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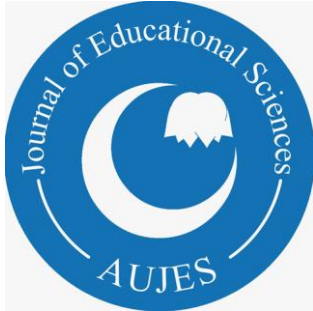
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The Investigation of High School Students' Internet Usage For Gaming With Respect to Demographic Characteristics

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The Investigation of High School Students' Internet Usage For Gaming With Respect to Demographic Characteristics

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Abstract

The purpose of this research is to examine high school students' internet usage for game purposes in terms of various variables. The sample of the study consisted of 360 (176 girls, 184 boys) students selected by the convenient sampling method in the 2018-2019 academic year. The students who participated in the study were selected from 9th, 10th, and 11th grade students in four different types of schools. In this study, the Personal Information Form developed by the researcher, the "Internet Addiction Scale (IAS)" produced by Young (1998) to measure students' internet addiction levels, and "Perceived Social Support Scale (PSSS)" revised (PSSS-R) by Yildirim (2004) to evaluate their perceptions of social support were used as data collection tools. Research data were analyzed using Chi-square and t-test. The findings of the study revealed that high school students' internet use for gaming purposes showed a significant difference according to gender, academic success, and daily internet usage time. Besides, it was determined that students who do not use the internet for gaming purposes perceive more social support than their friends who use the internet for gaming purposes.

Key words: online games, social support, internet addiction, adolescents

Introduction

The emergence and development of technology has brought along many elements that facilitate, complicate and rarify life. The fact that people are in a lifestyle where everything is updated quickly and information and entertainment can be accessed in any form and time has made the internet an indispensable need. The internet has become widespread and popularized through high-tech devices such as smartphones, tablets and computers. One of the results of this development has been online gaming, which has become one of the most widely used leisure activities by many adults and young people. Portable devices, smartphones and tablets have made it possible to play games regardless of time and place. In the past years, children used to play concrete games such as "cops and robbers", "hide and seek", and "blindman's buff", but nowadays these games have been replaced by online games such as "Pokemon Go", "PUBG", "Minecraft", "GTA 5".

Nowadays, online gaming has become very popular among people of all ages, especially among children and adolescents (Wang, Chan, Mak, Ho, Wong, and Ho, 2014). According to recent research, the amount of time adolescents spends playing video games has increased (Griffiths, 2008), online gaming has become one of the most addictive Internet activities to date (Wan and Chiou, 2006). Studies have shown that one in three people under the age of 18 use the internet worldwide and 75% of adolescents in developed countries play online games every day (UNICEF, 2017; Byrne and Burton, 2017). In Turkey, the rapid spread of new generation online games has attracted the attention of primary and secondary school students. According to a study conducted by the Turkish Statistical Institute (TurkStat, 2013), internet usage for gaming purposes was 82.5% for boys aged 11-15, while it was 60.4% for girls. In the research repeated by TURKSTAT in 2021, internet use for gaming purposes was 53.7% for boys and 24.4% for girls in the same age group. Playing and downloading games, which is one of the purposes of internet use among children aged 6-15, ranked 3rd among the purposes of internet use with 66.1%. The study by Kahraman et al. (2011), which also examined the relationship between gender and Internet use for gaming purposes, showed that 9.5% of female students follow online games on the Internet, while 90.5% of them do not play online games. In the same study, it was determined that 36.5% of male students followed online games, while the rest did not play online games. Inal and Çağiltay (2005) revealed that male students play online games more than female students. In another study, it was observed that the computer game addiction levels of male students were significantly higher than the computer game addiction levels of female students (Taş and Güneş, 2019).

In studies examining the relationship between academic achievement and online games, it is possible to see negative and positive relationships. The research of Chiu, Lee, and Huang's (2004) in Taiwan shows that as

game addiction increases, the level of academic achievement decreases. The study of Suler (2004) showed that negative effects such as distancing from inner circle, violent behavior, decline in academic achievement and withdrawal was observed in individuals who spend a lot of time on the Internet and in games. However, there are also studies suggesting that interactive online games can lead to increased academic performance (Anand, 2007; Jackson et al., 2008). A study by Din and Calao (2001) revealed that students who played educational online games showed significant increases in spelling and reading learning compared to the control group. Skoric, Teo, and Neo (2009) found that while gaming addiction leads to negative academic performance, moderate gaming can lead to increased academic performance.

The study of Mitchell (2000), which examines the relationship between online games and internet addiction, provides important data on addiction by stating that playing games on the internet increases dopamine secretion and that dopamine is a neurochemical that has an important role in the emergence of addiction. The studies examining the relationship between internet addiction for gaming purposes and internet use indicated that non-adults who spend most of their time playing games have the symptoms seen in substance addiction (Hsu et al., 2009; Ko et al., 2009; Mehroof and Griffiths 2010; Wölfling et al., 2008; Young, 2009). In their study, Ayas and Horzum (2013) found that game addiction and internet addiction increase in parallel. Yılmaz et al. (2014) found that the total addiction scores of students who used the Internet for gaming purposes were higher than those of students who used the Internet for music-movies, homework-research and social networking. It was observed that the total addiction scores of those whose primary purpose of internet use was gaming were higher than those whose primary purpose was social networking and reading news.

In order to look at whether there is a relationship between the perceived social support levels of students who use the Internet for gaming purposes, which is another question of our research, it is necessary to address the concept of perceived social support. Perceived social support is the individual's perception that he/she has a secure bond with the people around him/her and that he/she can obtain the necessary support from the people around him/her. It expresses the individual's feelings that he/she is valued, loved and has healthy and good relationships with others (Oktan, 2005). The studies examining the perceived social support levels of students who use the internet for gaming purposes reveal different results. The study conducted by Yüksel and Baytemir (2010) revealed that the social support perceived by students who use the Internet for gaming and entertainment purposes did not change. In the study conducted by Kraut et al. (2002), it was observed that as the use of the Internet for social interaction increased, the relationship of individuals with people with whom they had close relationships decreased, and it was revealed that there was a negative relationship between perceived social support and Internet use. Again, it was stated that students with low perceived social support have a high rate of problematic use of the Internet. In addition, it is stated that low perceived social support is a risk factor for problematic internet use (Chen, Li, & Long, 2007). However, there are also studies showing a positive relationship between perceived social support and problematic use of the Internet (Shaw and Gant, 2002; Silverman; 1999). Kraut, Patterson, and Lundmark (1998) found that people use the Internet more for communication with others rather than for different purposes. This shows that internet users want to meet their need for support and interaction and that they meet these needs through the internet (Mossbarger, 2008). However, internet use can damage interpersonal relationships as it is an activity that people do when they are alone (Kraut et al., 1998; Sanders et al., 2000).

We have already pointed out that online games are quite common among young people and their positive and negative effects on young people. Considering the developments in technology, the developmental needs and problems of adolescence and the fact that playing games is a risk factor for internet addiction, it is thought that it is important to clarify the reasons for the use of the internet for gaming purposes and how adolescents are affected socially and behaviorally by the use of the internet for gaming purposes and that the study will be useful in this sense. In this sense, answers to the following questions were sought in the study:

1. Is there a significant difference between genders in terms of students' internet use for gaming purposes?
2. Is there a significant effect of students' internet use for gaming purposes on their academic achievement?
3. Is there a significant difference in the daily internet usage time of students who do not use the internet for gaming purposes and students who use the internet for gaming purposes?
4. Is there a significant difference between the levels of social support perceived by students who do not use the internet for gaming and those who use the internet for gaming?
5. Is there a significant difference between the internet addiction symptoms of students who do not use the internet for gaming purposes and students who use the internet for gaming purposes?

Method

Research Design

The research approach that aims to describe a past or current situation as it exists is the survey model (Karasar, 2014). This study aims to measure whether Internet use for gaming purposes makes a significant difference in terms of gender, academic achievement, daily Internet usage time, perceived social support level and Internet addiction symptom variables in high school students.

Participants

The research group consists of 360 students continuing their education in four different school types in the 2018-2019 academic year. The students participating in the study were selected through convenient sampling method from students studying in classes other than 12th grade. 184 of these students are boys (51.1%), and 176 are girls (48.9%). The data were collected by the researcher himself in the classroom environment in approximately 40-45 minutes. Volunteering was based on participation. The game types preferred by students are listed as follows: Adventure/Action (GTA, Outlast, Left 4 Dead etc.) female (22.7%), male (77.3%); Sports/racing (GTA, Outlast, Left 4 Dead etc.) female (26.2%), male (73.8%); FPS (First-Person shooter) (Wolfteam, Counter Strike etc.) female (19.3%), male (80.7%); Strategy (League of Legends, Dota, Smite etc.) female (25.3%), male (74.7%), Simulation (Ships, airplanes, etc.) female (22.4%), male (77.6%); other types of games female (58.7%), male (42.3%) and RPG (Role Playing Game) (Diablo, Knight online, etc.) female (17.0%) and male (83.0%). Considering daily internet usage times, it is seen that 153 students (42.5%) used the internet in 1-3 hours in a day. Other students stated that they use the internet for 4 -6 hours (20.3%), less than 1 hour (18.3%), more than 9 hours (10.8%), and 7-9 hours (8.1%), respectively. Students' internet usage purposes are listed as follows: research-homework female (77.0%), male (23.0%); social networks female (75.9%), male (24.1%); film-video-music female (70.7%), male (29.3%); game female (41.5%), male (58.5%); chat female (55.3%), male (47.8%); mail-communication female (29.3%), male (70.7%), and news female (20.7%) and male (79.3%). The number of students in the study group who showed symptoms of internet addiction was deficient. For this reason, in order to make a meaningful statistical comparison, those with internet addiction (IAS score 80 and above) and those with limited symptoms (IAS score between 51-79) were combined into a single group and redefined as "those with symptoms". Thus, the comparison was carried out between the two levels as those with IAS score of 50 and below, namely "those without symptoms" and "those with symptoms."

Data Collection Tools

The data for the study were collected by implementing the personal information form prepared by the researcher, perceived social support scale and internet addiction scale.

Personal Information Form

This form includes demographic information about the students, questions about the status of having a computer of their own, the place where they connect to the internet, family intervention in internet use, how much they use the internet daily and the purpose of use, and the last semester grade point average asked to determine school success.

Internet Addiction Scale (IAS)

It is a 20-item Likert-style scale created by Young (1998) based on the "Psychoactive Substance Addiction" criteria of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders-4 (DSM-IV) and adapted into Turkish by Bayraktar (2001) and is suitable for the 12-17 age group. The scale includes items such as "How often do you spend more time on the Internet than you planned?" and "How often is your school attendance negatively affected by the Internet?" which are related to the intensity of Internet use and the academic, social and behavioral problems experienced by individuals due to this use. Participants were asked to mark one of the options "Constantly", "Very often", "Mostly", "Occasionally", "Rarely" and "Never". These options are evaluated with 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 and 0 points respectively. Those scoring 50 points and below are classified as "Without symptoms", those scoring 50-79 points as "Limited Symptoms", and those scoring 80 and above as "Pathological Internet Users". The reliability of the IAS is .91 in terms of standardized Alpha value and .87 in terms of Spearman-Brown value. In this study, the Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient of the scale was calculated as 0.90.

Perceived Social Support Scale

The revised version of the Perceived Social Support Scale developed by Yıldırım (1997), which is Yıldırım (2004) (PSSS-R), was used in the study. The PSSS-R consists of three subscales: Family Support (FMS), Friend Support (FRS) and Teacher Support (TS). The scale items consist of statements such as "My family really cares about me", "My friends help me make the right decisions", "My teachers help me solve my problems" in which the individual rates family, friend and teacher support. The PSSS-R consists of 20 items in the family support subscale, 13 items in the friend support subscale and 17 items in the teacher support subscale, 50 items in total. It is a Likert-type scale with three ratings (agree=3, partly=2, not agree=1). There are three reversed items, one in each of the subscales. The score ranges that can be obtained from the scales are as follows: FMS; 20-60, FRS; 13-39, TS; 17-51, total PSSS-R; 50-150. A high score indicates that the individual has a high perception of social support. Alpha = .93, rxx = .91 for the whole PSSS-R; Alpha = .94, rxx = .89 for FMS; Alpha = .91, rxx = .85 for FRS; Alpha = .93, rxx = .86 for TS. The reliability coefficients obtained indicate that the PSSS-R and its subscales can be used safely to measure social support (Yıldırım, 2004). In this study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was 0.91 for the family support dimension of the ASDS-R, 0.89 for the friend support dimension, 0.92 for the teacher support dimension, and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was 0.93 for the whole scale.

Data Analysis Process

Descriptive statistics were used for demographic data. Whether students' internet use for games differs significantly in terms of gender, academic success, internet addiction, and internet usage time was determined by chi-square test, and whether the perceived social support scores of students using the internet for gaming purposes and those not using it for gaming purposes differs significantly was determined by T-Test. In the research, $p < 0.05$ was accepted as the statistical significance limit.

Results

Findings Regarding Internet Use for Gaming Purposes by Gender

In order to determine whether there is a significant difference between the use of the internet for gaming purposes by gender, Chi-Square Test was conducted. The results are given in Table 7.

Table 1. Chi-Square Test Results Regarding Game Usage Internet by Gender

	Those who use internet for game purposes		Those who do not use internet for game purposes		χ^2	sd	p
	N	%	N	%			
Gender							
Female students	73	41.5	103	58.5	46.18	1	.000
Male students	142	77.32	42	22.8			
Total	215	59.7	145	40.3			

$p < 0.01$

It was determined that there was a significant difference between students' use of the internet for game purposes according to their gender ($p < 0.01$). Male students (77.3%) use the Internet for gaming purposes more than female students (41.5%). Gender has been determined to have a moderate effect on the use of the internet for gaming purposes ($\Phi = .36$).

Findings Regarding Examination of Internet Use for Gaming Purposes According to Academic Achievement Level

The results of the Chi-Square Test on the use of the internet for gaming purposes according to the grade point averages of the students are given in Table 2. While determining the academic success levels of the students, classification was made by taking into account the secondary education grading system. Last grade averages of the students were determinant in academic success.

Table 2. Chi-Square Test Results Regarding Internet Use for Gaming Purposes According to Academic Achievement Level

	Those who use internet for game purposes		Those who do not use internet for game purposes		χ^2	sd	p
	N	%	N	%			
Academic success							
Fail (0-49.99)	19	8.8	10	6.9	9.91	4	,042
Pass (50, 59.99)	41	19.1	19	13.1			
Medium (60-69.99)	68	31.6	37	25.5			
Good (70-84.99)	80	37.2	66	45.5			
Very good (85-100)	7	3.3	13	9.0			
Total	215	59.7	145	40.3			

P < 0.05

Table 2 shows that there is a significant difference in the use of the internet for gaming purposes according to students' academic achievement. The internet usage rates of students whose academic success is Pass, Fail, and Medium are significantly higher than other students ($\chi^2= 9,91$, P < 0.05). Cramer's V value is set at .166. Academic achievement of medium or below can be seen as a partially effective variable in internet use for gaming purposes.

Findings Regarding Examination of Internet Use for Gaming Purposes According to Daily Internet Usage Time

Table 3. Chi-Square Test Results Regarding Internet Use for Gaming Purposes According to Daily Internet Usage Time

	Those who use internet for game purposes		Those who do not use internet for game purposes		χ^2	sd	p
	N	%	N	%			
Daily Internet Use							
Less than 1 hour	24	36.4	42	63.6	19.07	4	001
1-3 hours	96	62.7	57	37.3			
4-6 hours	50	68.5	23	31.5			
7-9 hours	19	65.5	10	34.5			
More than 9 hours	26	66.7	13	33.3			
Total	215	59.7	145	40.3			

p < 0.01

A significant difference was determined between the internet usage of the students according to the daily internet usage time (p < 0.01). The rate of students using the internet for gaming purposes is lower in internet usage up to 1 hour per day, whereas those using the internet for 1 hour or more per day have higher internet usage rates for gaming purposes. It can be said that daily internet usage time has an effect on internet usage behavior for gaming purposes (Phi = .23, p < 0.01).

Findings Regarding Examining Internet Use for Gaming Purposes According to Perceived Social Support Level

The results of the T-Test conducted separately according to the social support levels perceived by the students from their families, teachers and friends and the total score of the Perceived Social Support Scale are shown in the tables:

Table 4. T-Test Results on Perceived Social Support Level from the Family and Internet Use for Gaming Purposes

PSSS-R (FAMILY)						
Internet Use	N	\bar{x}	SS	sd	t	p
Those who use it for game purposes	215	51.91	7.305	358	.045	96

Those who do not use it for game purposes	145	51.95	7.506
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$p < 0.05$

Independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the family support subscale scores of students using the Internet for gaming and not for gaming purposes. Table 4 shows that there is no significant difference between the scores obtained from students who use the Internet for gaming purposes ($\bar{x} = 51.91$) and students who do not use the Internet for gaming purposes ($\bar{x} = 51.95$; $t(358) = .045$, $p = .96$).

Table 5. T-Test Results on Perceived Social Support Level from Friends and Internet Use for Gaming Purposes

PSSS-R (FRIEND)						
Internet Use	N	\bar{x}	SS	sd	t	p
Those who use it for game purposes	215	33.77	5.222	358	2.14	.033
Those who do not use it for game purposes	145	34.97	5,218			

$p < 0.05$

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the friend support subscale scores of students who use the Internet for gaming purposes and students who do not use the Internet for gaming purposes. Table 5 shows that there is a significant difference between the scores obtained from students who use the Internet for gaming purposes ($\bar{x} = 33.77$) and students who do not use the Internet for gaming purposes ($\bar{x} = 34.97$; $t(358) = 2.14$, $p = .033$). The mean score of social support perceived by students who do not use the Internet for gaming purposes from their friends ($\bar{x} = 34.97$) is significantly higher than the mean score of students who use the Internet for gaming purposes ($\bar{x} = 33.77$, $p < 0.05$).

Table 6. T-Test Results Regarding Perceived Social Support Level from the Teacher and Internet Use for Gaming Purposes

PSSS-R (TEACHER)						
Internet Use	N	\bar{x}	SS	sd	t	p
Those who use it for game purposes	215	39.46	8.352	358	1.24	.21
Those who do not use it for game purposes	145	40.57	8.047			

$p < 0.05$

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the teacher support subscale scores of students who use the Internet for play and students who do not use the Internet for play. Table 6 shows that there is no significant difference between the scores obtained from students who use the Internet for play ($\bar{x} = 39.46$) and students who do not use the Internet for play ($\bar{x} = 40.57$; $t(358) = 1.24$, $p = .21$).

Table 7. T-Test Results on Perceived Total Social Support Level and Internet Use for Gaming Purposes

PSSS-R (TOTAL)						
Internet Use	N	\bar{x}	SS	sd	t	p
Those who use it for game purposes	215	125.4186	14.744	358	1.253	.21
Those who do not use it for game purposes	145	127.496	16.389			

$p < 0.05$

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the Perceived Social Support Scale total scores of students who use the Internet for gaming purposes and students who do not use the Internet for gaming purposes. Table 7 shows that there is no significant difference between the scores obtained from students who use the Internet for gaming purposes ($\bar{x} = 125.418$) and students who do not use the Internet for gaming purposes ($\bar{x} = 127.496$; $t(358) = 1.253$, $p = .21$).

Findings Regarding Examining Internet Use for Gaming Purposes According to Internet Addiction Symptoms

Table 8. Chi-Square Test Results Regarding Internet Use for Gaming Purposes According to Internet Addiction Symptoms

	Those who use internet for game purposes		Those who do not use internet for game purposes		χ^2	sd	p
	N	%	N	%			
Internet addiction							
Without symptoms	181	58.8	127	41.2	418	one	518
With symptoms	33	64.7	18	35.3			
Total	214	59.6	145	40.4			

p<0.05

Table 8 shows that there is no significant difference between students who use the internet for gaming purposes and students who do not use the internet for gaming purposes in terms of internet addiction symptoms ($\chi^2= .418$, $p> 0.05$).

Conclusion, Discussion, and Recommendations

The findings of the study indicate that there is a significant difference between high school students' use of the internet for gaming purposes according to their gender. Male students (77.1%) use the Internet for gaming purposes at a higher rate than female students (41.5%) ($P<0.01$). This result is in line with the studies in the literature (Bonnaira and Baptista, 2019; Bonnaire and Phan, 2017; Wichstrøm et al. 2019) in which internet gaming disorder is evaluated according to gender. Fam (2018) conducted a meta-analysis study consisting of research involving adolescents aged 10-19 years to determine the prevalence of internet gaming disorder in adolescents and to establish a comparison chart. The prevalence of the disorder in adolescents was determined as 4.6% in this study. In the same research, this rate; In the same study, it is stated that this rate is higher than the rate of game disorder in children (4.2%) but lower than the rate determined in the adult group (8.9%) in the meta-analysis study conducted by Ferguson et al. (2011) and it is emphasized that this may reflect the early onset of game disorder. Fam (2018) found that the rate of gameplay disorder in boys (7.1%) is almost four times higher than girls (1.7%). It is stated that this difference, which is revealed by gender in-game playing disorder, can be attributed to the types of games preferred by gender (Greenberg et al. 2010; Hartmann and Klimmt, 2006; Homer et al. 2012). In terms of game preferences by gender, it was determined that boys preferred role playing games, FPS and strategy games while girls preferred games that are more instructive and require skill (Elliott et al. 2012; Fam, 2018; Rehbein et al. 2015). In terms of playing time, the finding that male gender and preferred game type are predictive, and the most playing time in males was for role-playing and FPS type games (Rehbein et al. 2015).

In this study, the types of games preferred by the students were also determined along with their purposes of using the Internet. Considering the game types preferred by students according to their gender, it was concluded that female students preferred sports (26.2%), strategy (25.3%), adventure/action (22.7%) games, respectively; male students preferred RPG (83%), FPS (80.7%) and Simulation (77.6%) games, respectively, excluding the "other" category for game types not specified in the table. Karakuş, İnal, and Çağiltay (2008), in their study investigating the types of games preferred by high school students and their reasons, found that male students mostly preferred car racing, sports, FPS games, while female students preferred action/adventure, puzzle, car racing, card or board games. While the reason for preferring these games was to have fun for boys, it was seen that the instructive nature of the game was decisive for girls. Although the incidence of Internet gaming disorder is higher in males, it is also stated that the disorder affects both genders differently neurobiologically, there are differences in the cortical thickness of individuals with the disorder according to gender, and girls are more affected by the disorder than boys (Ziliang et al., 2019). This is important in terms of pointing to the neurobiological factor in the gender differences in addiction.

In terms of students' use of the Internet for gaming purposes according to academic achievement, the use of the Internet for gaming purposes was found to be significantly higher among students with average academic achievement and below. This result is consistent with other studies in the literature (Brunborg et al., 2014; Müller et al., 2015; Bülbül et al., 2018) that reveal the relationship between computer game addiction/internet gaming disorder and low academic achievement. This result of the study indicates that students with high academic achievement use the Internet more consciously, use the Internet for purposes other than gaming and in a way that contributes to their school responsibilities. It is noteworthy that the rate of students using the Internet for research and homework purposes (74.3%) is quite high. Chen and Fu (2009) examined the effect of 8th

grade middle school students' Internet use on their high school entrance exam one year later in Taiwan. Similar to this study, the results of the study revealed that the test scores of students who used the Internet for information were higher than the test scores of students who used the Internet for socializing and playing games. Delbe and Hazar (2022) also examined the relationship between digital game addiction level and academic achievement in middle school students and found that there was a significant negative relationship between the level of digital game addiction and academic achievement of the participants. Considering the negative relationship between computer game addiction/internet gaming disorder and academic achievement in the context of the literature, it is consistent that the academic achievement of students who use the internet for gaming purposes in this study is average or below. As a matter of fact, it is stated that digital game addiction decreases academic achievement in children (Delbe & Hazar, 2022).

Another result of the study is that the rate of internet use for gaming purposes increases with the daily internet use time exceeding one hour and with the increase in the duration of internet use. Similarly, Laconi et al. (2017) determined the time interval spent by the participants in online games as less than 1 hour and more than 126 hours weekly in their studies on the psychopathology of the internet gaming disorder. NG and Weimer-Hastings (2005), in their study on the Internet and online gaming, examined individuals playing Massively Multiplayer Online Role Playing games (MMORPG) and offline computer games. Looking at the time these individuals spent on computer games on a weekly basis, they found that the group playing online/internet-based games spent more time in the game, and this was explained as individuals finding their virtual lives more comfortable and satisfying than their real lives with social opportunities such as communicating and belonging to a group in online games. In a study conducted by Hawi et al. (2018) with high school students in Lebanon, it was found that students without internet gaming disorder played both online/internet-based and offline games, while all of the students with internet gaming disorder played online games and experienced sleep disturbance. Özgözü, Şimşek, Arıkan, Alyaprak, Günay, and Eyigüngör (2022) also found that 56.8% of the students used the Internet for more than three hours, while 14.1% used the Internet for more than six hours. In the same study, in line with the findings, the prominent daily internet usage time for problematic internet use was expressed as 3 hours. Accordingly, it was stated that the problematic internet use of students who use the internet for more than 3 hours increases. In this study, online games were also addressed and it is a noteworthy finding that among the students who use the internet, the daily internet usage time of the students who use the internet for gaming purposes is high. The fact that students spend more time on online games than many other internet usage purposes such as e-mail, research, news, chat and movie-video seems to be very important considering the many social opportunities provided by these games and the needs of adolescence.

According to the findings of the study on perceived social support, it was determined that there was no significant difference between the social support and total social support scores of students who used the Internet for gaming purposes and those who did not use the Internet for gaming purposes. On the other hand, it was observed that students who did not use the Internet for gaming purposes had a higher perception of social support from friends. In their study examining the real-life and online social support, depressive symptoms, and duration of site usage of users of an online gaming site, Prochnow et al. (2020) found that members who spent more time on the site tended to share important life events with other members more, showed more depressive symptoms, and had less real-life social support. This result was interpreted as that the members may want to fill the social support gap in their real lives with the friends they met through the site, and it was also stated that the communication that members with depressive symptoms establish through the game may actually be a search for help. Kowert et al. (2014) examined the involvement of emotionally sensitive individuals in online games and the friendships they made in these games and found that emotionally sensitive individuals are mostly involved in games to expand their social circles. This was interpreted as online games have an important potential for shy individuals with inadequate social skills to overcome social difficulties, make new friendships and strengthen old friendships. Paulus et al. (2018), in their study on internet gaming disorder in children and adolescents, stated that external factors such as domestic violence, neglect and inadequacies in social skills increase the risk of addiction to Massively Multiplayer Online Role Playing Games (MMORPG) and real-time strategy games. The results of this study suggest that students who use the Internet for gaming purposes may be playing online games as a means to compensate for the social support they do not receive from their friends in their real lives.

As Young (1998) states, it is not the Internet itself, but the fact that the Internet offers applications that provide high interaction opportunities that are effective in the emergence of addictive behaviors. In this direction, the relationship between the purpose of playing online games and internet addiction was also addressed in the present study. There was no significant difference between students who used the Internet for gaming purposes and students who did not use the Internet for gaming purposes in terms of Internet addiction symptoms. Research has shown that, apart from many other purposes of use, especially online gaming and internet addiction are related to each other (Jiang, 2014; Tone et al., 2014; van Rooij et al., 2010). However, at the same time, it is also stated that the type of game played, especially the role playing (RPG) type, is associated with

internet addiction (Lee et al., 2007) along with excessive game playing (Lee et al., 2015). In this context, it can be stated that the finding of this study on the relationship between the purpose of playing online games and addiction indicates that internet use for gaming purposes is a risk factor for internet addiction and that internet addiction should be examined in a multidimensional way.

The results of the study are important in terms of the fact that there is no significant difference between students who use the internet for gaming purposes and students who do not use the internet for gaming purposes in terms of internet addiction symptoms. As a matter of fact, there are studies (Hwang et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2012; Yang and Quadir, 2018) revealing that game-based learning environments positively affect students' learning motivation and performance. Jong (2015) investigated the pedagogical effects of conducting a geography course in a virtual interactive student-oriented environment and found that students with low and medium academic achievement had more positive pedagogical results than students with high academic achievement. However, it is stated that there is a significant positive relationship between low academic achievement and game addiction scores (Aslan, Başçillar and Karataş, 2022). In this context, it can be said that the academic performance of students with gaming internet use/internet gaming disorder should be investigated in a multidimensional way. Another important result of the present study is that students who do not use the Internet for gaming purposes have a higher perception of social support from friends. Van Ingen et al. (2016) examined internet activities and well-being in relation to online coping strategies used by individuals after negative life events such as physical health problems, psychological problems, divorce/loss of spouse. In the study, it was determined that 57% of the research group turned to some form of online coping. In the study, it was stated that online coping was realized through online games, searching for information on the internet, social networks and online social support groups. In addition, an inverse relationship was found between online mental avoidance and online socio-emotional coping and life satisfaction, self-esteem and optimism. The need for more detailed studies on the reasons for the negative effects of online activities on well-being as well as reducing daily life stress in individuals was emphasized. Yavuz (2018) examined internet and game addiction and perceived social support levels in gifted students and found that there was a negative and moderate relationship between internet and game addiction and perceived social support level. Özgöz, Şimşek, Arıkan, Alyaprak, Günay, and Eyigüngör (2022) determined that the perception of social support was a significant predictor of problematic internet use. It is stated that an increase in perceived social support from family and friends decreases problematic internet use. Aslan, Başçillar, and Karataş (2022) revealed a significant relationship between digital game addiction and negative social skills and social behaviors in children. In this context, in line with the findings of this study on Internet use for gaming purposes and perceived social support, comprehensive studies on adolescents' online experiences and well-being through online games, which have an important place in this experience, may be useful. As a matter of fact, as Bayraktutan (2005) stated, for individuals with insufficient real social support, the internet seems to become a place where social support is compensated.

The results of the study are important in terms of pointing out the significant difference in academic achievement, daily internet usage time and perceived social support from friends of students who use the internet for gaming purposes compared to students who use the internet for non-gaming purposes. In the study, online games played by adolescents were evaluated and considering the importance of peer support and communication opportunities provided by these games in terms of adolescence, it is a remarkable result that the level of social support perceived from friends of adolescents who use the internet for gaming purposes is lower than students who do not use the internet for gaming purposes. In line with these findings, the social support perceived by adolescents from their friends as well as the quality of the relationships they establish with their peers and their well-being can be extensively researched in this regard.

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Lise Öğrencilerinde Oyun Amaçlı İnternet Kullanımının Demografik Özelliklerine Göre İncelenmesi

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Öz

Bu araştırmanın amacı lise öğrencilerinin oyun amaçlı internet kullanımlarını çeşitli değişkenler açısından incelemektir. Araştırma, 2018-2019 eğitim-öğretim yılında elverişli örnekleme yöntemiyle seçilmiş 360 (176 kız, 184 erkek) öğrenciyle gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırmaya katılan öğrenciler dört farklı tür okulda 9, 10 ve 11.sınıfta eğitimlerine devam eden öğrenciler arasından seçilmişlerdir. Bu çalışmada, veri toplama araçları olarak araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen Kişisel Bilgi Formu, Öğrencilerin internet bağımlılık düzeylerini ölçmek üzere Young (1998) tarafından geliştirilen “İnternet Bağımlılığı Ölçeği” sosyal destek algılarını değerlendirmek üzere Yıldırım (2004) tarafından revize edilen Algılanan Sosyal Destek Ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Araştırma verileri Ki kare ve t-testi kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Araştırma bulgularına göre, lise öğrencilerin oyun amaçlı internet kullanımı ile cinsiyet, akademik başarı ve günlük internet kullanım süreleri arasında anlamlı bir farklılık bulunmuştur. Ayrıca interneti oyun amaçlı kullanmayan öğrencilerin arkadaşlarından daha fazla sosyal destek algıladıkları belirlenmiştir.

Key words: çevrimiçi oyun, sosyal destek, internet bağımlılığı, ergenler

Giriş

Teknolojinin ortaya çıkışı ve gelişimi, hayatı kolaylaştıran, zorlaştıran ve karmaşıklaştıran birçok şeyi de beraberinde getirmiştir. İnsanın her şeyin hızlı biçimde güncellendiği, bilgiye ve eğlenceye istediği biçimde ve sürede ulaşabildiği bir yaşam biçiminin içerisinde oluşu, interneti vazgeçilmez bir ihtiyaç haline getirmiştir. İnternetin yaygınlaşması ve popüler hale gelmesi akıllı telefon, tabletler ve bilgisayarlar gibi yüksek teknoloji cihazlar aracılığıyla gerçekleşmiştir. Bu gelişmenin sonuçlarından biri de internet üzerinden ulaşılan ve birçok kişi ve genç tarafından yaygın olarak kullanılan boş zaman aktivitelerinden biri haline gelen çevrimiçi oyunlar olmuştur. Taşınabilir araçlar, akıllı telefonlar ve tabletler zamandan ve mekândan bağımsız olarak oyun oynamayı mümkün kılmıştır. Geçmiş yıllarda çocuklar, "hırsız-polis", "saklambaç" "körebe" gibi oyunlar oynarlarken, şimdilerde bu oyunların yerini "Pokemon Go", "PUBG", "Minecraft", "GTA 5" gibi çevrimiçi oyunlar almıştır.

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Günümüzde çevrimiçi oyunlar her yaştan insan arasında, özellikle de çocuklar ve ergenler arasında oldukça popüler hale gelmiştir (Wang, Chan, Mak, Ho, Wong ve Ho, 2014) . Son araştırmalara göre, ergenlerin video oyunlarında vakit geçirme zamanı artmış (Griffiths, 2008), çevrimiçi oyun bugüne kadarki en bağımlılık yaratan internet aktivitelerinden biri haline gelmiştir (Wan ve Chiou, 2006). Yapılan araştırmalar, dünya genelinde 18 yaşından küçük her üç kişiden birinin internet kullandığını ve gelişmiş ülkelerde ergenlerin %75'inin her gün çevrimiçi oyun oynadığını göstermiştir (UNICEF,2017; Byrne ve Burton,2017). Türkiye'de de, yeni nesil çevrimiçi oyunların hızlı bir şekilde yayılmaya başlamasıyla birlikte, özellikle ilköğretim ve ortaöğretim öğrencilerinin yoğun ilgisini toplamıştır. Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu (TÜİK,2013)'nun yaptığı bir araştırmaya göre, oyun amaçlı internet kullanımı 11-15 yaş grubu erkeklerde %82'5 ken, kız çocuklarında %60,4' olarak istatistiklere yansımıştır. TÜİK'in 2021 yılında tekrar ettiği araştırmada oyun amaçlı internet kullanımı aynı yaş grubu erkek çocuklarda %53,7 iken, kız çocuklarda %24,4 olarak belirlenmiştir. 6-15 yaş arası çocuklarda internet kullanım amaçlarından biri olan oyun oynama ve indirme, %66,1'le internet kullanım amaçları arasında 3. sırada yer almıştır. Yine cinsiyet ile oyun amaçlı internet kullanımı arasındaki ilişkinin incelendiği Kahraman ve diğerlerinin (2011), yaptığı araştırmada, kız öğrencilerin %9,5'i internette çevrimiçi oyunları takip ederken, %90,5'inin internet üzerinden oyun oynamadıkları belirlenmiştir. Erkek öğrenciler ise %36,5'lik bir oranla çevrimiçi oyunları takip ederken, geriye kalanların internette oyun oynamadıkları belirlenmiştir. İnal ve Çağiltay'ın (2005), yaptığı araştırmada erkek öğrencilerin kızlara oranla daha fazla oyun oynadıkları ortaya konulmuştur. Yapılan bir diğer araştırmada erkek öğrencilerin bilgisayar oyun bağımlılık düzeylerinin, kız öğrencilerin bilgisayar oyun bağımlılık düzeylerinden anlamlı bir şekilde daha yüksek olduğu görülmüştür (Taş ve Güneş, 2019).

Akademik başarı ile çevrimiçi oyunlar arasında ilişkinin incelendiği araştırmalarda negatif ve pozitif yönlü ilişkileri görmek mümkündür. Chiu, Lee ve Huang'ın (2004), Tayvan' da yaptığı araştırma, oyun bağımlılığı arttıkça akademik başarı düzeyinin düştüğünü göstermektedir. Suler'in (2004), yaptığı araştırmada internette ve oyunda çok zaman harcayan bireylerde; yakın çevreden uzaklaşma, şiddet davranışı, akademik başarıda düşüş ve içe kapanma gibi olumsuz etkilerin olduğu ortaya konulmuştur. Bununla birlikte, etkileşimli çevrimiçi oyunların akademik performansın artmasına yol açabileceğini öne süren araştırmalar da mevcuttur (Anand, 2007; Jackson ve diğerleri, 2008). Din ve Calao, (2001)'nin yaptığı bir araştırma, eğitici çevrimiçi oyunları oynayan öğrencilerin heceleme ve okuma öğrenmelerinde, kontrol grubuna göre önemli artışlar olduğunu göstermiştir. Skoric, Teo ve Neo (2009), oyun bağımlılığının olumsuz akademik performansa yol açarken, orta düzeyde oyun oynamanın akademik performansın artışına yol açabileceğini bulgulamışlardır.

Çevrimiçi oyunlarla, internet bağımlılığı arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen araştırmalara bakıldığında, Mitchell (2000), internet üzerinden oyun oynamanın dopamin salgısını artırdığını ve dopaminin bağımlılığın ortaya çıkmasında önemli bir yeri olan nörokimyasal olduğunu ifade ederek, bağımlılık ile ilgili önemli bir veri sunmaktadır. Oyun amaçlı internet bağımlılığı ve internet kullanımı arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen araştırmalara baktığımızda, zamanının büyük bir kısmını oyun oynayarak geçiren yetişkin olmayanların madde bağımlılığında görülen belirtilere sahip olduğu görülmüştür (Hsu vd., 2009; Ko vd., 2009; Mehroof ve Griffiths 2010; Wölfling vd., 2008; Young, 2009). Ayas ve Horzum (2013), yaptıkları araştırmada, internet bağımlılığı arttıkça oyun bağımlılığının da arttığını belirlemişlerdir. Yılmaz ve diğerleri (2014) yaptığı araştırmada, oyun amaçlı internet kullanan öğrencilerin toplam bağımlılık puanlarının; müzik- film, ödev-araştırma ve sosyal ağ amacıyla internet kullanan öğrencilerinkinden daha fazla olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Öncelikli internet kullanım amacı oyun olanların, toplam bağımlılık puanları öncelikli sosyal ağ ve haber okumak olanlardan daha fazla olduğu görülmüştür.

Araştırmamızın bir diğer sorunsalı olan, interneti oyun amaçlı kullanan öğrencilerin algıladıkları sosyal destek düzeyleri arasında ilişki olup olmadığına bakmadan önce algılanan sosyal destek kavramına değinmek gerekmektedir. Algılanan sosyal destek, bireyin çevresindeki insanlarla güvenli bir bağ kurduğuna ve çevresindeki insanlardan gereken desteği temin edebileceğine dair algısıdır. Bireyin değer verildiğine, sevildiğine ve diğerleriyle sağlıklı iyi ilişkiler kurduğuna dair hislerini ifade eder (Oktan, 2005). Oyun amaçlı internet kullanan öğrencilerin algıladıkları sosyal destek düzeylerinin incelendiği araştırmaların farklı sonuçlar ortaya koyduğu görülmektedir. Yüksel ve Baytemir'in (2010), yaptığı araştırmada oyun ve eğlence amaçlı internet kullanan öğrencilerin algıladıkları sosyal desteğin değişmediği ortaya konulmuştur. Kraut ve diğerlerinin (2002) yaptıkları çalışmada, internetin sosyal etkileşim amacıyla kullanımı arttıkça bireylerin yakın ilişki kurduğu kişilerle olan ilişkisinin azaldığı görülmüş, algılanan sosyal destek ve internet kullanımı arasında negatif yönlü bir ilişki olduğu ortaya konulmuştur. Yine, algılanan sosyal destek düzeyi düşük olan öğrencilerde, internetin problemleri kullanım oranının yüksek olduğu ifade edilmektedir. Ayrıca, düşük sosyal destek algısının, problemleri internet kullanımı konusunda bir risk faktörü olduğu belirtilmektedir (Chen, Li ve Long, 2007). Literatürde algılanan sosyal destek ile internetin problemleri kullanım arasında pozitif yönlü ilişki olduğunu gösteren çalışmalar mevcuttur (Shaw ve Gant, 2002; Silverman; 1999). Kraut, Patterson ve Lundmark (1998), insanların interneti diğer amaçlardan ziyade daha çok başkalarıyla iletişim amaçlı kullandıklarını ortaya koymuştur. Bu internet kullanıcılarının destek ve etkileşim ihtiyacını karşılamak istediklerini ve internet

aracılığıyla bu ihtiyaçlarını karşıladıklarını göstermektedir (Mossbarger, 2008). Ancak internet kullanımı yalnız yapılan bir etkinlik olduğundan kişilerarası ilişkilere zarar verebilmektedir. (Kraut ve diğerleri, 1998; Sanders ve diğerleri, 2000).

Yukarıda çevrimiçi oyunların gençler arasında oldukça yaygın olduğuna ve gençler üzerindeki olumlu ve olumsuz etkilerine dikkat çekilmiştir. Teknolojideki gelişmeler ile ergenlik döneminin gelişimsel ihtiyaçları ve sorunları düşünüldüğünde ve oyun oynamanın internet bağımlılığı açısından bir risk faktörü olması da dikkate alınarak oyun amaçlı internet kullanımının nedenleri ile beraber oyun amaçlı internet kullanımından ergenlerin sosyal ve davranışsal açıdan nasıl etkilendiklerinin aydınlatılmasının önemli olduğu ve çalışmanın bu anlamda yarar sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir. Bu doğrultuda araştırmada aşağıdaki sorulara yanıt aranmıştır:

1. Öğrencilerin oyun amaçlı internet kullanımı ile cinsiyeti arasında anlamlı bir farklılık var mıdır?
2. Öğrencilerin oyun amaçlı internet kullanımı ile akademik başarısı arasında anlamlı bir farklılık var mıdır?
3. Oyun amaçlı internet kullanmayan öğrenciler ve oyun amaçlı internet kullanan öğrencilerin günlük internet kullanım sürelerinde anlamlı bir farklılık var mıdır?
4. Oyun amaçlı internet kullanmayan öğrenciler ile oyun amaçlı internet kullanan öğrencilerin algıladıkları sosyal destek düzeyleri arasında anlamlı bir farklılık var mıdır?
5. Oyun amaçlı internet kullanmayan öğrenciler ile interneti oyun amaçlı kullanan öğrencilerin internet bağımlılık semptomları arasında anlamlı bir farklılık var mıdır?

Yöntem

Araştırma modeli

Geçmişte ya da halen var olan bir durumu var olduğu şekliyle betimlemeyi amaçlayan araştırma yaklaşımı tarama modelidir (Karasar, 2014). Bu araştırmanın lise öğrencilerinde oyun amaçlı internet kullanımı ile cinsiyet, akademik başarı, günlük internet kullanım süresi, algılanan sosyal destek düzeyi ve internet bağımlılığı semptomu değişkenleri arasında anlamlı bir farklılık olup olmadığını amaçlamaktadır.

Araştırma Grubu

Araştırma grubu 2018-2019 öğretim yılında dört farklı okul türünde eğitimlerine devam eden 360 öğrenciden oluşmaktadır. Çalışmaya katılan öğrenciler, 12.sınıf haricindeki sınıflarda okuyan öğrencilerden elverişli örnekleme yoluyla seçilmiştir. Bu öğrencilerin 184'ü erkek (%51.1) ve 176'sı kız (48.9) dır. Veriler sınıf ortamında yaklaşık 40-45 dakikada araştırmacının kendisi tarafından toplanmıştır. Katılımda gönüllülük esas alınmıştır. Öğrencilerin tercih ettikleri oyun türlerine bakıldığında macera/aksiyon (GTA, Outlast, Left 4 Dead vb.) kız (%22,7), erkek (%77,3); Spor/yarış (GTA, Outlast, Left 4 Dead vb.) kız (%26,2), erkek (%73,8); FPS (First-Person shooter) (Wolfteam, Counter Strike vb.) (kız (%19,3), erkek (%80,7); Strateji (League of Legends, Dota, Smite vb.) (kız (%25,3), erkek (%74,7); Simülasyon (Gemi, uçak vb.) (kız (%22,4), erkek (%77,6); diğer oyun türleri kız (%58,7), erkek (%42,3) ve RPG (Role Playing Game) (Diablo, Knight online vb.) (kız (%17,0), erkek (%83,0) türü oyunların izlediği görülmektedir. Günlük internet kullanım sürelerine bakıldığında 153 öğrencinin (%42,5) interneti 1-3 saat aralığında kullandığı görülmüştür. Diğer öğrenciler ise interneti sırasıyla 4-6 saat (%20,3), 1 saatten az (%18,3), 9 saatten fazla (%10,8) ve 7-9 saat (%8,1) kullandıklarını belirtmişlerdir. Öğrencilerin interneti kullanım amaçları sıralandığında araştırma-ödev kız (%77,0), erkek (%23,0); sosyal ağlar kız (%75,9), erkek (%24,1); film-video-müzik kız (%70,7), erkek (%29,3); oyun kız (%41,5), erkek (%58,5); sohbet (%55,3) kız (%58,2,0) erkek (%47,8); mail-iletişim kız (%29,3), erkek (%70,7) ve haber kız (%20,7), erkek (%79,3) amaçlı kullanımın izlediği belirlenmiştir. Araştırma grubundaki öğrencilerden internet bağımlılığı semptomu gösterenlerin sayısı çok az bulunmuştur. Bu nedenle anlamlı istatistiksel bir karşılaştırmada bulunabilmek için internet bağımlısı (İBÖ puanı 80 ve üzeri) olanlar ile sınırlı semptom gösterenler (İBÖ puanı 51-79 arasında olanlar) tek grup haline getirilerek "semptom gösterenler" olarak yeniden tanımlanmıştır. Böylece karşılaştırma, İBÖ puanı 50 ve altında olanlar yani "semptom göstermeyenler" ile "semptom gösterenler" şeklinde iki düzey arasında gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Veri Toplama Araçları

Araştırmada; araştırmacının kendisi tarafından hazırlanan kişisel bilgi formu, algılanan sosyal destek ölçeği ve internet bağımlılığı ölçeği uygulanarak veri toplanmıştır.

Kişisel Bilgi Formu

Bu formda öğrencilere ait demografik bilgiler ile kendine ait bilgisayara sahip olma durumu, internete bağlanılan yer, internet kullanımında aile müdahalesi durumu, interneti günlük ne kadar kullandığı ve kullanım amacı ve okul başarısının tespitine yönelik sorulan son dönem not ortalaması yer almaktadır.

İnternet Bağımlılığı Ölçeği (İBÖ)

Young'ın (1998) Mental Hastalıkların Teşhis ve İstatistiği El Kitabı-4 (DSM-IV)'ün "Psikoaktif Madde Bağımlılığı" ölçütlerine dayanarak oluşturduğu, Bayraktar (2001) tarafından Türkçeye uyarlanmış olan 20 maddelik Likert tarzı bir ölçektir ve 12-17 yaş grubuna uygundur. Ölçekte "Ne sıklıkla planladığımızdan daha fazla sürede internette kalıyorsunuz?" ve "Ne sıklıkla okula devamınız internette dolaylı olumsuz etkilenir?" gibi internet kullanım yoğunlukları ve bu kullanıma bağlı olarak bireylerin yaşadıkları akademik, sosyal ve davranışsal sorunlara ilişkin maddeler yer almaktadır. Katılımcıların "Devamlı" "Çok sık" "Çoğunlukla" "Arada sırada" "Nadiren" ve "Hiçbir zaman" seçeneklerinden birini işaretlemeleri istenmektedir. Bu seçeneklere sırasıyla 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 ve 0 puan ile değerlendirilmektedir. 50 puan ve altı alanlar "Semptom Göstermeyenler", 50-79 puan arası alanlar "Sınırlı Semptom Gösterenler", 80 ve üzeri alanlar "Patolojik İnternet Kullanıcısı" olarak sınıflandırılmaktadır. İBÖ'nün standardize edilmiş Alpha değeri açısından güvenilirliği .91, Spearman-Brown değeri açısından .87'dir. Bu araştırmada ölçeğin Cronbach Alpha güvenilirlik katsayısı 0.90 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

Algılanan Sosyal Destek Ölçeği

Yıldırım (1997) tarafından geliştirilen Algılanan Sosyal Destek Ölçeğinin, Yıldırım (2004) tarafından revize edilmiş hali (ASDÖ-R) araştırmada kullanılmıştır. ASDÖ-R; Aile Desteği (AİD), Arkadaş Desteği (ARD) ve Öğretmen Desteği (ÖGD) olarak üç alt ölçekten oluşmaktadır. Ölçek maddeleri "Ailem bana gerçekten değer verir", "Arkadaşlarım doğru kararlar vermeme yardım eder.", "Öğretmenlerim sorunlarımı çözmeme yardım eder." şeklinde bireyin aile, arkadaş ve öğretmen desteğini derecelendirdiği ifadelerden oluşmaktadır. ASDÖ-R; aile desteği alt ölçeğinde 20 madde, arkadaş desteği alt ölçeğinde 13 madde ve öğretmen desteği alt ölçeğinde 17 madde ile toplam 50 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Likert tipi üç derecelendirmeli (bana uygun=3, kısmen=2, bana uygun değil=1) bir ölçektir. Alt ölçeklerin her birinde birer tane olmak üzere tersine çevrilmiş madde sayısı üçtür. Ölçeklerden alınabilecek puan aralıkları şöyledir: AİD; 20-60, ARD; 13-39, ÖGD ; 17-51, toplam ASDÖ-R ; 50-150. Puanın yüksek olması bireyin sosyal destek algısının fazla olduğuna işaret etmektedir. ASDÖ-R'nin tümü için Alpha = .93, rxx = .91; AİD için Alpha = .94, rxx = .89; ARD için Alpha = .91, rxx = .85; ÖGD için Alpha = .93, rxx = .86 bulunmuştur. Elde edilen güvenilirlik katsayıları ASDÖ-R ve alt ölçeklerinin sosyal desteği ölçmek amacı ile güvenle kullanılabilirliğini göstermektedir (Yıldırım, 2004). Bu araştırmada ASDÖ-R aile desteği boyutunun Cronbach Alfa katsayısı 0.91, arkadaş desteği boyutunun 0.89, öğretmen desteği boyutunun 0.92 ve ölçeğin tümü için Cronbach Alfa katsayısı 0.93 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

Verilerin Analizi

Demografik veriler için betimsel istatistikler kullanılmıştır. Öğrencilerin oyun amaçlı internet kullanımlarının cinsiyet, akademik başarı, internet bağımlılığı ve internet kullanım sürelerine göre anlamlı bir farklılık gösterip göstermediğini Ki-Kare Testi ile interneti oyun amaçlı kullanan ve oyun amaçlı kullanmayan öğrencilerin algılanan sosyal destek puanlarının farklı olup olmadığı ise T Testi ile belirlenmiştir. Araştırmada istatistiksel anlamlılık sınırı olarak $p < 0,05$ kabul edilmiştir.

Bulgular

Cinsiyete Göre Oyun Amaçlı İnternet Kullanımına İlişkin Bulgular

Cinsiyete göre oyun amaçlı internet kullanımı arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir farklılık olup olmadığını belirlemek amacıyla Ki-Kare Testi yapılmıştır. Sonuçlar Tablo 7'de verilmiştir.

Tablo 1. Cinsiyete Göre Oyun Amaçlı İnternet Kullanımına İlişkin Ki-Kare Testi Sonuçları

Oyun amaçlı Kullanılanlar	Oyun amaçlı Kullanmayanlar	χ^2	sd	p
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Cinsiyet	N	%	N	%			
Kız öğrenciler	73	41,5	103	58,5	46,18	1	,000
Erkek öğrenciler	142	77,32	42	22,8			
Toplam	215	59,7	145	40,3			

P<0,01

Öğrencilerin cinsiyetlerine göre interneti oyun amaçlı kullanımları arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğu belirlenmiştir(p<0,01). Erkek öğrenciler (%77,3) interneti kız öğrencilere (%41,5) göre daha yüksek oranda oyun amaçlı kullanılmaktadır. Cinsiyetin oyun amaçlı internet kullanımına orta düzeyde bir etkide bulunduğu belirlenmiştir (Phi= ,36).

Oyun Amaçlı İnternet Kullanımının Akademik Başarı Düzeyine Göre İncelenmesine İlişkin Bulgular

Öğrencilerin not ortalamalarına göre interneti oyun amaçlı kullanımına dair yapılan Ki Kare Testinin sonuçları Tablo 2’de yer almaktadır. Öğrencilerin akademik başarı düzeyleri belirlenirken ortaöğretim not sistemi dikkate alınarak sınıflandırma yapılmıştır. Öğrencilerin son dönem not ortalamaları akademik başarıda belirleyici olmuştur.

Tablo 2. Akademik Başarı Düzeyine Göre Oyun Amaçlı İnternet Kullanımına İlişkin Ki-Kare Testi Sonuçları

	Oyun amaçlı Kullananlar		Oyun amaçlı Kullanmayanlar		χ^2	sd	p
Akademik Başarı	N	%	N	%			
Geçmez (0-49,99)	19	8,8	10	6,9	9,91	4	,042
Geçer (50, 59,99)	41	19,1	19	13,1			
Orta (60-69,99)	68	31,6	37	25,5			
İyi (70-84,99)	80	37,2	66	45,5			
Pekiyi (85-100)	7	3,3	13	9,0			
Toplam	215	59,7	145	40,3			

p<0,05

Tablo 2 incelendiğinde öğrencilerin akademik başarılarına göre oyun amaçlı internet kullanımlarında anlamlı bir fark olduğu görülmektedir. Akademik başarısı Geçmez, Geçer ve Orta olan öğrencilerin oyun amaçlı internet kullanım oranları diğer öğrencilere göre anlamlı düzeyde daha fazladır ($\chi^2= 9,91$, p<0,05). Cramer’s V değeri ,166 olarak belirlenmiştir. Akademik başarısının orta ve altında olmasının oyun amaçlı internet kullanımında kısmen etkili bir değişken olduğu ifade edilebilir.

Oyun Amaçlı İnternet Kullanımının Günlük İnternet Kullanım Süresine Göre İncelenmesine İlişkin Bulgular

Tablo 3. Günlük İnternet Kullanım Süresine Göre Oyun Amaçlı İnternet Kullanımına İlişkin Ki Kare Testi Sonuçları

	Oyun amaçlı Kullananlar		Oyun amaçlı Kullanmayanlar		χ^2	sd	p
Günlük İnternet Kullanımı	N	%	N	%			
1 saatten az	24	36,4	42	63,6	19,07	4	,001
1-3 saat	96	62,7	57	37,3			
4-6 saat	50	68,5	23	31,5			
7-9 saat	19	65,5	10	34,5			
9 saatten fazla	26	66,7	13	33,3			
Toplam	215	59,7	145	40,3			

$p < 0,01$

Öğrencilerin günlük internet kullanım sürelerine göre oyun amaçlı internet kullanımları arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğu belirlenmiştir. Günlük 1 saate kadar olan internet kullanımında interneti oyun amacıyla kullandığını belirten öğrencilerin oranı daha düşük iken interneti günlük 1 saat ve daha fazla kullanan öğrencilerde oyun amaçlı kullanım oranı daha yüksektir. Günlük internet kullanım süresinin oyun amaçlı internet kullanımı davranışında etkisi olduğu söylenebilir. ($\Phi = ,23$, $p < 0,01$).

Oyun Amaçlı İnternet Kullanımının Algılanan Sosyal Destek Düzeyine Göre İncelenmesine İlişkin Bulgular

Öğrencilerin sırasıyla Aile, Öğretmen ve Arkadaşlarından algıladıkları sosyal destek düzeyleri ile Algılanan Sosyal Destek Ölçeği toplam puanına göre ayrı ayrı yapılan T Testi sonuçları tablolar halinde gösterilmiştir:

Tablo 4. Aileden Algılanan Sosyal Destek Düzeyi ve Oyun Amaçlı İnternet Kullanımına İlişkin T Testi Sonuçları

ASDÖR(AİLE)						
İnternet kullanımı	N	\bar{x}	SS	Sd	t	p
Oyun amaçlı kullananlar	215	51,91	7,305			
Oyun amaçlı kullanmayanlar	145	51,95	7,506	358	,045	,96

Oyun amaçlı internet kullanan ve oyun amaçlı kullanmayan öğrencilerin aile desteği alt ölçek puanlarını karşılaştırmak için bağımsız örneklem t-testi yürütülmüştür. Tablo 4 incelendiğinde, oyun amaçlı internet kullanan öğrenciler ($\bar{x}=51,91$) ve oyun amaçlı internet kullanmayan öğrencilerden ($\bar{x}=51,95$; $t(358)=,045$, $p=,96$) elde edilen puanlar arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır.

Tablo 5. Arkadaştan Algılanan Sosyal Destek Düzeyi ve Oyun Amaçlı İnternet Kullanımına İlişkin T Testi Sonuçları

ASDÖR(ARKADAŞ)						
İnternet kullanımı	N	\bar{x}	SS	Sd	t	p
Oyun amaçlı kullananlar	215	33,77	5,222			
Oyun amaçlı kullanmayanlar	145	34,97	5,218	358	2,14	,033

$p < 0,05$

Oyun amaçlı internet kullanan ve oyun amaçlı kullanmayan öğrencilerin arkadaş desteği alt ölçek puanlarını kıyaslamak için bağımsız örneklem t-testi yürütülmüştür. Tablo incelendiğinde oyun amaçlı internet kullanan öğrenciler ($\bar{x}=33,77$) ve oyun amaçlı internet kullanmayan öğrencilerden ($\bar{x}=34,97$; $t(358)=2,14$, $p=,033$) elde edilen puanlar arasında anlamlı bir fark vardır. İnterneti oyun amaçlı kullanmayan öğrencilerin arkadaşlarından algıladıkları sosyal destek puan ortalaması ($\bar{x}=34,97$), interneti oyun amaçlı kullanan öğrencilerin puan ortalamasından ($\bar{x}=33,77$) anlamlı şekilde yüksektir.

Tablo 6. Öğretmenden Algılanan Sosyal Destek Düzeyi ve Oyun Amaçlı İnternet Kullanımına İlişkin T Testi Sonuçları

ASDÖR(ÖĞRETMEN)						
İnternet kullanımı	N	\bar{x}	SS	Sd	t	p
Oyun amaçlı kullananlar	215	39,46	8,352			
Oyun amaçlı kullanmayanlar	145	40,57	8,047	358	1,24	,21

$p < 0,05$

Oyun amaçlı internet kullanan ve oyun amaçlı kullanmayan öğrencilerin öğretmen desteği alt ölçek puanlarını kıyaslamak için bağımsız örneklem t-testi yürütülmüştür. Tablo 6 incelendiğinde oyun amaçlı internet kullanan öğrenciler ($\bar{x}=39,46$) ve oyun amaçlı internet kullanmayan öğrencilerden ($\bar{x}=40,57$; $t(358)=1,24$, $p=,21$) elde edilen puanlar arasında anlamlı bir fark yoktur.

Tablo 7. Algılanan Toplam Sosyal Destek Düzeyi ve Oyun Amaçlı İnternet Kullanımına İlişkin T Testi Sonuçları

ASDÖR(TOPLAM)

İnternet kullanımı	N	\bar{x}	SS	Sd	t	p
Oyun amaçlı kullananlar	215	125,4186	14,744			
Oyun amaçlı kullanmayanlar	145	127,496	16,389	358	1,253	,21

$p < 0,05$

Oyun amaçlı internet kullanan ve oyun amaçlı kullanmayan öğrencilerin, Algılanan Sosyal Destek Ölçeği toplam puanlarını kıyaslamak için bağımsız örneklem t-testi yürütülmüştür. Tablo 7 incelendiğinde oyun amaçlı internet kullanan öğrenciler ($\bar{x}=125,418$) ve oyun amaçlı internet kullanmayan öğrencilerden ($\bar{x}=127,496$; $t(358)=1,253$, $p=,21$) elde edilen puanlar arasında anlamlı bir fark yoktur.

Oyun Amaçlı İnternet Kullanımının İnternet Bağımlılık Semptomlarına Göre İncelenmesine İlişkin Bulgular

Tablo 8. İnternet Bağımlılık Semptomlarına Göre Oyun Amaçlı İnternet Kullanımına İlişkin Ki-Kare Testi Sonuçları

	Oyun amaçlı Kullananlar		Oyun amaçlı Kullanmayanlar		χ^2	sd	p
	N	%	N	%			
İnternet bağımlılığı							
Semptom göstermeyenler	181	58,8	127	41,2			
Semptom gösterenler	33	64,7	18	35,3	,418	1	,518
Toplam	214	59,6	145	40,4			

$p < 0,05$

Tablo 8 incelendiğinde oyun amaçlı internet kullanan ve oyun amaçlı kullanmayan öğrencilerin internet bağımlılığı belirtileri bakımından aralarında anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır ($\chi^2=,418$, $p > 0,05$).

Sonuç, Tartışma ve Öneriler

Araştırmanın bulguları cinsiyetlerine göre lise öğrencilerinin interneti oyun amaçlı kullanımları arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunduğu işaret etmektedir. Erkek öğrencilerin (%77,1) kız öğrencilere (%41,5) göre daha yüksek oranda oyun amacıyla internet kullandıkları belirlenmiştir ($P < 0,01$). Literatür incelendiğinde bu sonuç internet oyun oynama bozukluğunun cinsiyete göre değerlendirildiği çalışmalarla (Bonnaira ve Baptista, 2019; Bonnaira ve Phan, 2017; Wichstrøm vd., 2019) paralellik göstermektedir. Fam (2018), Ergenlerde internet oyun oynama bozukluğunun yaygınlığını belirlemek ve karşılaştırma tablosu ortaya koymak için 10-19 yaş aralığındaki ergenleri kapsayan araştırmalardan oluşan bir meta- analiz çalışması gerçekleştirmiştir. Bu çalışmada ergenlerde bozukluğun yaygınlığı % 4,6 olarak belirlenmiştir. Aynı araştırmada bu oranın; Ferguson ve diğerlerinin (2011) yaptıkları meta-analiz çalışmasında oyun oynama bozukluğunun çocuklarda görülme oranından (%4,2) fazla ancak yetişkin grupta belirledikleri orandan (%8,9) az olduğunu belirtmektedir ve bu durumun oyun bozukluğunun erken yaştaki başlangıcını yansıtabileceği vurgulanmaktadır. Fam (2018), erkeklerde oyun oynama bozukluğunun görülme oranının (%7,1) kızlara (%1,7) göre neredeyse dört kat fazla olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Oyun oynama bozukluğunda cinsiyetlere göre ortaya konulan bu farklılığın cinsiyete göre tercih edilen oyun türlerine atfedilebileceği ifade edilmiştir (Greenberg vd., 2010; Hartmann ve Klimmt, 2006; Homer vd., 2012). Cinsiyete göre oyun tercihlerine bakıldığında erkeklerin daha çok rol oynama, FPS ve strateji; kızların ise daha öğretici ve beceri gerektiren oyunları tercih ettikleri belirlenmiştir (Elliott vd., 2012; Fam, 2018; Rehbein vd., 2015). Oyun oynama süresi açısından bakıldığında erkek cinsiyet ve tercih edilen oyun türünün yordayıcı olduğu, erkeklerde en fazla oyun oynama süresinin ise rol oynama ve FPS türü oyunları olduğu bulgusu (Rehbein vd., 2015) dikkati çekmektedir.

Bu çalışmada da öğrencilerin interneti kullanım amaçlarıyla birlikte tercih ettikleri oyun türleri de belirlenmiştir. Öğrencilerin cinsiyetlerine göre tercih ettikleri oyun türlerine bakıldığında kız öğrencilerin tabloda belirtilmeyen oyun türleri için yer verilen "diğer" kategorisi hariç tutulduğunda sırasıyla spor (%26,2), strateji (%25,3), macera/aksiyon (%22,7) oyunlarını; erkek öğrencilerin sırasıyla RPG (%83), FPS (%80,7) ve Simülasyon (%77,6) oyunlarını tercih ettikleri sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Karakuş, İnal ve Çağıltay (2008), Lise öğrencilerinin tercih ettikleri oyun türleri ve nedenlerini araştırdıkları çalışmalarında erkek öğrencilerin çoğunlukla araba yarışı, spor, FPS oyunlarını; kızların ise aksiyon/macera, bulmaca, araba yarışı, kart ya da masa oyunlarını tercih ettiklerini belirlemişlerdir. Bu oyunları tercih nedenleri erkeklerde eğlenmek iken kızlarda ise oyunun öğretici olmasının belirleyici olduğu görülmüştür. İnternet oyun oynama bozukluğunun görülme oranı her ne kadar erkeklerde daha fazla olsa da bozukluğun nörobiyolojik olarak iki cinsiyeti de farklı şekilde etkilediği, bozukluğa sahip bireylerin cinsiyete göre kortikal kalınlıklarında farklılıkların bulunduğu ve

kızların erkeklere göre bozukluktan daha fazla etkilendiği de belirtilmektedir (Ziliang vd., 2019). Bu durum bağımlılığın cinsiyetlere göre farklılığında nörobiyolojik faktöre işaret etmesi bakımından önemlidir.

Akademik başarıya göre öğrencilerin interneti oyun amaçlı kullanımları değerlendirildiğinde; öğrencilerden akademik başarıları ortalama ve daha altında bulunanların interneti oyun amaçlı kullanımları anlamlı düzeyde yüksek bulunmuştur. Bu sonuç literatürdeki diğer bilgisayar oyunu bağımlılığı/internet oyun oynama bozukluğu ve düşük akademik başarı ilişkisini ortaya koyan çalışmalar (Brunborg vd., 2014; Müller vd., 2015; Bülbül vd., 2018) ile tutarlıdır. Araştırmanın bu sonucu akademik başarı düzeyi yüksek olan öğrencilerin interneti daha bilinçli şekilde kullandıklarını, oyun amacı dışında ve okul sorumluluklarına katkıda bulunacak şekilde interneti kullandıklarına işaret etmektedir. Öğrencilerin internet kullanım amaçları incelendiğinde araştırma ve ödev amaçlı kullanım oranının (%74,3) oldukça yüksek olması dikkati çekmektedir. Chen ve Fu (2009) Tayvan'da ortaokul 8.sınıf öğrencilerinin internet kullanımlarının bir yıl sonraki lise giriş sınavına etkisini incelemişlerdir. Araştırma sonuçları bu çalışmaya benzer şekilde bilgi edinmek amaçlı internet kullanan öğrencilerin sınav puanlarının sosyalleşme ve oyun oynamak için internet kullanan öğrencilerin sınav puanlarından daha yüksek olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Delbe ve Hazar (2022) da ortaokul öğrencilerinde dijital oyun bağımlılığı düzeyi ve akademik başarı ilişkisini inceledikleri çalışmalarında katılımcıların dijital oyun bağımlılığı düzeyi ve akademik başarı durumu arasında negatif yönde anlamlı düzeyde bir ilişki olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Literatür bağlamında bilgisayar oyunu bağımlılığı/internet oyun oynama bozukluğu ile akademik başarı arasındaki negatif ilişki düşünüldüğünde; bu çalışmanın interneti oyun amaçlı kullanan öğrencilerin akademik başarısının ortalama ve daha altında olması tutarlıdır. Nitekim dijital oyun bağımlılığının çocuklarda akademik başarıyı düşürdüğü (Delbe ve Hazar, 2022) ifade edilmektedir.

Araştırmanın diğer bir sonucu da günlük internet kullanım süresinin bir saati geçmesi ve internet kullanım süresinin artışıyla oyun amaçlı internet kullanım oranının da artmasıdır. Benzer şekilde Laconi ve diğerlerinin (2017) internet oyun oynama bozukluğunun psikopatolojisini ele aldıkları çalışmalarında katılımcıların çevrimiçi oyunlarda harcadıkları zaman aralığını haftalık olarak 1 saatten az ve 126 saatten fazla olarak belirlemişlerdir. NG ve Weimer-Hastings (2005), İnternet ve çevrimiçi oyun konulu araştırmalarında Kitleli Katılımlı Çevrimiçi Rol Oynama (MMORPG) oyunları ile çevrimdışı bilgisayar oyunlarını oynayan bireyleri incelemişlerdir. Bu bireylerin haftalık olarak bilgisayar oyunu için harcadıkları zamana bakıldığında çevrimiçi/internet bazlı oyunlar oynayan grubun oyunda geçirdiği sürenin daha fazla olduğunu tespit etmişlerdir ve bu durum çevrimiçi oyunlarda bireylerin iletişim kurması ve bir gruba dahil olması gibi sosyal imkanlarla beraber sanal yaşamlarını gerçek yaşantılarından daha rahat ve tatmin edici bulmaları şeklinde açıklanmıştır. Hawi ve diğerlerinin (2018) Lübnan'da lise öğrencileriyle yaptıkları çalışmada internet oyun oynama bozukluğu olmayan öğrencilerin hem çevrimiçi/internet bazlı hem de çevrimdışı oyunlar oynadıkları belirlenirken internet oyun oynama bozukluğu olan öğrencilerin tamamının çevrimiçi oyun oynadıkları ve uyku bozukluğu gösterdikleri görülmüştür. Özgözü, Şimşek, Arıkan, Alyaprak, Günay ve Eyigüngör (2022) de çalışmalarında; öğrencilerin %56,8'inin üç saatten fazla internet kullanırken %14,1'inin ise altı saatten fazla internet kullandığını tespit etmişlerdir. Aynı çalışmada bulgular doğrultusunda problemlerli internet kullanımı için öne çıkan günlük internet kullanım süresi 3 saat olarak ifade edilmiştir. Buna göre 3 saatten fazla internet kullanan öğrencilerin problemlerli internet kullanımlarının arttığının söylenebileceği belirtilmiştir. Bu araştırmada da çevrimiçi oyunlar ele alınmıştır ve internet kullanan öğrenciler arasında oyun amaçlı kullanım gerçekleştiren öğrencilerin günlük internet kullanım süresinin fazla olması dikkate değer bir bulgudur. Öğrencilerin mail, araştırma, haber, sohbet ve film-video gibi diğer pek çok internet kullanım amacından daha yüksek oranda çevrimiçi oyunlara zaman ayırmaları, bu oyunların sağladığı pek çok sosyal imkan ve ergenlik dönemi ihtiyaçları gözetildiğinde oldukça önemli görünmektedir.

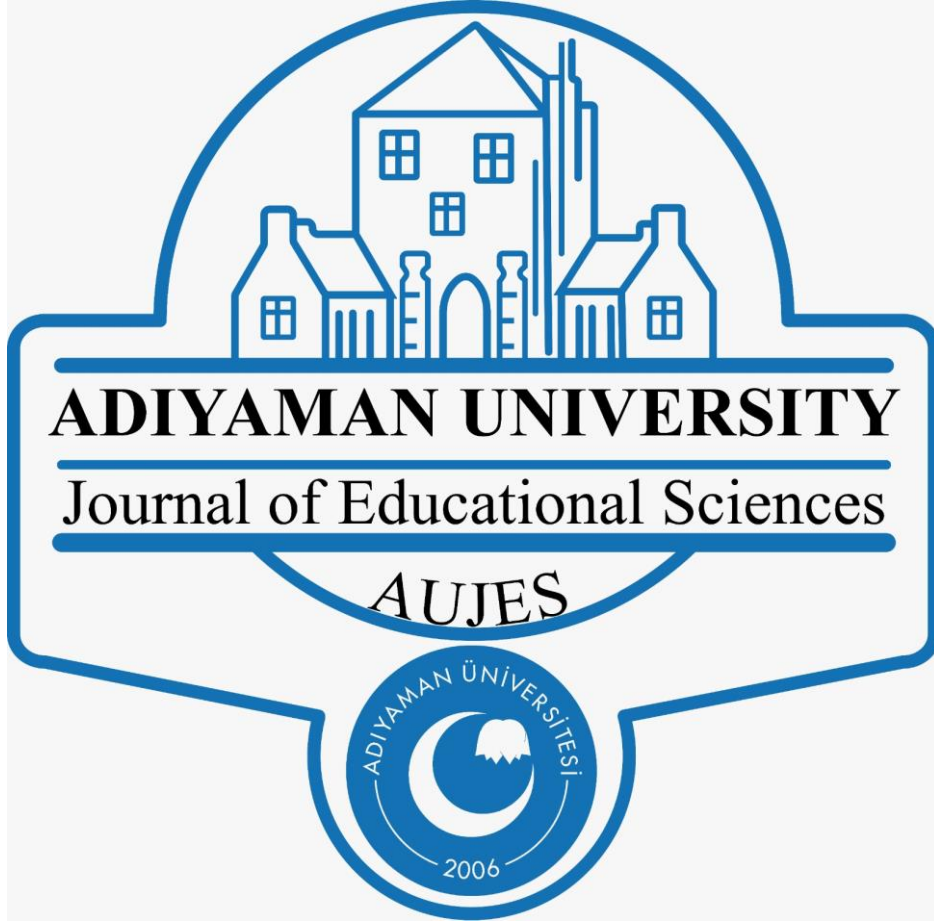
Araştırmanın algılanan sosyal desteğe ilişkin bulgularına göre interneti oyun amaçlı kullanan ve oyun amaçlı kullanmayan öğrencilerin aile ve öğretmenlerden algıladıkları sosyal destek ve toplam sosyal destek puanları arasında anlamlı bir farklılık olmadığı belirlenmiştir. Buna karşın interneti oyun amaçlı kullanmayan öğrencilerin arkadaş sosyal destek algısının daha fazla olduğu görülmüştür. Prochnow ve diğerlerinin (2020) bir çevrimiçi oyun sitesi kullanıcılarının sahip olduğu gerçek yaşam ve online sosyal desteği, depresif belirtileri ve site kullanım sürelerini inceledikleri çalışmada; sitede daha fazla vakit geçiren üyelerin önemli yaşam olaylarını diğer üyelerle daha fazla paylaşma eğiliminde olduğunu, daha fazla depresif belirti gösterdiklerini ve gerçek yaşam sosyal desteklerinin daha az olduğunu ortaya koymuşlardır. Bu sonuç üyelerin gerçek yaşamlarındaki sosyal destek boşluğunu site aracılığıyla tanıştıkları arkadaşlarla doldurmak istiyor olabilecekleri şeklinde yorumlanmış ve depresif belirtisi olan üyelerin oyun aracılığıyla kurdukları iletişimin aslında bir yardım arayışı olabileceği de belirtilmiştir. Kowert ve diğerleri (2014) duygusal olarak hassas bireylerin online oyunlara dahil olma ile bu oyunlarda kurdukları arkadaşlıkları inceledikleri çalışmada duygusal olarak hassas bireylerin daha çok sosyal çevrelerini genişletmek amacıyla oyunlara dahil olduklarını ortaya koymuşlardır. Bu durum sosyal becerileri yetersiz olan utangaç bireyler için online oyunların; sosyal güçlükleri yenmek, yeni arkadaşlıklar edinmek ve eski arkadaşlıkları güçlendirmek için önemli bir potansiyel barındırdığı şeklinde yorumlanmıştır. Paulus ve diğerleri (2018), çocuklarda ve ergenlerde internet oyun bozukluğu konulu çalışmalarında aile içi

şiddet, ihmal ve sosyal becerilerdeki yetersizlikler gibi dış faktörlerin özellikle Kitleli Katılımlı Çevrimiçi Rol Oynama (MMORPG) oyunları ve gerçek zamanlı strateji oyunlarına bağımlılık riskini arttırdığını belirtmişlerdir. Bu çalışmada da oyun amaçlı internet kullanan öğrencilerin gerçek yaşamlarında arkadaşlarından alamadıkları sosyal desteği telafi etmek için bir araç olarak çevrimiçi oyunları oynuyor olabilecekleri düşünülmektedir.

Young'un (1998) belirttiği gibi doğrudan internetin kendisi değil internetin yüksek etkileşim imkanı sağlayan uygulamalar sunması bağımlılık davranışlarının ortaya çıkmasında etkilidir. Bu doğrultuda çalışmada çevrimiçi oyun oynama amacı ve internet bağımlılığı ilişkisi de ele alınmıştır. İnterneti oyun amaçlı kullanan ve oyun amaçlı internet kullanmayan öğrencilerin internet bağımlılığı belirtileri açısından aralarında anlamlı bir fark görülmemiştir. Araştırmalar pek çok diğer kullanım amacı dışında özellikle çevrimiçi oyun oynama ile internet bağımlılığının birbiriyle ilişkili olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır (Jiang, 2014; Tone vd., 2014; van Rooij vd., 2010). Ancak aynı zamanda aşırı oyun oynama (Lee vd., 2015) ile beraber oynanan oyun türünün ve özellikle rol oynama (RPG) türünün internet bağımlılığı ile ilişkili olduğu (Lee vd., 2007) belirtilmektedir. Bu bağlamda bu çalışmanın çevrimiçi oyun oynama amacı ve bağımlılık ilişkisine dair bulgusunun; oyun amaçlı internet kullanımının internet bağımlılığı için bir risk faktörü olmakla beraber internet bağımlılığının çok yönlü incelenmesi gerekliliğine işaret ettiği ifade edilebilir.

Araştırmanın sonuçları akademik başarısı orta ve daha altında olan öğrencilerin oyun amaçlı internet kullanımlarının fazla olması ile birlikte interneti oyun amaçlı kullanan ve oyun amaçlı kullanmayan öğrencilerin internet bağımlılığı belirtileri açısından aralarında anlamlı bir fark görülmemesi bakımından önemlidir. Nitekim oyun tabanlı öğrenme ortamlarının öğrencilerin öğrenme motivasyonları ve performanslarını pozitif etkilediğini ortaya koyan araştırmalar (Hwang vd., 2012; Lin vd., 2012; Yang ve Quadir, 2018) mevcuttur. Jong (2015) coğrafya dersinin sanal etkileşimli öğrenci odaklı ortamda yapılmasının pedagojik etkilerini araştırdığı çalışmada akademik başarısı zayıf ve orta olan öğrencilerde yüksek akademik başarısı olan öğrencilere göre daha olumlu pedagojik sonuçlar gözlendiğini ortaya koymuştur. Ancak bununla beraber düşük akademik başarı ile oyun bağımlılığı puanları arasında pozitif yönlü anlamlı ilişki bulunduğu (Aslan, Başçılar ve Karataş, 2022) ifade edilmektedir. Bu bağlamda oyun amaçlı internet kullanımı/internet oyun oynama bozukluğu olan öğrencilerin akademik performanslarının çok yönlü araştırılması gerektiği söylenebilir. Araştırmanın bir diğer önemli sonucu interneti oyun amaçlı kullanmayan öğrencilerin arkadaş sosyal destek algısının daha yüksek olmasıdır. Van Ingen ve diğerleri (2016) bireylerin fiziksel sağlık sorunları, psikolojik sorunlar, boşanma/eş kaybı gibi olumsuz yaşam olayları sonrasında kullandıkları çevrimiçi baş etme stratejileriyle bağlantılı internet aktiviteleri ve iyi oluşu incelemişlerdir. Çalışmada araştırma grubunun %57'sinin çevrimiçi baş etmenin bir türüne yöneldiği belirlenmiştir. Araştırmada online baş etmenin; online oyunlar, internette bilgi arama, sosyal ağlar ve online sosyal destek grupları aracılığıyla gerçekleştiği ifade edilmiştir. Ayrıca online zihinsel kaçınma ve online sosyo-duygusal baş etme ile yaşam doyumu, özsaygı ve iyimserlik arasında ters yönlü bir ilişki ortaya konmuştur. İnternet aracılığıyla gerçekleşen online aktivitelerin bireylerde günlük yaşam stresini azaltması yanında iyi oluş üzerindeki olumsuz etkilerinin sebeplerine ilişkin daha ayrıntılı çalışmaların gerekliliği vurgulanmıştır. Yavuz (2018) tarafından özel yetenekli öğrencilerde internet ve oyun bağımlılığı ile algılanan sosyal destek düzeylerinin incelendiği çalışmada da internet ve oyun bağımlılığı ile algılanan sosyal destek düzeyi arasında negatif yönlü ve orta düzeyde bir ilişki olduğu belirlenmiştir. Özgözü, Şimşek, Arıkan, Alyaprak, Günay ve Eyigüngör (2022), araştırmalarında sosyal destek algısının problemli internet kullanımının anlamlı bir yordayıcısı olduğunu belirlemişlerdir. Aile ve arkadaşan algılanan sosyal desteğin artmasının problemli internet kullanımını azalttığı belirtilmektedir. Aslan, Başçılar ve Karataş (2022) ise dijital oyun bağımlılığı ile çocuklarda olumsuz sosyal beceriler ve sosyal davranışlar arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu ortaya koymuşlardır. Bu bağlamda bu çalışmanın oyun amaçlı internet kullanımı ve algılanan sosyal desteğe ilişkin bulguları doğrultusunda ergenlerin online deneyimleri ve bu deneyim içerisinde önemli bir yeri olan online oyunlar ile iyi oluşlarına yönelik kapsamlı çalışmaların yararlı olabileceği ifade edilebilir. Nitekim Bayraktutan (2005)'in belirttiği gibi gerçek sosyal desteği yetersiz bireyler için internet bir nevi sosyal desteğin telafi edildiği bir yer haline alıyor görünmektedir.

Araştırmanın sonuçları interneti oyun amaçlı kullanan öğrencilerin oyun amacı dışında kullanan öğrencilere kıyasla akademik başarı, günlük internet kullanım süresi ve arkadaşan algılanan sosyal destek düzeyindeki anlamlı farklılığa işaret etmesi açısından önemlidir. Araştırmada ergenlerin oynadığı çevrimiçi oyunlar değerlendirilmiştir ve bu oyunların sağladığı iletişim imkanları ile akran desteğinin ergenlik dönemi açısından önemi düşünüldüğünde, interneti oyun amaçlı kullanan ergenlerin arkadaşlarından algıladıkları sosyal destek düzeyinin interneti oyun amaçlı kullanmayan öğrencilere göre daha düşük olması dikkate değer bir sonuçtur. Bu bulgular doğrultusunda ergenlerin arkadaşlarından algıladıkları sosyal destek ile birlikte akranlarıyla kurdukları ilişkilerin niteliği ve iyi oluşları bu konuda kapsamlı olarak araştırılabilir.



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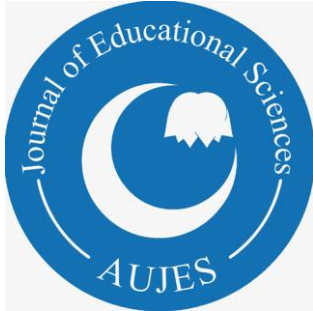
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**Marital Attitudes According To The
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From Various Sources**

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Marital Attitudes According To The Marital Messages of University Students From Various Sources*

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to examine whether single university students' marital attitudes change according to the marital messages they receive from marital message sources such as friends, media, family, and other institutions. To this end, Marital Messages Scale (MMS) and Inonu Marital Attitudes Scale (IMAS) were applied to a total of 1013 university students (654 female and 359 male) enrolled at a state university in Ankara during the 2018-2019 academic year. Convenience sampling was used to reach students. Data obtained from the measuring tools were evaluated by using SPSS 23.0. T test was used in the comparison of binary groups in data analysis. When there was a significant difference between groups, impact magnitude statistics was examined by calculating the Cohen d. At the end of the study, it was found out that students who receive high level positive marital messages from their families, friends, media, and other institutions have a more positive marital attitude compared to those university students who receive a low level of positive message from these sources. Findings of the study was discussed in relation to the literature; suggestions were made for researchers, applicators, and policy makers.

Key words: Marital message sources, Received marital messages, Marital attitudes

Introduction

One of the most important developments in a person's life is marriage. Marriage, especially within Turkish culture, is presented beginning with childhood as a target to be achieved. Indeed, certain toys bought to children and dressing children in costumes such as wedding gowns or wedding suits can be regarded as cultural behaviours that incentivise them for marriage. Such behaviours of people around children, the way they talk about marriage, and the marriage of their parents are the sources that introduce marriage to children. A child can form quite a large fountain of knowledge with the effect of these information sources around him or her. This knowledge may affect his or her opinion, feelings, and behaviours about marriage.

Marriage is a system in which partners are in a trusting and open relationship; they have an effective and quality communication; moreover, it is a system in which individuals can meet their psychological and material needs; and they experience such emotions as closeness, anger, and sexuality (Hansen, & L'Abate, 1982). Marriage is also defined as forming a new unit, which contributes to one's happiness and development, by uniting one's self with another's (Fowers, 1993). In another definition, marriage is defined as a path which makes partners happy and contributes to their personal development (Glenn, 1991).

Marriage is an important factor in interpersonal relationships (Bradbury, Fincham, & Beach, 2002). The will to meet social, psychological, and biological needs is an important factor for a person to get married. The desire to meet their social, psychological and biological needs is seen as the factors that lead the individual to marriage. (Woody, & Woody, 1973). Waite and Gallagher (2000) indicated that having a happy marriage is one of the aims in life for 93% of people living in the United States. Marriage being an aim for most people can be because marriage provides a constant friendship for partners, partners contribute to each other's behaviours being more healthy, married people live longer, they get less sick, and get better more quickly when they get sick (Van Den Berghe, 2000). It was determined that married people have a higher physiological and

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psychological wellness level compared to single, separated, or divorced individuals (Lillard, & Waite, 1995; Waite, 1995; Waite, & Gallagher, 2000). In studies conducted within Turkish culture, a positive relationship was found out between marital satisfaction and psychological wellbeing (Gülyüksel-Akdağ, & Cihangir-Çankaya, 2015; Uçar, 2018).

Just as marriage affects an individual's health, so can an individual affect marriage. In a healthy marriage, the socio-economic level of the family, life-cycle process, education level of partners, religion, ethnicity, gender roles (L'Abate, 1994) play a role. These factors affect marriages as well as individual's feelings, views, and behaviours about marriage; in other words, they affect their attitudes towards marriage.

Marital Attitude

Marital attitude denotes a person's subjective views on marriage institution (Braaten and Rosen, 1998). In another definition, marital attitude refers to each of the feelings, views, beliefs, and perceptions about marriage (Larson, 1988). Demographic variables significantly impact and shape what marriage means for young adults and young adults' beliefs concerning marriage, their attitudes towards the marriage institution (Özabacı, Körük, & Kara, 2018; Peters, 2018). Marital attitudes are determinant of marital expectations, decision to marry, preparing for marriage, and when to marry (Larson, 1988; Larson, & Thayne, 1999).

One's experience in their family, their social identity, the world they find themselves in, and social changes deeply affect their worldview and marital attitudes (Blagojevic, 1989; Riggio, & Fite, 2006; Gubernskaya, 2010). Positive marital attitudes generate positive beliefs about marriage institution; negative attitudes generate negative beliefs. People's marital attitudes are related to their parents' marital attitudes (Willoughby, Carroll, Vitas and Hill, 2012). A positive parent model concerning marriage contributes to a child's happy marital life (Nadolu, Runcan, & Bahnaru, 2020). Trotter (2010) indicates that marital attitudes and beliefs are formed through parents' relationships or media modelling. Health family relationships and positive marital attitudes in children are related (Gabardi and Rosen, 1993). A child's marital attitude is affected by both his mother's and his father's marital attitude. Those whose fathers' have a positive marital attitude have especially a more positive marital attitude and quality. The parent's marital attitude is transferred to the child (Willoughby et al., 2012). In short, there are individual and social variables affecting marital attitude. one of these variables is the marital messages one receives from various sources. Marital messages are important in acquiring marital attitudes. Several researchers argue that marital messages affect young adults' attitudes and emotions concerning their future marriages (Benson, Larson, Wilson, & Demo, 1993; Jennings, Salts, & Smith, 1992; Larson, Benson, Wilson, & Medora, 1998; Shurts, 2004; Shurts, & Myers, 2012).

Marital Messages

Generally speaking, marital messages refer to feedback a person receive from their family, friends, media or other institutions about the positive, negative, and/or neutral aspects of marriage (Shurts, 2004). Messages about marriage affect young adults' readiness for a special and significant relationship like marriage as well as their feelings and attitudes about their prospect marriage (Benson et al., 1993). Answers a young adult has received from others to such questions as "what is a marriage," "how is a marriage," and "when should a marriage be" – in other words, messages – may be reflected in his or her plans and behaviour about marriage. In many of the studies on marital messages, for so long, only the family has been studied as the source of these messages; and other possible sources for messages have not been researched. The reason for this is the ease with which one can examine the generational transmission of marital messages received from the family (Shurts, 2004). Studies focusing on the sources of marital messages list friends, media, and other institutions (religion, government, etc.) as the other sources of marital messages besides family (Shurts, 2004; Shurts & Myers, 2012). Looking at the possible sources from which marital messages can be received, it can be said that Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems approach provides a basic framework for explaining this multidimensional and complex phenomenon (Espelage, & Swearer-Napolitano, 2003). According to Bronfenbrenner (1986), a child is born into and grows up in a social and cultural system. The child is related to the family, school, society, and other institutions. All of these elements have a great impact first on the family of the child and then the child itself. In other words, according to the ecological model, the elements of the system in which a person is raised may affect them both directly and indirectly.

According to Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory (1986), one needs to understand not only the individual but the elements around the individual in order to understand that individual's development. These elements are his or her immediate circle such as the family, teachers, and peers, who directly affect or interfere with them; they are also the socio-cultural context such as the neighbourhood or society which indirectly affect them (Cook, & Kilmer, 2010). A person's immediate or distant circle may affect the formation and shaping of their emotions, thoughts, and behaviour. In short, one can receive several marital messages from different

elements of their ecological system. These messages may affect their views about marriage, their feelings, thoughts, and behaviours about marriage; in other words, they may affect their marital attitudes.

In studies where marital messages and marital attitudes are examined together, the relationship between marital attitudes and the marital messages received from the family, friends, and other institutions such as religion and the government were found to be significant. However, it has been revealed that there is no significant relationship between marital messages received from mass media and marital attitudes (Shurts, 2004; Shurts, & Myers, 2012).

It may be useful for a psychological counselor, who works in the field of marriage and family counseling, to not disregard marital messages a person receives from different sources when this counselor needs to examine the said person's marital attitudes. In literature, there is no study that examines the relationship between marital messages and marital attitudes in Turkey. Accordingly, in this study, it was aimed to examine the marriage attitudes of young adult university students according to the marriage messages they received from different sources.

Method

The study used the survey pattern. According to Creswell (2014), survey pattern enables a quantitative or numerical description of an inclination, attitude, or view in a universe through a study of a selected sample from this environment. In this study, correlational survey model was used since the study examines the relationship between marital messages and marital attitudes. Correlational survey model denotes a research model that aims to determine the existence and/or degree of covariance between two or more variables (Büyüköztürk, Akgün, Karadeniz, Demirel, & Çakmak, 2014).

Study Group

In the study, Marital Messages Scale (MMS) and Inonu Marital Attitude Scale (IMAS) were applied to a total of 1013 university students (654 female and 359 male) enrolled at a state university in Ankara during the 2018-2019 academic year. Convenient sampling was used to reach students. According to Senol (2012), selecting the sample from easily accessible and easily applicable units when there are limitations in terms of time, money, or labour is called convenient sampling.

Data Collection Process

The study was carried out with the permission dated 30.03.2017 and numbered 433-1200 received from Hacettepe University Ethics Committee. In the study, Marital Messages Scale (MMS) and Inonu Marital Attitude Scale (IMAS) were applied to university students by the researcher. Students were briefed about the content and importance of the study in order to make sure they answer the questions genuinely. Moreover, the students were also given directions; and they were encouraged to ask for clarification if needs be. They were not required to put down their names so that they can answer the questions openly and honestly.

Data Collection Tools

Marital Messages Scale (MMS) and Inonu Marital Attitude Scale (IMAS) were used as data collection tools in this study.

Marital Messages Scale (MMS)

The scale was designed by the researcher and was prepared in the manner of Semantic Differences Scale (Salcuni, Di Riso, Mazzeschi and Lis, 2007). During the development process of the scale, individual interviews with a total of eight students (one male, one female from each class) from freshman to senior. Moreover, two separate focus group interviews were held with eight and thirteen university students, respectively. These interviews were recorded by a voice recorder and were later transcribed. Afterwards, themes were determined, and item pool of the scale was formed based on these themes. Items in the item pool were examined by three experts – one professor and two associate professors – in the field of Psychological Counseling and Guidance. They were also examined by three Turkish teachers separately – one is a PhD candidate and the other two have master's degrees. Considering the views of these experts, a pilot application form of the scale was developed. This pilot application form was applied to 32 university students. Expressions, which students deemed vague in the application, were re-designed accordingly (Şahin, 2019; Şahin & Bilge, 2020).

For the construct validity of MMS, exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis were done. For the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), the scale was applied to a total of 608 university students (276 male and 332 female). As a result, it was seen that the scale is a four-factor structure with 38 items. It was then applied to a different group of 324 university students for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). CFA showed χ^2 (df = 161,

$N = 324$) = 364.38; $p < .00$, RMSEA= .06; $\chi^2/df = 2.26$; CFI= .96; NFI= .93; GFI= .90 and AGFI= .87. These values show that MMS is a 3-factor model with 20 items which has an acceptable fit level.

MMS is a 3-factor (sub scale) tool with 20 items in total. The first factor called “Messages Have received About the Evaluation of Marriage” (MRAEM) consists of 12 items, and it constitutes approximately $\frac{3}{4}$ (55.42) of the common variance (75.46). The second factor called “Messages About the Effect of Marriage” (MAEM) consists of five items. It explains more than half (13.64) of the remaining part of the common variance not explained by the first factor. The third factor called “Messages about the Emotions Marriage May Generate” (MEMMG) consists of three items. This factor constitutes a little less (6.40) of the common variance compared to the second factor. It can be said that MMS fits the Semantic Differences Scales in terms of its factor structure.

Reliability of the MMS was examined by internal consistency (Cronbach Alpha) and test-re-test methods. Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the scale was .95, its Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was .92; Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the sub scale “Messages Have received about the Evaluation of Marriage” was .97, its Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was .90; Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the subscale “Messages About the Effect of Marriage” was .87, its Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was .75; Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the subscale “Messages About the Emotions Marriage May Generate” was .90, and its Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was .87. Results obtained from both methods revealed that the reliability coefficients of MMS and its subscales are high. It was also determined that the sources of the marital messages were “Family, Friends, Media, and Other Institutions”.

In the scoring of MMS, each item has an answer whose score varies between 1-7. The positivity of the answer increases from 1 to 7. Two items in MMS are scored reversely (item 12 and 15). For each message source, one can score 20 – the lowest – and 140 – the highest. Adding up the scores obtained from four sources, namely, “Friends, Media, Family, and Other Institutions” one can calculate the general marital messages score. The lowest score to be obtained can be 80 and the highest can be 560. Receiving a high score in the scale means that the individual has have received positive marital messages both in terms of the sources of these messages and in the general evaluation (Şahin, 2019; Şahin & Bilge, 2020).

Inonu Marital Attitude Scale (IMAS).

The scale developed in 2014 to determine the marital attitudes of young adults; It consists of one dimension and 21 items. Item pool prepared during the development process of the measuring tool were presented to the expert opinion and the 30-item trial form was designed. The trial form was initially applied to 27 university students; necessary adjustments were made according to feedback from this application. Then, the scale was applied to 723 single university students. Construct validity of the scale was examined with Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). CFA shows that IMAS explains 36.77% of the total variance. It was determined that the scale has 21 items and a single dimension. CFA gives the values of $\chi^2/sd=2.905$, GFI=.91, CFI=.93, NFI=.90 ve RMR=.04. In this respect, IMAS was determined to be at an acceptable fitness level. In a study on the reliability of the scale, internal consistency coefficient was calculated by Cronbach Alpha and was found to be .90 (Bayoğlu and Atli, 2014). In this study, the internal consistency coefficient calculated by Cronbach Alpha was .92.

The grading of the Inonu Marital Attitude Scale is 1= I completely disagree and 5= I completely agree. Accordingly, a minimum of 21 and a maximum of 105 points are obtained from IMAS. A high score at IMAS indicates a positive marital attitude (Bayoğlu and Atli, 2014). The scale was developed to reveal young adults’ marital attitudes. Based on the findings about reliability and validity, IMAS was decided to be used in this study.

Data Analysis

Data obtained from Marital Messages Scale and Inonu Marital Attitude Scale were digitally analysed by using SPSS (Statistics Package for the Social Sciences) 23.0. To determine whether the marital attitudes of university students vary according to the source from which they receive their marital messages, positivity of “The Received Marital Messages” were determined as “High level” and “Low Level.” The lower limit of the midlevel was determined by subtracting half the standard deviation value from the average, and the upper limit of the midlevel was determined by adding half the standard deviation value from the average. Scores below lower limit of the midlevel were accepted as the indicator of low level while the scores above the upper limit of the midlevel were accepted as the indicator of high level. Therefore, everyone’s marital message score was classified as low or high level. While calculating these, values after the comma were rounded up. In the analysis, operations were done through the low and the high level; midlevel was left out of analysis. In data analysis, t test was used in comparing binary groups. When there is a significant difference between groups, influence quantity statistics were examined. Cohen d value was calculated to determine the influence quantity. According

to Cohen (1988), .20 indicates small influence quantity; .50 indicates medium and .80 indicates large influence quantity (Büyükoztürk, 2010). Margin of error was taken as .05 in the study.

Results

Findings concerning whether marital attitudes of university students vary according to the positivity level (low and high level) of the marital messages they receive from various sources was examined according to the source of these marital messages. To this end, findings related to the marital attitudes according to marital messages received from the family were presented first.

Findings on marital attitudes of university students according to the marital messages they received from their families

Whether university students' marital attitudes vary according to the positivity level (low and high level) of the marital messages they receive from their families was examined by t test and the results were presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and t-test results on marital attitudes of university students according to marital messages received from their families

Variable	Level	n	\bar{X}	S	sd	T	p	Cohen d
Marital Attitude	High	384	76.55	15.21	678	10.64	.00	.78
	Low	296	63.81	18.80				

As can be seen in Table 1, marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 76.55) of the university students who receive high levels of positive marital messages (n=384) from their families are higher than the marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 63.81) of those who receive low levels of positive marital messages (n=296). At the end of unrelated samples t test, it was determined that there is a statistically significant difference between university students' marital attitude scores according to the level of positivity of the marital message received from their families (t=10.64; p< .05). Cohen d value was calculated as .78. In this respect, it can be argued that the positivity levels (high or low) of the marital messages that university students receive from their families have a great impact on their marital attitudes. According to these findings, one can say that university students who receive a high level of positive marital message from their families have a more positive marital attitude compared to those who receive a low level of positive marital message from their families.

The study also examined whether the marital attitudes of university students vary for the subscales of MMI. Whether university students' marital attitudes vary according to the positivity level (low and high level) of the marital message they receive from their families was examined by t test and the results were presented in Table 2. Whether university student' marital attitudes vary according to the positivity level (high and low level) of the marital messages they receive from their families about assessment of marriage was examined by t test. Test results can be found in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics and t-test results on marital attitudes of university students according to the marital messages received from their families for the assesment of marriage

Variable	Level	n	\bar{X}	S	sd	T	p	Cohen d
Marital Attitude	High	428	74.86	15.83	719	8.90	.00	.67
	Low	293	64.20	15.75				

Table 2 shows that marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 74.86) of university students (n= 428) who receive a high level of positive marital messages from their families about the assessment of marriage are higher than the marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 64.20) of those (n= 293) who receive a low level of positive marital messages from their families on the same issue. Unrelated samples t test results show that there is a statistically significant difference between the marital attitude scores of university students according to whether they receive a high or low level of positive marital messages about the assessment of marriage (t= 8.90; p < .05). Moreover, Cohen d value was calculated as .67. According to this, it can be stated that the positivity level of the marital messages which university students receive from their parents about the assessment of marriage has a huge impact on their marital attitudes. Based on these findings, it can be argued that marital attitudes of those university students who receive a high level of positive marital messages from their families about the

assessment of marriage are higher than that of those who receive a low level of positive marital messages on the same issue.

Whether the marital attitudes of university students vary according to the positivity level (high and low) of the marital messages about the effect of marriage which they receive from their families was examined by t test. Test results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics and t-test results on marital attitudes of university students according to the marital messages received from their families on the effect of marriage

Variable	Level	n	\bar{X}	S	sd	T	p	Cohen d
Marital Attitude	High	282	76.14	16.02	616	9.24	.00	.74
	Low	336	64.21	15.91				

As can be seen in Table 3, marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 76.14) of the university students who receive high levels of positive marital messages (n=282) from their families about the effect of marriage are higher than the marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 64.21) of those who receive low levels of positive marital messages (n=336). At the end of unrelated samples t test, it was seen that there is a statistically significant difference (t=9.24; p< .05) between the marital attitude scores of university students according to receiving high or low level of positive messages in the dimension the marital messages received from the family about the effect of marriage. Moreover, Cohen d value was calculated as .74. In this respect, the positivity level of marital messages university students receive from the family about the effect of marriage has a huge impact on their marital attitudes. Likewise, it can be argued that the marital attitudes of the university students who receive a high level of positive messages from their families about the effect of marriage are more positive than the marital attitudes of those who receive a low level of positive messages.

Whether the marital attitudes of university students vary according to the positivity level (high and low) of the marital messages which they receive from their families about the emotions that marriage can make you experience was examined by t test. Test results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics and t-test results on marital attitudes of university students according to the marital messages received from their families regarding the emotions that marriage can experience

Variable	Level	n	\bar{X}	S	sd	T	p	Cohen d
Marital Attitude	High	355	76.47	15.65	662	10.42	.00	.81
	Low	309	63.79	15.58				

As can be seen in Table 4, marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 76.47) of university students (n= 255) who receive high levels of positive messages from their families about the emotions that may be generated by marriage are higher than those (n= 309) who receive low levels of such positive messages (\bar{X} = 63.79). At the end of unrelated samples t test, it was seen that there is a statistically significant difference between the marital attitude scores of university students according to whether they have received a high or low level of positive message they receive from their families about the emotions that may be generated by marriage (t= 10.42; p< .05). Moreover, Cohen d value was calculated as .81. As such, it can be argued that the positivity level of messages that university students receive from their families about the emotions that may be generated by marriage has a huge impact on university students' marital attitudes. According to these findings, marital attitudes of those who receive a high level of positive messages from their families about the emotions that may be generated by marriage are more positive compared to that of those who receive a low level of positive messages.

Findings on marital attitudes of university students according to the marital messages they received from their friends

Whether university students' marital attitudes differ according to the positivity level (high and low level) of the marital messages they receive from their friends was examined by t test. Test results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Descriptive statistics and t-test results of university students' marital attitudes according to marital messages from friends

Variable	Level	n	\bar{X}	S	sd	T	p	Cohen d
Marital Attitude	High	323	75.67	15.01	615	9.43	.00	.76
	Low	294	63.82	15.92				

As can be seen in Table 5, marital attitude score averages ($\bar{X}= 75.67$) of university students who receive high levels of positive messages from their friends about marriage (n=323) are higher than the marital attitude score averages ($\bar{X}= 63.82$) of those receive low levels of positive messages from their friends about marriage (n= 294). At the end of unrelated samples t test, it was seen that there is a statistically significant difference between university students marital attitude scores according to the level of positivity of the marital messages they receive from their friends (t= 9.43; p< .05). Moreover, Cohen d value was calculated as .76. Based on this value, it can be argued that the positivity level of the marital messages that university students receive from their friends has a huge impact on their marital attitudes. In the same vein, marital attitudes of the university students who receive a high level of positive marital messages from their friends are higher than the marital attitudes of those who receive a low level of marital messages from their friends. Whether the marital attitudes of university students vary according to the positivity level (high or low level) of the marital messages that university students receive from their friends about assessment of marriage was examined by t test. Results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Descriptive statistics and t-test results of university students' marital attitudes according to marital messages from their friends regarding the assesment of marriage

Variable	Level	n	\bar{X}	S	sd	T	p	Cohen d
Marital Attitude	High	384	74.48	15.35	687	8.64	.00	.66
	Low	305	64.04	16.23				

As can be seen in Table 6, marital attitude score averages ($\bar{X}= 74.48$) of university students (n= 484) who receive a high level of positive marital messages from their friends about the assessment of marriage are higher than the marital attitude score averages ($\bar{X}= 64.04$) of those (n=305) who receive a low level of positive marital messages from their friends about the same issue. Unrelated samples t test results show that there is a statistically significant difference between the marital attitude scores of university students according to whether they receive a high or low level of positive messages from their friends about the assessment of marriage (t= 8.64; p< .05). Moreover, Cohen d value was calculated as .66. Based on this, it can be claimed that the positivity level (high and low level) of marital messages about the assessment of marriage that university students receive from their friends has a big effect on university students' marital attitudes. According to these findings, marital attitudes of university students who receive a high level of positive messages from their friends about the assessment of marriage are higher than the marital attitudes of those who receive a low level of positive marital messages from their friends on the same issue. Whether the marital attitudes of university students vary according to the positivity level (high and low level) of the marital messages they receive from their friends about the effect of marriage was examined by t test. Results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Descriptive statistics and t-test results on marriage attitudes according to the messages of university students regarding the effect of marriage from their friends

Variable	Level	n	\bar{X}	S	sd	T	p	Cohen d
Marital Attitude	High	254	73.67	16.48	614	5.13	.00	.42
	Low	362	66.75	16.46				

Table 7 shows that marital attitude score averages ($\bar{X}= 73.67$) of the university students (n= 254) who receive a high level of positive messages from their friends about the effect of marriage are higher than the marital attitude score averages ($\bar{X}= 66.75$) of those (n= 362) who receive a low level of positive marital messages from their friends about the effect of marriage. Unrelated samples t test results show that there is a statistically significant difference between the marital attitude scores of university students depending on whether they have received high or low levels of positive marital messages from their friends about the effect of marriage (t= 5.13; p< .05). Moreover, Cohen d value was calculated as .42. Based on this, it can be stated that the positivity level of messages university students receive from their friends about the effect of marriage has an intermediate effect on their marital attitudes. According to these findings, marital attitudes of the university students who receive a high level of marital messages from their friends about the effect of marriage are higher than the marital attitudes of those who receive a low level of marital messages from their friends about the effect of marriage.

Whether the marital attitudes of university students vary according to the positivity level (high and low level) of the marital messages they receive from their friends about the emotions that may be generated by marriage were examined by t test. Results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8. Descriptive statistics and t-test results on marital attitudes according to the marital messages of university students regarding the feelings of marriage from their friends

Variable	Level	n	\bar{X}	S	sd	T	p	Cohen d
Marital Attitude	High	298	75.21	15.56	627	8.35	.00	.64
	Low	331	64.71	16.96				

Table 8 shows that marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 75.21) of the university students who receive a high level of positive messages from their friends about the emotions that may be generated by marriage (n= 298) are higher than the marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 64.71) of those who receive a low level of positive messages from their friends about the emotions that may be generated by marriage (n= 331). Unrelated samples t test shows that there is a statistically significant relationship between the marital attitude score averages of university students according to whether they receive a high or low level of positive messages from their friends about the emotions that may be generated by marriage (t= 8.35; p< .05). Cohen d value was calculated as .64. Based on this, it can be stated that the positivity level of marital messages university students receive from their friends about the emotions that can be generated by marriage has a huge impact on their marital attitudes. According to these findings, marital attitudes of the university students who receive a high level of positive messages from their friends about the emotions that can be generated by marriage are higher than the marital attitudes of those who receive a low level of positive messages from their friends on this.

Findings on marital attitudes of university students according to the marital messages they received from mass media

Whether the marital attitudes of university students vary according to the positivity level of marital messages they receive from mass media (i.e. easily-accessible communication technologies such as radio, television, internet, newspapers, and journal) was examined by t test. Test findings are presented in Table 9.

Table 9. Descriptive statistics and t-test results of university students' marital attitudes of university students based on marital messages received from mass media

Variable	Level	n	\bar{X}	S	sd	T	p	Cohen d
Marital Attitude	High	330	72.17	16.66	650	3.91	.00	.30
	Low	322	67.13	16.28				

As can be seen in Table 9, marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 72.17) of the university students (n= 330) who receive a high level of positive messages about marriage from mass media are higher than the marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 67.13) of those (n= 322) who receive a low level of positive messages about marriage from mass media. Unrelated samples t test results show that there is a statistically significant difference between the students' marital attitude scores according to whether they receive a high or low level of positive marital message from mass media (t= 3.91; p< .05). Moreover, Cohen d value was calculated as .30. In this respect, it can be argued that the positivity level of marital messages university students receive from mass media has a small effect on their marital attitudes. According to these findings, marital attitudes of the university students who receive a high level of positive marital messages from mass media are more positive than the marital attitudes of those who receive a low level of positive marital messages from mass media. Whether marital attitudes of university students vary according to the positivity level (high and low level) of the marital messages they receive from mass media about the assessment of marriage was examined by t test. Results are presented in Table 10.

Table 10. Descriptive statistics and t-test results of university students' marital attitudes according to the marital messages of university students regarding the evaluation of marriage from mass media

Variable	Level	n	\bar{X}	S	sd	T	p	Cohen d
Marital Attitude	High	344	72.11	16.29	667	3.54	.00	.27
	Low	325	67.61	16.56				

Table 10 shows that marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 72.11) of the university students (n= 334) who receive a high level of positive marital messages from mass media about the assessment of marriage are higher than the marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 72.11) of those (n= 325) who receive a low level of positive marital messages from mass media about the assessment of marriage. Unrelated samples t test reveal that there is a statistically significant difference between the marital attitude scores of university students according to whether they receive high or low levels of positive marital messages from mass media about the assessment of marriage ($t= 3.54$; $p< .05$). Moreover, Cohen d value was calculated as .27. Based on this, it can be argued that marital messages university students receive from mass media about the assessment of marriage has a small effect on their marital attitudes. According to these findings, marital attitudes of university students who receive a high level of positive marital messages from mass media about the assessment of marriage are higher than the marital attitudes of those who receive a low level of positive marital messages from mass media about the assessment of marriage.

Whether university students' marital attitudes differ according to the positivity level (high and low level) of the marital messages they receive from mass media about the effect of marriage was examined by t test. Results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11. Descriptive statistics and t-test results of university students' marital attitudes of university students according to messages received from mass media on the effect of marriage

Variable	Level	n	\bar{X}	S	sd	T	p	Cohen d
Marital Attitude	High	280	71.15	16.80	604	2.80	.01	.22
	Low	326	67.46	15.58				

As can be seen in Table 11, marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 71.15) of university students (n=280) who receive a high level of positive marital messages from mass media about the effect of marriage are higher than the marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 67.46) of those (n=326) who receive a low level of positive marital messages from mass media about the effect of marriage. Unrelated samples t test results show that there is a statistically significant difference between the marital attitude scores of university students according to whether they receive a high or low level of positive messages from mass media about the effect of marriage ($t= 2.80$; $p< .05$). Moreover, Cohen d value was calculated as .22. Based on this, it can be argued that the positivity level of the marital messages that university students receive from mass media about the effect of marriage has a small effect on their marital attitudes. According to these findings, marital attitudes of university students who receive a high level of positive marital messages from mass media about the effect of marriage are higher than the marital attitudes of university students who receive a low level of positive marital messages.

Whether university students' marital attitudes vary according to the positivity level (high and low level) of the marital messages they receive from mass media about the emotions that may be generated by marriage was examined by t test. Results are presented in Table 12.

Table 12. Descriptive statistics and t-test results on marital attitudes according to the marital messages received by university students on the emotions of marriage from mass media

Variable	Level	n	\bar{X}	S	sd	T	p	Cohen d
Marital Attitude	High	314	73.01	16.90	658	5.04	.00	.39
	Low	346	66.55	15.88				

As can be seen in Table 12, marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 73.0) of university students (n= 314) who receive a high level of positive messages from mass media about the emotions that may be generated by marriage are higher than the marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 66.55) of those who (n= 346) receive a low level of positive messages from mass media about the emotions that may be generated by marriage. Unrelated samples t test results show that there is a statistically significant difference in the marital attitude scores of university students based on whether they receive a high or low level of positive marital messages from mass media about the emotions that may be generated by marriage ($t= 5.04$; $p< .05$). Moreover, Cohen d value was calculated as .39. According to this, it can be argued that the positivity level (high or low) of the marital messages university students receive from mass media about the emotions that may be generated by marriage has an intermediate effect on university students' marital attitudes. In this respect, it can be claimed that marital attitudes of university students who receive a high level of positive marital messages from mass media about the emotions that may be generated by marriage are higher than the marital attitudes of those who receive a low level of positive marital messages from the same source.

Findings on marital attitudes of university students according to the marital messages they received from other institutions

Whether university students' marital attitudes vary according to the positivity level (high and low level) of marital messages they receive from other institutions (institutions that directly or indirectly influence a person such as religion, government, and professional world) was examined by t test. Results are presented in Table 13.

Table 13. Descriptive statistics and t-test results on marital attitudes of university students according to marital messages received from other institutions

Variable	Level	n	\bar{X}	S	sd	T	p	Cohen d
Marital Attitude	High	348	75.07	16.61	666	8.05	.00	.62
	Low	320	65.27	14.81				

As shown in Table 13, marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 75.07) of university students (n= 348) who receive a high level of positive marital messages from other institutions are higher than the marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 65.27) of those (n= 320) who receive a low level of positive marital messages from other institutions. Unrelated samples t test results reveal that there is a statistically significant difference between the marital attitude scores of university students according to whether they receive a high or low level of positive marital messages from other institutions (t= 8.05; p< .05). In addition, Cohen d value was calculated as .62. In this respect, it can be argued that the positivity level of marital messages which university students receive from other institutions have a big effect on their marital attitudes. According to these findings, marital attitudes of university students who receive a high level of positive marital messages from other institutions are higher than the marital attitudes of those who receive a low level of positive marital messages from other institutions. Whether university students' marital attitudes vary according to the positivity level (high and low level) of the marital messages about the assessment of marriage they receive from other institutions were examined by t test. Findings can be found in Table 14.

Table 14. Descriptive statistics and t-test results on marital attitudes of university students according to marital messages received from other institutions regarding the assesment of marriage

Variable	Level	n	\bar{X}	S	sd	T	p	Cohen d
Marital Attitude	High	359	74.51	16.24	680	7.71	.00	.59
	Low	323	65.34	14.78				

As can be seen in Table 14, marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 74.51) of university students (n= 359) who receive a high level of positive marital messages about the assesment of marriage from other institutions are higher than the marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 65.34) of those (n= 323) who receive a low level of positive marital messages from these institutions. At the end of unrelated samples t test, it was seen that there is a statistically significant difference in the marital attitude scores of university students according to whether these students receive a high or low level of positive messages about the assesment of marriage from other institutions (t= 7.71; p< .05). Moreover, Cohen d value was calculated as .59. In this respect, it can be claimed that the positivity level (high or low) of the marital messages about the assesment of marriage university students receive from other institutions has an intermediate effect on their marital attitudes. Based on these findings, marital attitudes of university students who receive a high level of positive marital messages about the assesment of marriage from other institutions are higher than the marital attitudes of university students who receive a low level of positive marital messages.

Whether university students' marital attitudes vary according to the positivity level (high and low level) of the marital messages that university students receive from other institutions about the effect of marriage was examined by t test. Results are presented in Table 15.

Table 15. Descriptive statistics and t-test results on marital attitudes of university students according to marital messages received from other institutions on the effect of marriage

Variable	Level	n	\bar{X}	S	sd	T	p	Cohen d
Marital Attitude	High	261	74.40	16.85	572	6.81	.00	.57
	Low	313	65.30	14.72				

As can be seen in Table 15, marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 74.40) of university students (n= 261) who receive a high level of positive marital messages about the effect of marriage from other institutions are higher than the marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 65.30) of those (n= 313) who receive a low level of positive marital messages from these institutions. Unrelated samples t test results show that there is a statistically significant difference in the marital attitude scores of university students according to whether they receive a high or low level of positive marital messages from other institutions about the effect of marriage ($t= 6.81$; $p < .05$). Moreover, Cohen d value was calculated as .57. Based on this, it can be claimed that the positivity level (high or low) of the marital messages that university students receive from other institutions about the effect of marriage has an intermediate effect on their marital attitudes. According to these findings, marital attitudes of university students who receive a high level of positive marital messages from other institutions about the effect of marriage are higher than the marital attitudes of university students who receive a low level of positive marital attitudes from other institutions about the effect of marriage.

Whether university students' marital attitudes vary according to the positivity level (high and low level) of the marital messages they receive from other institutions about the emotions that may be generated by marriage was examined by t test. Results are presented in Table 16.

Table 16. Descriptive statistics and t-test results on marital attitudes of university students according to marital messages received from other institutions regarding the emotions of marriage

Variable	Level	n	\bar{X}	S	sd	T	p	Cohen d
Marital Attitude	High	310	74.83	16.98	680	7.71	.00	.59
	Low	372	65.31	14.82				

As can be seen in Table 16, marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 74.83) of university students (n= 310) who receive a high level of positive marital messages from other institutions about the emotions that may be generated by marriage are higher than the marital attitude score averages (\bar{X} = 65.31) of university students (n= 372) who receive a low level of positive messages about the emotions that may be generated by marriage from other institutions. Unrelated samples t test results show that there is a statistically significant difference between the marital attitude scores of university students according to whether they receive a high or low level of positive marital messages from other institutions about the emotions that may be generated by marriage ($t= 7.71$; $p < .05$). Moreover, Cohen d value was calculated as .59. Based on this, the marital messages university students receive from other institutions about the emotions that may be generated by marriage can be argued to have an intermediate effect on university students' marital attitudes. According to these findings, it can be argued that marital attitudes of university students who receive high levels of positive marital messages from other institutions about the emotions generated by marriage are more positive compared to those who receive low levels of such messages.

Conclusion, Discussion and Recommendations

In this study, it was determined that the marital attitudes of university students who receive high levels of positive marital messages from their families are more positive compared to those who receive low levels of positive marital messages from their families. The finding is consistent with the findings of Ganong, Coleman and Brown's study (1981) on marriage, family life and marital attitude, Jennings, Salts and Smith's study (1992) which examines the effect of perceived parental conflict, sex and family structure on young adults' marital attitudes, Shurts' study (2004) on university students, Segrin, Taylor and Altman's study (2005) conducted on women between the ages 18 and 85, Shurts and Myers' study (2012) which examines marital attitudes of university students and marital messages they receive, and Jackl's study (2016) which investigates the parent-child communication about marriage.

As discussed above, one of the variables shaping people's marital attitudes is family structure and conflict in family (Miles, & Servaty-Seib, 2010). Marital attitudes can be shaped according to parents' marital status (whether they are divorced or not) (Burgoyne, & Hames, 2002) and the existence of accord or conflict in parents' marriage (Valerian, 2001). It was determined that people with divorced parents have a more negative marital attitude (Riggio, & Weiser, 2008). On the other hand, it was determined that university students whose parents have a healthy marriage have more positive marital attitudes compared to those with divorced parents (De Coninck, Van Doren, & Matthijs, 2021). It can be argued that the first message source for marriage is the parents and their marriage. People who receive a positive marital message from their families would develop a positive marital attitude.

Pryor and Rodger (2001) indicate that positive or negative marital attitudes are transferred across generations. In other words, parents' marital attitudes are transferred to the next generation when they include marital messages. Finding obtained in this study is in accordance with previous studies and theoretical knowledge. In this respect, in Turkey, just like in other cultures, there is a positive relationship between marital messages received from the family and marital attitudes, which is one of the sources of marital messages; this is consistent with the literature.

In the study, it was found that university students who received a low level of positive messages from their friends about marriage had a more positive attitude towards marriage compared to university students who received a high level of positive messages. This finding is consistent with the findings of Shurt's study (2004) on university students and the findings of Shurts and Myers' study (2012) which focuses on university students' marital attitudes and the marital messages they receive. Both studies point at a positive relationship between marital attitudes and the marital messages university students receive from their friends. Accordingly, it can be said that the results of the research in the literature and the results of this research are similar.

As mentioned above, transmission of messages starts within the family. The media content one is exposed to, cultural myths, observing siblings and friends influence all attitudes, including marital attitudes (Miller, & Browning, 1999; Larson, & et al., 1998). Tissington (2008) argues that one's behaviour is affected by their friends while at the same time affecting their behaviour. Friends' feelings and views on marriage serve as marital messages for that person. In this respect, marital messages received from friends, who are an indispensable part of one's ecosystem and play an important role in one's development, may shape one's marital attitudes.

In the study, it was found out that marital attitudes of university students who receive a high level of positive marital messages from the media are more positive compared to those of university students who receive a low level of positive marital messages from the media. This finding is consistent with Segrin and Nabi's study on the relationship between watching television and having unrealistic expectations of marriage and Holman's study (2003) on the use of media – specifically of sexual content - among adolescents. On the other hand, the findings of this study differ from the findings of the study on university students conducted by Shurts (2004) and the findings of Shurts and Myers' study (2012) on the marital attitudes and marital messages university students receive.

Media is located at the third layer, which Bronfenbrenner (1977) defines as exosystem, of an individual's ecosystem. Exosystem refers to schemes that are composed of structures and rules organised within a society and do not directly include an individual. There could be people who are in contact with more than one group even though they are not actively involved with all of them (Tissington, 2008). A person can be informed of the rules, values, traditions, and norms of the society, to which they belong and even do not belong, through media. They can receive marital messages from these sources. These messages may be on marriage age or type, what marriage brings to the table, or negative consequences of marriage. In other words, these messages can shape one's marital attitudes.

In this study, media refers to the radio, television, newspapers, and magazines. It is not surprising today that people receive messages from one or several of these sources and that some of these messages are on marriage. According to Akay (2006), one of the sings of media, especially television, being highly influential in Turkey is the TV series. The audience is influenced by the TV series so much so that they are more interested in the fictional world of these shows than the actual world itself. Many of these shows include messages concerning marriage and family life. Similarly, marriage programmes dominating various TV channels can provide marital messages. In this respect, marital attitudes of an individual can be shaped by these messages.

Internet has become a highly popular, if not indispensable, media. According to Muslu and Bolışık (2009), children and adolescents have used the internet at an increasing rate. Due to internet, new friendships are formed through emails and chat rooms; existing friendships are maintained; social life is shared with others; people and maintain social relations. Children and adolescents may receive marital messages through internet as well, and these messages may be formative for their marital attitudes.

It was revealed that marital attitudes of university students who receive a high level of positive marital messages from other institutions (institutions affecting the individual such as government, religious bodies, and the professional world) are higher than the marital attitudes of university students who receive a low level of positive marital messages. This finding is consistent with Shurts' study conducted with university students (2004), findings of Shurts and Myers' (2012) study on university students' marital attitudes and the marital messages university students receive, and with the findings of Bener's (2011) study in which he focused on determining the basic interaction point between religiosity and partner selection and examined what elements and to what extent these elements have an effect on religiosity and partner selection. On the other hand, these

findings are different from the findings of Okutan and Büyükaşahin-Sunal's (2010) study titled attachment in romantic relationships, the connection between gender stereotypes and the perception of religiosity.

“Religion” which is part of the “other institutions” in this study, can affect an individual in different degrees from birth till death. According to ecological system theory, religious institutions are situated within a microsystem (Santrock, 2014). In other words, the individual is born into a life surrounded by religious institutions, rules, and teachings. Several studies determined that religion/spirituality has an important place in university students' lives (Sandfort, & Haworth, 2007), that religion is an internal source of motivation that affect attitudes and behaviour (Maltby, 1990, and that people who are externally motivated in terms of religion stand more aloof from marriage (Mosko and Pistole, 2010). Therefore, it can be argued that religious rules and teachings provide various different marital messages and marital attitudes of young people can be said to develop with these marital messages they receive from religion.

Government and professional world which are part of the ecosystem in which the individual is situated are defined within “other institutions” in this study. According to ecological system theory, government and professional world is part of the egzosystem (Tissington, 2008). Laws created and policies implemented by the governing bodies can reach a person through the elements of the microsystem such as principals and teachers who can directly influence them. In other words, certain institutions such as the government and the professional world can send messages on various issues either directly or indirectly. It is possible that these messages can be on marriage. Notwithstanding that it is not the same for everyone, these messages can affect adult university students' marital attitudes. Likewise, financial state of the professional world and economic crises may be a source of message. For instance, the saying “Poverty makes you fight, wealth makes you love” can be taken as a marital message that affects and shapes one's marital attitude. In short social and economic conditions created by the professional world may present marital messages and these messages in return shape one's marital attitude.

In this study, the concept of marital messages was examined through marital attitudes and various socio-demographic variables. Future studies may examine the relationship between marital messages received from various sources and variables such as marriage expectations, marital satisfaction, marriage quality, marital harmony, and pressure to get married.

Psychological counselors, psychologists, and psychiatrists working on marriage and family may carry out their work on pre-marital marital attitudes of individuals by taking into consideration the relationship between marital messages and marital attitudes. Mass media, which are indeed sources for marital messages, can be used to provide public service ads (PSA) on the notion of healthy marriage and family. Therefore, people may get correct and positive marital messages from the media. Taking into account current conditions, religious institutions can also provide illuminating information about the importance of marriage and family. Religious Affairs Administration can play an active role in people receiving correct and positive marital messages. Ministry of Family, Work, and Social Services can provide training for couples getting married. In these trainings, programs can be prepared that will enable individuals to receive correct and positive marriage messages in order to affect their marriage attitudes. People who would be offering these trainings can be put under training for trainers on marital attitudes and marital messages.

Acknowledgements or Notes

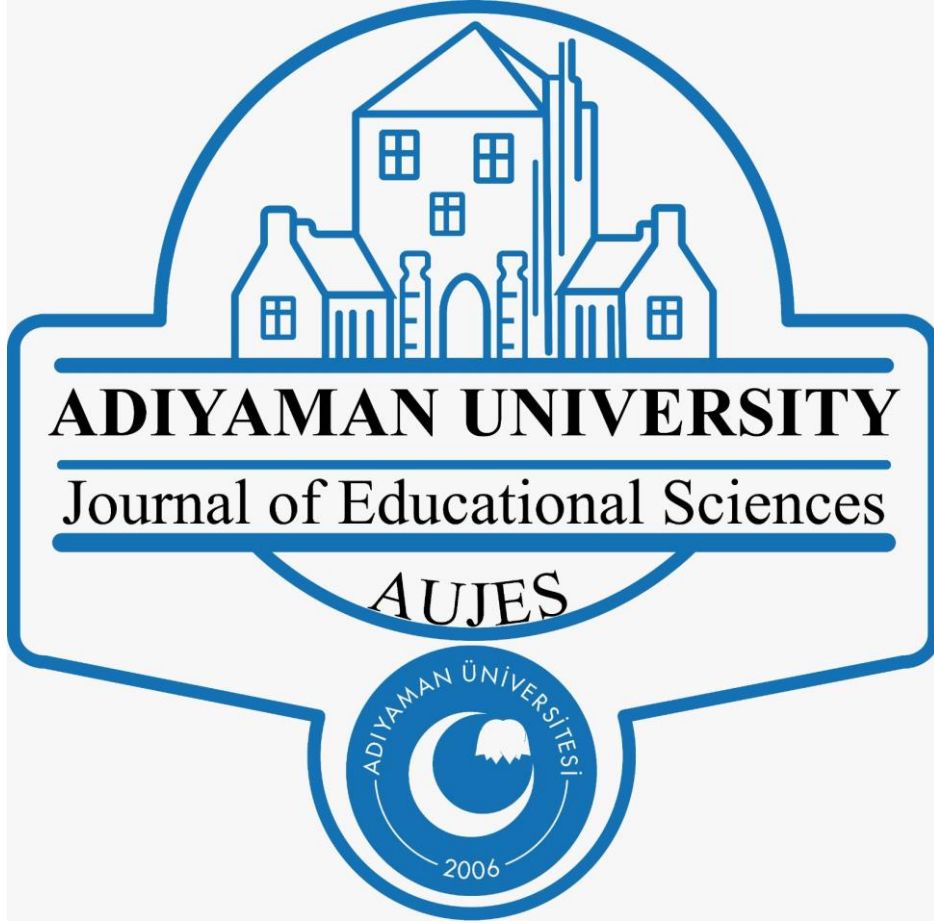
This study is derived from the first author's doctoral dissertation under the supervision of the second author.

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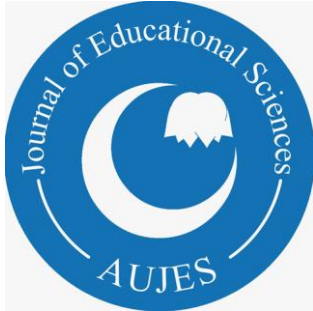
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Education Stakeholders' Views on Controversial Issues in Terms of Null Curriculum

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Education Stakeholders' Views on Controversial Issues in Terms of Null Curriculum

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Abstract

This study aims to identify the controversial issues in Turkey based on the views of some education stakeholders and analyze the experiences of teachers in terms of those controversial issues. This study was designed in a qualitative research design. The participants of the study are 250 academics from the departments of educational sciences, maths and science, Turkish and social sciences, primary education, foreign languages and fine arts of universities; 26 form tutors, religious culture and ethics, Turkish, science, maths and English teachers employed in public schools in Eskişehir; and the representatives of 5 teacher unions. The data were collected through semi-structured interviews with teachers and open ended questionnaires with academics and the representatives of teacher unions. Inductive analysis method was used to analyse all the data. The study revealed that the controversial issues which were identified by the help of education stakeholders were mostly not covered in elementary education curriculum and in teachers' practices due to various reasons such as teacher approaches and competences, student approaches, parents, course books and the curriculum. In other words, the controversial issues could be named as the null curriculum itself.

Key words: Critical pedagogy, Controversial issues, Null curriculum, Basic qualitative research.

Introduction

Education is a system which overlaps with social and cultural structure. Teachers, as one of the most important stakeholders of the education system, are the key practitioners responsible for conveying the issues compatible with the aims of the education system to the students. However, when the controversial issues are to be addressed in the classroom; the ideologies on which the curriculum is heavily based are the determinants of how much teachers can address these issues in the classroom. Ideology is a set of compatible beliefs and attitudes which are clearly seen as a common sense while opposing other thought and belief systems. When people or political parties disagree about how society, school, or economy should be organized, they rely on this common sense to ensure whether their ideas are accurate or not (Hill & Cole, 2001). In this respect, education can be said to be shaped to a great extent by ideological views.

The ideology of education is a set of general beliefs which is adopted by teachers, students and parents to justify their actions in educational settings (Konarzewski, 1998). Ideologies which have deeply effected education systems are neoliberal and conservative ones. These two dominant ideologies were defied by radical ideology, which opposed the status quo in society and global inequality. Radical ideology, which advocates anti-globalization, has taken a stand against poverty, capitalism and transnational commercial corporation. Moreover, this political effort aimed at creating a social cohesion based on equality and justice between men and women, ethnic groups, countries and social classes (Claire & Holden, 2007). Radical pedagogy is the educational outcome of radical ideology. According to radical pedagogy, the subjectivity of the individual and his duty of providing the necessary conditions for changing the political, economic and social foundations of the society in which he lives should be reconsidered (Giroux, 2014). Critical pedagogy which emerged as an extension of radical pedagogy intends to produce a new synthesis of humanist and libertarian pedagogy that aims to transform dominant culture and oppression (Peters, 2005). Critical pedagogy, reminiscent of John Dewey, encourages problem-solving and discussion around topics drawn from students' real-life experiences some of which are controversial (Smith, 2000).

Controversial issue is a complex subject area that engages interest, conflicting ideas, values, priorities and stimulates strong emotions (Claire & Holden, 2007). The classification of an issue as controversial is influenced by the policies. In other words, the policies affect what is controversial and what is not. Curriculum in schools are largely influenced by the tides of ideological struggle in a society (Camicia, 2008). According to

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Dewey (1933), current education systems are narrowly content-oriented and isolated from controversial issues. This approach, which tends to avoid controversial issues, has separated and severed disciplines from their social contexts, thus shading their benefits. However, students need a chance to make judgments about how social values and predetermined standards of non-negotiable standards emerge and are eternalized, and to discuss controversial issues (Griffin, 1942). When it comes how to handle controversial issues at school, critical pedagogy is seen to focus on the hidden curriculum. According to critical pedagogy, the hidden curriculum is more effective than the formal curriculum (Yıldırım, 2013). Giroux (2014) argues that the schools fulfill the task of educating students in the way that political, economic and social institutions wish, through the hidden curriculum. The hidden curriculum is an important theoretical basis in the development of critical pedagogy. It tends to instill the existing social order into students, but if it is well structured, it can contribute to the construction of a democratic society.

As mentioned above, critical pedagogy focuses on the implicit dimensions of the curriculum. Yet, the occurrence of the unexpected outcomes as well as the expected ones as a result of teaching at schools indicates the existence of something more than formal and hidden curriculum. Eisner (1985) defines it as null curriculum. The null curriculum is the sum of all the information and processes that are necessary in order to educate the students for social life but ignored. Issues such as race, gender, politics and religion are often considered to be controversial, and these issues are generally neglected in the curriculum. The basic teachings of critical pedagogy; such as justice and equality, the political nature of education and the need to teach students to resist the antidemocratic one are mostly ignored. In these basic teachings of critical pedagogy, the null curriculum plays as important a role as the formal and hidden curriculum. According to McLaren (2011, p. 291), "Knowledge acquired in schools - even anywhere - is never neutral or unbiased because it is ordered and shaped in certain ways; silent logic plays a role in what is highlighted and excluded". It is possible to think of the null curriculum as a hierarchy, from the exclusion of an entire discipline to ignoring a single issue (Flinders et al., 1986). So, who excludes those issues? Either the interests and capabilities of curriculum specialists, the teachers and the policies of the ruling party. The curriculum specialists design curriculum according to the the policies of the ruling party and the schools have to stick to it. On the other hand, null curriculum in the classroom defines the curriculum not covered by the teachers in practice by some reasons (Wilkinson, 2014). Teachers' attitudes and values and their self-efficacy beliefs prevent them from addressing certain issues. Teachers often prefer teaching subjects which they find safe and secure since they want to avoid problems they may encounter (Holden & Hicks, 2007). In this way, students can't face real life problems as the subjects taught at schools are mostly on traditions and beliefs. Moreover, the negligence of these issues in the curriculum gives students the message that these issues have no equivalence in their social life (Eisner, 2005).

Research focusing on controversial issues in terms of null curriculum shows that controversial issues are neglected in the curriculum of different countries with almost the same reasons. However, there are few studies which discuss both the aim of the controversial issues in education, the barriers to achieving this aim and the role of controversial issues in the practices of teachers in terms of null curriculum (Chowdhury&Siddique, 2017; Cocke, 2017; Emery et al. 2017). In these studies controversial issues are discussed in the context of their definition, their role in curriculum, teacher experiences and impact on students' learning. This study also aims to reveal the null curriculum related to controversial issues in elementary curriculum in Turkey. The stakeholders of the research are primarily academics. Because they are both decision makers in making the national curriculum and they are teacher educators. Another group of stakeholders is teachers because it is thought that they know best the practice and the problems encountered in schools related to controversial issues. The last group of stakeholders is teacher unions because they are thought to be effective decision makers both in the defense of teacher rights and in the making of national curriculum. To this end, research questions in this study are as follows:

- (1) What are the education stakeholders' views on current and historical controversial issues and which of them should be included in elementary curriculum?
- (2) What are the education stakeholders' views about the controversial issues regarding the classroom practices and elementary and secondary education curriculum?

Methodology

This part of the study includes information on research design, participants, data collection and analysis process, validity and reliability of the research.

Research Design

This study was designed as basic qualitative research which based on the most common data collection tools such as open-ended questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The analysis techniques employed are the identification of coding and repetitive themes related to data from inductive analysis. As codes, categories and

content analysis are commonly used in basic qualitative research, they can be described as inductive (Lim, 2011). Unlike other qualitative research designs, the basic qualitative research design is particularly suitable for an in-depth understanding of applied educational processes.

Participants

The participants are called education stakeholders in this research. In accordance with the nature of the qualitative research, the selection of participants was based on volunteering.

In this part of the research related to the academics, no sample was taken and the whole universe was tried to be reached. The universe of the research regarding the academics at universities consists of 73 universities with faculty of educational sciences in the 2016-2017 academic year and 4287 academics who were contacted via e-mail addresses. The universities with faculty of educational sciences listed in 2016 on the website of the Council of Higher Education (<http://www.yok.gov.tr/web/guest/universitelerimiz>) were taken as basis. 250 academics from the departments of mathematics and science (28,8%), educational sciences (26,4%), Turkish and social sciences (25,6%), elementary education (10,4%), foreign languages (5,6%) and fine arts (3,2%) joined the open-ended survey prepared on google survey.

The second participant group of the study are 26 teachers from the elementary schools in the central districts of Eskişehir. Form tutors (n=6), social studies (n=4), science (n=4), religious culture and ethics (n=3), Turkish (n=3), mathematics (n=3) and English (n=3) teachers participated in the research. 50% of the participants were female and 50% were male. Participants had at least four and at most twenty-nine years of professional experience. In the selection of teachers, convenient sampling, one of the purposeful sampling methods was used. While reporting the research, an alias was used for each participant to protect their privacy.

The representatives from the central boards of five teacher unions with different ideological views are the third group. Criterion sampling method was used to determine the teacher unions. The unions with the highest number of members and those which reflect different ideological views were taken as samples. The number of union members is based on the "Communiqué on July 2017 Statistics on the Number of Members of Public Servants Unions and Confederations in accordance with the Law on Public Servants Unions and Collective Bargaining Law No. 4688" published in the Official Gazette on 5 July 2017. Those teacher unions with the number of members they represent are Eğitim-Bir-Sen (n=420.129), Türk-Eğitim-Sen (n=201.282), Eğitim Sen (n=93.143), Eğitim İş (n=48.993) and Anadolu Eğitim Sen (n=1060).

Data Collection and Analysis

In accordance with the design of the study, the data were collected through semi-structured interviews and open-ended questionnaires. For the survey to be applied to the academics, seven open-ended questions were created by the researcher in line with the theoretical framework of the research. In line with expert opinions, the questionnaire was reduced from seven to five items, and the questions in the personal and academic information section of the questionnaire were changed and the questionnaire was finalized. The same process was applied for the survey to be applied to the teacher union representatives and this data collection tool was given its final form as well. Before collecting the research data, the questionnaire was sent to two academics selected from ten universities in order to test the intelligibility of the prepared questionnaire. Six academics from the departments of educational sciences, mathematics and science, Turkish and social sciences responded the questionnaire. In line with the expert opinions, both questionnaires consisted of five same open-ended questions, and participants were asked to justify their answers in each question. Only one question was different in teacher unions' questionnaire (question 6) as the experts stated that it was especially important to find out the opinions of teacher unions about the goals of controversial issues in education to see the different perspectives of different ideological views. That question is also same with one question in semi-structured form of teachers. The forms were finalized regarding the feedback from field experts.

For semi-structured interviews to be applied to the teachers, interview questions were prepared by the researcher in line with the theoretical framework of the research. In line with the expert opinions received through the expert evaluation form, the questions that were deemed inappropriate were removed, and the questions were finalized in terms of the language and content used. Finally, before the interviews with the main participants, pilot interviews were conducted with two teachers from different fields in the school where the researcher worked as a teacher. The purpose of these interviews was to get the opinions of the participants about the clarity of the questions and to determine the average duration of the interviews (Adıgüzel, 2016). Figure 1 shows the semi-structured interview and open-ended survey questions.

Yarı Yapılandırılmış Görüşme Formu (öğretmen)

Bize kendinizi tanıtabilir ve eğitim geçmişinizden kısaca bahsedebilir misiniz?

Size göre ilkököl ve ortaokulların amaçları ne olmalıdır?

2.1. Tartışmanın eğitimdeki amacının ne olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?

2.2. Toplumumuzda güncel veya tarihsel olarak süregelen **tartışmalı konular** size göre nelerdir?

2.3. Tartışmalı konulara eğitimde yer verilmeli midir? Neden? (sendika)

İlkökel ve ortaokul öğretim programlarında yer almayan ancak yer alması gerektiğini düşündüğünüz konular nelerdir?

3.1. Branş dersinizde yer alması gerektiğini düşündüğünüz tartışmalı konular nelerdir?

3.2. Öğretmenlik yaptığınız alana ait öğretim programında tartışmalı konulara ne kadar yer verildiği açısından değerlendirir misiniz?

3.3. Tartışmalı konuların sınıf ortamına taşınmasının dersinize katkısı hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?

3.4. Tartışmalı konuların sınıf ortamına taşınması gerektiğini düşünüyorsanız bu konular, ilkököl veya ortaokulun hangi düzeyinden başlanarak ele alınmalıdır?

İlkökel ve ortaokul öğretim programlarında yer alan ancak yer alması gerektiğini düşündüğünüz konular nelerdir?

Öğretim programlarında yer almasının önemli olduğunu düşündüğünüz konular derslerinizde ele alırken nasıl bir süreç izliyorsunuz?

5.1. Bu konuların öğretiminde hangi strateji/yöntem/ teknikler kullanılmaktadır?

5.2. Siz hangi strateji/yöntem/ teknikleri kullanıyorsunuz?

5.3. Öğrenciler tartışmalı konuları sınıfa getiriyorlar mı? Daha çok hangi konular sınıfa getiriliyor?

5.4. Öğrenciler tartışmalı konuları sınıf ortamına getirdiklerinde sizin yaklaşımınız nasıl oluyor?

5.5. Tartışmalı konuların öğretim sürecine aileleri rolünü nasıl değerlendiriyorsunuz?

Öğretim programlarında yer almasının önemli olduğunu düşündüğünüz konuların sınıfta ele alınmasında karşılaştığınız zorlukları anlatır mısınız?

6.1. Tartışmalı konuları sınıfta ele alıyorsanız bu duruma ilişkin sınıfta yaşadığınız deneyimleriniz var mı? Bu deneyimlerden biraz bahsedebilir misiniz?

6.2. Eğer varsa sınıfta yaşadığınız zorlukların nelerden veya kimlerden kaynaklandığını düşünüyorsunuz?

6.3. Kendinizi tartışmalı konuların öğretimi açısından değerlendirir misiniz?

6.4. Yaşadığınız sorunların çözümüne yönelik önerilerinizi belirtiniz.

7. **Görüşme soruları dışında konuyla ilgili eklemek istediğiniz başka düşüncelerinizi varsa lütfen belirtiniz.**

Açık Uçlu Anket Soruları (sendika-akademisyen)

1. Toplumumuzda güncel veya tarihsel olarak süregelen **tartışmalı konular** size göre nelerdir? Lütfen listeleiniz. (Sendika-Akademisyen)

2. İlkökel ve Ortaokul öğretim programlarında **yer almayan ancak yer alması gerektiğini düşündüğünüz tartışmalı konular** nelerdir? Lütfen gerekçeleriyle belirtiniz. (Sendika-Akademisyen)

3. Bir önceki soruya verdiğiniz yanıtınızda belirtmiş olduğunuz **tartışmalı konular**, ilkököl veya ortaokulun hangi düzeyinden başlanarak ele alınmalıdır? Lütfen **nedenleriyle** birlikte açıklayınız. (Sendika-Akademisyen)

4. İlkökel ve Ortaokul öğretim programlarında **yer alan ancak yer alması gerektiğini düşündüğünüz tartışmalı konular** nelerdir? Lütfen gerekçeleriyle belirtiniz. (Sendika-Akademisyen)

5. Size **tartışmalı konuların** öğretiminde hangi etmenler ve paydaşlar önemlidir? Nedenini lütfen açıklayınız. (Sendika-Akademisyen)

6. Size göre **tartışmalı konuların** eğitimdeki hedefleri ne olmalıdır? Lütfen listeleiniz. (Sendika-Öğretmen)

Figure 1. Semi-Structured Interview and Open-Ended Survey Questions

As can be seen in Figure 1, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the teachers and open-ended questionnaires were conducted with academics and teacher union representatives. Due to the large number of universities (73) with faculties of education and academics (4287), online data collection tool was used to collect data academics. Open-ended surveys distributed by hand to teacher unions were answered by five central board members. After the questionnaires were completed, they were hand-delivered again.

After all the interviews with the teachers were completed and the audio recordings of the interviews were written down, line numbers were given to the interview transcripts. Thus, the interview data was made ready for coding. The coding was done with the analysis form created by the researcher in the Excel computer program shown in Figure 2.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1	İNSAN HAKLARI İLE İLİŞKİLİ TARTIŞMALI KONULAR	ÖĞRETİM	AKADEMİSYEN	SENDIKA	f		
2	Siyasal Katılım ve Vatandaşlık	6	100	5	111	Sağlık, Halka, işçi ve emekli hakları, hukuk ve adalet sistemi, çocuk hakları, örgütlülük, demokrasî, laiklık, toplumsal eşitlik eğitimi	Siyasal Katılım ve Vatandaşlık
3	Çokkültürlülük	3	92	2	97		Çokkültürlülük
4	Toplumsal değerler	5	51	1	57		Toplumsal değerler
5	Tercih ve seçim	1	35	3	39		Tercih ve seçim
6	Cirueli saldırı	0	6	0	6		Ervin Teoris
7		15	266	11	292		Ermeni sorunu
8	FEN VE TEKNOLOJİ İLE İLGİLİ TARTIŞMALI KONULAR	ÖĞRETİM	AKADEMİSYEN	SENDIKA	f		
9	Ervin Teoris	4	25	0	33		Biyoteknolojik çalışmalar ve tıbbi teknolojiler
10	Biyoteknolojik çalışmalar ve tıbbi teknolojiler	4	26	0	30		Enerji Kaynakları
11	Enerji Kaynakları	5	25	0	30		Çevre duyarlılığı
12	Çevre duyarlılığı	7	21	0	28	İNŞAN HAKLARI (4)	Yönetim sistemi (Anayasa değişikliği, başkanlık sistemi, Atatürk ve Atatürkçülük)
13	Küresel İstisna ve İklim Değişikliği	2	17	0	19		Ekonomi (Üretim, tüketim, verimlilik, bükümler, et
14	Sağlıklı Beslenme ve Gıda Güvenliği	3	13	0	16		Dinler tarihi ve dinler inancılar/öğütleri (Geçmiş
15	İnternet ve Teknolojiye Bağlı Sorunlar	4	7	0	11		Küresel İstisna ve İklim Değişikliği
16	Cirueli	2	8	0	10		Türk Dış Politikası (Türkiye dış ilişkisi, AB üyesi
17	Bilim/Bilimsellik	0	13	0	13	DİN BİLİM İLİŞKİSİ (4)	Din ve toplum (inanç ve vatan ilişkisi, din sömür
18	Organ Bağışı	0	6	0	6		Önemli şahıslar-Tarihî kişiler
19	Haberleşme ve Bağışlar	0	5	0	5		Sağlıklı Beslenme ve Gıda Güvenliği
20	Kürtçe	0	5	0	5		Siyasi Görüş Ayırıklıkları (ideoloji, parti, sağ-sol ç
21	Ervenan oluşumu-Büyük Parlamento (Bigbang)	0	4	0	4		Bilim/Bilimsellik
22	Önemli	0	3	0	3		İnternet ve Teknolojiye Bağlı Sorunlar
23	Toplam	31	184	0	215	TOTAL DEĞERİ	Cirueli
24	DİN, DİN VE SİYASET İLE İLGİLİ TARTIŞMALI KONULAR	ÖĞRETİM	AKADEMİSYEN	SENDIKA	f		
25	Yönetim sistemi (Anayasa değişikliği, başkanlık sistemi, referandum)	2	22	0	24		Darbe Girişimleri (27 MAYIS, 12 EYLÜL, 28 ŞUB
26	Dinler tarihi ve dinler inancılar/öğütleri (Geçmiş, İslam, Alevilik, Semaizm, mezhepler, örneğin, tarikatlar)	2	19	0	21		Din, İslam ve diğer dinler
27	Türk Dış Politikası (Türkiye dış ilişkisi, AB üyesi, BOP)	1	17	0	18		Feleke (kültürün, sosyal, dikkatli düşünme, dışiş
28	Din ve toplum (inanç ve vatan ilişkisi, din sömürsü, ahlak, dinde, dinde, dinde, dinde)	4	13	0	17		Organ Bağışı
							İslam dininin içeriği ile ilgili konular (Kur'an-

Figure 2. A Section From the Excel Content Analysis Form

As it is seen in Figure 2, while coding the data on controversial issues, which is the first question of the research, content analysis method was used. By focusing on the concepts and words related to the controversial issues in the interviews, the codes and themes were created by bringing together the related codes. The themes and codes related to the controversial issues and their repetition numbers were tabulated. After determining the

codes and themes related to the controversial issues, content analysis was carried out based on the existing themes in the analysis of the data related to the second research question. In addition, new themes from the interview transcripts were also included in the study. The responses of the academics and teacher union representatives to the open-ended questionnaire were transferred to the analysis form previously created in the Excel computer program by the researcher. The views of the academics and teacher union representatives were also coded in line with the data obtained from the content analysis and gathered under themes. New codes and themes obtained from the questionnaires were added to the codes and themes created previously from the analyzes of the interviews with the teachers. All the stakeholders' opinions were put together under the themes and codes and participants' opinions were presented in numbers as real person in the Excel table as can be seen in Figure 2.

Excel analysis form was presented to the expert opinion in terms of the consistency of the codes with the analysis and the overlap of the themes. The expert opinion form was sent to twelve faculty members working in different departments of education faculties of different universities. Nine of the experts to whom the questionnaire was sent expressed their opinions. Two of these experts are faculty members and seven of them are assistant professors whose areas of specialization are curriculum and instruction, science, mathematics and social studies education. In line with the expert opinions, the codes and themes were revised and the analysis process was completed.

Validity and Reliability

A scientific research is evaluated according to its validity and reliability. In this research, the first criterion in increasing validity and reliability was *credibility*. To provide credibility, participant confirmation was tried to be ensured both by confirming the opinions expressed by the participants during the semi-structured interviews and by sharing them with the participants after the transcription and coding process. Verbal and written consents of the teachers were obtained both by voice recordings and consent forms. Another written consent form was also prepared for teacher union representatives and academics. Expert opinion was also applied to ensure credibility. The researcher consulted expert opinions at all stages of the research. Permissons were obtained from the Scientific Ethics Committee of Anadolu University and Eskişehir Provincial Directorate of National Education. Data sources and data collection methods were diversified. In the diversification of data sources, different education stakeholders were involved in the study, thus the data sources were enriched as much as possible.

Regarding the *transferability* criteria, direct quotations from the participants were reported. Regarding the *consistency* criteria, the researcher paid attention not to move away from the theoretical framework of the research in the stages of data collection tools, data collection and analysis. In semi-structured interviews, the researcher used the interview guide she had prepared before. In the transformation of data obtained from open-ended questionnaires and semi-structured interviews into themes, two data sets were continuously compared by the researcher. Regarding the *verifiability* criteria, the researcher based on the principle of impartiality at every stage of the research process. In line with research *ethics*, in order to protect the confidentiality of the participants' identities, instead of the participants' real names, each participant was given a pseudonym with the suggestions of the thesis advisors.

The codings were presented to the expert opinion in terms of both the consistency of the codes with the interview transcript and the overlapping of the themes and the codes under them. Expert committee consists of associate professors and doctoral faculty members working at Anadolu University educational sciences, Turkish and social sciences, elementary education, mathematics and science education departments. Two of the experts are working on controversial issues and two of them are working on qualitative research. The experts were informed about the purpose of the research and the coding technique. Experts confirmed the consistency of the codes with the interview transcripts. In addition, in line with the opinions of the experts, the codes and themes were revised and thus the analysis process was completed.

Results and Discussion

In this part of the study, the results are presented within the framework of the research questions. The numbers presented in the tables below reflect the real person numbers. People who represented multiple ideas on different themes are counted several times. That's why the total number of the ideas doesn't match with the total number of the participants.

The Education Stakeholders' Views on Controversial Issues

The first problem of the study is related to education stakeholders' views about the current and historical controversial issues and which controversial issues should be included in elementary curriculum. The opinions related to each theme and sub-theme is given below with abbreviations for academics (A), teacher unions (U),

teachers (T), Eğitim Bir Sen (EBS), Eğitim Sen (ES), Türk Eğitim Sen (TES), Eğitim İş (Eİ), and Anadolu Eğitim Sen (AES).

The education stakeholders' views related to current and historical controversial issues in Turkey were categorized under 5 main themes respectively;

- *Human rights,*
- *Science and technology,*
- *Religion and politics,*
- *Historical events, problems and figures,*
- *Economics, media, art and philosophy.*

According to the academics and teacher unions, the most controversial issue was human rights. While teacher unions didn't assert that science and technology was a controversial issue, academics believed that it was the second most controversial topic. In addition, only one person from teacher unions thought that religion and politics; economy, media, art and philosophy were controversial issues. For teachers, science and technology was the most; economy, media, art and philosophy was the least controversial themes. Sub-themes under human rights main theme are given in Table 1;

Table 1. Sub-themes under human rights main theme

Sub-Themes	Academics	Teachers	Teacher Unions
Participation and citizenship	100	5	5
Multiculturalism	92	3	2
Social values	39	5	1
Terror and violence	35	1	3
Sexual assault	6	0	0

As seen in Table 1, according to the academics, teacher unions and teachers, the most controversial sub-theme was participation and citizenship. The least controversial sub-themes were sexual assault for academics, social values for teacher unions, terror and violence for teachers. As it comes to which of these sub-themes should take place in the elementary curriculum, academics claimed multiculturalism should take place most and sexual assault should take place least in the curriculum. On the other hand, participation and citizenship was the issue which teacher unions believed that should take place most in the curriculum. However, they didn't claim that multiculturalism and sexual assault should be included in the curriculum. One of the teacher unions (ES) emphasized the need to focus on universal values in education. Another representative, on the other hand, argued that values related to patriotism and being Turkish as an upper identity should come to the forefront (TES). Three of the teachers stated that social values and two of them stated that participation and citizenship should be included in elementary curriculum. Social studies teacher Ferit said: *Today we have the right to elect and to be elected, so we have to know how much of this right we use effectively, how we should use it. I think 8th graders must know it. We can't teach enough because the curriculum doesn't cover it.* Teachers didn't state that sexual assault, multiculturalism and terror and violence issues should be included in the curriculum. Other sub-themes under science and technology main theme are given in Table 2;

Table 2. Sub-themes under science and technology main theme

Sub-Themes	Academics	Teachers	Teacher Unions
The theory of evolution	33	4	0
Biotechnological studies and reproductive technologies	26	4	0
Energy resources	25	5	0
Environmental awareness	21	7	0
Global warming and climate change	17	2	0
Healthy nutrition and food safety	13	3	0
Science / scientific knowledge	15	0	0
Internet and technology related problems	7	4	0
Sexuality	8	2	0
Organ donation	6	0	0
Diseases and medicines / vaccines	5	0	0
Abortion	5	0	0
Euthanasia	3	0	0

As seen in Table 2, according to the academics, the theory of evolution was the most and euthanasia was the least controversial sub-themes. According to the teacher unions, none of the science and technology

related issues were controversial. While teachers believed that environmental awareness was the most and global warming and sexuality were the least controversial sub-themes, they didn't assert that science/scientific knowledge, organ donation, diseases and medicines/vaccines, abortion and euthanasia were controversial issues. On the evolution theory, one of the science teachers said: *I think the most controversial issue in our field is evolution. Uh, because there's something about it. Some people think we've evolved from completely different genres, so here's the fact that it's not just that there's a change in small nuances. There is also a religious dimension. Evolution is the most controversial issue at the moment. Unsolved maybe won't be solved forever (Nazlı).* Related to science and technology theme, all the controversial issues except organ donation were thought to be included in the elementary curriculum. According to the academics, the theory of evolution was the most and abortion was the least important issue that should take place in the curriculum. Although union representatives didn't comment on the science and technology related controversial issues before, they agreed on the theory of evolution (ES, Eİ), environmental consciousness (Eİ) and sexuality (TES, ES) issues to be included in the curriculum. The teachers asserted that the issues they listed as controversial, such as the theory of evolution, environmental awareness, sexuality and the problems related to internet and technology, should be included in the curriculum. Science teacher Şenay said: *The theory of evolution was removed from the science curriculum. I think it should be included again.* In addition, while science/scientific knowledge wasn't discussed as controversial by teachers beforehand, three of the teachers stated that it should be included in the curriculum. Other sub-themes under religion and politics main theme are given in Table 3;

Table 3. Sub-themes under religion and politics main theme

Sub-Themes	Academics	Teachers	Teacher Unions
Management system	22	2	0
Errors in religious interpretation and practice	14	9	0
Current international political problems	21	1	0
Religious beliefs and formations	19	2	0
Differences of political views	13	1	1
Military coups	10	0	0
Political trust	3	2	0
Agricultural policies	4	0	0

As seen in Table 3, management system was the most and agricultural policies was the least controversial sub-themes. Nevertheless, teachers didn't assert that military coups and agricultural policies were controversial issues. Only one of the union representatives believed that differences at political views was a controversial issue in Turkey. The other representatives didn't report any ideas about religion and politics theme. Teachers mentioned about the referendum and the political system discussions about the management system. One of the form tutors said: *Well, mostly management system is discussed. As we have seen recently, the structure of the state, how it should be governed, who will manage the country in what way and how are the issues discussed recently (Ahmet).* According to the academics management system was the most and political trust was the least controversial issues. On the other hand they thought, religious beliefs and formations should take place most; agricultural policies and political trust should take place least in the curriculum. Although union representatives didn't find anything controversial about religion and politics, one of the representatives (ES) stated that religious beliefs and formations should be included in the curriculum. This representative argued that the history of religions should be included in the curriculum in order to understand other religious belief systems. One of the representatives (EBS) stated that the errors made in religious interpretation and practice should be eliminated in the society, so it should be included in the curriculum. Two of the representatives (ES, AES) stated that the issues related to the current politics should be included in the curriculum. One of the teachers argued that religious beliefs and formations and another teacher stated that the errors made in religious interpretation and practice should be included in the curriculum. English teacher Musa said: *The history of all religions should be included in the curriculum to give students the chance to see the bigger picture.* However, the teachers didn't believe that the issues related to the management system, the coup attempts, international contemporary political problems and political trust should be included in the curriculum. Other sub-themes under historical events, problems and figures main theme are given in Table 4;

Table 4. Sub-themes under historical events, problems and figures main theme

Sub-themes	Academics	Teachers	Teacher Unions
Deportation law	30	4	1
Atatürk and Kemalism	20	1	3
Historical figures	11	5	0
Cyprus issue	6	4	0

Aegean islands	5	4	0
Lausanne treaty	3	1	0

As seen in Table 4, deportation law was the most and Lausanne Treaty was the least controversial sub-theme for academics. According to the teachers, historical figures was the most and Lausanne Treaty was the least controversial sub-theme. In addition, two of the union representatives believed that deportation law, Atatürk and Kemalism were controversial sub-themes. One of the history teachers who commented on the Lausanne Treaty said: *There is much debate about Lausanne Treaty. Yes, it can be discussed, but if you don't see Lausanne as a gain, I am closed to discussion. Because as the conditions of the agreement are so clear, if they don't see Lausanne as a gain, then I think that those people have ulterior motives (Ferit)*. According to the academics, Atatürk and Kemalism should take place most; Lausanne Treaty and Aegean Islands issue should take place least in the curriculum. Although the teacher unions had previously considered the issues of deportation law and Atatürk and Kemalism controversial, they didn't state that they should be involved in the curriculum. The teachers didn't think that the historical figures and the Lausanne Treaty, which they had previously considered controversial, should be included in the curriculum. Only one of the teachers stated that Atatürk and Kemalism should be included in the curriculum. The Turkish teacher Simge said: *The MoNE removed Atatürk's principles from the curriculum. I think it should be included again.*

As no sub themes came out under the themes of economics, media, philosophy and art these themes were taken as they were and given in Table 5;

Table 5. Economics, media, philosophy and art themes

	Academics	Teachers	Teacher Unions
Economics	20	1	1
Media	4	4	0
Philosophy	7	0	0
Art	3	0	0

As seen in Table 5, while the teacher unions didn't comment on philosophy, media and art, only one representative stated that the issue of economics was controversial. It was seen that academics believed economics and philosophy were more controversial than media and art. While teachers didn't express any opinions about philosophy and art, the issue of media was found more controversial than economics. One of the teachers about the economics issue said: *People cannot improve themselves in terms of culture because of the economic problems. Yet, it is argued that we don't have any economic problems. We are assured to have a better income day by day, but this isn't true and acceptable (Banu)*. The only view that the issues of economics, philosophy, media and art should be included in the curriculum was stated by the academics. The academics previously discussed economics, philosophy, media and art issues as controversial, but the issues that should be included in the curriculum changed as philosophy, economics, art and media. Although teachers had previously found the issues of economics and media controversial, they didn't assert that these subjects should be included in the curriculum. The economics issue, which a union representative previously stated as controversial, wasn't expressed by union representatives as an issue to be included in the curriculum. As a result, although the participants stated some issues as controversial, they didn't assert that those issues should be included in the curriculum, or vice versa.

The Education Stakeholders' Views on the Goals and Teaching Processes of Controversial Issues in the Curriculum

In this part of the study, the goals and teaching processes of the controversial issues have been tried to be revealed by discussing them together with the obstacles in front of them.

The Education Stakeholders' Views on the Goals of the Controversial Issues and the Obstacles in Front of Them

The second problem of the study is related to the education stakeholders' views about the goals and teaching processes of controversial issues in the elementary curriculum. To this end, teachers and unions were first asked about their views on the goals of the controversial issues and the obstacles in front of them while putting it into practice. Based on the analysis of answers, it was found out that the goals of controversial issues in education were as in Table 6.

Table 6. The goals of controversial issues in education

Goals	Teachers	Teacher Unions
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Preparing students for the real world	✓	✓
Developing students' thinking skills	✓	✓
Providing students with discussion culture	✓	✓
Instilling self-confidence in students	✓	✓
Meeting in common truth	✓	x
Providing students with perennial learning	✓	x

As seen in Table 6, teachers and unions agreed on four goals about controversial issues. To start with the goal to prepare students for the real world, English teacher Musa said: *So, everything is the same and one in the classroom but there is no such reality in society and real life.* Three of the representatives (TES, ES, AES) argued that these issues should be included in the curriculum in order to prepare students for the real world. However, a union representative (TES) emphasized the need to pay attention to the issues that won't undermine the unity and solidarity of the country. A union representative (ES) underlined the importance of being pedagogically cautious and objective as the basic principles while determining and discussing the controversial issues.

Education stakeholders agreed on the necessity of controversial issues to prepare the students for the real world. However, they mentioned some obstacles stemming from the curriculum. The teachers claimed that exam-oriented curriculum that encourages rote learning caused teachers, students and parents to consider controversial issues as a waste of time. Social sciences teacher Bora said: *Children are concerned about central exams. So I cannot ignore this and turn my back or say that this is my educational goal and I will adhere to it. I have no chance of doing that.* Teachers stated that there wasn't enough time for controversial issues because the curriculum is academically overburdened. Similar to the teachers, two teacher unions drew attention to the curriculum. One of the representatives (ES) stated that although these issues are from real life, pilot practices should be carried out in the process of preparing the curriculum in order to avoid the reactions related to these issues. The academics also argued that multiple choice exams condemned the education system out-of-date learning and teaching processes. Moreover, they added that the current curriculum didn't cover controversial issues, and argumentation skills were avoided in the curriculum not to raise good decision makers. All in all, elementary curriculum failed preparing students for the real world problems.

Teachers and teacher unions also asserted that controversial issues developed students' thinking skills as much as they prepared them for real life. It was seen that controversial issues were perceived by teachers as a tool that leads to discussion rather than as a goal themselves. They thought that controversial issues led students to free, scientific and objective knowledge. Social studies teacher Bora said: *If we want the child to find the truth himself, perhaps most of the courses should be based on controversial issues. After analyzing and synthesizing, the students will find the truth and controversial issues are a path to this.* Yet, the teachers mentioned some obstacles again. They thought that students' cognitive maturity and readiness were inadequate to understand the controversial issues and they opposed these issues because of their previous misleading. They accepted the wrong sources of information as correct. Religious education and ethics teacher Büşra said: *This is already the most serious distress in religion. It is very important from where you learn, from which source you learn...* Two of the representatives (Eİ, AES) argued that controversial issues should be included in the curriculum in order for students to be able to think, understand, question and analyze. Similar to the teachers, one of the representatives (EBS) also stated that these issues should be included in the curriculum in accordance with students' cognitive maturity. According to him, if the students weren't mature enough, they wouldn't be able to understand these issues.

To provide students with discussion culture was another goal of the controversial issues stated by the participants. Teachers argued that most of the students didn't know how to listen and respect different opinions while discussing about something. Therefore, teachers thought that controversial issues could be employed as a tool in teaching discussion. According to the teachers, the lack of discussion culture among the students was due to the lack of democracy culture in their families, and children were raised under the shadow of taboo and oppression. Turkish teacher Alkım said: *If the family is conscious, the child is conscious too. In other words, families who follow the agenda and try to teach their children something about these issues already raise their children's awareness. But if the family doesn't follow the agenda, the children don't know much about the news and events around them. So they inevitably become oblivious.* Two of the representatives (EBS, AES) argued that these issues could give students the opportunity to learn and discuss, to understand and respect differences. One of the representatives (EBS) stated that he opposed categorically prohibited education but still thought that students shouldn't be muddled on some subjects. Another representative (TES) stated that the personality of the children arose from the relationships that the family members established with each other and what the child learned in the family and what he learned at school should be supportive of each other. One of the important

points emphasized by this representative was that not every issue might be discussed in every family, and that was related to the educational background of the family. Another representative (ES) argued that education on controversial issues should be considered especially with the parental dimension due to the existence of established ideas in adults. In this regard, families should be educated first and the purpose of education about controversial issues should be explained to them. A representative (Eğitim İş) argued that each family had the right to decide how their children would be raised, but should be intervened if they educated the child in such a way as to harm the society and nature. Another representative (EBS) argued that the families should also participate in the education process and the issues which the family didn't want to be taught should be given in accordance with their diligence or the parents should be enlightened on these issues. Finally, a representative (AES) asserted that families could react because teachers or other students had different opinions and used this as a complaint factor. Thus, legal arrangements should be made to prevent this situation. As well as teacher unions and teachers, the academics pointed out the family as a source of problems. Academics stated that the role of the family was very important and could even prevent learning at school. For this reason, it was necessary to provide school-parent cooperation and inform the parents about the necessity of controversial issues while teaching democracy.

As well as providing students with discussion culture, participants believed that another goal of controversial issues was to instill self-confidence in students. Teachers thought that controversial issues especially helped shy, unsuccessful or naughty students to express themselves. According to the teachers, students who had increased self-esteem through controversial issues had better communication with their peers and teachers. The students usually had an idea and were willing to talk about these issues since they aroused from their own lives. Science teacher Nazlı said: *For example, students like to talk about an environmental issue or environmental consciousness as they often hear about it and they can add much to this. In other words, it increases students participation.* Two of the representatives (EBS, ES) argued that opportunities for students to be self-reliant through controversial issues could be created in an interactive environment with the help of their teachers. Unlike representatives, teachers agreed on two more goals namely; to meet in common truth and to provide students with perennial learning. The teachers who thought that the goal of controversial issues was to meet in common truth believed that these issues helped students to see the common points of different ideas and see from the different perspectives. Finally, some of the teachers thought that controversial issues helped teachers provide students with perennial learning. Science teacher Şerife said: *For instance, we discussed nuclear power plants in the class. After a few weeks, when I asked about it, I saw that they remembered the issue very well.*

The Education Stakeholders' Views on the Teaching Process of the Controversial Issues and the Obstacles in Front of Them

The process while handling controversial issues is as important as the goal of these issues in the elementary curriculum. There are many obstacles defined by the participants while handling the controversial issues in class. These are listed in the Table 7 below and supported with stakeholders' views.

Table 7. The obstacles handling the controversial issues

Teacher approach	Fear of being spied on and so avoiding these issues Epistemological and cultural beliefs Seeing it as a waste of time Having to keep up with the coursebook and curriculum
Teacher competences	Lack of field knowledge Lack of pedagogical qualifications
Parents' approach	Exam oriented point of view Epistemological and cultural beliefs
Students' approach	Misconceptions related to controversial issues Exam oriented point of view Socioeconomical background

As it is seen in Table 7, one of the most important part of the process is teacher approach. In order to examine teachers' approaches to controversial issues, they were asked how they behaved when the students brought these issues to the classes.

Two of the religious culture and ethics teachers stated that they tried to explain the issue as much as possible to support the student's curiosity for learning. However, one of them stated that he addressed these issues in a way that leads students to a single correct answer. Although one of the science teachers stated that

controversial issues support the students' curiosity for learning, two of them stated that they had lots of subjects to teach in the curriculum, yet they don't have enough time. As a result, they preferred to avoid these issues. One of the English teachers stated that some of the controversial issues were generally related to themes in the English course curriculum and they sometimes discussed these issues. The other English teacher said: *If the subject that the student brings to the class is related to the course, I will discuss it in the class but if it is not, I offer to talk about it at the break time (Funda)*. English teacher Musa stated that he didn't find it appropriate to address these issues in the classroom, because it can be risky for him. Two of the mathematics teachers stated that these subjects weren't related to the mathematics lesson and that they directed the students' questions to the teachers concerned. One of the social studies teachers claimed that he addressed the controversial issues in all aspects and finally got the students to find their own truth by passing through their logic filter. Another social studies teacher stated that the teachers were the right source for the students to learn the most accurate information about controversial issues. Thus, it was her responsibility to inform the students whenever they needed. Form tutors stated that they generally gave students an opportunity to discuss these issues, but if the issue that students brought to the classroom wasn't related to the subject at that moment, they postponed it to discuss in related courses. The form tutor Ayten said: *So I always give the opportunity to children to express themselves. Especially in life science lesson, they always ask questions or tell their own stories about controversial issues...* Turkish teachers stated that they usually allowed students to discuss controversial issues related to Turkish course curriculum. Otherwise, they directed the students to the teachers of other courses. Turkish teacher Simge said: *In fact, it depends on the issue. If it is very irrelevant to the issue we are dealing with, then I don't allow the students to talk. But if it is an issue that will contribute to the subject, then I allow them.*

As well as teachers' approaches to controversial issues, it is important for them to feel confident while handling these issues. To this end, teachers were asked to self-evaluate themselves in terms of their competences while teaching these issues. In this regard, one of the religious culture and ethics teachers claimed that discussing religious issues could cause trouble, so he didn't want to draw reaction. Furthermore, he stated that he didn't feel comfortable while discussing these issues. Another teacher expressed difficulty in explaining these issues to the students, but thought that he was a good listener. Two of the science teachers stated that they felt comfortable and successful in addressing these issues. Yet one of them said that she couldn't control the class when these subjects were addressed. She said: *I can't create a discussion environment in a class of 36-40 students. First of all, nobody listens to each other... Because all the students want to be the talking party, not the listening party. That's why I have a hard time (Şerife)*. Two of the English teachers stated that they were doing their best to handle these issues in the classroom. Teacher Ersin said: *I'm doing my best as I told you before. I also include extracurricular activities such as cooperation with other teachers, in-school activities. So I think I'm enough*. Another English teacher said that he was always following the current developments about controversial issues; however, instead of seeing these issues as a propaganda tool, he preferred to be discreet. The mathematics teachers stated that they didn't address these issues in their classes because they weren't in the content of the curriculum. Thus, they considered themselves insufficient. Maths teacher Feray said: *When a student comes to me with a religion or history related controversial issue, I tell him to ask it to his history or religious education teacher. I don't think I'm good enough...* Three of the social studies teachers stated that a teacher should follow the current developments to be sufficient about controversial issues and to be prepared for the questions students may ask. Social studies teacher Hanife said: *To be successful in teaching controversial issues, teachers should read books and follow the agenda. Because when a child asks a question, you need to be informed. I can't say I've been following the agenda. In that sense, maybe a teacher should be more informed*. Another teacher stated that she didn't have enough time to address these issues and she felt unconfident about them. Two of the form tutors claimed that while addressing these issues, politics was involved, they lost lots of time and had difficulty in controlling students. However, a form tutor Veli said: *I think I devote lots of time to these issues. I'm good at communicating with students, especially listening to them. So, I can create a free environment in the classroom about discussions...* Two of the Turkish teachers stated that they considered themselves confident about controversial issues and one preferred not to address these issues but to direct them to other field teachers. Turkish teacher Alkim said: *So I'm confident in dealing with these issues because I try not to explain them just by lecturing. You know, I either support it with a visual, a sound recording, or a brochure. For example, I have videos and slides about diabetes and child abuse.*

When teachers' competences about controversial issues were examined, it was seen that there were some problems arising from different sources about teaching these issues. The greatest problem that academics pointed out was the epistemological and cultural beliefs of the teachers. The academics also asserted that teachers didn't have a field knowledge about these issues. According to the academics, the controversial issues were those that required teachers follow both current events and developments in the field of teaching. To academics, teachers should have pedagogical qualifications as well as pedagogical field knowledge in order to address controversial issues. Some teachers ignored controversial issues even if they were covered in the

curriculum just because they felt pedagogically inadequate. When they were asked, teachers also cited themselves and their colleagues as a source of problem in addressing controversial issues. Problems with teachers were that some teachers disregarded or ignored controversial issues, or used them as a tool to impose their own thoughts. In addition, teachers saw these issues as dangerous and feared of being spied on, they were uninformed about these issues and didn't follow current developments, they got angry in discussions and were unable to maintain impartiality. In addition, the most common problem that teachers complained about addressing these issues was that they didn't know how to conduct the discussion process and lost control. Social sciences teacher Ferit said: *A teacher cannot hold or praise any political party. This is against the law. Social studies teachers are actually at risk. While discussing an issue if the students act partisan in the classroom, they can transfer it to their parents in a different way. This could put the teacher in a difficult situation. In fact, I believe that such pressures should be removed from the teachers.* Parents criticized teacher views that contradicted their own worldview and even made the teacher a target for the students. All teachers from all fields asserted that families had a huge impact on students, that many misunderstandings or incomplete learning about controversial issues originated from families, and that correcting these misunderstandings became difficult as the students grew up. In addition, teachers stated that parents' view of school and education was exam and result oriented and they didn't care about school's role in behaviour and value development. Thus, they weren't aware of or interested in controversial issues. According to the teachers, students from low socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds couldn't develop a perspective to think about controversial issues as they put their basic needs first. In addition, the congregation and sect structures in the surrounding area affected the students. English teacher Ersin said: *The environment where our school is located has a low or middle level socioeconomic structure. Students often can't buy books or notebooks. Their basic needs need to be met so they can think of higher-level things.* According to the academics and teachers, students' curiosity about these issues, their previous experiences and prejudices were effective on their attitudes towards these issues. As a result, it affected the teaching practices and competences of teachers in the classroom.

Conclusion and Recommendations

In this research, firstly, it was aimed to reveal the views of education stakeholders on controversial issues. Afterwards, the views of teachers and union representatives on the goals of controversial issues in primary and secondary curriculum were discussed. Finally, findings regarding the views of all stakeholders related with the learning-teaching processes of controversial issues in the context of the null curriculum were analyzed.

As a result of this study, it has been observed that the controversial issues determined in the post-graduate theses overlap with the issues obtained from this research. In the national literature; according to the results of graduate studies of Seçgin (2009) and Çopur (2015), the top ten most controversial issues are terrorism, unemployment, economic crisis, Turkey-EU relations, staffing, nepotism, corruption, judicial independence, the media and religious abuse. Among the controversial issues obtained from this research; multiculturalism, social values, the theory of evolution, biotechnological studies and reproductive technologies, energy resources, environmental awareness and management system weren't or not at the top ten of other research results. Demir and Pişmek (2018) and Yılmaz (2012), as a result of their studies with social studies teachers, determined controversial issues such as secularism, principles and revolutions of Atatürk, the Treaty of Lausanne, the exile of Sultan Vahdettin and deportation law which are among the findings of this research. Kuş (2015), in his study with social studies and science teachers; obtained controversial issues in line with this research's findings such as violence against women, education system, terrorism, nationalism, religious abuse, euthanasia, human genome project, gene therapy and hybrid seeds. When the post graduate studies in international literature (Philips, 1997; Walsh, 1998; Evans et al., 2000; Rambosk, 2011; Avery et al., 2013) are analyzed, it is seen that gay / lesbian rights, abortion, legalization of drugs, creed of belief, pornography, genocide / ethnic cleansing, euthanasia and genetic engineering are the top 10 most controversial issues. Abortion, gay / lesbian rights, genocide / ethnic cleansing, euthanasia and positive discrimination coincide with the results of this study. It's seen that controversial issues vary depending on the historical, cultural and social backgrounds of the countries. Besides; some issues such as sexuality, religion and race, migration, multiculturalism, mother tongue education, Northern Iraq problem, euthanasia, violence against women, media, human rights, animal rights and freedom of press are controversial in both national and international literature.

When the national and international literature is examined, it is seen that controversial issues serve the purpose of improving citizenship skills. Hess (2004) points out that controversial issues aim to develop basic democratic values, to be interested in politics, to increase content knowledge, to think critically and to improve interpersonal skills. All of these goals were also pointed out by teachers and teacher unions in this study. In studies conducted with social science and science teachers in both national and international literature, it is concluded that controversial issues help students develop and support similar skills (Burek, 2012; Çopur, 2015; Kuş, 2015; Emery et al., 2017). In both national and international literature, there are studies that determine which controversial issues are preferred or deemed appropriate by teachers or prospective teachers. When the

results of this study, Çopur's (2015) and Seçgin's (2009) research results are compared; human rights, democracy, environmental awareness and cultural corruption are the subjects which are preferred to be jointly included in the curricula. When the findings obtained from these studies are analyzed, it is seen that highly controversial subjects which rank at the top of the list are not in the list of the subjects which should be included in the curriculum as they aren't suitable to be addressed at schools. It shows that the participants don't think Turkish national education is ready to handle controversial issues though for the sake of democracy education.

When teacher approaches to controversial issues are examined, it is possible to say that teachers are divided into three groups regarding their approaches. Teachers in the first group are willing to discuss and explain the controversial issues that students bring to the class in a fair way. The second group of teachers take a position according to the content of the subject. The teachers in the third group prefer to stay distant to these issues. Regardless of the group, all teachers think that the teacher should maintain neutrality on these issues, yet this is difficult. Oulton et al. (2004) argued that the focus of teachers on controversial issues should be strict adherence to rationality and truth, to propose balanced ideas on the subject and to remain objective. However, studies in the national literature show that this is exact the opposite. When the competences of teachers about controversial issues are examined, it is seen that some teachers from each field feel confident in terms of both cultural background and coping with these subjects, and some teachers feel inadequate. Some teachers, especially from the field of social studies, state that it is necessary to follow the current developments in order to cope with these issues in the classroom and thus they have no difficulty in answering the questions that may come from the students. Some teachers who state that they feel inadequate in addressing these issues say that the feeling of inadequacy stems from not being able to provide classroom control while discussing these issues and not being able to address these issues properly as these issues aren't adequately covered in the curriculum. In many studies in both national (Atalay & Çaycı, 2017; Türkmen et al., 2017) and international (Cocke, 2017; Rhodes & Coda, 2017) literature, it's seen that teachers mostly don't feel safe and confident about teaching controversial issues.

When the sources of problems encountered in the discussion of controversial issues are examined, the sources of problems that teachers, academics and teacher unions point out as common are the parents and the curriculum. According to the stakeholders, the parents' refusal to accept the opinions contrary to their own world view causes them to personalize these issues and make the teacher a target. In addition, the lack of democratic culture in some families, and raising children under the shadow of taboo and oppression are also mentioned as problems with parents. In addition to families, current curriculum don't cover controversial issues that will enable students to be good decision-makers and develop metacognitive thinking skills. Students approach the school in an exam-oriented manner, which causes them to see controversial issues as unnecessary and time-consuming. In addition to students, social and cultural norms make it difficult for teachers to address these issues. Other problems with teachers include the fact that some teachers see controversial issues as unnecessary, use them as a means to convey their thoughts, or don't know how to deal with them. Findings about the sources of problems related to controversial issues are similar to those of many studies from national and international literature (Yılmaz, 2012; Ersoy, 2013; Çopur, 2015; Cocke, 2017; Rhodes & Coda, 2017; Pollak et al., 2018).

In the discussion of controversial issues, regardless of western or eastern civilizations, it is evident that controversial issues that aren't accepted at the macro level cannot be achieved through micro-level efforts and cannot be transferred to real life. For this reason, these issues will continue to be ignored both in teachers' practices and content of the curriculum. In other words, it will be a null curriculum. The results of this study revealed that;

- Teachers' lack of pedagogical knowledge about controversial issues prevent them from developing positive attitudes towards these issues and addressing them in the classroom. In this context, it is believed that teachers should be informed about the aim of controversial issues and how they should be handled in the lessons with in-service teacher training programs.
- Social norms are one of the major problem sources in the discussion of controversial issues. For this reason, it is believed that all stakeholders should be explained that these issues aren't a goal but a tool for raising individuals with democratic attitude. One of the best ways to achieve this is thought to involve the whole school approach and to raise awareness of all stakeholders on these issues.
- One of the obstacles to addressing controversial issues is exam and result oriented education system. Since the curriculum is loaded with the issues asked in the central examinations, it is thought that there isn't enough time for controversial issues. This causes students, teachers and parents to consider controversial issues as unnecessary and time-consuming. Therefore, controversial issues should be covered in the curriculum and if possible should be included in the central examinations.
- Long-term observations are needed for the objective analysis of primary and secondary education teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and student/parents' attitudes towards these issues.

Limitations

This research doesn't claim to be representative of all oppositional stakeholders' views in Turkey. The interviews and the data obtained from them are limited by a relatively small group of participants. In addition, this study wasn't operationalised as a systematic comparison between the different teacher views in different regions of Turkey. It was aimed to allow for the teachers' views teaching only in Eskişehir province to describe the situation.

Disclosure Statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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