoretical insights. In this perfectly working mechanism homoeconomicus reaches every information he/she needs, withal correctly, whenever needed. For this reason, homoeconomicus knows which option to choose, where to invest, which item to buy in order to maximize utility. In such a system there is no way to fail. Although homoeconomicus succeeds in the theoretical world, fails in real life.

Findings of experimental games provide evidence that individuals exhibit altruistic behavior violating one of the basic tenets attributed to homoeconomicus: selfishness. The results of the ultimatum games showed that individuals display altruistic punishment leads to leave the game empty-handed just to punish the partner which is the violation of not only the basic principle of the theory of expected utility but also the basic postulate of economics; “more is better than less”. There is a huge research reports that fairness, trust and reciprocity are the common motivations when making a decision (Güth et. al. , 1982, Forsythe et. al. , 1994, Boton and Zwick, 1995, Roth, 1995, Berg et. al. , 1995, Fehr et. al. , 1997, Fehr and Schmidt, 2003, Falk et. al., 2003, Cox, 2004, Kritikos ve Bolle, 2005, Chaudhuri and Gangadharan, 2005, Koçaslan, 2010, Mussel et. al. , 2013, Staffiero et. al. , 2013, Charness and Shmidov, 2014, Achtziger et. al. ,2016, Debove et.al. , 2016, Paz et. al. , 2017).

The violations of the axioms attributed to homoeconomicus’ rational economic behavior are revealed and it is shown that economic behavior contradicts with the basic tenets of the theory (Allais, 1953, Simon, 1955, Tversky 1975, Kahneman and Tversky 1979, Tversky and Kahneman 1980, Tversky and Kahneman 1983a, Tversky and Kahneman 1983b, Roth et.al. , 1991, Tversky and Kahneman 1992, Tversky and Shafir 1992, Fehr and Gachter, 2000, Henrich et. al. , 2001, Camerer et. al, 2003, Agarwall and Vercelli, 2005, Kritikos and Bolle, 2005). In their research of homoeconomicus where theoretical assignments to homoeconomicus are called into question once more; Henrich et al. performed behavioral experiments in 15 small-scale societies and stated that canonical model is not supported in any society studied and fails in a wider variety of ways (Henrich et. al. , 2001).

When the concept of homoeconomicus has fallen to explain real life economic behavior; different concepts like homocorporativus adopting cooperative and associative economic behavior and other alternative models such as homoreciprocus, homodialogicus, homopoliticus, homopsychologicus, homoheuristicus, homoduplex, satisfier and heuristic decision-maker have been presented (Simon, 1955, Sahlins, 1972, Sen, 1977, Kahneman et. al. , 1982, Nyborg, 2000, Jager et. al. , 2000, Fehr and Fischbacher, 2003, Bastienand Cardoso, 2007, Kluver et. al. , 2014, Yamagishi et. al. ,2014:1699, Kent and Taylor, 2016).

ISSN: 2149-5939

Koçaslan, G. (2019). Homoeconomicus: the ultimate representative of rational economic behavior.*International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 63-68.

4. Conclusion

Homoeconomicus has been the ultimate representative of economics and economic rationality. Homoeconomicus' behavior, decisions, preferences and choices satisfy the axioms of the theory. So theoretical predictions support the concept of homoeconomicus and vice versa. As long as the research is made within the boundaries of the theory, all of the assumptions are valid and correct. However, it is expected from all branches of sciences to determine points of failures of the theories. Then it is possible to engage theories to real life.

Future predictions are made in order to develop future policies. In other words policies take form regarding to the predictions. In this case if predictions are wrong or insufficient, policies move away from objectives. When theories are engaged to real life properly then predictions made in order to develop future policies will serve real life and the solutions of economic problems in rel life accurately.

It is obvious that economic behavior in daily life conflicts with homoeconomicus concept and attributions are violated systematically. Violating the axioms of the theory of expected utility deserves to be analyzed carefully since it has noteworthy effects on the economy via the responses of individuals to economic policy. As a social science it is not possible to consider economics without human. This brings the need of usage of psychology, physiology, neuroscience, neurology, biology and genetics in economics. Current technological developments in the mentioned fields provide evidence to obtain measurements of emotions such as satisfaction, pleasure, pain and regret. The next step is to reshape "as if" approach and reconsider "ceteris paribus". Then the concept of homoeconomicus will be re-evaluated to serve for solving real life economic problems rather than merely meeting mathematical axioms and economics will move with the times as all branches of science should do.

References

Achtziger, A. , Alós-Ferrer, C. , & Wagner, A. K. (2016). The impact of self-control depletion on social preferences in the ultimatum game.*Journal of Economic Psychology*, 53, 1–16.

Agarwall, B. , & Vercelli, A.(2005). Introduction. In B. Agarwall, &A. Vercelli (Eds.), *Psychology, rationality and economic behavior:changing standard assumptions* (pp. 1-15). New York, Palgrave Macmillan.

Allais, M. (1953). Le comportement de l'hommerationneldevantlerisque: critique des postulats et axiomes de l'ecoleAmericaine. *Econometrica*, 21 (4), 503-546.

Bastien, C. , & Cardoso, J. L. (2007). From homo economicus to homo corporativus:A neglected critique of neoclassical economics. *The Journal of Socio-Economics,* 36, 118–127 .

Berg, J. , Dickhaut, J. , & McCabe, K. (1995). Trust, reciprocity and social history. *Games and Economic Behavior*, 10, 122-42.

Camerer, C. F, Loewenstein, G. , & Rabin R. (2003). (Eds.),*Advances in behavioral economics*. USA , Princeton University Press.

Charness, G. , & Shmidov, V. (2014). Trust and Reciprocity. *Foundations and Trendsin Microeconomics*, 10(3), 167–207.

Chaudhuri, A. , & Gangadharan, L. (2005). An experimental analysis of trust and trust-worthiness. *Southern Economic Journal*, 73(4), 959-985.

Cox, J. C. (2004). How to identify trust and reciprocity. *Games and Economic Behavior,* 46, 260-281.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Koçaslan, G. (2019). Homoeconomicus: the ultimate representative of rational economic behavior.*International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 63-68.

Debove, S. , Baumard, N. , & André, J. B. (2016). Models of the evolution of fairness in the ultimatum game: a review and classification. *Evolution and Human Behavior,* 37, 245–254.

Falk, A. , Fehr, E. , & Fischbacher, U. (2003). On the nature of fair behaviour. *Economic Inquiry*, 41(1), 20-26.

Fehr, E. , & Schmidt, K. M. (2003). Theories of fairness and reciprocity - evidence and economic applications. In M. Dewatripont, L. P. Hansen & S. J. Turnovsky (Eds.), *Advances in Economics and Econometrics, Econometric Society Monographs, Volume 1,*(pp. 208 – 257). Eighth World Congress.

Fehr, E. , & Ga¨chter, S. (2000). Fairness and retaliation: the economics of reciprocity. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, *14*(3), 159–81.

Fehr, E., Gächter, S. , & Kirchsteiger, G. (1997). Reciprocity as a contract enforcement device. *Econometrica*, 65, 866-90.

Fehr, E. , & Fischbacher, U. (2003). The nature of human altruism. *Nature*, *425*, 785–791.

Forsythe, R. , Horowitz, J. L., Savin, N. E. & Sefton, M. (1994). Fairness in simple bargaining experiments. *Games and Economic Behavior,* 6(3), 347–369.

Güth, W. , Schmittberger, R. , & Schwarze, B. (1982). An experimental analysis of ultimatum bargaining. *Journal of Economic Behavior and Organization,* 3: 367-388.

Henrich J. , Boyd, R. , Bowles, S. , Camerer, C. , Fehr, E. , Gintis, H. , & Mcelreath, R. (2001). In search of homo economicus: behavioral experiments in 15 small-scale societies. *Economics And Social Behavıor*, 91(2), 73-78.

Jager, W. , Janssen, M. A. , De Vries, H. J. M. , De Greef, J. , & Vlek, C. A. J. (2000) Behaviour in commons dilemmas: homoeconomicusand homopsychologicusin an ecological-economic model. *Special Issue The Human Actor In Ecological-Economic Models Ecological Economics*, 35, 357–379.

Kahneman, D. , & Tversky, A. (1979). Prospect theory:an analysis of decision under risk. *Econometrica*, 47(2), 263-291.

Kahneman, D. , Slovic, P. , & Tversky, A. (1982). *Judgment under uncertainty: Heuristics and biases*. New York, Cambridge University Press.

Kent, M. L. , & Taylor, M. (2016). Review from homoeconomicus to homodialogicus: rethinking socialmedia use in CSR communication. *Public Relations Review*, 42, 60–67.

Keynes, J.M. (1936). *The general theory of employment, interest and money*. London, Macmillan.

Kluver, J. , Frazier, R. , & Haidt, J. (2014). Behavioral ethics for homoeconomicus, homoheuristicus,and homoduplex. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes.* 123, 150–158.

Koçaslan, G. (2010). Neuroeconomics: Bringing Neuroscience and Economics Together. *Gaziantep Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 9(3), 505-512.

Kritikos, A. , & Bolle, F. (2005). Utility-based altruism:evidence from experiments. In B. Agarwall & A. Vercelli (Eds.), *Psychology, rationality and economic behavior:changing standard assumptions*(pp. 181-194). New York, Palgrave Macmillan.

Machina, M. (1981). “Rational” decision making versus “rational” decision modelling. *Journal of Mathematical Psychology*, 24, 163-175.

Machina, M. (1982). “Expected utility” analysis without the independence axiom. *Econometrica*, 50, 277-323.

McFadden, D. (1999).Rationality for economists. *Journal of Risk And Uncertainty*, 19(1), 73-105.

Mongin, P. (1998). Expected utility theory. In J. B. Davis, D. W. Hands, & U. Mäki (Eds.), *The handbook of economic methodology* (pp.171-178). UK, Edward Elgar Publishing.

Mussel, P. , Hewig, J. , & Göritz, A. S. (2013). Which choice is the rational one? An investigation of need for cognition in the ultimatum game. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 47, 588–591.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Nyborg, K. (2000). Homo Economicus and Homo Politicus: interpretation and aggregation of environmental values. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization,* 42, 305–322.

Paz, V. , Nicolaisen-Sobesky, E. , Collado, E. , Horta, S. , Rey, C. , Rivero, M . , Berriolo, P . , Díaz, M. , Otón, M . , Pérez, A. , Fernández-Theoduloz, G. , Cabana, A. , & Gradin, V. B. (2017). Effect of self-esteem on social interactions during the Ultimatum Game. *Psychiatry Research,* 252, 247–255.

Roth, A. (1995). Bargaining Experiments. In Kagel, J. H. , & Roth, A. (Eds.), *Handbook of Experimental Economics (pp. 253-342). USA, Princeton Univeristy Press.*

Roth, A. E. , Prasnikar, V. , Okuno-Fujiwara, M. & Zamir, S. (1991). Bargaining and market behavior in Jerusalem, Ljubljana, Pittsburgh, and Tokyo: an experimental study. *American Economic Review*, *81*(5), 1068–95.

Sahlins, M. (1972). *Stone age economics*. London, Routledge.

Schoemaker, P. J. H. (1982). The expected utility model: Its variants, purposes, evidence and limitations. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 20(2), 529-563.

Sen, A. K. (1977). Rational fools: A critique of the behavioral foundations of economic theory. *Philosophy & PublicAffairs*, *6*, 317–344.

Simon, H. (1955). A behavioral model of rational choice. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, *69*, 99–118.

Staffiero, G. , Exadaktylos, F. , & Espín, A. M. (2013). Accepting zero in the ultimatum game does not reflect selfish preferences. *Economics Letters*, 121, 236–238.

Tversky, A. , & Kahneman, D. (1992). Advances in prospect theory: cumulative representation of uncertainty. *Journal of Risk and Uncertainty*, 5:297-323.

Tversky, A. , & Kahneman, D. (1980). Judgements of and by representativeness. In D. Kahneman, P. Slovic, A. Tversky (Eds.)*Judgements Under Uncertainty: Heuristics and Biases*(pp. 84-98). UK, Cambridge University Press.

Tversky, A. , & Kahneman, D. (1983a). Judgment under uncertainty: heuristics and biases. *Science*, 185:1124–1131.

Tversky, A. , & Shafir, E. (1992). The disjunction effect in choice under uncertainty. *Psychol Sci*. , 3:305–309.

Tversky, A. (1975). A critique of expected utility theory: descriptive and normative considerations. *Erkenntnis,* 9: 163-173.

Tversky, A. , & Kahneman, D. (1983b). Extensional versus ıntuitive reasoning: the conjunction fallacy in probability judgement. *Psychol Rev. ,* 90:293-315.

Von Neumann, J. , & Morgenstern, O. (1944). *Theory of games and economic behavior*. USA, Princeton University Press.

Weirich, P. (1986). Expected utility and risk. *The British Journal for the Philosophy of Science*, 37(4), 419- 442.

Yamagishi, T. , Li, Y. , Takagishi, H. , Matsumoto, Y. , & Kiyonari, T. (2014). In search of homoeconomicus. *Psychological Science*, 25(9), 1699–1711 .

ISSN: 2149-5939

IJ§ER
ISSN: 2149-5939
International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research
Online, http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijsser
Volume: 5(1), 2019

Forced marriages as human rights violation

Zeynep Reva[1] and Oğuz Polat[2]

Received Date: 10 / 10/ 2018 Accepted Date: 12 / 01 / 2019

Abstract

Forced marriage, which is not entered into only with the free and full consent of the intending spouses, is violation of internationally recognised human rights standards. In Turkey; there are many types of forced marriage. Protecting perceived cultural or religious ideals is the most significant factor leads to forced marriage. A forced marriage will be a marriage where all kinds of violence in the family will most likely be experienced. Some European countries made forced marriage into a criminal offence, but it is not defined as a criminal offence in Turkey. This study aims to point out the situation and the types of forced marriages in Turkey and to bring suggestions to struggle with forced marriages.

Keywords: *Forced marriage, child marriage, early marriage, right to marry, right not to marry, involuntary marriage, human rights violation.*

1. Introduction

A forced marriage is marriage in which one or both spouses do not give consent to the marriage and violence, threats, or any other form of coercion is involved to actualize the marriage. Coercion may include physical force, the threat of physical force, psychological force, and economical pressure. Forced marriage differs from arranged marriage. In an arranged marriage, parties can refuse to marry if they choose to, but in forced marriage there is no chance to refuse. That is the difference between the forced marriage and the arranged marriage.

Forced marriage is a marriage that takes place without the consent of one or both people in the marriage. Forced marriage may occur when family members or others use physical or emotional abuse, threats, or deception to force someone to marry without his/her consent. Forced marriages is violation of internationally recognised human rights standards. No marriage shall be entered into without the free and full consent of the intending spouses.

This study aims to point out the types and situation of forced marriages, in particular child marriages, in Turkey and to bring suggestions to struggle with forced marriages.

2. Literature

Right to marry is an internationally recognised human rights standard as per Article 16 of Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Article 23 of International Covenant on Civil and Po-

[1] Attorney-at-Law, LL.M., Ph.D. Candidate. Istanbul Medeniyet University, Medical Law Department Doctorate Program. İstanbul, Turkey, z_reva@yahoo.com Contact author. The paper has been presented by this author at the 2nd International Conference on New Approaches in Social Sciences and Humanities dated 26-28 October 2018.
[2] Prof. Dr. Acıbadem Mehmet Ali Aydınlar University, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Forensic Medicine. İstanbul, Turkey, ouzpol@yahoo.com

ISSN: 2149-5939

litical Rights, Article of 12 European Convention on Human Rights, Article 16 of the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), and Article 12 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (Table-1).

Table 1. Related international standards on right to marry

Related international standard	Related article
Universal Declaration of Human Rights	Article 16: (1) Men and women of full age, without any limitation due to race, nationality or religion, have the right to marry and to found a family. They are entitled to equal rights as to marriage, during marriage and at its dissolution (2) Marriage shall be entered into only with the free and full consent of the intending spouses.
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights	*Article 23: (*1) The family is the natural and fundamental group unit of society and is entitled to protection by society and the State. (2) The right of men and women of marriageable age to marry and to found a family shall be recognized. (3) No marriage shall be entered into without the free and full consent of the intending spouses. (4) States Parties to the present Covenant shall take appropriate steps to ensure equality of rights and responsibilities of spouses as to marriage, during marriage and at its dissolution. In the case of dissolution, provision shall be made for the necessary protection of any children.
European Convention on Human Rights	Article 12 – Right to Marry: Men and women of marriageable age have the right to marry and to found a family, according to the national laws governing the exercise of this right.
Convention on the Rights of the Child	Article 12: (1) States Parties shall assure to the child who is capable of forming his or her own views the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child, the views of the child being given due weight in accordance with the age and maturity of the child. (2) For this purpose, the child shall in particular be provided the opportunity to be heard in any judicial and administrative proceedings affecting the child, either directly, or through a representative or an appropriate body, in a manner consistent with the procedural rules of national law.
The Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women(CEDAW)	Article 16: (1) States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in all matters relating to marriage and family relations and in particular shall ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women: (a) The same right to enter into marriage; (b) The same right freely to choose a spouse and to enter into marriage only with their free and full consent; ………………………… (2) The betrothal and the marriage of a child shall have no legal effect, and all necessary action, including legislation, shall be taken to specify a minimum age for marriage and to make the registration of marriages in an official registry compulsory.

When it is investigated the national legislation of Turkey, Article 41 of the Constitution of The Republic of Turkey and Article 124 of Turkish Civil Code may be indicated as the significant legislation. It is stated that the family is the foundation of the Turkish society and based on

ISSN: 2149-5939

the equality between the spouses in Article 41 of the Constitution of the Republic. According to Article 124 of Turkish Civil Code, male or female may not get married unless completing full age of seventeen.

2. Methodology

This study is a systematic review of forced marriages and that were conducted in Turkey to discuss the issue with a wider perspective. This conceptual paper is based on a systematic review and analysis of research and data from the literature, and the statistics of UNICEF, World Bank, Turkish Statistical Institute, and Ministry of Justice. The method of this study is literature and statistics screening method. The literature review was carried out in "Acibadem University Database", "Ulakbim Turkish Academic Network and Information Center", "Google Scholar". The research was made between June 2018 and October 2018 and 5 keywords were used: "forced marriage", "child marriage", "early marriage", "right to marry", and "involuntary marriage".

3. Findings

3.1. Victims of forced marriages

Forced marriage is a problem to be encountered all over the world, not a problem specific to one country or culture. Since it was established in 2005, the Foreign and Commonwealth Office has handled cases relating to over 90 countries across Asia, the Middle East, Africa, Europe and North America (Foreign and Commonwealth Office, 2018).

When it is looked from gender perspective; women are faced to this problem more than men. According to a report, in 2017, the majority of cases 930 (77.8%) involved women; 256 cases (21.4%) involved males. These proportions are in line with previous years. When it is looked from age perspective; children and young persons are faced to this problem more than older persons. According to the report, of the cases, that Foreign and Commonwealth Office provided support to; 355 cases (29.7%) involved victims below 18 years of age; and 353 cases (29.5%) involved victims aged 18-25 (Foreign and Commonwealth Office, 2018).

3.2. Types of forced marriages in Turkey

In Turkey; there are many types of forced marriage, such as Taygeldi marriage, marriage with brother-in-law (Levirat), marriage with sister-in-law (Sorarat), blood money marriage, marriage against bride wealth, berder (berdel) marriage, abduction, co-wife marriage, marriage for revenge, and child marriage (Balaman, 2002: 42-45)

a) *Taygeldi marriage:* It is known also as "with mother and daughter" or "with inside and outside" Marriage of two widows having children from different genders in company with the marriage of children of them (Balaman, 2002: 42-45; Yasa, 1962: 300-305). It is not observed in west. It is specific to Islamic countries. In the event that both widows have children in marriage age or in early age from different genders and in equal number, then the real or symbolic marriage of widows and children is called as taygeldi marriage.

b) *Marriage with brother-in-law (Levirat)*: It refers the marriage of brother of a deceased elder brother with the wife of his elder brother. It is frequently seen in Eastern and South-eastern Anatolia. The customary power that is compulsory to comply in Eastern Anatolia and South-eastern Anatolia makes pressure in direction to get married with the younger brother but absolutely not

ISSN: 2149-5939

the elder brother of the deceased person. The elder brother is deemed as the elder brother of the bride so it is deemed that they are not eligible to get married with each other. This kind of marriage is not much encountered in our western regions.

The law referred it as "Atypical form of marriage"; if the brother is married, it is colloquially referred as "co-wife" or "with inside and outside with partner". Only religious marriage is solemnized and the born child is registered in the civil registry of the first wife (Yasa, 1962: 300-305; Poyraz Tacoğlu, 201: 114-116).

This marriage is realized with the choice of the family not the choice of the individuals to get married with. The purpose is to preserve the integrity of the family and to prevent the children to be abandoned and suppressed. The married woman has joined to that family and must not leave it anymore.

c) *Marriage with sister-in-law (Sorarat):* It is a special cultural tradition. The marriage of widow man with the sister of his ex-wife. It is tried to be rationalized with the consideration that the aunt selected as stepmother will be more tolerant to the orphaned children (Balaman, 2002: 42-45).

d) *Blood Money:* It is a kind of marriage where daughters are granted in company with materials assets against blood money to the families that have blood feud between them. It is formed by the custom as it is the case in levirat. It is encountered more frequently in regions of Eastern and South-eastern Anatolia like other enforced marriages. (Balaman, 2002: 42-45). There is not there any consent of the marrying individuals. Marrying against blood money is a primitive form of marriage based on lack of education. The only positive aspect of such marriages is the fact that they terminate blood feuds (Sezen, 2005: 185-195).

e) *Marriage with Bride wealth:* Bride wealth refers to the money paid by the young man to get married to the family of the girl. It can be granted in gold, house, garden, field and animal as well as it can be paid in cash money. It is commonly performed in rural parts of the Regions of Eastern and South-eastern Anatolia (Balaman, 2002: 42-45).

f) *Berder (berdel) Marriage:* It is known as "Kepir" in Hakkari, "Performing Exchange" in Denizli-Aydın and "Berdel" in Eastern and South-eastern Anatolia. It is the exchange of sisters by two men in marriage age from one to the other. Generally it is performed because of being able to pay bride wealth (for poor families) or in order to further reinforce the relations like sheikhdom and landlord status for ones who are from higher socioeconomic level. It is done with the purpose to ensure the efficiency in family and the control over children (Balaman, 2002: 42-45).

a) *Abduction:* Abduction is committed in events that families object a marriage. Claiming bride wealth is also a factor in this (Balaman, 2002: 42-45).

b) *Marriage with co-wife:* The man whose wife is infertile or cannot deliver a son is made to marry again and then the man lives with multiple women usually in same home. It is commonly performed in the Regions of Eastern and South-eastern Anatolia (Balaman, 2002: 42-45).

c) *Marriage for Revenge:* Some families having blood feud between them use this means in order to tarnish the opposite family's honour and to damage their reputation (Balaman, 2002: 42-45).

d) *Betrothed in the cradle:* Friends, fellows, neighbours or relatives who love each other very much perform engagement of their children when they are in cradle by tying notching (mark, cloth) to cradle and thus promise that their babies will marry each other (Balaman, 2002: 42-45).

e) *Child Marriage:* Child marriage is defined as a marriage or union taking place before the age of 18.

ISSN: 2149-5939

3.3. Child marriage

3.3.1. In generally

Child marriage is a problem that prevents the exercise of human rights, undermines the status of women and deprive child from their fundamental rights. Child marriages can be faced in every region all over the world, from the Sub-Saharan to Latin America, Middle East to Europe.

Children (especially girls) and young persons (especially young women) are faced to this problem more than older persons. In many countries, a large share of girls still marry before the age of 18. The international community and country governments are increasingly aware of the negative impacts of child marriage, yet investments to end the practice remain limited. Worldwide, more than 700 million women alive today (18,6% of the female population in the world) were married before their 18th birthday. More than one in three (about 250 million) entered into union before age 15 (World Bank, 2014).

Child marriage also affects boys, but to a lesser degree than girls (Unicef, 2018). Many factors interact to place a girl at risk of marriage, including poverty, the perception that marriage will provide ‘protection’, family honour, social norms, customary or religious laws that condone the practice, an inadequate legislative framework and the state of a country’s civil registration system. Child marriage often compromises a girl’s development by resulting in early pregnancy and social isolation, interrupting her schooling, limiting her opportunities for career and vocational advancement and placing her at increased risk of domestic violence (UNICEF, 2018).

Child marriage is fuelled by gender inequality, poverty, traditions, and insecurity. But drivers will vary from one community to the next and the practice may look different across regions and countries, even within the same country (Girls not Brides, 2018).

According to the UNICEF database, Niger has the highest rates of child marriage in the World with 76% of the girls getting married before the age of 18. Turkey has one of the highest rates of child marriage in Europe with an estimated 15% of the girls getting married before the age of 18 (UNICEF Database; UNICEF 2018) (Table-2). However, statistical data available may not be representative of the scale of the issue since some of the child marriages are unregistered and take place as unofficial religious marriages.

Table 2. Related international standards on right to marry

Rank	Country	Married by 15	Married by 18	Source
1	Niger	28	76	DHS 2012
2	Central African Republic	29	68	MICS 2010
3	Chad	30	67	DHS 2014-15
4	Bangladesh	22	59	DHS 2014
5	Burkina Faso	10	52	DHS 2010
6	Mali	17	52	MICS 2015
7	South Sudan	9	52	SHHS 2010
8	Guinea	19	51	MICS 2016
9	Mozambique	14	48	DHS 2011
10	Somalia	8	45	MICS 2006
87	Turkey	1	15	DHS 2013

Source: UNICEF Database, last updated March 2018

ISSN: 2149-5939

3.4.2. In Turkey

Under Article 124 of Turkish Civil Code; the minimum legal age of marriage is; 18 without parental consent; 17 with parental consent; and 16 with court authorization.

Mean age at first marriage was 27.7 for males and 24.6 for females in 2017. According to the marriage statistics of TURKSTAT, while the proportion of legal child marriages for girls aged between 16 and 17 within the total legal marriages were 6.2% in 2013, it declined to 4.2% in 2017. In province-based analyses in 2017, the province with the highest proportion of child marriages for girls was Ağrı with the proportion of 16.6%. This province was followed by Muş with 16.1% and Bitlis with 12.3%. The three provinces with the lowest proportion of child marriages for girls within total marriages were Tunceli with 0.4%, Rize with 1.1% and Trabzon with 1.4% respectively (TURKSTAT, March 2018; TURKSTAT, April 2018) (Table-3).

Table 3. Provinced based child marriages

Rank	Province	Total Number of Marriage	Number of Girl Child Marriage	Proportion of Girl Child Marriage in Total Marriage
1	Ağrı	4,300	712	16,6
2	Muş	3,204	517	16,1
3	Bitlis	2,568	315	12,3
4	Niğde	2,683	328	12,2
5	Ardahan	621	74	11,9
6	Kars	1,880	223	11,9
7	Kilis	1,282	148	11,5
8	Van	8,779	947	10,8
9	Gaziantep	15,191	1,591	10,5
10	Kahramanmaraş	8,092	801	9,9
---	---	---	---	---
79	Trabzon	5,120	73	1,4
80	Rize	2,021	22	1,1
81	Tunceli	445	2	0,4
	Toplam-Total	569,459	23,906	4,2

Source: Turkstat, Statistics on Child, 2017

The provinces with the highest rates are located in Eastern and South-eastern Anatolia in Turkey. Child marriage statistics are officially published for children 16-17, but data on child marriage before the age of 16 is not available.

In 2017; the total number of all marriages is 569.459, and 23.906 of those is girl child marriage (TURKSTAT, March 2018). Child marriage statistics are officially published for children 16-17, but data on child marriage before the age of 16 is not available.

According to the data of 2017 of the Ministry of Justice (Statistics of Ministry of Justice, 2017); the number of lawsuits in subject of permission for marriage filed in Family Courts is 8,581, and of the cases, 7384 were fully or partially accepted; and The province with the highest rate of these lawsuits is located in Southeast Anatolia in Turkey. This data reveals only that the number of girls married officially in minor age is high.

ISSN: 2149-5939

4. Results

Forced marriage is marriage in which one or both spouses do not give consent to the marriage. It can be encountered all over the world. Forced marriages are commonly encountered in rural parts of Turkey, in particular at the regions of Eastern and South-Eastern Anatolia. In Turkey; there are many types of forced marriage, such as taygeldi marriage, marriage with brother-in-law (levirat), marriage with sister-in-law (sorarat), blood money marriage, marriage against bride wealth, berder (berdel) marriage, abduction, co-wife marriage, marriage for revenge, and child marriage. Child marriage may be specified the most significant one of the forced marriages types. Turkey has one of the highest rates of child marriage in Europe with an estimated 15% of the girls getting married before the age of 18. Although there is no official data regarding forced marriages (except child marriages), naming the kinds of it implies that it is quite common.

The main factors leads to forced marriage, in particular child marriages, may be specified as lack of education, custom and tribe factor, control of women's free behaviour, family honour, misinterpretation of religious knowledge, domestic violence, social and family pressure on parents economic reasons, migration, and exposure to abuse and rape (KADEM, 2014). Additionally, protecting perceived cultural or religious ideals is the most significant factor of the forced marriages. Despite the changing socio-cultural structures especially in eastern and south eastern regions; customs and tribal traditions preserve their significance in some regions where traditional and cultural effects, habits and pattern judgments dominate. Customs that we can define as unwritten social rules is a concept that allows early marriages. Existence of a great number of proverb justifying marriage in childhood age in Turkish reveals the effect of the factor of custom: "girl is in cradle and dowry is in coffer", "Girl in fifteen is either with husband or on ground", "Iron in temper, belle in age", "Whoever get married early takes child, whoever get up early makes way" "Whoever got married early has not been mistaken" and so on.

A forced marriage will be a marriage where all kinds of violence in the family - physical, emotional, economic and sexual - will most likely be experienced. The serious impacts, especially for young women, can be vary and widely. In addition to emotional and sexual influences such as living and sleeping with an undesirable person, there are some more other consequences such as lack of right of education and work, economic dependence on man/husband, chronic psychosomatic diseases and even suicidal drag.

Forced marriage is considered as a criminal offence in some European countries such as Belgium, Norway and Germany, but not in Turkey (Parrot and Cummings, 2008, 33; Atun and Atun, 2018, 571-579). On the other hand, there is a difference in terms of being in sexual intercourse with the child (indirectly for child marriages). According to the Turkish Penal Code it is considered as a criminal offence to be in sexual intercourse with minors under 15 either even if the consent of minor exists.

5. Conclusion

Forced marriages are commonly encountered in rural parts of Turkey, in particular at the regions of Eastern and South-Eastern Anatolia. It is aimed to emphasize the forced marriages as one of the big problems of Turkey, so that there are many types of forced marriages in Turkey. Although there is no official data regarding forced marriages (except child marriages), naming the kinds of it implies that it is quite common.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Reva, Z., Polat, O. (2019). Forced marriages as human rights violation. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 69-77

An individual's right to choose a spouse and enter freely into marriage is central to his/her life and dignity, and equality as a human being. It is important to educate individuals and society about the right to marry and not to marry, the natural extension of the most basic human rights of marriage, the terrible impacts of the forced marriage on the young women and children, and to address the issue of bringing legal regulations that will prevent forced marriages such as defining the forced marriage as a criminal offense. To struggle with forced marriages, in particular child marriages; it is necessary to hold meetings, trainings and workshops to create and develop awareness for implementation of relevant provisions of Turkish Civil Code, Turkish Penal Code and Law on Protection of Minors and raise awareness on the impact of the forced marriages. It is also important to address the issue of bringing legal regulations that will prevent forced marriages such as defining the forced marriage as a criminal offense.

References

Atun, Y. & Atun, A. (2018). The unfounded mass burials of the so-called Armenian Genocide. International. *Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research, 4(4),* 571-579. http://dergipark.gov.tr/download/article-file/552789 (Last accessed on 23.12.2018)

Balaman, A.R. (2002). Marriage Kinship Types. *Publications of Ministry of Culture of Turkish Republic*, Ankara, 42-45,

Constitution of The Republic of Turkey: http://www.constitutionalcourt.gov.tr/inlinepages/ legislation/pdf/constitution_en.pdf (Last assessed on 23.12.2018)

Forced Marriage Unit Statistics (2017). *Foreign and Commonwealth Office,* 16 March 2018. https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/730155/2017_FMU_statistics_FINAL.pdf

KADEM (2014). Workshop Report on Fight against Early Marriages and Forced Marriages in Turkey, http://kadem.org.tr/erken-yasta-ve-zorla-evliliklere-karsi-mucadele-calistay-raporu/ (Last assessed on 23.12.2018)

Parrot, A. & Cummings, N. (2008), Sexual Enslavement of Girls and Women. Worldwide, Westport, CT. Lobdon, Praeger.

Poyraz Tacoğlu, T. (2011). The Reasons for Traditional Marriages in Turkey and the Effects of Custom on Marriages. *METU Institute of Social Sciences Journal of Social Sciences Research. ISSN: 1309-9302. Volume: 2 Issue: December 4, 2011*: 114-143.

Sezen, L. (2005). Marriage Types in Turkey. *Atatürk University Turkish Intermediate Research Institute Journal, Issue: 27, Prof. Dr. Sinasi Tekin Special Issue, 2005*: 185-195.

Statistics of Ministry of Justice, 2017. http://www.adlisicil.adalet.gov.tr/istatistik_2017/ istatistik2017.pdf (Last accessed on 22.08.2018).

Turkish Civil Code: http://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/MevzuatMetin/1.5.4721.doc (Last assessed on 23.12.2018)

TURKSTAT (April 2018) Statistics on Children, 2017, No: 27596, 18 April 2018

TURKSTAT (March 2018). Marriage and Divorce Statistics, 2017, No: 27593, 02 March 2018.

UNICEF Database. https://data.unicef.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/Child-marriage-database_Mar-2018.xlsx (Last accessed on 23.12.2018)

UNICEF (2018), Progress for Every Child in the SDG Era, March 2018.

World Bank, Economic Impacts of Child Marrıage: (Conference Edition) June 2017, Global Synthesis Unicef, Ending Child Marriage, Progress and Prospects, 2014.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Reva, Z., Polat, O. (2019). Forced marriages as human rights violation. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 69-77.

Yasa, İ. (1962). Taygeldi Family. *Ankara University Faculty of Political Science Journal, Ankara,* Volume: 17: 300-305

------------- https://data.unicef.org/topic/ child-protection/child-marriage/ (Last assessed on 23.12.2018)

------------- https://www.girlsnotbrides.org/why-does-it-happen/ (Last assessed on 23.12.2018)

ISSN: 2149-5939

IJ§ER
ISSN: 2149-5939

International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research
Online, http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijsser
Volume: 5(1), 2019

Fen bilgisi öğretmen adaylarının TÜBİTAK destek programlarına yönelik proje yazma/hazırlama becerilerinin gelişimi[1]

Improving preservice science teachers' ability to write/prepare projects to TUBITAK grant program

Duygu Metin Peten[2], Fatma Yaman[3], Gülşah Sezen Vekli[4] ve Murat Çavuş[5]

Gönderilme tarihi: 10 / 12/ 2018 Kabul tarihi: 12 / 02 / 2019

Öz

Bu çalışma, TÜBİTAK Destek Programlarına yönelik proje hazırlama eğitiminin fen bilgisi öğretmen adaylarının proje yazma/hazırlama becerilerine etkisi araştırmaktadır. Bu amaçla hazırlanan eğitim öncesinde ve sonrasında öğretmen adaylarından bilim fuarlarına yönelik proje önerisi hazırlamaları istenmiştir. Bu araştırmada eylem araştırması kullanılmıştır. Öğretmen adaylarının proje önerileri eğitim öncesinde ve sonrasında araştırmacılar tarafından hazırlanan bir rubrik ile değerlendirilmiştir. Araştırmadan elde edilen sonuçlara göre, proje hazırlama eğitiminin fen bilgisi öğretmen adaylarının proje hazırlama/yazma becerilerini geliştirdiği, özellikle öğretmen adaylarını proje türü seçme konusunda ve kabul edilebilir proje yazma konusunda desteklediği görülmektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: *Proje Önerisi Hazırlama, Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliği, Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi*

Abstract

The present study investigates the effectiveness of professional development project on preservice science teachers' (PST) ability to write/prepare application for grant programs provided by TUBITAK. For this purpose, PSTs were asked to prepare grant application for science fair projects before and after training. The action research method was used through this project. The PSTs' project proposals were evaluated by the rubric before and after the training. According to result, the professional development project was effective especially in supporting PSTs in understanding of the differences between three different types of projects and in choosing the right science projects which were in the scope of grant program.

Keywords: *Preparing Science Project, Preservice Science Teachers, Professional Development*

1. Giriş

Bilimsel bilgiye ulaşma yollarını bilen ve bilimsel bilgiyi etkili bir şekilde kullanabilen bireyler yetiştirmek fen öğretiminin temel amaçlarından biridir. Bu amacın gerçekleştirilmesinde şüphesiz bilim şenlikleri (fen, matematik şenlikleri vb.), buluş şenlikleri, bilim/proje fuarları ve proje yarışmaları gibi etkinlikler oldukça önemli bir role sahiptir.

[1] Bu araştırma, Yozgat Bozok Üniversitesi Proje Koordinasyon Uygulama ve Araştırma Merkezi tarafından desteklenmiştir. Proje No: 6602a-EF18-165
[2] Dr. Öğr. Üy., *Yozgat Bozok Üniversitesi, Yozgat, Türkiye, duygu.metin@bozok.edu.tr*
[3] Dr. Öğr. Üy., *Yozgat Bozok Üniversitesi, Yozgat, Türkiye, fatma.yaman@bozok.edu.tr*
[4] Dr. Öğr. Üy., *Yozgat Bozok Üniversitesi, Yozgat, Türkiye, gulsah.vekli@bozok.edu.tr*
[5] Dr. Öğr. Üy., *Yozgat Bozok Üniversitesi, Yozgat, Türkiye, murat.cavus@bozok.edu.tr*

ISSN: 2149-5939

Metin Peten, D., Yaman, F., Vekli, G.S., Çavuş, M. (2019). Improving preservice science teachers' ability to write/prepare projects to TUBITAK grant program. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 78-90.

Bilim şenlikleri öğrencilerin fen bilimleri dersine yönelik tutumlarını olumlu yönde geliştirerek öğrenme çıktıları üzerinde gelişim sağlayabilecek bilimsel bir etkinliktir (Yıldırım, 2016). Bir bilim şenliğinin öğretici birçok özelliğe sahip olmasına rağmen, temel amacı bilimsel düşünmeyi geliştirmek, bilimsel yöntem ve araştırmayı kullanmayı öğrenen bireyleri teşvik etmektir. Bilim şenlikleri ve bilim fuarları, öğrenenin bilimsel araştırma sürecine uygulamalı olarak doğrudan katılmasına imkân veren öğrenci projelerinin sunulduğu ve paylaşıldığı organizasyonlardır (Korkmaz, 2004).

Literatür incelendiğinde bilim şenlikleri ve bilim fuarlarının, öğrencilerin bilişsel, duyuşsal ve devinişsel gelişimlerine etkisini inceleyen araştırmalar olduğu görülmektedir. Örneğin, Camcı (2008), ilköğretim okullarında bilim şenliği/proje yarışması etkinliklerine katılan ve katılmayan öğrencilerin bilime ve bilim insanlarına yönelik ilgi ve imajları arasında bir farklılık olup olmadığını araştırmıştır. Araştırmada bilim şenliğine katılan öğrencilerin daha çok bilimin doğası ve bilimsel süreçle ilgilendiği; bilim şenliğine katılmayan öğrencilerin ise daha çok günlük hayatta doğrudan gözlemlenen olaylarla ilgilendikleri ortaya çıkmıştır. Benzer şekilde Çeliker ve Erduran Avcı (2015) bilimsel faaliyetlere katılan ilkokul 3. ve 4. sınıf öğrencilerinin bilim insanı algılarındaki değişimi inceledikleri araştırmalarında; beş aylık bir süreçte gerçekleştirdikleri bilimsel faaliyetler öncesi ve sonrası uyguladıkları "Bir Bilim İnsanı Çiz" testini analiz etmişlerdir. Sonuç olarak bilimsel faaliyetlere katılan ilkokul öğrencilerinin çoğunun bilim insanı algılarının bazı özellikler (araştırma ve bilgi sembolleri, her iki cinsiyetin bir arada bulunması, grupla çalışma ve çoklu ortamlarda çalışma) bakımından değişim gösterdiğini ortaya koymuşlardır.

Literatürde bilim şenlikleri ve bilim fuarlarının öğrencilerin fene yönelik tutumları üzerine etkisini inceleyen araştırmalara da rastlamak mümkündür. Örneğin Durmaz, Dinçer ve Osmanoğlu (2017) araştırmalarında bilim şenliğinin öğrencilerin fene yönelik tutumları üzerine etkisini incelemişlerdir. Çalışma sonunda; bilim şenliğinin farklı öğrenme düzeylerinde öğrenim gören 124 ilkokul öğrencisinin fene yönelik tutumlarını olumlu yönde etkilediği görülmektedir. Bilim şenlikleri ve bilim fuarlarının öğrencilerin fene yönelik tutumları üzerine etkisini inceleyen bir diğer çalışma ise Yıldırım ve Şensoy (2016) tarafından gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırmacılar on beş hafta boyunca yarı deneysel yöntemle yürüttükleri uygulamalar sonunda bilim şenliğine katılan 6. Sınıf öğrencilerinin fene yönelik tutumlarının anlamlı seviyede arttığını ortaya koymuşlardır. Ayrıca araştırma tamamlandıktan üç ay sonra bu artışın korunduğunu da tespit etmişlerdir. Şahin (2012) ise yaptığı çalışmada, bilim şenliklerinin 10. sınıf öğrencilerinin kimya alanına yönelik tutumlarına olan etkisini araştırmıştır. Araştırmada bilim şenliklerinin, lise öğrencilerinin kimya dersine yönelik tutumlarının gelişimi üzerinde olumlu etkileri olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Ayrıca bu araştırmada kimya derslerine ilgisi düşük olan öğrencilerin, bilim şenliklerindeki projeleri yerinde inceleyerek, oradaki sunumlara katılımlarının sağlanmasından dolayı daha sonra işlenen derslerde, daha aktif ve ilgili olduklarının gözlemlendiği belirtilmiştir.

Bilim şenliğine katılan ortaokul ve lise öğrencilerinin bu etkinliğe katılma amaçlarını ve öğrenme kazanımlarını özel durum çalışmasıyla inceleyen Keçeci (2017) ise öğrencilerin bilim şenliğine katılma amaçlarını; yeni bilgiler edinme, bilime yönelik meraklarını giderme, bilimi günlük yaşamlarıyla ilişkilendirme ve bilime yönelik ilgileri olarak sıralamıştır. Öğrencilerin bilim şenliklerinden kazanımlarını ise yeni bilgiler edinme, bilimsel bakış açısı kazanma, teknolojinin kullanım alanlarını öğrenme, bilimsel bilginin günlük yaşamda yerini görme ve son olarak bilime ve doğaya olumlu tutum geliştirmelerini sağlama olarak tespit etmiştir.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Sınırlı sayıda da olsa bilim şenliklerinin ve bilim fuarlarının öğretmen adayı ve öğretmenlerin farklı bilgi ve beceri gelişimleri üzerine etkisini inceleyen çalışmalara literatürde rastlanmaktadır (Tortop, 2013). Örneğin; Yavuz, Büyükelçi ve Işık Büyükelçi (2014) bilim şenliklerinin fen bilgisi öğretmen adaylarının bilimsel inanışları üzerine etkisini inceledikleri araştırmalarında bilim şenliği etkinliğinin öğretmen adaylarının bilimsel inanışları üzerine olumlu etkinin olduğunu ortaya koymuşlardır. Benzer şekilde Durmaz, Dinçer ve Osmanoğlu (2017) çalışmalarında bilim şenliği uygulamalarının öğretmen adaylarının fen öğretimine yönelik tutumlarını anlamlı şekilde arttırdığını göstermişlerdir. Araştırmacılar ayrıca öğretmen yetiştirme sürecinde öğretmen adaylarına bilim şenliklerine katılma fırsatlarının tanınmasının ve bilim şenliklerine yönelik seminerler verilmesinin zengin deneyimler elde etmeleri noktasında faydalı olacağını da önermişlerdir. Akçöltekin ve Akçöltekin (2017) ise araştırmalarında ilkokul ve ortaokul öğretmenlerine proje yarışmaları hakkında eğitim vererek süreç sonunda öğretmenlerin bilimsel araştırma yapma ve proje hazırlama konusunda olumlu tutum geliştirmelerini amaçlamışlardır. Uygulama sonucunda öğretmenlerin hem bilimsel araştırmalara hem de proje yarışmalarına yönelik tutumlarında son test puanları lehine anlamlı fark bulunduğu belirlenmiştir.

Özetle; ülkemizde bilim şenlikleri ve bilim fuarlarının farklı öğrenme ürünleri üzerine etkisini inceleyen çalışmalara rastlanmaktadır. Bu çalışmalara bakıldığında bilim şenliklerinin ve bilim fuarlarının başta fene/bilime yönelik olumlu tutum geliştirme olmak üzere farklı öğrenme ürünlerine etkisinin olduğunu söylemek mümkündür. Bunun yanı sıra öğretmen ve öğretmen adaylarına proje hazırlama eğitim uygulamalarını ve bu uygulamaların farklı bilgi ve beceriler üzerine etkisini inceleyen çalışmalara az sayıda da olsa rastlanmaktadır. Fakat bilim şenlikleri ve bilim fuarları kapsamına giren projelerin hazırlanması ve uygulanmasına yönelik eğitimleri ve bu eğitimlerin proje hazırlama becerisi üzerine etkisini inceleyen herhangi bir çalışmanın olmadığı göze çarpmaktadır. Oysaki ülkemizde başta fen bilgisi öğretmenleri olmak üzere birçok öğretmenden okul bünyesinde TÜBİTAK destekli proje önerileri hazırlamaları ve uygulamaları beklenmektedir. Sözer (2017) öğretmenlerin ve öğrencilerin daha nitelikli araştırma projeleri geliştirebilmeleri amacıyla ilgili akademisyenler tarafından okul dışı dönemlerde bilimsel araştırma yöntemleri ve proje geliştirme eğitimlerine tabi tutulmaları gerektiğini ifade etmektedir.

TÜBİTAK Bilim ve Toplum Daire Başkanlığı, 4004 (Doğa Eğitimi ve Bilim Okulları), 4005 (Bilim ve Toplum Yenilikçi Eğitim Uygulamaları), 4006 (Bilim Fuarları Destekleme Programı) ve 4007 (Bilim Şenliği Destekleme Programı) destek programları sayesinde sınıf dışı ve okul dışı ortamlarda toplumu bilimle buluşturmaktadır. Bu destek programları amaç ve kapsamları bakımından incelendiğinde 4006 ve 4007 kodlu programların fen bilgisi öğretmenlerinin yürütücü olarak başvurabileceği ve öğrencileri ile birlikte sınıf dışı veya okul dışı ortamlarda araştırmalarını yürütebilecekleri programlar oldukları görülmektedir. 4006 Bilim Fuarları Destekleme Programı, 5 - 12. sınıf öğrencilerinin öğretim programı çerçevesinde ve kendi ilgi alanları doğrultusunda belirledikleri konular üzerine araştırma yaparak araştırmalarının sonuçlarını sergileyebilecekleri ve eğlenerek öğrenebilecekleri okul dışı bir öğrenme ortamı sunan “Bilim Fuarlarına” destek verilmesini amaçlamaktadır. 4007 Bilim Şenlikleri Destekleme Programı ise; bilim iletişiminin sağlanması, bilimsel bilginin geniş toplum kitlelerine ulaştırılması ve bilim-teknoloji arasındaki etkileşimin kavratılması için sergi, sahne şovları, gösteri, atölye/laboratuvar çalışmaları, tematik bilim oyunları, yarışmalar, söyleşiler gibi sınıf dışı/okul dışı etkinlikler

ISSN: 2149-5939

yoluyla katılımcıların temel bilimsel olguları fark etmelerinin sağlanmasını, merak duygularının, araştırma-sorgulama ve öğrenme isteklerinin tetiklenmesini amaçlamaktadır.

TÜBİTAK Bilim ve Toplum Daire Başkanlığı tarafından maddi olarak desteklenen ve öğretmenlerin başvuru yapabileceği bu tür programlar olmasına rağmen, öğretmen adayları lisans eğitimleri boyunca bilim şenliği veya bilim fuarı düzenleme becerisi kazanabilecekleri bir eğitim alamamakta ve bu tür destek programları kapsamında proje yazma ve yürütme becerisi kazanabilecekleri deneyim ortamlarına sahip olamamaktadırlar. Bu nedenle, bu çalışmanın amacı, fen bilgisi öğretmen adaylarının TÜBİTAK Destek Programlarına yönelik proje yazma/hazırlama ve uygulama becerilerini geliştirmektir. Bu çalışma kapsamında "TÜBİTAK Destek Programlarına Yönelik Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi, fen bilgisi öğretmen adaylarının proje hazırlama/yazma becerilerini ne ölçüde geliştirmiştir?" araştırma sorusu araştırılmıştır.

2. Yöntem

Bu çalışmanın asıl amacı, fen bilgisi öğretmen adaylarının TÜBİTAK Destek Programlarına yönelik proje yazma/hazırlama ve uygulama becerilerini geliştirmektir. Bu amaçla, proje ekibi tarafından toplam yedi gün sürecek olan bir proje yazma/hazırlama ve uygulama eğitim programı (TÜBİTAK Destek Programlarına Yönelik Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi) hazırlanmıştır. Proje eğitiminin ilk basamağı teorik eğitimden, ikinci basamağı ise uygulamadan oluşmaktadır. Tablo 1.'de Eğitim Programı yer almaktadır. Eğitimin 1. ve 2. günü teorik eğitime ayrılmıştır. Eğitimin 3. ve 4. günü öğretmen adaylarından, il merkezindeki iki ortaokulda düzenlenen Bilim Fuarlarına katılarak, fuarı düzenleyen öğretmenlerle tanışmaları, fuardaki öğrencilerle iletişim kurarak fuarda ne tür projelerin sergilendiğini gözlemlemeleri istenmiştir. Eğitimin 5. 6. ve 7. gününde ise öğretmen adayları, Eğitim Fakültesi Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliği Anabilim Dalı öğretim üyelerinin hazırladığı ve üniversitemiz Bahar Şenlikleri süresince sergilenen Bilim Şenliği'nde görev almıştır. Böylece proje eğitiminin uygulama kısmı da tamamlanmıştır.

Tablo 1. TÜBİTAK destek programlarına yönelik proje hazırlama eğitimi

Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi Programı		
Gün	Saat	Proje Eğitim Planı/İçeriği
1	09.00-10.00	Açılış
	10.00-12.00	TÜBİTAK Bilim Toplum Proje Desteklerinin Genel Tanıtımı
	12.00-13.00	Öğle yemeği
	13.00-15.00	TÜBİTAK 4006 Bilim Fuarı proje öneri formlarının detaylı incelenmesi
	15.00-17.00	Proje kabulünü etkileyen faktörlerin (özgün değer, yöntem, yaygın etki, yapılabilirlik) tartışılması
2	09.00-10.30	TÜBİTAK 4006 Bilim Fuarı örnek proje öneri formlarının paylaşımı/İncelenmesi
	10.30-12.00	TÜBİTAK projesi yürüten öğretmenlerin deneyimlerini paylaşması TÜBİTAK projesi yürüten öğretim üyelerinin deneyimlerini paylaşması
	12.00-13.00	Öğle yemeği
	13.00-17.00	Atölye çalışması: Danışmalar rehberliğinde proje yazım uygulaması
3/4	09.00-18.00	Öğretmen adaylarının il merkezindeki TÜBİTAK 4006 Bilim Fuarı etkinliklerinde aktif rol alması
5/6/7	09.00-18.00	Öğretmen adaylarının Bilim Şenliği etkinliklerinde aktif rol alması

Araştırmacılar tarafından düzenlenen ve yürütülen eğitime, Eğitim Fakültesi Fen Bilgisi Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda öğrenim gören 24 öğretmen adayı gönüllü olarak katılmıştır. Öğretmen

ISSN: 2149-5939

adaylarını proje eğitimi hakkında bilgilendirmek için poster hazırlanmış ve Eğitim Fakültesi İnternet Sitesi üzerinden yayımlanmıştır. Bu sayede verilen link üzerinden öğretmen adaylarının projeye başvuru yapması sağlanmıştır. Gelen başvurular arasından sınıf seviyesi ve cinsiyet gözetilerek 24 öğretmen adayı seçilmiştir.

TÜBİTAK Destek Programlarına Yönelik Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi'nin fen bilgisi öğretmen adaylarının proje hazırlama/yazma becerilerini ne ölçüde geliştirdiği araştırmak için eylem araştırması yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Eylem araştırması, araştırmacı rolü üstlenen öğretmenler ya da akademisyenler tarafından aktif olarak kullanılan ve eğitimin çeşitli konularında sistematik ve bilimsel olarak bilgi elde etme ve uygulamaları geliştirme amacıyla yararlanılan bir yöntemdir (Kuzu, 2009). Eylem araştırmaları, "uzman araştırmacıların yürütücülüğünde, uygulayıcıların ve probleme taraf olanların katılımıyla, var olan uygulamaların eleştirel bir değerlendirmesini yaparak, durumu iyileştirmek için alınması gereken önlemleri belirlemeyi amaçlayan araştırmalardır" (Karasar, 1999, s.27). Dolayısıyla, bu araştırmada öğretmen adaylarının, öğretim üyelerinin yürütücülüğünde, öğretim üyelerinin ve kendi deneyimleri yoluyla TÜBİTAK Destek Programları kapsamında proje hazırlama becerilerini geliştirmeleri amaçlandığından en uygun yöntemin eylem araştırması olduğu düşünülmüştür. Ayrıca Shantz (1995) öğretmen eğitimi sürecinde eylem araştırmalarının kullanılması gerektiğini söyleyerek, öğretim üyelerinin eylem araştırması yoluyla proje hazırlama, veri toplama ve verilerin analiz edilmesi gibi süreçlerde öğretmenlere yararlı olabileceğini vurgulamaktadır.

Araştırmada veri toplama aracı olarak, TÜBİTAK 4006 Bilim Fuarları Destekleme programı başvuru formu ve formdaki maddelere göre proje ekibi tarafından oluşturulmuş proje değerlendirme dereceli puanlama anahtarı (rubrik) kullanılmıştır. 4006 Bilim Fuarları Proje Öneri formu; Proje Adı, Proje Türü, Proje Alanı, Amaç/Özet/Araştırma Yöntemi, Proje Danışman Bilgileri ve Proje Öğrenci Bilgileri kısımlarını içermektedir. Proje Değerlendirme Rubriği ise "Projenin amacı açıkça belirtilmiş mi?" ve "Hazırlanan projelerin proje türleri uygun şekilde belirtilmiş mi?" gibi sorular içeren 8 maddeden oluşmaktadır.

Proje ekibi tarafından hazırlanan teorik ve uygulamalı proje eğitimi öncesi, öğretmen adaylarından kendi deneyimleri doğrultusunda hazırladıkları projelerle ilgili olarak 4006 Bilim Fuarları Proje Öneri formunu doldurmaları istenmiştir. Teorik ve uygulamalı proje eğitimi sonrası ise 4006 Bilim Fuarları Proje Öneri formunu tekrar doldurmaları istenmiştir. Proje önerileri 3'er kişilik gruplar halinde hazırlanmış ve bu süreçte her bir gruba akademik danışmanlar yardımcı olmuştur. Öğretmen adaylarının proje eğitimi öncesinde ve sonrasında hazırladığı proje öneri formları Proje Değerlendirme Rubriği ile değerlendirilmiştir. Her bir grubun eğitim öncesinde ve sonrasında rubrikten elde ettiği puanlar hesaplanarak karşılaştırılmıştır.

3. Bulgular ve yorum

Bu araştırmada, öğretmen adaylarının TÜBİTAK Destek Programlarına Yönelik Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi öncesinde ve sonrasında proje değerlendirme rubriğinden elde ettikleri ortalama puanlara, önerilen projelerin proje türüne göre dağılımına ve Bilim Fuarları Destekleme Programı kapsamında ele alınabilecek proje sayısına yönelik bulgular elde edilmiştir. Elde edilen bulgular, tablolar halinde sunulmuş ve yorumlanmıştır. Tablo 2 proje hazırlama eğitimi öncesinde ve sonrasında gruplar tarafından önerilen projeleri göstermektedir. Proje eğitimi öncesi grupların kuru buz, sabun fıskiyesi, yapay gökkuşağı, hidrofobik kum gibi gösteri deneylerine

ISSN: 2149-5939

ağırlık verdiği, fakat proje eğitimi sonrası doğrudan araştırma sorusu sorarak araştırma projelerine yoğunlaştıkları görülmektedir. Proje eğitimi sonrasında özellikle öğrencilerin ilgisini çekebilecek günlük hayat problemleri proje konusu olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır.

Tablo 2. Proje hazırlama eğitimi öncesinde ve sonrasında önerilen projeler

	Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi Öncesi	Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi Sonrası
1. Grup	Sabun Fıskiyesi Yapay Gökkuşağı	Sebze ve meyveler mıknatısı sever mi? Fotosenteze etki eden faktörler nelerdir? Sönmeyen mum yapalım
2. Grup	Nefesimizdeki karbondioksit Suyu bileşenlerine ayırma	Asitli içeceklerin diş sağlığına olumsuz etkileri nelerdir? Çiçeklerin renklerine göre arıların konma oranı nedir? Bitkiler suyu üst dallara nasıl taşır? (Modelleme) Muz kabuğundan biyoplastik üretimi
3. Grup	Sıvı nitrojene bağlanmış kuru buz Hidrofobik kum	Açık renkli kıyafetler neden yazın daha çok tercih edilir? Ortaokul öğrencilerinin en çok tercih ettiği film türleri nelerdir? Atom bombası nedir? Bilim hakkında bize ne öğretir?
4. Grup	C vitamini, tentürdiyot ve hidrojenperoksitin tepkimesi	Gıda Analizi: Atıştırmalıklardan hangisinin insan vücuduna zararı en fazladır? Parfümlü tuvalet kâğıtları zararlı mıdır?
5. Grup	Karıncalar radyasyon avında: Hangi marka telefon daha az radyasyon yayar?	Hangi marka cep telefonunda daha fazla radyasyon vardır? Mor renkli buhar Volkan modeli yapımı Çiviler ve patlamayan balon
6. Grup	Dişler çürümesin: Hangi maddeler dişleri daha iyi korur? Radyasyona hayır diyen kılıf	Kimyasal kullanmadan temizlik mümkün mü? Çukur ayna ve tümsek ayna arasındaki farklar Güneş batarken neden kırmızı görünür? Mağaralar nasıl oluşur?
7. Grup	İçme sularındaki uranyum miktarının belirlenmesi Ses-desibel ayarlayıcı	Hangi renk ışığı daha çok soğurur? Elektrikli periyodik cetvel Mumla çalışan pervane
8. Grup	Mavi ışık filtreli akıllı gözlük Eğri kesmeyen metreli makas Uyandıran halı	Doğal gübre mi, yapay gübre mi? Farklı sebzeler için en uygun toprak türü hangisidir? Dünya haricinde yaşam var mıdır?

Öğretmen adaylarından oluşan her bir grubun Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi öncesi ve sonrası önerdiği proje sayıları ve bu projelerden elde ettikleri ortalama puanlar Tablo 3'te gösterilmektedir.

Proje Değerlendirme Rubriği'nden her bir proje için maksimum 16 puan alınacağı için 2 proje öneren bir grubun puanı 32 üzerinden hesaplanmış, 4 proje öneren grubun puanı ise 64 üzerinden hesaplanmıştır. Gruplar arası karşılaştırmayı kolaylaştırmak için ise grupların elde ettiği puanların yüzdesi hesaplanmıştır. Bu açıdan bakıldığında, Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi öncesi grupların proje hazırlama becerilerinin %31 ile %68 arasında değiştiği, dolayısıyla kendilerinden beklenen kriterlerin en fazla %68'ini sağladıkları söylenebilir. Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi sonra-

ISSN: 2149-5939

Metin Peten, D., Yaman, F., Vekli, G.S., Çavuş, M. (2019). Fen bilgisi öğretmen adaylarının TÜBİTAK destek programlarına yönelik proje yazma/hazırlama becerilerinin gelişimi. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 78-90.

sında ise grupların proje hazırlama becerilerinin %53 ile %90 arasında olduğu, dolayısıyla proje hazırlama becerilerinin geliştiği görülmektedir. Ayrıca öğretmen adaylarının, proje eğitimi öncesinde 16 proje öneri formu geliştirebildiği, proje eğitimi sonrası ise 27 proje öneri formu geliştirebildikleri görülmektedir.

Tablo 3. Öğretmen adaylarının proje değerlendirme rubriğinden elde ettikleri ortalama puanlar ve yüzdeleri

	Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi Öncesi		**Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi Sonrası**	
Gruplar	**Önerilen Proje Sayısı**	**Elde Edilen Puan (%)**	**Önerilen Proje Sayısı**	**Elde Edilen Puan (%)**
1. Grup	2	20/32 (62,5%)	3	38/48 (79%)
2. Grup	3	28/48 (58%)	4	44/64 (69 %)
3. Grup	2	10/32 (31%)	3	31/48 (65%)
4. Grup	1	6/16 (37,5%)	3	33/48 (69%)
5. Grup	1	8/16 (50%)	4	34/64 (53%)
6. Grup	2	15/32 (47%)	4	48/64 (75%)
7. Grup	2	21/32 (65%)	3	43/48 (90%)
8. Grup	3	33/48 (68%)	3	41/48 (85%)
Toplam	16		27	

TÜBİTAK 4006 Bilim Fuarları Proje Öneri formunda üç tür proje vardır; Araştırma, Araştırma-Geliştirme ve Bilgi Araştırması. Bu üç proje türünün de amaçları ve yöntemleri birbirinden farklıdır. Öğretmen adaylarının en çok zorladığı bölüm, proje konu içeriğine uygun proje türünün seçilmesidir.

Araştırma türü projelerin amacı, öğrencilerin merak ettikleri bir araştırma sorunu cevaplamak için deney, gözlem veya anket yoluyla veri toplamasını ve topladıkları verileri yorumlayarak sonuca ulaşmalarını sağlamaktır. Örneğin, Hangi tuvalet kâğıdı daha dayanıklıdır? Hangi renk ışığı daha çok soğurur? veya Çiçeklerin renkleri arıların üzerlerine konma sıklığını etkiler mi? gibi araştırma soruları araştırma projeleri kapsamında ele alınabilir. Araştırma-Geliştirme türü projelerde öğrencilerden bilimi teknoloji, mühendislik ve matematik gibi alanlarla ilişkilendirerek günlük hayatımızda karşılaştığımız bir problemi çözmeye yönelik veya yaptığımız bir işi kolaylaştırmaya yönelik bir tasarım yapması beklenir. Bu tasarım, bir model, maket, alet, araç veya gereç olabilir. Örneğin, güneş enerjili gırgır tasarımı, yatarken kolay kitap okumayı sağlayan bir araç tasarımı, rubik küp çözen robot kodlama veya elektrikli periyodik cetvel yapımı gibi aktiviteler araştırma-geliştirme projeleri kapsamında ele alınabilir. Bilgi araştırması projelerinde ise öğrencilerden belirledikleri bir konu hakkında değişik kaynaklardan kapsamlı bilgi edilmeleri ve edindikleri bu bilgileri sentezleyerek derlemeleri beklenir. Örneğin, DNA nedir? Dünya'dan başka yerde yaşam var mıdır? Açık hava basıncının insanlar üzerine etkileri nelerdir? veya İnsan beyni nasıl çalışır? gibi sorular bilgi araştırması projeleri kapsamına girebilir. Tablo 4, öğretmen adaylarının önerdiği projelerin bu üç proje türüne göre dağılımını göstermektedir. Tablo 4 incelendiğinde, Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi öncesinde önerilen 16 projeden 6'sının araştırma projesi ve 10'unun ise araştırma-geliştirme projesi olarak önerildiği, bilgi araştırması türünde ise proje önerilmediği görülmektedir. Ayrıca proje türünün doğru belirlenip belirlenemediği de tablodan anlaşılmaktadır (2/0 ifadesi, ilgili tür altında 2 proje önerildiğini, fakat projelerin aslında bu tür altında sınıflanamayacağını, 2/2 ifadesi ise önerilen 2 projenin doğru proje türü altında yer aldığını göstermektedir). Araştırma projesi olarak önerilen 6 proje-

ISSN: 2149-5939

Metin Peten, D., Yaman, F., Vekli, G.S., Çavuş, M. (2019). Improving preservice science teachers' ability to write/prepare projects to TUBITAK grant program. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 78-90.

den ise sadece 2'sinin gerçekten araştırma projesi olduğu, araştırma-geliştirme projesi olarak önerilen 10 projeden sadece 4'ünün araştırma-geliştirme başlığı altında kodlanabileceği görülmüştür. Dolayısıyla Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi öncesinde öğretmen adayları tarafından önerilen 16 projenin sadece %37,5'inin proje türünün doğru olarak seçildiği görülmüştür.

Tablo 4. Önerilen projelerin proje türüne göre dağılımı

	Proje Türü Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi Öncesi			**Proje Türü Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi Sonrası**		
	Araştırma	**Araştırma-Geliştirme**	**Bilgi Araştırması**	**Araştırma**	**Araştırma-Geliştirme**	**Bilgi Araştırması**
1. Grup		2/**0**		2/**2**	1/**1**	
2. Grup		3/**0**		2/**2**	2/**1**	
3. Grup	2/**0**			2/**2**		1/**1**
4. Grup	1/**0**			3/**3**		
5. Grup	1/**1**			4/**2**		
6. Grup	2/**1**			2/**2**		2/**2**
7. Grup		2/**1**		1/**1**	2/**2**	
8. Grup		3/**3**		2/**2**		1/**1**

Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi sonrasında ise öğretmen adaylarının üç proje türünde de proje önerdiği görülmektedir. Bu projelerden 18'i araştırma projesi olarak önerilmiş ve 16'sı doğru olarak isimlendirilmiştir. Araştırma-geliştirme projesi olarak önerilen 5 projeden 4'ü doğru olarak isimlendirilirken, bilgi araştırması olarak önerilen 4 projenin türü de doğru ifade edilmiştir.

Tablo 5. 4006 Bilim fuarları destekleme programı kapsamında ele alınabilecek proje sayıları

	Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi Öncesi			**Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi Sonrası**		
	Kabul Edilebilir	**Kısmen Kabul Edilebilir**	**Kabul Edilemez**	**Kabul Edilebilir**	**Kısmen Kabul Edilebilir**	**Kabul Edilemez**
Toplam	9	2	5	22	2	1
Yüzde	9/16 %56.25	2/16 %12.5	5/16 %31.25	22/27 %81.4	4/27 %14.8	1/27 %3.7

Ayrıca öğretmen adayları tarafından önerilen projelerin TÜBİTAK 4006 Bilim Fuarları Destekleme Programı kapsamında ele alınıp alınamayacağı da değerlendirilmiştir. Bu değerlendirme yapılırken özellikle Öğretmenler İçin TÜBİTAK Bilim Fuarları Kılavuzu'ndan yararlanılmıştır. Kılavuza göre bilim fuarlarının amacı; 5-12. sınıf öğrencilerinin öğretim programları ve kendi ilgileri doğrultusunda belirledikleri konular üzerine araştırma yapacakları, bu araştırmaların sonuçlarını sergileyebilecekleri, öğrencilerin ve izleyicilerin eğlenerek öğrenebilecekleri bir ortam oluşturulmasıdır. İstenilen bu ortamda öğrencilerin, bilimsel konularla ilgilenirken bilimsel düşünceyi öğrenmeleri ve deney yaparak ve elde ettikleri verileri analiz ederek problem çözme becerisi geliştirmeleri ve böylece farklı alanlarda çeşitli bilgiler edinmeleri amaçlanmaktadır. Bu nedenle proje eğitimi öncesinde önerilen kuru buz, sabun fıskiyesi, yapay gökkuşağı, hidrofobik kum gibi sadece ilgi çekmeyi amaçlayan, problem çözme becerisi gerektirmeyen gösteri deneyleri kabul edilemez projeler kategorisine alınmıştır. Proje hazırlama eğitimi sonrasında bu tür projelerin yerini deneysel süreçlere, problem çözme becerisine dayanan proje önerilerine bıraktığı görülmektedir. Elde edilen veriler Tablo 5'te sunulmuştur. Tablo 5 incelendiğin-

ISSN: 2149-5939

de, Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi öncesinde önerilen 16 projeden 9 (%56)'unun 4006 Bilim Fuarları Destekleme Programı kapsamına girebileceği ve %31'inin bu kapsama alınamayacağı, Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi sonrasında ise kabul edilebilir proje oranının %81'e yükseldiği ve kabul edilemez proje sayısının 1'e düştüğü görülmektedir.

4. Sonuç, tartışma ve öneriler

Proje tabanlı öğrenme, bilimsel bilgiye ulaşma yollarını bilen ve bilimsel bilgiyi etkili bir şekilde kullanabilen bireyler yetiştirmek için fen eğitiminde kullanılan etkili yöntemlerden biridir. Sert Çıbık (2009) proje tabanlı öğrenmeyi şu şekilde tanımlamaktadır; "Proje Tabanlı Öğrenme yaklaşımı; birçok yöntem ve stratejiyi içine alabilen öğrencinin kendi kendine bilgiye ulamasını, bilgiyi kullanmasını, ilgili alanlara bilgiyi transfer edebilmesini, araştırma yapmasını, bilimsel süreç becerisini kullanmasını, elde ettiği bilgileri uygun bir biçimde bir araya getirip sunabilmesini, kendini ifade edebilmesini sağlayan bir yaklaşımdır" (s. 38). Ayrıca proje tabanlı öğrenme yaklaşımının öğrencilerin fen bilgisi dersine yönelik tutumlarına etkisi araştıran ve olumlu sonuç rapor eden birçok çalışma mevcuttur (Aladağ, 2005; Sert Çıbık, 2009; Yalçın, Turgut, Büyükkasap, 2009).

Saracaloğlu, Akamca ve Yeşildere (2006), proje tabanlı öğrenmenin önemini tartıştıkları çalışmalarında, proje tabanlı öğrenme yaklaşımının uygun konularda, yeterli donanıma sahip öğretmenler ve uygun fiziksel koşullar sağlandığında eğitim-öğretime; özellikle fen ve matematik konularının öğretiminde etkili ve verimli bir yaklaşım olduğu sonucuna varmışlardır.

Bu çalışmanın amacı, fen bilgisi öğretmen adaylarının TÜBİTAK Destek Programlarına yönelik proje yazma/hazırlama ve uygulama becerilerini geliştirmektir. Bu çalışma kapsamında "TÜBİTAK Destek Programlarına Yönelik Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi, fen bilgisi öğretmen adaylarının proje hazırlama/yazma becerilerini ne ölçüde geliştirmiştir?" araştırma sorusu araştırılmıştır. Elde edilen sonuçlara dayanarak, proje hazırlama eğitimi öncesinde önerilen projeler incelendiğinde; öğretmen adaylarının araştırma, araştırma-geliştirme ve bilgi araştırması proje türlerinin ne anlama geldiğini bilmediği, proje türünün yanlış seçildiği veya belirlendiği, proje amacının net cümlelerle ifade edilmediği, çoğunlukla bilim şenliklerinde alışılagelmiş, öğrencilere pek fazla bilimsel süreç becerisi kazandırmayan gösteri deneylerinin tercih edildiği görülmektedir. Baki ve Bütüner (2009), proje yürütme süreci hakkında öğretmenlerle yürüttükleri çalışmalarında, öğretmenlerin uygulamalı bir proje eğitimi almadıklarını ve bu nedenle öğrencilerin yaratıcılıklarını ortaya çıkarmaya yönelik ve onların araştırma yapmalarını teşvik edecek proje konusu seçemediklerini ortaya koymuşlardır. Ayrıca öğretmenlerin, öğrencilerinin araştırma yapma hakkındaki düşüncelerini de eleştirdiği, çünkü öğrencilerin genellikle araştırma deyince tek bir kaynaktan araştırma yaptığı, özellikle internetten çıktı alıp geldikleri bu araştırma süresince ortaya çıkmıştır. Buna dayanarak araştırmacılar, öğretmenlere, proje hazırlama süreci, değerlendirilmesi, özgün proje konusu verme ve öğrencilere rehberlik etme konularında uzman kişilerce uzun süreli eğitim verilmesi gerektiğini ve öğretmenlerin bu konuda uygulamalar yapmaları gerektiğini vurgulamaktadır.

Proje hazırlama eğitimi sonrasında önerilen projeler incelendiğinde; proje eğitimi öncesindeki durumun pozitif yönde değiştiği söylenebilir. Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi'nin fen bilgisi öğretmen adaylarının proje hazırlama/yazma becerilerini geliştirdiği, özellikle öğretmen adaylarını proje türü seçme konusunda ve kabul edilebilir proje yazma konusunda desteklediği görülmek-

ISSN: 2149-5939

Metin Peten, D., Yaman, F., Vekli, G.S., Çavuş, M. (2019). Improving preservice science teachers' ability to write/prepare projects to TUBITAK grant program. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 78-90.

tedir. Bu nedenle, bu tür TÜBİTAK Destek Programlarına Yönelik Proje Hazırlama Eğitimi programlarının lisans eğitim-öğretim programına dâhil edilmesi ve öğretmen adaylarına proje yazmaya-hazırlamaya yönelik doğrudan eğitimler verilmesi önerilmektedir. Araştırmadan elde edilen sonuçlar, Önen, Mertoğlu, Saka ve Gürdal (2010)'ın elde edilen sonucu destekler niteliktedir. Mevcut çalışmaya paralel olarak Önen ve arkadaşları (2010) öğretmenlerin proje ve proje tabanlı öğrenmeye yönelik yeterliliklerini geliştirmek için bir hizmet içi eğitim programı geliştirmiş ve öğretmenlerin eğitim öncesi ve sonrasında proje ve proje tabanlı öğrenmeye ilişkin bilgilerinin neler olduğunu ve eğitim sonrasında öğretmenlerin proje yapma yeterliği kazanıp kazanamadığını araştırmışlardır. Araştırma sonuçlarına dayanılarak, proje tabanlı öğrenmeye ilişkin açıklama yapan öğretmen sayısında ve yapılan açıklamalarda artış olduğu, öğretmenlerin bir bölümünün proje yapma yeterliği kazandığı ve bir bölümünün ise bu konuda eksikliklerinin olduğu görülmüştür. Mevcut araştırmayla benzer olarak bu çalışmada da öğretmenlere proje ve PTÖ ile ilgili teorik bilgi verilerek örnek projeler sunulmuş; aynı zamanda proje uygulamaları da yaptırılmıştır. Fakat mevcut araştırmadaki eğitim süresi 7 gün ile sınırlı tutulurken, bahsi geçen çalışmadaki eğitim süresi 15 gündür. Benzer olarak Asilsoy (2007) biyoloji öğretmenleri ile yürüttüğü çalışmasında hazırladığı hizmet içi eğitimin öğretmenlerin proje tabanlı öğrenme ile ilgili bilgi ve becerilerini arttırdığı, aynı zamanda öğretmenlerin derslerinde proje yöntemini kullanmaya daha istekli hale geldiği sonucuna ulaşmıştır.

Tatar ve Bağrıyanık (2012) ise aslında öğretmenlerin, öğrencilerinin yaparak yaşayarak öğrenmelerini teşvik etmek adına okul dışı öğrenme aktivitesi olarak %72 oranında proje şenliklerini tercih ettiğini ortaya koymuştur. Araştırma sonuçlarına dayanarak araştırmacılar, öğretmen adaylarının okul dışı eğitime yönelik bilgi ve becerilerinin geliştirilmesi için lisans eğitimlerinde proje şenlikleri, gezi gözlem gibi aktivitelere sıklıkla yer verilmesi gerektiğini vurgulamaktadır.

Fakat bu tür eğitimler sırasında çeşitli problemlerin yaşanabileceği göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır. Bu çalışmada hazırlanan proje hazırlama eğitimi, bahar yarıyılının son haftasına denk gelmektedir. Hem teorik hem de uygulamalı yoğun bir eğitim sürecini içermektedir. Öğrencilerin eğitimden sonra proje önerilerini hazırlamaları için belirlenen süre ise final haftasına denk gelmektedir. Bu sürecin final haftasına denk gelmesinin öğrencilerin ilgilerini ve proje hazırlamaya ayıracakları süreyi etkilediği düşünülmektedir. Bu nedenle proje hazırlama eğitimi sonrasında önerilen proje sayısında artış olmakla birlikte, bu artışın beklenilen seviyede olmadığı düşünülmektedir. Bu nedenle proje hazırlama eğitimlerinin planlamasının ve zamanlamasının bu tür faktörler göz önüne alınarak yapılması önerilmektedir. Dolayısıyla, elde edilen sonuçlara ve literatürdeki diğer çalışma verilerine dayanarak, proje çalışmalarının eğitim-öğretimde teşvik edilmesi için öğretmen adaylarının eğitiminde mevcut araştırmada olduğu gibi proje hazırlama süreci ile ilgili eğitimlere yer verilmesi önerilmektedir.

Kaynakça

Akçöltekin, A. & Akçöltekin, S. (2017). İlkokul ve ortaokul öğretmenlerinin bilimsel araştırmalar ve proje yarışmaları hakkındaki tutumlarını geliştirmeye yönelik eğitimin etkilerinin incelenmesi. *Kazım Karabekir Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 35, 252-273.

Aladağ, S. (2005). *İlköğretim Matematik Öğretiminde Proje Tabanlı Örenme Yaklaşımının Öğrencilerin Akademik Başarısına ve Tutumuna Etkisi*. Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi. Ankara: Gazi Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Metin Peten, D., Yaman, F., Vekli, G.S., Çavuş, M. (2019). Fen bilgisi öğretmen adaylarının TÜBİTAK destek programlarına yönelik proje yazma/hazırlama becerilerinin gelişimi. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 78-90.

Asilsoy, Ö. (2007). *Biyoloji Öğretmenleri İçin Proje Tabanlı Öğrenme Yaklaşımı Konulu Bir Hizmet İçi Eğitim Kurs Programı Geliştirilmesi ve Etkililiğinin Araştırılması*. Doktora Tezi, Karadeniz Teknik Üniversitesi, Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Ortaöğretim Fen ve Matematik Alanları Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı.

Baki, A. ve Bütüner S. Ö. (2009). Kırsal Kesimdeki Bir İlköğretim Okulunda Proje Yürütme Sürecinden Yansımalar. İlköğretim Online, 8(1), 146-158.

Camcı, S. (2008). *Bilim şenliğine katılan ve katılmayan öğrencilerin bilim ve bilim insanlarına yönelik ilgi ve imajlarının karşılaştırılması*. Yayımlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi, Hacettepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Ankara.

Çeliker Deniş, H., Erduran Avcı, D. (2015). İlkokul Öğrencilerinin Bilim İnsanı Algıları: Öğrencilerin Bilimsel Faaliyetlere Katılması Bilim İnsanı Algılarını Nasıl Etkiler?. *Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 36, 90-104.

Durmaz H., Dinçer E. O., Osmanoğlu, A. (2017). Bilim şenliğinin öğretmen adaylarının fen öğretimine ve öğrencilerin fene yönelik tutumlarına etkisi. *Trakya Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 7(2), 364-378.

Karasar, N. (1999). *Bilimsel Araştırma Yöntemi* (9. Basım). Nobel Yayın Dağıtım. Ankara

Keçeci, G. (2017). The aims and learning attainments of secondary and high school students attending science festivals: A case study. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 12(23), 1146-1153.

Korkmaz, H. (2004). *The images of the scientist through the eyes of the Turkish children*. Panhandle Science and Mathematics Conference, Canyon, Texas, USA, 25 September 2004.

Kuzu, A. (2009). Öğretmen yetiştirme ve mesleki gelişimde eylem araştırması. *Uluslararası Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 2(6), 425-433.

Önen, F., Mertoğlu, H., Saka, M., Gürdal, A. (2010). Hizmet İçi Eğitimin Öğretmenlerin Proje ve Proje Tabanlı Öğrenmeye İlişkin Bilgilerine ve Proje Yapma Yeterliklerine Etkisi. *Ahi Evran Üniversitesi Kırşehir Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 11, 137-158.

Saracaloğlu, A. S., Akmaca G. Ö., Yeşildere S. (2006). İlköğretimde Proje Tabanlı Öğrenmenin Yeri, *Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, s:3, cilt:4, 1-21.

Shantz, D. (1995). Teacher education: teaching innovation or providing an apprenticeship? *Education*, 115(3), 339–343.

Sert Çıbık, A. (2009). Proje Tabanlı Öğrenme Yaklaşımının Öğrencilerin Fen Bilgisi Dersine Yönelik Tutumlarına Etkisi. *İlköğretim Online Dergisi*, 8(1), 36-47.

Sözer, Y. (2017). Investigation of the project development process of the pupils who attend to the TUBITAK research project contest: an action research. *Inonu University Journal of the Faculty of Education*, 18(2), 139-158.

Şahin, Ş. (2012). Bilim şenliklerinin 10. sınıf öğrencilerinin kimya dersine yönelik tutumlarına olan etkisi. *Uşak Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 5(1), 89-103.

Tatar, N., Bağrıyanık, K. E. (2012). Fen ve Teknoloji dersi öğretmenlerinin okul dışı öğretime yönelik görüşleri. *İlköğretim Online*, 11 (4), 883-896.

Tortop, H. S. (2013). Science teachers' views about the science fair at primary education level. *Turkish Journal of Qualitative Inquiry*, 4(2), 56-64.

Yalçın, S.A., Turgut, Ü., Büyükkasap, E. (2009). Proje Tabanlı Öğretim Yönteminin Öğrencilerin Elektrik Konusu Akademik Başarılarına, Fiziğe Karşı Tutumlarına ve Bilimsel İşlem Becerilerine Etkisinin İncelenmesi. *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, 1 (1), 81-105.

Yavuz S., Büyükekşi C., Işık Büyükekşi, S. (2014). Bilim şenliğinin bilimsel inanışlar üzerine etkisi. *Karaelmas Journal of Educational Science*, 2, 168-174.

Yıldırım, H.İ. (2016). Bilim şenliklerinin ortaokul 6. sınıf öğrencilerinin problem çözme becerilerine etkisi. *25. Ulusal Eğitim Bilimleri Kongresi*, 21-24 Nisan, 2016, İstanbul Kültür Üniversitesi, Antalya.

Yıldırım H.İ., Şensoy, Ö. (2016). Bilim şenliklerinin 6. sınıf öğrencilerinin fen bilimleri dersine yönelik tutumlarına etkisi. *Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 14(1), 23-40.

ISSN: 2149-5939

Metin Peten, D., Yaman, F., Vekli, G.S., Çavuş, M. (2019). Improving preservice science teachers' ability to write/prepare projects to TUBITAK grant program. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(1), 78-90.

Extended abstract in English

Education is a never-ending process for both students and teachers. We believe in that the best teachers are the ones who are constantly pushing themselves to learn, pursuing professional development and thus providing students with authentic learning environment. To the extent that, TUBITAK (Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey) provide teachers with opportunities both for on-going professional development and for their students' learning. TUBITAK provides financial support to teachers for conducting science fair or science expo projects with their students in school. However, there is any training course that can improve preservice teachers' ability to apply grant programs provided by TUBITAK.

This study is about the professional development project for preservice science teachers (PSTs). The aim of this project is to improve PSTs' ability to write/prepare grant application for grant programs provided by TUBITAK, which are supporting science expo and science festivals. Twenty-four PSTs voluntarily participated in the project. The project is divided into 2 parts; theoretical and practical parts. The 2-day long theoretical part included topics such as types of grant programs of TUBITAK, appropriate grant programs for teachers, how a project is prepared, what are the factors that should be considered while preparing a project and examples of available projects. Practical parts also included 2 parts; participating to 2 day-long TUBITAK-4006 science fair project (a grant program for teachers provided by TUBITAK) which was held in a middle school located in the city and participating to 3 day-long science festivals which was held in the campus area of the university.

In literature, there are research studies that investigate the effectiveness of the participation to science fair projects on students' attitude toward science and their images of science and scientists and preservice teachers' attitude toward science teaching and scientific belief (Camcı, 2008; Durmaz, Dinçer & Osmanoğlu, 2017; Şahin, 2012; Yavuz, Büyükelçi & Işık Büyükelçi, 2014; Yıldırım & Şensoy, 2016). The related literature revealed that participation to science fair project has positive impact on aforementioned variables. To the authors' best knowledge there is no study that investigates the effectiveness of professional development project about preparation of science fair or science expo projects on PSTs' ability to write/prepare such projects.

The present study investigates the effectiveness of professional development project on PSTs' ability to write/prepare grant application for grant programs provided by TUBITAK. For this purpose, before theoretical part PSTs were asked to prepare an initial grant applications based on their novice experiences. After having theoretical and practical experiences, PSTs prepared their final grant application for science fair projects. The action research method was used through this project. The PSTs' Project proposals were evaluated by the rubric before and after the training. The rubric consists of 8 criteria which examines whether PSTs fulfilled TUBITAK project proposal form appropriately and correctly. For instance, there are 3 project types for TUBITAK-4006 grant program; research, research and development, and information searching and the PSTs were examined whether they choose appropriate project type. The rubric was designed by the researchers and the PSTs proposed projects were examined by two researchers according to the rubric. The result of the study showed that while PSTs produced 16 project proposals based on their novice experiences, they produced 27 project proposals after participating to professional development project about preparing their own projects. Before professional development project, PSTs' proposals meet at most 68% of the criteria. After hav-

ISSN: 2149-5939

ing theoretical and practical experiences, they were able to meet at most 90% of the criteria. The other important result was that before training, PSTs proposed either research or research and development project before training and most of their proposed projects were not named correctly. After training, they produced projects in three different types and they placed their proposals into three project types correctly. Additionally, most of their proposed projects were in the scope of grant program they wanted to apply, while the only half of their proposed projects was applicable before training. In this regard, it was concluded that the professional development project aiming to improve PSTs' ability to write/prepare grant application for grant programs provided by TUBITAK was effective especially in supporting PSTs in understanding of the differences between three different types of projects and in choosing the right science projects which were in the scope of grant program. Accordingly, it might be suggested that the opportunities that provide PSTs with professional development in preparing science fair or science expo project should be integrated into their undergraduate education program and the PSTs should be given explicit training about grant programs provided by TUBITAK.

ISSN: 2149-5939