

IIB INTERNATIONAL REFEREED ACADEMIC SOCIAL SCIENCES JOURNAL

Nisan-Mayıs-Haziran 2013 Sayı: 10 Cilt: 4 Spring April-May-June 2013 Volume:04 Issue:10

www.iibdergisi.com

ISSN: Print 2146-5886 Online 2147-172X



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Ayhan AYTAÇ

Dear readers,

We have given place to a total of 8 valuable articles in this volume. There are studies about the disciplines of education, psychology, international relations and sports sciences within our volume. This is Volume: 10, No: 4 covering the period of April, May and June 2013. All of the full texts can be obtained via this volume. In our each volume, studies from various disciplines and areas are subjected to evaluation by our field editors with the purpose of providing more effective usage and opportunity, and sent to the referee evaluation following the required preliminary review. Therefore, there can be delays in some studies still waiting on the system as they are in the process of referee evaluation. Because of these delays, authors should be patient. The most important factor in fast evaluation of some studies is that there isn't any problem in these studies and they are appropriate for the conditions for acceptance in journal. Unfortunately, some problems can be experienced in some studies as they aren't sent appropriate for the spelling rules of the journal. This situation puts off the editorial board and publication board seriously. Our authors should adjust their studies according to the last volume of the journal, and upload to the system by preparing them in accordance with the language and publication conditions. Doing a layout according to APA 5 system in studies facilitates our works and helps us to be fast about returns to you. Moreover, authors must act as per the spelling rules of the journal about reference structure. Purpose, scope, method and findings must be absolutely mentioned in extended Turkish abstracts. Our next volume will be for July, August and September and published in September 2013. We wish you well-being until meeting in this volume.

The Referees of This Volume : We send our love and respect to Kürşad ZORLU, Seçil BAL TAŞ-DAN, Gökşen ARAS, İbrahim ÇAM, Canan ALBAYRAK, Ayşe TÜRKSOY, Hacı Arif TUNCEZ, Ayhan AYTAÇ, Mustafa ŞANAL, Nezahat GÜÇLÜ, Serdar TOK, Mehmet ANIK, Gülten HERGÜNER, Işık BAYRAKTAR, Çetin YAMAN, Mehmet GÜÇLÜ, Aylin ZEKİOĞLU, Belkız Ayhan TARHAN, Ali Serdar YÜCEL, Serpil DÜNDAR, Emine DEMİRAY and Nur DİLBAZ ALACAH



THE COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF U.S. AND TURKISH TAX SYSTEMS¹

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Abstract: In 1980s, tax reforms in the U.S. were taken as an example by all countries. The studies in the U.S. in this field have been still taken as an example by many of the countries. Tax reform arrangements regarding tax system and revenues have been still made in our country at various times as with the other developing countries. However, it has been observed that these arrangements may turn out to be inefficient within only a few years. Although the U.S. has a complex tax system, it is an exemplary model for Turkey due to the high level of prosperity, the success of tax collection, the success in decision-making and implementation, timing, ability, etc. In Turkey, seeking for an optimal tax system is still in progress. The aim of this study is to investigate the tax system in the USA, as a vitally developed country, by comparing this system whether it is applicable on Turkey. When we compare the system in these countries by a current statistical data, we see that the US has been bounced back and it has recovery even after the big crisis recently. With the result that, Turkey should organize the short and long run tax strategies with respect to the USA and the way of the world policy.

Keywords: Tax Systems, Tax Strategies, Tax Reforms.

¹ This study is investigated by the research and observations during my 3 month-visit to U.S. as a visiting scholar in Syracuse University, Whitman School of Management. I would like to thank the head of Department of Finance, Prof. Dr. Yıldıray YILDIRIM for his guidance.

INTRODUCTION

The tax system should not impede or reduce an economy's productive capacity. A tax system should encourage the taxing jurisdiction's economic goals, such as economic growth, capital formation, and international competitiveness. In general, the tax system should not favor one industry or type of investment at the expense of others (AICPA, 2009, p.130).

Generally, tax systems are classified by income, property and the form of tax-

tion on income and expenditure. In this classification, the form of taxation on income is basis for the tax systems. Also current tax reforms feature the form of taxation on income.

The applications in the world and the EU countries firstly focus on tax regulations which do not prevent the commercial flow and are not to be one of the factors affecting preferences.

Recently, competition and challenges coming from the increase in good and

services as a result of globalization, rise as the most effective factor for the tax systems (SPO, 2007-2013, p.12).

U.S. is one of the largest economies of the modern world with a GDP (OECD, 2013a) of \$14 trillion 447 billion 100 millions and with a population of 314 millions(OECD, 2013b). Turkey is one of the major growing countries of the modern world with a GDP (TSA, 2013a) of \$ 1 trillion 298 billion 62 millions and with a population of 74 millions (TSA, 2013b). Given the area of the U.S. , which is 9629.091 km², and that of Turkey, which is 785.000 km², it will be noticed that there is a big difference between the populations of the two countries in proportion to the areas they cover, which reflects in figures of both growth and income per capita.

As in the all economies supplying for the finance, U.S. economy also needs tax revenues which is the strongest state revenue. Parallel with this, the politics based on taxing have a crucial role in 1980's. Tax reform studies restricting tax exception and discounts and starting from 1975-1976 were taken as example by many countries. Therefore, tax strategies and reform proposals which must be followed by Turkey should be introduced by taking the U.S. model (Türkan, 1997:3).

Although the complicated tax system, U.S. is a good sample for the high welfare, success in levy, decision making and applying, timing ability etc.

In this study, firstly the tax systems of both countries were outlined. These tax reforms were considered in detail regarding the expectations. Finally, the efficiency levels of both tax strategies are revealed using data set of both countries in a comparative way.

I. OVERVIEW TO TAX SYSTEMS

A good tax system must be transparent, must not have irritating effects on economic decisions and the costs on administration and obligations must not be excessive, must be simple. It should not cause negative effects on study willing, savings and investments in principle.

The basic factors of tax tables in the application are political and fiscal preferences. What is the expected from tax systems is the vertical and horizontal justice. High tax rates lead excessive taxation on the taxpayers which have payment difficulty. This situation urges even bona fide taxpayers to hide their some part of incomes.

In this study, we firstly investigate the U.S. tax system then tax system in Turkey in general.

A. U.S. TAX SYSTEM

Current tax system consists of different country-systems. The income tax system is from UK, inheritance tax is system from France, sale tax system is from Germany and Spain, real property tax system is from China and Medieval Europe (Caldwell, 2000:6).

By American taxpayers, the Federal Administration, and they are connected to the province in which they reside in the municipal or local administrations are obliged to pay taxes. Therefore, U.S. has got a city, a state and a federal tax system. Therefore, the U.S. tax system is too contrived and complex to be fully understood by most U.S. taxpayers, and the situation is leading to significant tax revenue losses and economic inefficiencies (TAXATIONINFONEWS, 2012).

There are several reasons why tax system is complex. One of the most important factor is in the increase in tax expenditures. Support the Government's educational achievements, to provide low-income housing, to guarantee retirement income and tax expenditures for other things, is an important tool. Of course, obliged all the laws, regulations or related legislation, it is not possible to learn quickly. Therefore, planning the tax is getting more complicated (Brostek, 2011:13).

U.S. tax system is neither a tax nor a full excise duty, but a mixture of both. However, based on the normal income tax. The federal government, state governments, and local governments are most of the income tax applies (USEMBASSY, 2012).

The federal government, most of the state governments and local governments perform income tax. While the most important income sources at federal level are income taxes and deductions on wages, at

state level they are sales and income taxes but at the local level the most important one is wealth tax (Karyağdı, 2006:13).

Federal income tax is firstly collected in 1863. But some states had collected individual income tax before 1850, U.S. is one of the most important representatives for the Anglo-Saxon Law. Congress with legislative power is responsible for taxation and collection. State governments also hold this right to use the authority within the borders of themselves (Taraktaş, 2011:225). But in the authority of the Congress, there is a restriction on the direct taxes. Accordingly, the Congress cannot levy neither personal tax nor direct tax as long as not being proportional to population.

Consequently, Congress is conditional upon proportionality to population for direct taxes as long as not based on any restriction on indirect taxes like collecting from consumption (Gök, 2010:1).

Congress adopted of the personal income tax laws in 1861 and 1862 to bear the cost of the civil war between 1861 and 1865. While the high appeals court of USA had been explaining that they had adopted of the civil war laws in the constitution, they had declared the contradiction of the income tax law to the constitution in 1881.

The economic integration in the U.S. allows each states to establish their own tax system by full authority (Öz, Akdemir, 2002:3). During 1890s, some states brought

a different approach to the income tax. The state of Wisconsin adopted and put into practice the personal income tax law in 1911. The success of this taxation guided other states to adopt similar laws.

In 1909, the Congress adopted the corporate income tax and also appeals court legitimized the law. After 1913, while the laws of income tax had been changed for many times, the rates of income tax was also increased. In 1948, taxation by withholding was started. It was also started to use the simplified tax returns and standard tax deductions in 1944. For the blinds and old-ages, tax exemption was come into force and it was allowed common returns for the married couples.

Still, 2/3 of all taxes are collected by the federal government and 1/3 of them are collected by the state governments and local administrations.

State and local taxes are; Personal Income Tax, Corporate Tax, Sales Taxes, Use Tax, User Fees and Charges, Property Tax, A Fuel Tax and Inheritance Tax and Estate Taxes (Prante, 2009).

Federal taxes are; Personal Income Tax, Corporate Tax, Social Security Tax, User Fees and Charges, Private Consumption Taxes and Custom Taxes.

The federal income tax is the most visible, complicated, and debated tax in the U.S. The federal income tax was established with the ratification of the 16th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution in 1913. It

is levied on wages and salaries as well as income from many other sources including interest, dividends, capital gains, self-employment income, alimony, and prizes (Roach, 2006).

In the United States, collection of federal income tax is based on a system of “voluntary compliance. This means that initially it is up to the taxpayer, rather than the government, to determine and pay the appropriate amount of tax. However, the naturally competing goals of taxpayers seeking to minimize their tax liability, and the government looking to maximize revenue, complicate tax enforcement (Dizdarevic, 2011:2967-2994).

Federal income tax is considered to be a progressive tax, because the rates of taxation increase as a taxpayer’s taxable incomes increase. This progressiveness is accomplished in the U.S. by establishing income segments, known as tax brackets, and applying higher tax rates to higher segments of a taxpayer’s income. As a taxpayer’s income rises and enters higher tax brackets, the higher rates will apply only to the income in the higher brackets. Therefore, an increase in income cannot cause a taxpayer to incur an increase in tax liability that exceeds the increase in income except in one minor situation when taxpayers use tax tables to calculate their income tax liabilities (Parker, 2007:180).

Payroll taxes are imposed by the federal and all state governments. These include Social Security and Medicare taxes im-



sed on both employers and employees, at a combined rate of 15.3% (13.3% for 2011). Social Security tax applies only to the first \$106,800 of wages in 2009 through 2011. Employers also must withhold income taxes on wages. An unemployment tax and certain other levies apply.

Some cities tax only earned income. Other cities impose taxed based on a percentage of the amount of state income tax due. Others tax all income, offering exemptions and deductions like those at the state level (Evans and Niven, 2008:8).

Non-residents are subject to state income taxes in the state where they earn income. The rates are progressive and vary from state to state. The income brackets are mostly the same as, or sometimes modified from, the federal income tax brackets.

Seven states, however, do not impose taxes on income. These states are Alaska, Florida, Nevada, South Dakota, Texas, Washington State and Wyoming. New Hampshire only applies tax on interest and dividend income, and Tennessee only imposes taxes on income from stocks and bonds. An Example: New York State (Global Property Guide, 2012).

Local governments depend on real property taxes and personal property taxes, which are frequently referred to as ad valorem taxes. According to the most recent census data, these two taxes account for more than 70 percent of local government tax revenues.

All 50 states allow local jurisdictions to tax the ownership of real property sited within the jurisdiction.

Real property taxes are levied annually and are based on market value of the property as determined by the local government. A unique feature of real property taxes is that the tax rate is determined annually, based on the jurisdiction's need for revenue for that particular budget year.

Local governments may establish different tax rates for different classifications of property.

Forty one states permit localities to tax the ownership of personalty, defined as any asset that is not realty. Like real property taxes are based on the value of the asset subject to tax.

State governments rely in equal measure on sales taxes and income taxes as major sources of funds. These two kinds of taxes account for approximately 90 percent of total state tax revenues.

Forty-five states and the District of Columbia impose a tax on in-state sales of tangible personal property and selected services. (The exceptions are Alaska, Delaware, Montana, New Hampshire and Oregon). 33 states allow local governments to levy additional sales taxes.

State sales tax rates range from 2.9 percent of the dolar amount in Colorado to 7.25 percent in California.

Every state with a sales tax imposes a complementary use tax on the ownership, possession, or consumption of tangible goods within the state. The use tax acts as a backstop to a sales tax by discouraging residents from purchasing products in neighboring jurisdictions with lower sales tax rates.

An excise tax is imposed on the retail sale of specific goods, such as gasoline, cigarettes, or alcoholic beverages, or on specific services, such as hotel or motel accommodations. States may impose an excise tax in addition to or instead of the general sales tax on a particular good or service. In either case, the seller is responsible for collecting and remitting the excise tax. Excise taxes can be heavy. Washington levies a 37.5 cent excise tax on each gallon of gasoline, New-York levies a \$2.75 excise tax on one pack of cigarettes, and Alaska levies a \$12.80 excise tax per gallon of distilled liquor.

Forty-three states and the District of Columbia levy some form of personal income tax on individuals who reside in the state and nonresidents who earn income within the state.(The exceptions are Alaska, Florida, Nevada, Texas, Washington and Wyoming). The technical details of the computation of taxable income vary considerably from state to state, but the tax rates are uniformly modest. Currently, the maximum rates range from 3.0 percent in Illinois to 10.3 percent in California.

Forty-six states and the District of Columbia tax corporations on their net income attributable to the state. (The exceptions are Nevada, South Dakota, Washington and Wyoming).

Corporate income tax rates vary from state to state. The majority of states use a flat rate, while the remainder use a mildly progressive graduated rate structure. Currently, the maximum range from 4.63 percent in Colorado to 12 percent in Iowa.

The US government depends almost exclusively on the income tax as a source of general revenues. The federal income tax applies to both individuals and corporations, as well as trusts and estates (Jones, Rhoades vd., 2010:7-10).

The federal government taxes transfers of wealth in three ways: through the estate tax, the gift tax and the generation-skipping transfer tax. Together these taxes make up the federal transfer tax system. Federal estate tax exempts the first \$2 million of estates. The federal gift tax allows tax-free gifts of up to \$12,000 per year, and exempts total lifetime gifts up to \$1 million. Estates and gifts beyond these amounts are taxed at progressive marginal rates ranging from 18 percent to 46 percent. Currently there are 15 progressive estate and gift tax rates (Chamberlain, Prante and Fleenor, 2006:4-5).

The United States imposes tariffs or customs duties on the import of many types of goods from many jurisdictions. This

tax must be paid before the goods can be legally imported. Rates of duty vary from 0% to more than 20%, based on the particular goods and country of origin.

The Alternative Minimum Tax is not a business tax but is really a second set of tax rates that potentially apply to everyone. The theory of the ATM is that people who take a lot of tax deductions or tax credits should still have to pay a minimum amount of income taxes. About a quarter of taxpayers with gross incomes between \$ 100.000 and \$ 200.000, as well as 40 % of those earning more than \$ 200.000, will owe the AMT tax (Daily, 2011:8).

The statutory withholding tax rate on the assets is 30% in the U.S. Property tax rate is consisted of interest rate, premium and rents. In case of the foreigners make business in the USA, they are required to pay the same tax rate with the citizens. If more than 50% of the assets of the foreign companies' are in the U.S., they are required to pay property tax (Barry, 2010).

B. TURKISH TAX SYSTEM

The place with respect decentralization and service with respect decentralization units are existed in our country in accordance with the concept of decentralization. The place with respect decentralization organizations are expressed as "Local Governments" and are taken from The Constitution it's the legal basis. On the Local Governments are existed the guardianship authority of The Central

Government. Due to guardianship authority Central Government has an effect on some of the decisions of the Local Governments.(Yayman, 2012:1).

As of the end of January 2013, the number of taxpayers was 9.249.337 (REVENUE ADMINISTRATION, 2012). Taxpayers are liable to pay taxes to both central and local administrations.

Until the 1950s, Turkish Tax System had been under the influence of Tanzimat Era Style. However, as from this time, a modern taxation system based upon income and declaration was adopted.

Taxes collected by the central administration are: Income tax, corporate tax, Motor-Vehicles Tax, Inheritance Tax, Value Added Tax, Stamp Duty, Excise Tax, Customs Tax, Tax on Games of Chance, Banking and Insurance Transactions Tax, Private Communication Tax and Charges.

Taxes collected by Local Administrations are: Property Tax, Environment Tax, Advertisement Tax, Entertainment Tax, Communications Tax, Elektricitiy & Gas Tax and Fire Insurance Tax.

The rate of direct taxes in our country, which was higher than 60 % in the 1980s, went down to 50 % in 1990s. This decline occurred mostly in 1999 and, especially, in 2000 and went down as far as 32,2 % in 2005 and 33,6 % in 2008 (Özdemir, 2009:3). At the end of 2011, the percentage of indirect taxes was 67,6 % and that of direct taxes was 32,4% (Eğilmez, 2012).

The ratio of income taxes to total amount of tax revenues was close to 60 % in early 1980s while in the last 5 years it has gone down to less than 30 %, on average, making the excise taxes more extensive and dominant over the other sorts of taxes. This has led to a deterioration in the general revenue structure of the system.

Despite the fact that the number of active income taxpayers, which was 1,7 million, has remained almost the same and that the number of income taxpayers imposed retention tax has risen to 2,4 millions (REVENUE ADMINISTRATION, 2012) from 1,9 millions, the contribution of income taxes to total revenue has decreased, almost, by 50 %. As for the corporate taxes, the number of taxpayers has increased by 8,9 % from 1991 to 2007 and tax rates have been reduced considerably. However, the contribution of these amendments made to the increase in corporate tax revenues has not even reached 2 %.

A considerable amount of the total income tax revenue is provided thanks to retention tax and a considerable amount of retention tax is provided thanks to stoppage imposed on wage earners.

The contribution of property taxes other than that of motor vehicles tax to total revenue is very small. Thus, the inheritance and succession tax, which have turned out to be inefficient as a form of property tax, is under plan for removal.

The amount of Value Added Tax imposed on import, which is part of the Foreign Trade Taxes, has increased even more as a result of the gradual reduction in the customs duty imposed on oil fuel since the beginning of the Customs Union. Given the average of the last five years, revenue from Value Added Taxes Imposed on Import adds up to more than 92 % of all the foreign trade taxes.

Thanks to the Special Consumption Tax which was put into effect on 1st August 2002, Turkish Tax System achieved a new and permanent source of income as from 2003 (Merter, Acar vd., 2007). The revenue achieved thanks to these taxes has risen to 95 % of all the tax revenue.

Turkey is one of the countries which joined the Tax Reform Movement across Europe in recent years. Some 15 new Laws with tax amnesties have been put into effect within the Tax System. Unfortunately, the new regulations introduced were not duly designed. Our Tax System lacks a steady structure as a result of the revisions made, mostly, without principles and consideration of international standards. And thus there is again a need for a more radical and difficult to carry out tax reform than those in the past.

Failing to record the grey economy and expand the tax base has led to failure in creating a livable tax system and also a failure in bringing the tax loss and evasion levels down to those in developed countries.

Just because of the revenue worries, easy to design and discriminatory regulations were made rather than decreasing discriminatory taxation which ruins fair competition, prevents foreign capital inflows and encourages grey economy and thus the EU and OECD lay stress on.

Turkish tax system has turned out to be a highly complicated, and variable system causing conflicts between the financial administration and taxpayers. Even experts may sometimes have trouble in interpreting and companies working with professionals may sometimes have trouble. And as a solution, rather than new laws, general communique, daily circular notes and last moment statements are used.

II. U.S. AND TURKEY THE COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

U.S. and Turkey are the member countries of OECD.

The overall level of taxation in America is determined during the budget negotiations. Today, the debate on Income taxes are centered around three issues: The overall level of taxation should be the

appropriate; How stage in tax or “increased compared to the” should be; to what extent the tax should be used to access social objectives. The increasing rate of income tax accrued from the beginning, ultimately winning a lot of individuals who have paid a higher rate tax. The majority of the Democrats’ determination to adopt increasingly higher rates and more individuals who argue that more tax payments is fair. However, a large number of Republican members of the working and investing in a high increasing rate structure to give away, and it would hurt the economy, claiming the whole, therefore, the establishment of a more balanced composition of the want of a tax structure. Some of them are uniform for everyone, or “fixed” even recommend the application of a tax rate (Ryan, 2010: 34-37).

In this chapter, we are going to try to make the comparative analysis of U.S. and Turkey by referring to the up-to-date statistical data.

The table below shows the percentage of the total tax revenue in GDP between the years 2001-2011.

Table: 1

Total Tax Revenue (Tax Revenue As Percentage of GDP)

YEARS	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
U.S.	28,4	26,0	25,5	25,7	27,1	27,9	27,9	26,3	24,1	24,8	25,1
TURKEY	26,1	24,6	25,9	24,1	24,3	24,5	24,1	24,2	24,6	25,7	25,0

SOURCE: Website: <http://www.oecd.org>, Access Date: Feb. 01, 2013.

As seen in the table; total tax revenue of the U.S. has shown a downward trend from 2001 to 2011. The percentage that was 28,4% in 2001 went down to 25,1% at the end of 2011.

However, total tax revenue of Turkey has shown an downward trend from 2001 to the end of 2011. The percentage that was 26,1% in 2001 decrease to 25,0%.

Table: 2

Taxes on income, profits and capital gains

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
U.S.	13,8	11,5	11,0	11,2	12,7	13,5	13,6	12,0	9,9	10,8	11,8
TURKEY	7,5	6,1	6,1	5,3	5,3	5,3	5,7	5,8	5,9	5,6	5,9

SOURCE: Website: <http://www.oecd.org>, Access Date: Feb. 01, 2013.

The percentage of the taxes collected on income, profits and capital gains in GDP

has shown a downward trend in both countries.

Table: 3

Taxes on Specific Goods and Services

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
U.S.	1,8	1,8	1,8	1,8	1,8	1,8	1,7	1,7	1,7	1,7	1,8
TURKEY	4,1	4,7	5,7	5,6	6,2	6,0	5,8	5,6	5,8	6,3	6,0

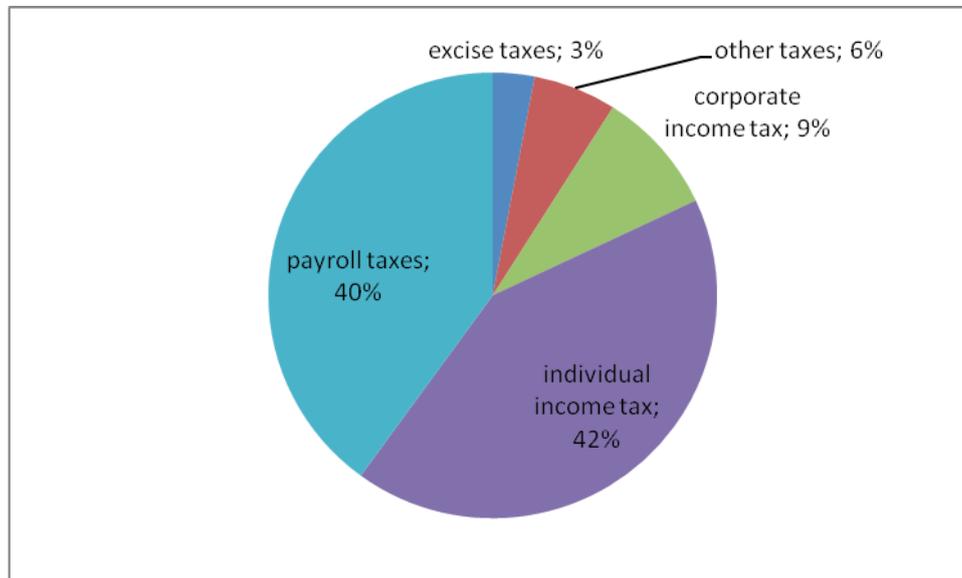
SOURCE: Website: <http://www.oecd.org>, Access Date: Feb. 01, 2013.

The percentage of the taxes collected on the specific goods and services in GDP has almost remained the same from the beginning to the end of the period. The percentage that was 1,8% in 2001 was recorded 1,8% at the end of 2011.

On the other hand, in Turkey, the percentage of the taxes collected on the specific goods and services in GDP was 4,1% in 2001 and it rose to 6,0% at the end of 2011.

Table:4

Sources of US Federal Tax Revenue: Fiscal Year 2010



SOURCE: Council on Foreign Relations, Website: [http://www.cfr.org/us tax reform](http://www.cfr.org/us_tax_reform), Access Date: Apr. 5, 2012.

In 2010, corporate taxes represented the third-largest source of federal revenue, accounting for roughly 9 percent of Treasury's income (behind the individual income tax [42 percent] and payroll taxes [40 percent])

In 2011, the United States ranked 72nd out of 183 economies worldwide in the field of corporate taxation and 19th out of 31 OECD nations, according to the World Bank's Doing Business Project. Rankings accounted for the number of tax payments, the time spent paying, and the overall rate borne by medium-sized businesses (CFR, 2012).

As it can be seen from the table, the percentage of the direct taxes in U.S. is 90%. This percentage at the same time is the sign of what a developed country it is.

Total tax revenues of U.S. has displayed an increase from 2010 to 2011. However, a decrease in the first quarter of 2012 draws attention. When we consider the types of taxes, we can see that Property Tax is the highest revenue providing tax. Individual Tax ranks second. After these two taxes, Sales Taxes, Other Taxes, Corporate Income Taxes and Motor Vehicle and Operator's Licences Taxes take place.

From the first quarter of 2010 to the first quarter of 2012;

Individual Income Tax, Corporate Income Tax and the taxes taken from the sales - General and Gross Receipts ve Tobacco Products - decreased and Property Tax, the taxes taken from the sales – Motor

Fuels, Alcoholic Beverage, Motor Vehicle and Operator’s Licenses and all others increased.

In Table 5, we see the percentages of the tax revenues of Turkey. In Table 6, we see these percentages in graphics.

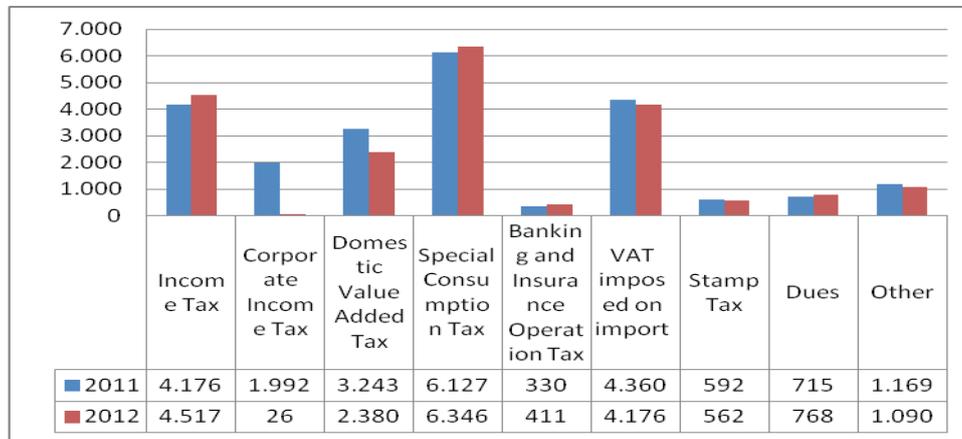
Table: 5 Tax Revenues

Million TL	TAX REVENUES						
	2011			2012			Exchange Rate (%)
	Yearly Accuracy	June		Budget	June		June
Accuracy		%	Accuracy		%		
Income Tax	48.807	4.176	8,6	53.804	4.517	8,4	8,2
Corporate Income Tax	26.993	1.992	7,4	27.151	26	0,1	-98,7
Domestic Value Added Tax	29.957	3.243	10,8	33.602	2.380	7,1	-26,6
Special Consumption Tax	64.189	6.127	9,5	70.590	6.346	9,0	3,6
Banking and Insurance Operations Tax	4.288	330	7,7	4.545	411	9,0	24,4
VAT imposed on import	48.685	4.360	9,0	53.994	4.176	7,7	-4,2
Stamp Tax	6.464	6.127	9,5	70.590	6.346	9,0	-5,0
Dues	8.344	715	8,6	9.277	768	8,3	-7,5
Other	16.082	1.169	7,3	17.467	1.090	6,2	-6,7
General Budget Tax Revenues Amount	253.809	22.704	8,9	277.677	20.276	7,3	-10,7

SOURCE: Ministry of Finance, (2012). General Directorate, Budgetary and Finance Control, Monthly Budget Realizations, p.4.

Table:6

Tax Revenues (million TL)



SOURCE: Ministry of Finance, (2012). General Directorate, Budgetary and Finance Control, Monthly Budget Realizations, p.4.

The tax revenue collected in June, 2012 was recorded as 20.270.000.000 TL ,going down to 10,7% compared to the same month of the previous year.

When we consider the types of taxes in comparison with the same month of the previous year, the banking and insurance operations tax collected increased by 24,4%, income tax increased by 8,2%, the dues increased by 7,5% and special con-

sumption tax increased by 3,6. The corporate income tax collected decreased by 98,7%, domestic VAT decreased by 26,6%, the stamp tax decreased by 5%, VAT imposed on import decreased by 4,2% and other taxes decreased by 6,7% (Ministry of Finance, 2012).

The tax rates applied in Turkey and US are shown in the table below:

Table: 7

Tax Rates Applied in Turkey and U.S.

	Income Tax (%)	Corporate Tax(%)	Sales / VAT Tax(%)
U.S.	35	35	8/0
TURKEY	35	20	0/18

SOURCE:WORLDWIDETAX, "World Tax Rates",

Website: <http://www.taxrates.cc.>, Access Date: Aug.18, 2012.

Tax rates vary by state and locality, and may be fixed or relative in U.S. Most rates are the same for all types of income. State and local income taxes are imposed in addition to Federal income tax. State income tax is allowed as a deduction in computing Federal income tax, subject to limitations for individuals.

Income Tax rates are the same in U.S. and Turkey. In the United States the income tax policy is progressive. This means that the income that is taxed is based on a marginal tax rate (Nguyen, 2011). The U.S. individual income tax rates for 2012

are 10%-35% (WORLDWIDETAX, 2012). The Turkish individual income tax rates for 2012 are 15%-35%.

The analyses made in U.S. showed that today's income tax rates are quite low in comparison with those of the previous century's. The income tax rates imposed in 1950's and 1960's were about 90% (Blodged, 2011).

Corporate Tax rates are different. While corporate tax rate in U.S. is 35%, it is 20% in Turkey. In U.S., Value Added Tax and in Turkey, Sales Tax aren't applied.

Table: 8

Federal Corporate Income Tax Rates

If taxable income is....,	the income tax rate is:
\$0-\$50,000	15 percent of taxable income
\$50,001-\$75,000	25 percent of taxable income
\$75,001-\$10,000,000	34 percent of taxable income
Over \$10,000,000	35 percent of taxable income

SOURCE: Joint Committee on Taxation, (2012). Scheduled for a Public Hearing Before the House Committee on Ways and Means on July 19, N: JCX-61-12, p.11.

It can be seen from the table that Corporate Tax is applied incrementally in U.S. However, there is not such a grading like this in Turkey.

High marginal tax rates levied on business combined with an antiquated worldwide system of taxation mean the U.S.

tax system lags behind its competitors. Further, as other countries make reforms to attract business and drive investment, the United States has stood still (THE STAFF OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON TAXATION, 2012).

III. TURKEY'S SITUATION

As the study reveals;

Turkey is a candidate country for EU. Besides Turkey is an OECD country. Therefore Turkey should interact with the countries in these unions and determine its own tax strategy by taking the succeeded practices as a model like the U.S. It should make an effective plan on the strategy of decision-making.

With the result that, Turkey should organize the short and long run tax strategies according to the U.S. and the way of world policy.

CONCLUSION

The need for the tax reform in order to create a rational tax system modern and compatible with today's requirements is always at issue in all countries.

The chance for the success in tax reforms depends on the components of tax reform extent and not being limited by the legislative amendments, the suitability for the administrative capacity and social fabric. Therefore, beside of the juridical design of optimal tax system and the success of this process; providing the social acceptance of the reform, good-timing of the legislative process economically and politically, early-calculating the taxation costs of taxpayers to increase the success of the reform.

The U.S. had been practiced the decision-making strategies in terms of timing, provision and problem according to tax

strategies successfully after 1980. Turkey had been solving the problem coming from the structure of the tax system. However, Turkey did not comprehend the problems as urgent, therefore it faced with the problem of time-inconsistency.

Tax administration in Turkey is ineffective. Tax administration cannot prevent tax evasion and consequently cannot provide horizontal and vertical justice. However U.S. has an effective tax administration due to be good at preventing tax evasion.

In Turkey, dependency on tax revenues has been increased due to the large infrastructure costs and debt burden. This problem can be solved by increasing the efficiency of current taxes. Today's governments solve the financing problem by not increasing the efficiency of current tax but indirect taxes which are easily-collected. This worsens the balance between direct and indirect taxation which is already bad. Although there are improvements in last three years, direct-indirect tax structure is quiet far from the optimal component.

Turkey must firstly solve the problem of time inconsistency. Secondly, Turkey must evaluate its situation in terms of international policy and membership of EU. Finally Turkey must interfere the changes in the tax structure and tax system fast and it must make speed decisions to keep up with the times.

Undoubtedly, the most important and useful one of these decisions is to decrease the tax rates by taking measures as extending tax base.

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ABD VE TÜRK VERGİ SİSTEMLERİNİN KARŞILAŞTIRILMALI ANALİZİ

Özet: ABD'nin 1980'li yıllarda yapmış olduğu vergi reformları tüm dünya ülkeleri tarafından örnek alınmıştır. Halen bu alanda yaptığı çalışmalar dünyanın birçok ülkesi tarafından örnek alınmaya devam edilmektedir.

Vergi sistemi ve gelirleri açısından gelişmekte olan diğer ülkeler gibi ülkemizde de çeşitli dönemlerde vergi reformuna yönelik düzenlemeler yapılmaktadır. Ancak bu düzenlemeler birkaç yıl sonra etkisini kaybedebilmektedir. ABD karmaşık bir vergi sistemine sahip olmasına karşın, refah seviyesinin yüksekliği, vergi toplamadaki başarısı, karar alma ve uygulama başarısı, zamanlama yeteneği vb. nedenlerle vergilendirme açısından model alınabilecek bir ülkedir. Ülkemizde optimal vergi sistemi arayışı halen devam etmektedir. Bu çalışmanın amacı ABD gibi son derece gelişmiş bir ülkenin vergi sistemini, vergi yapısını genel itibarıyla ele alarak ülkemize uygulanabilirliğini incelemektir. Amerika Birleşik Devletleri vergi sistemi federal, eyalet ve yerel yönetim vergilerinden oluşmaktadır. ABD mükellefi sadece federal idareye ve IRS' e değil bağlı olduğu eyalete ve oturduğu ilçe, belediye veya diğer yerel yönetimlere de aynı ya da değişik adla vergi öder. Bu nedenle ABD vergi sistemi mükellefe çok sayıda ödevler yükler. Federal hükümet, eyalet yönetimlerinin çoğu ve yerel yönetimler gelir vergileri uygulamaktadır. Federal düzeyde en önemli gelir kaynakları gelir vergisi ile maaş ve ücretlerden yapılan kesintiler iken, eyalet düzeyinde satış ve gelir vergileri ve yerel düzeyde ise servet vergileridir. Vergilerin tamamı bir yönetim tarafından tarh ve tahsil edilmediğinden tarihi gelişim içinde her yönetim belirli vergiler üzerinde yoğunlaşmış, böylece aralarında bir mali paylaşım meydana gelmiştir. Eyaletlerin en eski geliri emlak vergileridir. ABD, her eyalete yetki ve kendi vergi sistemini kurma olanağı sağlamış olup, buralardaki yapılan araştırma ile en başarılı vergi sistemi hangisi ise, o eyaletin sistemi benimsenmiştir. Türk vergi sistemi ise merkezi ve yerel yönetim vergilerinden oluşmaktadır. Mükellefler, merkezi yönetime ve yerel yönetimlere vergi ödemekle yükümlüdürler. ABD'de sistem farklı ülke vergi sistemlerinin bileşiminden oluşmuştur. Türkiye'de gelirden alınan vergilerin payı giderek azalmakta, yerini tüketim vergilerine bırakmaktadır. Uygulanan vergi çeşitleri açısından da satış-KDV

ayrımı dışında hemen hemen her iki ülkede de benzer vergiler uygulanmaktadır. ABD vergi uygulamasında satış vergileri merkezi hükümet tarafından değil eyalet hükümetleri tarafından toplanılmakta ve eyalet bütçesine dahil olmaktadır. ABD de KDV'ye geçiş yönünde reforma hazırlanmaktadır. İki ülke arasındaki vergi sistemleri kıyaslamasını güncel istatistikî bilgilerden yararlanarak yaptığımızda, ABD'nin son yıllarda geçirdiği büyük krize rağmen kendini toparladığını ve canlandığını görmekteyiz. Türkiye'de, 1980'li yıllarda %60'ların üzerinde olan dolaysız vergilerin payı 2012 sonu itibarıyla % 30'lara düşmüştür. Bu durum küreselleşmenin de etkisiyle sistemimizin giderek tüketim üzerinden alınan vergilere doğru kaydığını göstermektedir. ABD'de, vergilemenin genel düzeyi bütçe görüşmeleri sırasında tartışılır. Demokratların çoğunluğu, artan oranların daha yüksek belirlenmesini benimsemekte ve daha çok kazanan bireylerin daha çok vergi ödemelerinin adil olduğunu ileri sürmektedirler. Buna karşılık çok sayıda Cumhuriyetçi ise yüksek bir artan oran yapısının bireyleri çalışmaktan ve yatırım yapmaktan vazgeçireceğini ve bunun da tüm ekonomiye zarar vereceğini iddia etmekte, bu nedenle de daha dengeli oranlar içeren bir vergi yapısı kurulmasını istemektedirler. Bazıları herkese tek düze ya da "sabit" bir vergi oranı uygulanmasını bile önermektedirler. Demokratlar bütçe açığını kapatmak için özellikle zengin olan insanlar üzerindeki düşük vergi yükünü yükseltmek isterler. Cumhuriyetçiler genellikle vergi yükünün yüksek olduğunu ve bütçe açığını kapatmanın yolunun Hükümetin harcamalarını kısmak olduğunu belirtirler. Türkiye'de de vergi yükü, vergi oranları konusunda son yıllarda çok tartışmalar yaşanmıştır. Sonuçta vergi tabanı ne kadar genişletilirse, aynı vergi hasılatını elde edebilmek için, marjinal vergi oranlarını düşürmenin o derece kolaylaşacağı görüşünde birleşmiştir. Çalışmanın sonunda, Türkiye'nin kısa ve uzun dönemli vergi stratejilerini Amerika ve dünya politikasının gidişatına göre düzenlemesinin kendi yararına olacağı sonucuna varılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Vergi Sistemleri, Vergi Stratejileri, Vergi Reformları

EXAMINING THE MEASUREMENT AND EVALUATION METHODS EMPLOYED BY PROFESSORS IN CLASSES AND THE EFFICIENCY OF THESE METHODS

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Abstract: The purpose of this research study was to determine the measurement and evaluation methods that professors use in their classes and the efficiency level of these methods. Opinions of fourth-grade students attending the Departments of Science Teaching and Mathematics Teaching were obtained. The study group of the research consisted of 84 teacher candidates studying Mathematics Teaching (41) and Science Teaching (43) in the faculty of education of a university in a middle-sized city located in Eastern Turkey in the Spring Semester of the 2011-2012 Academic Year. The study was carried out with the qualitative research approach using the methods of case study Content analysis. It was performed to analyze the data. Results demonstrated that teacher candidates were of the opinion that professors mostly use conventional measurement and evaluation methods. It was also found that they did not find these methods efficient. It was determined that teacher candidates thought that conventional measurement and evaluation methods were result-oriented and that they drove students to memorize.

Keywords: *Evaluation, Measurement, Professors, Teacher Candidates*

INTRODUCTION

The subject of measurement and evaluation is of significance among education researchers carried out in recent years (Schouller, 2000; Caygil & Elley, 2001; Black, 2003). These researches point to the relationship between the measurement type and learning and indicate that students adopt learning approaches based on measured acquisitions (Çimer, 2004). Therefore, it is suggested that measurement and evaluation could be used as an instrument to guide students towards the

acquisitions targeted in education (Black, 2002; Erdem & Morgil, 2002).

In the study carried out by Schouller (2000), it is indicated that students develop learning approaches according to the measurement type and that tests and short-answer exams do not significantly contribute to learning. In the study conducted by Bayrak (2007), it is suggested that classical written and verbal examination, which are among conventional measurement instruments, help students develop their interpretation skills while

studying for the exam and thus they learn better and more comprehensibly. On the other hand, it is reported that test-type exams are in line with the superficial learning approach that serve for the exact transfer of knowledge.

Evaluation in the constructivist approach is very different from conventional evaluation; which include standard tests, gap-fillings, and open-ended or short-answer questions executed by the teacher. It is observed that the teacher occupies a strong place at the center of evaluation in the conventional approach (Martin, 1997; Akt: Orhan, 2007). However, in the alternative measurement and evaluation process that is based on constructivism, there are numerous other evaluation techniques. A student-centered approach is essential in the evaluation process. On the other hand, in the constructivist approach, evaluation needs to contribute to students' learning, and while doing this; it needs to inform the teacher about the knowledge and thoughts of students (Çakıcı, 2008). In this approach, evaluation should not be considered separately from teaching, but to be an instrument that supports teaching and learning (Pilcher, 2001). The aim in the conventional approach is to determine how much the student has learned in quantitative terms. That is, it is result-oriented. In the alternative evaluation, on the other hand, the aim is not to give a numerical value to students regarding learning, but it is to contribute to their learning (Ogan

Bekiroğlu, 2009). In conventional tests, it is attempted to measure the student's knowledge in a given period of time. For this reason, this approach does not reflect the student's success or failure in detail and not reveal the student's mental map (Shepard, 2000). Numerous researchers have reported that multiple-choice tests fail to measure advanced skills such as problem-solving (Enger & Yager, 1998). Alternative evaluations, on the other hand, consider students' advanced thinking skills, reveal students' development processes, and evaluate the process along with its results (Çepni & Ayvaci, 2007; Korkmaz, 2004; Özsevgeç, 2008). While conventional evaluations are effective mostly in revealing conceptual knowledge, alternative evaluations are effective mostly in revealing psychomotor, cooperative learning and critical thinking skills (Century, 2002).

The practical efficiency of alternative measurement and evaluation techniques, which are recommended to be implemented frequently in education systems based on the constructivist approach, depends on teachers. The literature review indicated that many researchers determined that this approach could not be fully implemented due partly to the lack of knowledge on this subject among teachers (Korkmaz & Kaptan, 2003; Çakan, 2004; Browder & Spooner, 2005; Aydın, 2005; Begtaş Doğan, 2005; Bulut, 2006; Cheng, 2006; Gömleksiz & Bulut, 2006; Çakır & Çimer, 2007;

Demirelli, Canbazoğlu, Doğan, Karakaya & Gelbal, 2007; Erdal, 2007; Şeker, 2007; Erdemir, 2007; Flowers, Delzell, Gelbal & Kelecioğlu, 2007; Güven & Eskitürk, 2007; Acat & Demir, 2007; Kanatlı, 2008; Cansız Aktaş, 2008; Okur, 2008; Kavak & Bekçi, 2009;). This could be attributed to the insufficiency of the training that teachers receive at the undergraduate level (Korkmaz & Kaptan, 2003; Begtaş Doğan, 2005; Erdemir, 2007; Bekçi, 2009). In parallel with this, in numerous studies conducted with teacher candidates, it has been indicated that teacher candidates are not competent especially in alternative measurement and evaluation approaches (Campbell & Evans, 2000; Karaca, 2003; Birgin, 2007b; Gümleksiz & Kan, 2007; Volante & Fazio, 2007; Sağlam-Arslan, Avcı & İyibil, 2008; Arslan & Özpınar, 2008; Yapalak, Coşkun & Sidekli, 2008; Canbazoğlu, Demirelli & Kavak, 2010) that they have misconceptions and they confuse alternative approaches with conventional approaches (Arslan & Özpınar 2008). As future teachers, teacher candidates should be prepared for using these approaches. They need to have adequate knowledge of these approaches and they need to excel in using them (Korkmaz, 2004). For this reason, these techniques should be introduced to teacher candidates at an adequate level during their training, and they should be informed in preparing and using these techniques. Besides, they should also learn about the difficulties they might encounter while us-

ing these techniques and they should be trained in a way to enable them to solve these potential problems (Buldur, 2009). This could best be achieved by providing these trainings practically at the undergraduate level (Birgin, 2007a; Birgin, 2007b; Doğan & diğ., 2007; Erdemir, 2007; Gümleksiz & Kan, 2007; Volante & Fazio, 2007; Güven & Eskitürk, 2007; Kutlu & diğ., 2007; Sürmeli & Saka, 2008; Buldur & Tatar, 2009; Bekçi, 2009). Moreover, teacher candidates can also learn through indirect experiences as they observe their colleagues, teachers and professors during these practical trainings (Buldur, 2009). In this respect, teacher candidates need positive experiences regarding the measurement and evaluation instruments that they do not know and professors who train teachers should emphasize on using alternative measurement instruments (Struyven, Dochy & Janssens 2008).

PURPOSE

The main purpose of this study is to determine opinions of teacher candidates on what measurement and evaluation instruments that their professors employ in classes and on the efficiency of the use of these instruments. The sub-purposes determined in line with the main purpose are the following;

1. Raising awareness among teacher candidates about measurement and evaluation methods by making them think about these methods,

2. Making teacher candidates think about the advantages, disadvantages and practicability of measurement and evaluation methods through their experiences,

3. Making teacher candidates think about the types and places of, and mistakes made in the application of measurement and evaluation methods through their experiences.

METHOD

This study was carried out according to the qualitative research approach and the case study method was employed. Case study is conducted in a natural environment such as a classroom, a neighborhood or an organization, aiming to produce a holistic interpretation of the environment or situations (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005).

STUDY GROUP

The study group of the research consisted of 84 teacher candidates studying Mathematics Teaching (41) and Science Teaching (43) in the faculty of education of a university in a middle-sized city located in Eastern Turkey in the Spring Semester of the 2011-2012 Academic Year.

DATA COLLECTION

To achieve the above purposes, the teacher candidates were asked the following questions;

1. What are the measurement and evaluation methods that professors use in their

classes? Rank them from the most frequent to the least.

2. Why do you think they use these measurement and evaluation methods?

3. Do you think the measurement and evaluation methods that professors employ in their classes are efficient? Why?

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Descriptive analysis was employed in the study. The aim in this method is to conceptualize the collected data, then to organize them in a logical manner, and finally to determine the themes that explain the data. In other words, its aim is to present the collected data to the reader in an organized and interpreted form (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005). In the research, the data collected through semi-structured interviews were subjected to descriptive analysis and similar data were put under certain codes and themes. Yıldırım & Şimşek (2005) suggested that in qualitative researches the validity can be obtained through expert opinions, participant approval and detailed description; whereas the reliability is ensured through a study of consistency and confirmation. In order to achieve the validity of the research, the results were confirmed through the responses given by three participants in the working group. On the other hand, in order to control the reliability of the research, the raw data of the research were given to an outside expert; and then the conclusions, interpretations and sugges-



tions that this expert produced out of those data were compared to those produced in this research. Besides, while discussing the findings of the research, detailed excerpts were presented under relevant themes, and thus, the quality of the research was increased. The data were organized and interpreted based on the final form of the analyses.

In this study, the responses given by students to interview questions were analyzed through generalizations in a way to be addressed in sections in which they were found necessary in line with the purpose of the research. Besides, exact quotations from students' responses were given at necessary points.

FINDINGS

The findings obtained in the research were analyzed separately for each question.

Findings obtained from the Analysis of the Question "What are the Measurement and Evaluation Methods that Professors Use in Their Classes?"

The results obtained from the analysis of the responses given to this question are presented in below Table 1:

Table 1

Analysis of the responses given to the question "What are the measurement and evaluation methods that professors use in their classes? Rank them from the most frequent to the least

<i>Measurement and evaluation methods</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>%</i>
Multiple-choice tests	52	61.9
Written examination classical open-ended questions	57	67.85
Correct-incorrect tests	23	27.3
Gap-filling	16	19
Project and performance assignments alternative measurement methods	19	22.6

As Table 1 shows, teacher candidates report that a majority of their professors mostly give midterm and final exams. A very low number of professors also give quizzes along with midterm and final exams. In these exams, they use open-ended questions (67.85%), multiple-choice questions (61.9%), gap-filling (19%) and correct-incorrect tests (27.3%). Teacher candidates report that only in a very limited number of courses professors give performance, research and project assignments and they evaluate them through portfolios and rubrics.

Findings obtained from the Analysis of the Question "Why do you think they use these measurement and evaluation methods?"

The results obtained from the analysis of the responses given to this question are presented in below Table 2:

Besides, Table 2 also includes the number (frequency) of Science and Mathematics teacher candidates who formed these categories and codes.

Table 2. Analysis of the responses given to the question “Why do you think they use these measurement and evaluation methods?”

	Categories	Number of Science teacher candidates	Number of Mathematics teacher candidates	Codes	Number of Science teacher candidates	Number of Mathematics teacher candidates
Responses that teacher candidates gave to the second question	Easy	12	11	To prepare	4	5
				To Evaluate	8	6
	Reliable results	6	7			
	Objective	11	13	Chance	3	7
				Comprehensive knowledge	4	5
				Targets	4	1
	Appropriate	7	4			
	Professional development	4	3			
Educational background	3	3				

As Table 2 shows, the responses given by teacher candidates form the following categories: “easy”, “reliable results”, “objective”, “appropriate”, “professional development” and “educational background”. The category of “easy” consists of the following codes: “to prepare” and “to evaluate”. A total of 14 teacher candidates who formed the former code reported that professors prefer conventional measurement and evaluation methods, because it is easier to read and evaluate the data obtained through these methods. On the other hand, nine teacher candidates who formed the latter code indicated that professors prefer these methods because they are easier to prepare. The teacher candidates who formed the code “reliable results” indicated that professors prefer conventional measurement

and evaluation methods based on the belief that they yield more reliable results in evaluating students compared to alternative methods. Teacher candidates with the codes (s21, s46, m5, m11, m23, m30) stated “because they believe they could get feedbacks more clearly and accurately” and teacher candidates with the codes (s4, s6, s31) said “in order to achieve the most reliable standard data that are close to real”. The category of “objective” consisted of the following codes: “chance”, “comprehensive knowledge” and “targets”. The teacher candidates who formed the code “chance” indicated that using conventional measurement and evaluation methods lowers and even zeroes the student’s chance of answering a question correctly even though she does not know the correct answer. Those who formed

the code “comprehensive knowledge”, on the other hand, reported that professors prefer conventional methods since they can easily determine students’ level of knowledge and their acquisitions from course contents. Those who formed the code “targets”, finally, stated that these measurement and evaluation methods are the best at determining if courses achieve their targets or not, and to what extent they do this. The teacher candidates who formed this code (s10, s27, m33, m41) expressed their opinions as follows; “in order to determine the level of accomplishing acquisitions...” and “..in order to determine acquisitions more healthily..” etc. The teacher candidates who formed the category of “educational background” suggested that professors prefer conventional measurement and evaluation methods as they have been trained in these methods and they possess the level of knowledge and skills to effectively implement these methods. Some of these teacher candidates (s42, m17, m25) expressed

their opinions as follows: “...since they can convey these methods more productively and better...”. The teacher candidates who formed the category of “appropriate” think that professors prefer the measurement and evaluation methods that they employ in their courses as they are the most appropriate ones for their courses. The teacher candidates who formed the category of “professional development” reported that professors prefer these measurement and evaluation methods in order to improve teacher candidates’ professional knowledge and skills.

Findings obtained from the Analysis of the Question “Do you think the measurement and evaluation methods that professors employ in their classes are efficient? Why?”

The results obtained from the analysis of the responses given to this question are presented in below Table 3:

Table 3 Analysis of the Responses given to the Question “Do you think the measurement and evaluation methods that professors employ in their classes are efficient?”

	Categories	Science teacher candidate	Mathematics teacher candidate	Codes	Number of science teacher candidates	Number of mathematics teacher candidates
Responses given by teacher candidates to the third question	Yes	3	4			
	Partially	7	4	Wrong course		
	No			Memorization	3	6
				Measurement instrument	19	22
				Measurement result	11	5

Table 3 shows that three categories have been formed: “yes”, “partially” and “no”. Seven teacher candidates reported that the measurement and evaluation methods they professors employ in their classes are efficient. A total of eleven teacher candidates who formed the category of “partially” formed the code “wrong course”. These teacher candidates stated that the measurement and evaluation methods are employed in wrong courses, that is, for example, performance based methods should be used in practical courses such as laboratory instead of conventional methods. The responses given by 66 teacher candidates who formed the category of “no” formed the following codes: “measurement result”, “measurement instrument” and “memorization”. The teacher candidates who formed the code “memorization” suggested that the measurement and evaluation methods that professors use are result-oriented and they drive students to memorize. Those who formed the code “measure-

ment instrument” indicated that professors cannot fully prepare these measurement and evaluation instruments. They reported that question distribution and selection are not made in a way that is fit for the purpose and, for example, exams include all difficult or all easy or randomly-prepared questions. The teacher candidates who formed this code (s2, s13, m34, m35) expressed their opinions as follows “*questions need to have degrees of difficulty; all difficult, all easy or randomly-prepared questions are not sufficient and reliable for measurement and evaluation*”. The teacher candidates who formed the code “measurement result” stated that the results obtained from the measurement and evaluation methods employed by professors fail to fully reflect the knowledge levels of students, that is, what they know and to what extent they know them. They expressed their opinions in the following forms: “*they fail to differentiate between who know and who do not*” and “*most of the time, we score higher or lower than we expect*” etc.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

It is a well-known fact that students' success cannot be determined through exams lasting a couple of hours. The understanding of measurement and evaluation should be spread throughout the process. In alternative measurement and evaluation approaches that adopt this understanding, a student's success and development are addressed together and the entire process is taken into consideration. It is of great importance to use these approaches, which ensure obtaining objective information about the student and the execution of measurement and evaluation in numerous dimensions (cognitive, emotional, psychomotor and social), for courses (Buldur, 2009). However, findings of this study indicate that professors mostly prefer written exams and multiple-choice tests, which are called conventional measurement and evaluation methods. These findings are in parallel with Doğan's (2009) findings.

With the program change in the Turkish education system in 2004, the constructivist approach along with alternative measurement and evaluation methods were included in the program for the first time in history. For these techniques to be used adequately in classes, teachers need to possess necessary knowledge and skills. This could only be achieved through the training given to them. Given the facts that teacher candidates are not competent enough in alternative measurement

and evaluation (Gömleksiz & Kan 2007) and that there exists a significant positive correlation between alternative evaluation practices and experience, the importance of teacher candidates' familiarity with these methods during their education becomes highly important (Bol, Ross & Nunnery 2002). In this study in which teacher candidates' experiences were addressed, it was determined that teacher candidates earn experiences in conventional measurement and evaluation methods rather than in alternative ones. Professors do not create educational environments in which teacher candidates can familiarize themselves with alternative methods through direct experience and they drive them to use conventional methods in their future professional lives.

Numerous researchers have indicated that conventional measurement and evaluation methods, which are also known as paper-pencil tests, are not sufficient in assessing students' achievements (Korkmaz, 2004; Butler & McMunn, 2006; Çakıcı, 2008). This is in parallel with the findings of this study that professors generally employ conventional methods for their courses and that these methods are not sufficient in evaluating students.

Departing from this point, it could be stated that it is important for professors, like teachers, to use measurement and evaluation instruments in a way that is suitable to the areas and qualities of courses and the qualities targeted to be provided

to individuals, because higher education influences all levels of education (Doğan, 2009). The findings of this study indicate that professors cannot use measurement and evaluation methods properly. This finding is in parallel with the finding of the study carried out by Aksu, Çivitçi and Duy (2008) that more than half of faculty of education students thinks that professors do not objectively measure and evaluate. The findings also overlap with those of the study conducted by Lei (2008) that professors need to be trained in measurement and evaluation and they should diversify the methods that they employ.

Schouller (2000) indicated that students develop learning approaches according to the measurement type and that tests and short-answer exams do not significantly contribute to learning and they drive students to memorize. This finding is in parallel with this study.

Measurement and evaluation instruments are of an important character in that they inform professors about the degree to which courses accomplish their objectives (Doğan, 2009). However, it was found in this study that the participants think that the methods employed by professors fail to reflect if courses achieve their targets or not, and to what extent they do this.

A very low number of professors give quizzes along with midterm and final exams. In these exams, they use open-end-

ed questions, multiple-choice questions, gap-filling and correct-incorrect tests. Teacher candidates report that only in a very limited number of courses professors give performance, research and project assignments and they evaluate them through portfolios and rubrics.

It was determined that teacher candidates think that their professors prefer conventional measurement and evaluation methods since they are easier to prepare and to assess. In addition, they think that these methods are objective; because using conventional measurement and evaluation methods lowers and even zeroes the student's chance of answering a question correctly even though she does not know the correct answer, it is easier with these methods to determine students' level of knowledge and their acquisitions from course contents, and these methods are the best at determining if courses achieve their targets or not, and to what extent they do this. It was determined that teacher candidates are of the belief that conventional measurement and evaluation methods assess students in a more accurate and reliable manner, that is, results obtained from these methods are more reliable than alternative methods. They also reported that these are the most suitable measurement and evaluation methods for courses and professors prefer them in order to improve teacher candidates' professional knowledge and skills. Finally, teacher candidates think that professors prefer conventional mea-

surement and evaluation methods as they have been trained in them and they possess the knowledge and skills to be able to implement these methods.

It was determined that teacher candidates do not see the measurement and evaluation methods employed by their professors as efficient. Given the fact that professors mostly use conventional methods, it was observed that teacher candidates find these methods result-oriented and encouraging memorization. Besides, they reported that professors are not capable of perfectly preparing these measurement and evaluation instruments, that is, question distribution and selection are not made in a way that is fit for the purpose and, for example, exams include all difficult or all easy or randomly-prepared questions. Teacher candidates also indicated that the results obtained from the measurement and evaluation methods employed by professors fail to fully reflect the knowledge levels of students, that is, what they know and to what extent they know them.

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ÖĞRETİM ÜYELERİNİN DERSLERİNDE KULLANMIŞ OLDUKLARI ÖLÇME VE DEĞERLENDİRME YÖNTEMLERİ VE BUNLARIN VERİMLİLİĞİ

Özet: Bu araştırmanın amacı; öğretim üyelerinin derslerinde hangi ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemlerini kullandıklarının ve bu ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemlerinin derslerde kullanımının ne düzeyde verimli olduğunun üniversite öğrencilerinin görüşlerine göre tespit edilmesidir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliği ve Matematik Öğretmenliği bölümlerine devam etmekte olan 4. sınıf öğrencilerinin görüşleri alınmıştır. Çalışma grubunu 2011-2012 öğretim yılı bahar yarıyılında Türkiye'nin doğusunda nüfus bakımından orta ölçekli bir ilindeki üniversitede eğitim fakültesi matematik öğretmenliğinde (41) ve fen bilgisi öğretmenliğinde (43) öğrenim gören toplam 84 öğretmen adayını oluşturmuştur. Bu çalışma nitel araştırma yaklaşımını doğrultusunda yürütülmüş olup, durum çalışması yöntemi kullanılmıştır ve içerik analizi yapılmıştır. Çalışmanın sonucunda; öğretmen adaylarının geleneksel ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemlerini sonuç odaklı olduğunu ve öğrencileri ezbere ittiğini düşündükleri saptanmıştır. Öğretim üyelerinin çok az bir kısmının ise; vize ve final sınavlarının yanında quizlerde yaptıklarını vurgulamaktadırlar. Bu sınavlarda ise; açık uçlu sorular, çoktan seçmeli sorular, boşluk doldurma, doğru-yanlış testlerini kullandıklarını vurgulamaktadırlar. Öğretmen adayları öğretim üyelerinin çok az derste; performans ödevleri, araştırma ödevleri, proje ödevleri vererek bunları da portfolyo ve rubriklerle değerlendirdiklerini belirtmektedirler. Öğretim üyelerinin çoğunlukla geleneksel ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemlerini kullanmalarının, bu yöntemlerin hazırlanmasının ve bu yöntemlerden elde edilen verilerin okunup değerlendirilmesinin kolay olmasından dolayı olduğunu düşündükleri tespit edilmiştir. Bununla birlikte, geleneksel ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemlerinin objektif olduğunu çünkü öğrencinin sınav sorusunun cevabını bilmediği halde doğru cevaplama şansını azalttığından hatta ortadan kaldırdığından, öğrencilerin konular hakkında sahip olduğu bilgiyi ve bilgi düzeyini daha rahat tespit edilebilmesinden ve derslerin içeriğindeki pek çok konu başlığında öğrencilerin kazanımlarını kolaylıkla saptanabilmesini sağlamanın-

dan dolayı olduğunu düşündükleri saptanmıştır. Buna ek olarak; öğretmen adayları geleneksel ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemlerinin objektif olmasını derslerin ulaşması gereken hedeflere ulaşp ulaşmadığının ve bu hedeflerin ne kadarına ulaştığının en iyi bu ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemleri ile tespit edilebilmesine bağlamışlardır. Öğretmen adayları geleneksel ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemlerinin daha doğru ve güvenilir bir biçimde öğrencileri değerlendirdiği yani bu ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemlerinden elde edilen sonuçların alternatif ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemlerine göre daha güvenilir olduğunu düşündükleri saptanmıştır. Öğretim üyelerinin derslerinde geleneksel ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemlerini tercih etmelerine neden olarak; derslere en uygun ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemi oldukları ve öğretim üyelerinin öğretmen adaylarının mesleki bilgi ve becerilerinin gelişmesi için tercih ettiklerini belirttikleri tespit edilmiştir. Bununla birlikte öğretim üyelerinin geleneksel ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemini derslerinde kullanmalarını, öğretim üyelerinin geleneksel ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemi ile eğitim almış olmalarına ve öğretim üyelerinin en iyi bu ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemlerini uygulayabilecek bilgi ve beceri düzeyine sahip olmalarına bağlamaktadırlar. Öğretmen adayları öğretim üyelerinin kullanmış olduğu ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemlerini verimli bulmadıkları belirlenmiştir. Öğretim üyelerinin büyük çoğunlukla geleneksel ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemlerini kullandıkları göz önüne alındığında, öğretmen adaylarının geleneksel ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemlerini sonuç odaklı olduğunu ve öğrencileri ezbere ittiğini düşündükleri saptanmıştır. Bununla birlikte öğretim üyelerinin bu ölçme ve değerlendirme araçlarını tam anlamıyla hazırlayamadıklarını yani kullanılan ölçme ve değerlendirme araçlarında, soru dağılımı ve seçimi işleminin amaca uygun bir biçimde yapılmadığını örneğin tamamı zor ya da kolay soruların veya rastgele hazırlanan soruların olduğunu ifade ettikleri tespit edilmiştir. Öğretmen adayları; öğretim üyelerinin kullanmış olduğu ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemlerinden elde edilen sonuçların öğrencilerin sahip olduğu bilgi düzeyini tam olarak ölçemediğini yani bu sonuçların öğrencilerin neyi ne kadar bildiğini tam anlamıyla yansıtamadığını düşündükleri saptanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler : Değerlendirme, Ölçme, Öğretim Üyesi, Öğretmen Adayları

BURNOUT IN PROFESSIONAL SOCCER PLAYERS: THE ROLE OF AGGRESSION AND ANXIETY

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Abstract: Burnout is a complex syndrome and it can be caused by cognitive, physiological, behavioral and situational influences of excessive stress as well as personal factors. Although it can be seen in all professions, it has been mainly associated with sports, especially with soccer for the last 10 years. The purpose of this study was to determine predictors of player' burnout levels related to age, marital status, education level, league level, position, and to determine the relationship between competition anxiety, competitive state anxiety and aggression of players. Participants were 554 professional male soccer players with a mean age of 24.40 + 2.88 years, completed the Athlete Burnout Questionnaire. Sport Competition Anxiety Test, The Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 and Aggression Inventory were used. A hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to predict burnout from anxiety and aggression. Results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated that age of the athletes ($\beta = .23$; $t = 5.02$; $p < .01$), competition anxiety ($\beta = .19$; $t = 4.45$; $p < .01$) and competitive state anxiety ($\beta = .23$; $t = 5.43$; $p < .01$) were significant predictors of players' burnout levels. Although aggression levels were insignificant predictor of athletic burnout. The current study has provided a good basis for identifying variables that may be associated with the players, but further research needs to be conducted with players in order to better understand the development of burnout in these populations.

Keywords: *burnout, soccer, aggression, anxiety, match fixing.*

INTRODUCTION

In general, Burnout has become a topic of increasing interest to the sport community. When asked what feelings they associate with being burned out, athletes and coaches often cite internal and external sources of pressure, physical and mental exhaustion, mood changes, increased anxiety, and lack of caring (Weinberg & Gould, 2007). When individuals

encounter dissatisfaction with their performance, are emotionally drained from the stress of their job, and eventually distance themselves from their clients or colleagues, they are considered to be professionally burned out (Arlotto, 2002). A neglected issue in sports in the past, burnout has become of growing concern in sport and exercise. Burnout in sport as defined by Raedeke and Smith (2001) as “ a psychological syndrome of emotional/

physical exhaustion, reduced sense of accomplishment, and sport devaluation.” The evidence for the problem of burnout in sport may be found in athlete’s recounts on their experiences of burnout and their withdrawal from sport. Burnout may involve a psychological, emotional, and in some cases a physical withdrawal from a sport or activity the athlete once pursued and enjoyed (Cox, 2007). In attempting to meet the overwhelming competitive pressures of sports many athletes experience conflicting physical, emotional, and mental demands which can in turn lead to burnout (Smith, 1986). Therefore, burnout can also be seen as a condition that results from excessive stress from an activity over an extended period of time. Athlete burnout has become of greater concern due to the potential performance decrements and negative welfare outcomes such as personal and family problems (Smith, 1986). Through a review of two studies on burnout it is understood that burnout is dynamic and multidimensional in nature and therefore may require many different intervention strategies, however this paper will focus on perhaps the two most widely accepted interventions for burnout; rest (time off from the offending activity) and relaxation. Cox (2007) presented a definition of burnout in sports as a syndrome characterized by both physical and emotional exhaustion. He offered also that burnout may also involve a reduction in athletic accomplishment. The athletes are not the

only ones who may experience the effects of burnout, coaches, athletic trainers and other administrative staff may also suffer from burnout sometime in their athletic career. burnout is a phenomena that can be described as emotional, physical and psychological secession from a previously enjoyable activity (Smith, 1986) and it can be caused by cognitive, physiological, behavioral and situational influences of excessive stress as well as personal factors (Gould, 1996). Since burnout involves several symptoms, it can be referred as a syndrome. Burnout consists of three components as (1) depersonalization, (2) emotional exhaustion and (3) low accomplishment motivation (Jackson et al., 1986). Later, Raedeke (1997) modified these components and modified depersonalization as devaluation for burnout in sports. It is reported that burned out people not only experience psychological effects of burnout but also physiological effects such as depreciation of energy resources, increased risk of cardiovascular diseases, inflammation and higher risk of injury (Gustafsson et al., 2011). These maladaptive psychological and physiological outcomes of burnout strongly affect performance and success in sports, more specifically in competitive team sports such as soccer which requires dedication of the player.

Although burnout term has been widely used for other professions since 1974, the effect of burnout on athletes and coaches has only been started to be studied after

Taylor et al. (1990) and Dale and Weinberg's (1990) studies. Taylor et al. (1990) stated that burnout may increase in soccer towards the end of the season with the fear of failure, exhaustion and increasing stress. Dale and Weinberg (1990) identified other stressors causing burnout as frustration, high expectations and pressure to perform. Alternatively Coakley (1992) explained burnout of athletes from a social perspective rather than stress based model. He stated that burnout is experienced due to more social concepts such as lack of participation and autonomy and missing other social experiences because of intense work in sport training. Burnout due to match fixing rumours may be associated with both stress based and social models. In addition, as Hunnicutt and MacMillan (1983) reported, lack of environment of trust is also an important determinant of burnout. The problem of burnout is not new. In fact, it has been studied for many years from a physiological perspective, it is only in the last few decades that burnout has been thoroughly investigated and discussed from a psychological perspective by scholars and researchers (Wiggins, Cremades, Lai, Lee, & Erdmann, 2006; Wiggins, Lai, & Deiters, 2005). Anxiety continues to be one of the most researched topics in sport psychology literature, with one of the major theoretical models used being the Multidimensional Anxiety Theory (Martens, Burton, Vealey, Bump, & Smith, 1990), which addresses the in-

tensity of cognitive and somatic anxiety associated with performance. Some researchers testing hypotheses derived from the Multidimensional Anxiety Theory have supported the model (Burton, 1988), while others indicate the theory seems not to predict accurately effects of anxiety on performance (Cerin, Szabo, Hunt, & Williams, 2000). Recently, investigators have expanded the theory by including a directional dimension in addition to the intensity dimension. Direction of anxiety, first examined by Jones and Swain (1992), is operationally defined as the athlete's interpretation of the effects of anxiety on performance as facilitative or debilitating. In some studies, direction of anxiety predicted better than intensity for comparisons of elite versus nonelite performers (Jones, Hanton, & Swain, 1994; Jones, & Swain, 1995). In addition to the previous studies of the state measures of direction of anxiety researchers have also examined direction of anxiety from a trait perspective. Competitive trait anxiety is a term which describes general feelings associated with stress and athletic performance. Such research to date with trait anxiety includes observed differences between athletes of different skill levels (Perry & Williams, 1998; Wiggins, 2001). Additionally, comparison by sex of high school athletes' direction of trait anxiety was investigated by Wiggins (2000). Although there appears to be considerable work on direction of anxiety and performance, there has been no in-

investigation of the relationship between direction of anxiety and other aspects of sport performance such as burnout. For instance, the inability to cope with anxieties and pressures associated with sports may place an athlete at a higher risk for burnout.

Aggressiveness is a behavior pattern that we frequently encounter in sports environments. It is defined as a negative personality feature regarding the types of sportive participation as well (Keeler, 2000). Aggressiveness in general is defined as “an overt verbal or physical act that can psychologically or physically injure another person or oneself” (Husman & Silva, 1984). Additionally, it is noted that there are two types of behaviors those we can label as aggressive. The first of these is hostile aggression and the other is instrumental aggression (Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Cox, 1994; Cratty, 1989) Hostile aggression is an impulsive behavior, contains rage (Bushman & Anderson, 2001) and aims to harm a person psychologically or physically. In instrumental aggression, the basic motive is to achieve a certain goal. Harming other people accidentally occurs during the process of achieving goals (Anshel, 1997; Weinberg & Gould, 1995). Besides these two types of aggressiveness, there is one more type of behavior that is frequently confused with aggressiveness. This behavior is called assertiveness. Assertive behavior is defined as escalated physical behavior including the use of appropriate verbal or

physical power and strategy in order to achieve a goal.

This study was conducted during postponement of soccer season by a month due to match fixing rumors in Turkey. The aim of this research was (a) to investigate the effects of match fixing rumours in Turkey on burnout level of professional soccer players as well as the role of aggression and anxiety and (b) to determine predictors of player’ burnout levels related to age, marital status, education level, league level, position, and to determine the relationship between competition anxiety, competitive state anxiety and aggression of players during match fixing rumours. As these rumours increase the pressure on soccer players and cause lack of environment of trust we hypothesized that match fixing rumours cause increased stress and burnout of soccer players. In this regard, this study was unique among the studies investigating the burnout of athletes. We also hypothesize that these rumours may increase aggression and anxiety of the players. In order to better understand the development of burnout in players based on the above findings, the main purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between professional soccer players’ burnout, their anxiety, and levels of aggression experienced by male soccer players. Studies show that the burnout experienced by athletes and coaches has different antecedents and perhaps even different psychological, physiological,

and behavioral consequences (Vealey, Udry, Zimmerman, & Soliday, 1992). Therefore, research in the area of athletes' burnout seems to be warranted not only in Turkey but also other parts of the world. Furthermore the understanding of the athletes' level of burnout, anxiety and aggression will assist coaches to use interventions with their athletes in order to correct problems and even avoid problems in the future. Players can experience burnout and can mentally and physically withdraw from a sport they once used to enjoy. So this study emphasizes that it is apparent that a great deal of significance rests in the understanding of burnout both by the coaches and players.

METHODS

Participants

A total of 554 Super league (n=20), First league (n=31), Second league (n=172), and Third league (n=331) male participants were aged 19 to 30 years (Mean = 24.4, SD = 2.88) volunteered for the study and their teams selected randomly. This study was conducted during postponement of soccer season by a month due to match fixing rumors. 31 of these soccer players were playing as a goalkeeper, 134 as a stopper, 55 as a fullback, 125 as a midfield, 79 as a wing and 130 as a forward player. 428 of these soccer players were single, 119 were married and 7 were divorced. Education levels of the players

included 18 elementary school, 10 secondary school, 225 high school, 45 associate, 128 university and 2 master degree. 74 of 554 players started playing soccer at the age lower than 7, 275 between 8-10, 132 between 11 and 13, 45 between 13 and 16 and 28 higher than 17. In addition, 90 of 554 players have been playing in professional league for less than a year, 139 for 2-4 years, 201 for 5-7 years, 68 for 8-10 years and 56 for more than 11 years.

Measures

This study is quantitative in nature and was conducted using a survey methodology. The researcher approached the coaches and players at their respective teams to get their permission to conduct the survey. Participants were given a demographics questionnaire and three inventories to fill out. The demographics survey asked the respondents to identify their age, marital status, educational level, division and position. The first inventory, Competitive Trait Anxiety Inventory-2D (CTAI-2D) and Sport Competition Anxiety Test (SCAT) were given for the purpose of collecting general anxiety perceptions related to the athlete's respective sport. Athletes also filled out the Athlete Burnout Questionnaire (ABQ; Raedeke & Smith, 2001) and Aggression Inventory which was developed by İpek İlter Kiper (Kiper, 1984). In this study Athlete Burnout Questionnaire (ABQ) was used for the assessment of burnout in professional soccer players. On the other

hand anxiety of the players was assessed from two perspectives as competitive state and competition anxiety. For the assessment of anxiety, Competition anxiety and Competitive state anxiety tests were used.

Athlete Burnout Inventory (ABQ). Athlete burnout questionnaire that is developed by Raedeke and Smith (2001) was used for the assessment of burnout of soccer players. The ABQ is a 15-item multi-dimensional questionnaire that measures three components of burnout in athletes, emotional/physical exhaustion (5 items), question no: 2, 4, 8, 10, 12, reduced sense of accomplishment (5 items), question no: 1, 5, 7, 3, 14, and devaluation (5 items), question no: 3, 6, 9, 11, 15. Each subscale is measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (almost never) to 5 (almost always). The emotional/physical exhaustion subscale indicates feelings associated with being emotionally and physically exhausted by the demands of training and competition (e.g., I feel “wiped out “from [sport]). The reduced sense of accomplishment subscale assesses athletes’ feelings of personal growth and successful achievement through their sport participation (e.g., I am not achieving much in [sport]). The devaluation subscale assesses athlete’s loss of interest in sport and their desire to withdrawal (e.g., I have negative feelings toward [sport]). In terms of reliability, Raedeke and Smith reported internal consistency estimates of .91 for emotional/physical exhaustion,

.85 for reduced sense of accomplishment, and .90 for devaluation.

The Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 (CSAI-2). Inventory was developed to assess the anxiety state by Martens et al. (1990). The CSAI-2 is a 27-item inventory composed of three 9-item subscales that measure cognitive state anxiety, somatic state anxiety, and self-confidence. Items are rated on a 4-point scale anchored by 1 (not at all) and 4 (extremely), with larger scores reflecting greater A-state and self-confidence. This scale corresponds to the range of scores (9 to 36) for each component in the CSAI-2. The Cronbach’s alphas for the Turkish translations of the CSAI-2 subscales used in the present study were: 0.82 (self-confidence), 0.88 (cognitive anxiety), and 0.74 (somatic anxiety) for female athletes; 0.87 (self-confidence), 0.89 (cognitive anxiety), and 0.76 (somatic anxiety) for male athletes. Additionally, test-retest reliabilities for the three scales were reported as 0.94, 0.96 and 0.92., respectively (Koruç, 1998).

Sport Competition Anxiety Test (SCAT). SCAT measuring continuous competition anxiety levels was developed in order to measure the level of anxiety of competitors in a competition by Martens (1977). This test is composed of 15 items aiming to measure anxiety level in a competition. While 10 of these 15 items is related to anxiety, 5 of them is testing items which aim to reduce subjective answers. All items

are answered as Never, Sometimes and Frequently. This scale's reliability testing for Turkish society was made by Özbekçi (1989).

Aggression Inventory. In the study, a 30-item aggression inventory which was developed by İpek İlter Kiper (Kiper, 1984) is employed in order to determine levels of aggression of football players. This inventory is a 30-item self-report measure with three subscales of 10 items each. The three subscales include Hostile aggression, Passive aggression and Assertiveness. Using a 7-point Likert scale, respondents indicated the degree to which they engaged in the above mentioned dimensions (from *not at all* to *very much so*).

Procedures

Head coaches were contacted by the authors, and asked to allow their players to participate in a study about anxiety, aggression and burnout. After an agreement was made with the coaches, inventories were administered during postponement of soccer season by a month due to match fixing rumors. Players were visited at their camping hotels and asked to fill athlete burnout questionnaire, aggression inventory, competitive anxiety test and competition state anxiety inventory by informing managers, coaches and players about content, aim and application of the tests in the observance of coaches and pollsters. Tests were translated in English for foreign players. . Along with the surveys, directions were also given on how

to handle the confidential and contact information; the questionnaires; and participant consent forms. In most cases, individual athletes completed the demographics questionnaire and the inventories during a team meeting. Otherwise, they were given to the athletes prior to practice. All information was then returned to the authors sealed in an envelope to help assure anonymity and confidentiality.

Analysis

In the analysis of the data obtained from the research, firstly, descriptive statistics was presented. Then, Pearson correlation analysis and multiple regression analyses with stepwise method were conducted to examine the relationship between burnout and variables. Three step hierarchical regression models were used to understand the effects of different predictor variables on professional soccer players' burnout levels. Age, marital status and educational levels were in first model. After than league level and game positions were used in second model. Competition anxiety and competitive state anxiety and aggression levels were used for in the last model of the hierarchical regression analysis. Veriler için IBM SPSS 20 programı kullanılmıştır.

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) and correlation matrix were presented in Table 1. The mean of aggression, competitive state anxiety,

burnout, competition anxiety and age were found for the sample (respectively, $M = 113.63$, $SD = 25.42$; $M = 63.17$, $SD = 6.74$; $M = 31.15$, $SD = 7.24$; $M = 30.48$, $SD = 3.14$; $M = 24.38$, $SD = 2.87$). Burnout was

significantly related to age ($r = .17^*$; $p < 0.01$), competition anxiety ($r = .20^*$; $p < 0.01$), competitive state anxiety ($r = .30^*$; $P < 0.01$).

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations of Variables

Variables	\bar{X}	SS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Burnout	31.15	7.24								
2. Age	24.38	2.87	.17*							
3. Marital Status			-.04	.32						
4. Educational Level			.04	-.25	-.04					
5. League Level			-.13	-.08	.09	-.08				
6. Position			-.05	-.05	-.18	.06	.05			
7. Competition Anxiety	30.48	3.14	.20*	-.16	-.08	.01	-.08	.21		
8. Competitive State Anxiety	63.17	6.74	.30*	.11	.03	.20	-.13	-.01	.17	
9. Aggression	113.63	25.42	.01	-.17	.13	-.13	.01	-.14	.06	.01

* $p < .01$

Three step hierarchical regression analyses was conducted in order to examine the effects of different predictor variables on elite soccer players' burnout levels (Table 2). Model 1 in hierarchical regression for athletic burnout covers ages, marital status and educational levels of players. After model 1, the model was significant, $R^2 = .05$, $\Delta F = 8.90$, $p < .01$. Although the marital status and educational level variables contributed to explain the variance on athletic burnout, ages of athletes ($\beta = .23$; $t = 5.02$; $p < .01$) was significant predictors for athletic burnout. In model

2, league level and player position were added to model. After controlling, the model was found insignificant. In model 3 adding competition anxiety, competitive state anxiety and aggression resulted in significant increment in the explained variance, $R^2 = .16$, $\Delta F = 21.5$, $p < .01$. After controlling league level and player position, competition anxiety ($\beta = .19$; $t = 4.45$; $p < .01$) and competitive state anxiety ($\beta = .23$; $t = 5.43$; $p < .01$) contributed significantly to the model.

Table 2: Results of Linear Regression Analysis

Model 1				R ²	Adj. R ²	Std. Dev.	R ² Chan.	F
Athletic Burnout				.05	.04	7.01	.05	8.90
	B	β	t					
Age of athletes	.57	.23	5.02*					
Marital Status	-1.86	-.10	-2.39					
Educational Level	1.36	.09	2.13					
Model 2				.06	.05	7.06	.01	3.5
Educational Level	1.27	.08	1.97					
League Level	-2.28	-.09	-2.15					
Position	-.85	-.06	-1.39					
Model 3				.16	.15	6.70	.10	21.5
Competition Anxiety	.43	.19	4.45*					
Competitive State Anxiety	.25	.23	5.43*					
Aggression	.01	.05	1.12					

* $p < .01$

DISCUSSION

In this study soccer players were evaluated from different perspectives such as competition anxiety, competitive state anxiety, aggression and burnout. It is especially important for this study to evaluate the burnout levels of professional soccer players at the time of postponement of soccer season in Turkey. In addition, the correlation levels between burnout, aggression, competition anxiety and competitive anxiety as well as age, education level, position, league and marital status are assessed.

Mean values of the parameters assessed in this study give that competition anxiety levels are quite high as its mean value is 30.48 in a 3 point scale. Therefore this anxiety level falls between sometimes and often. Thus total mean value for competition anxiety test comes out to be 37,7 which is much higher than the reported values for other athletes. For example Jensen (2010) reported this level as 22 for elite athletes. Aggression mean values as 113.63 over 7 point scale indicate that the overall aggression of soccer players is close to "neutral" which is close to the values reported previously

(Donahue et al., 2009). In addition to aggression and competition anxiety of the players, competitive state anxiety is also tested by using competitive state anxiety inventory. Mean value for the result of this test is found to be 63.17 (corresponds to “sometimes”). Thus mean total competitive state anxiety is calculated as 52.4 which falls in the range for high anxiety. This value is higher than previously reported values for soccer players (Horikawa & Yagi, 2012). Guelberto (2008) reported also Cognitive Anxiety Intensity, Self-Confidence Intensity, and Self-Confidence Direction are predictors of an athlete’s level of RA while controlling for gender and sport type, while gender is the only variable found to predict Exhaustion. In the study of Gümüşdağ (2013) showed that Hostile aggression was associated with Self-Confidence, Somatic Anxiety and Trait Anxiety. Self-confidence was the most important predictor of Hostile aggression. Passive Aggression was positively predicted by Somatic Anxiety, Self-Confidence and Cognitive Anxiety. In addition, Somatic Anxiety, Self-Confidence, Trait Anxiety and Cognitive Anxiety were significant predictors of Assertiveness. Somatic Anxiety was the most important predictor of Passive Aggression and Assertiveness. Moreover, mean burnout scores assessed by ABQ is calculated as 31.15 which corresponds to “sometimes” in the scale. This result is slightly higher than the data collected for young counterparts of soccer players

(Harris & Watson, 2011). By looking at the mean values, it may be concluded that match fixing rumours did not result in abnormal increase in aggression, competition state anxiety and burnout levels. However high competitive state anxiety increase may be associated with match fixing rumours. Further studies are required for confirmation of this relation.

Statistical calculations by using Student’s t test shows that aggression, burnout, competition anxiety and competitive state anxiety levels of soccer players are significantly correlated in $P < 0.01$ level. In addition to correlation of these parameters we found significant correlation between age and burnout, competition anxiety and burnout as well as competitive state anxiety and burnout. Interestingly, competition anxiety and competitive state anxiety status of the players is not found correlated. Previously reported studies that have also shown negative correlations between competition anxiety and competitive state anxiety points the contribution of self confidence evaluated within competitive state anxiety inventory (Martens et al., 1990). Wiggins (2005) indicated significant differences between the two groups, with the Facilitative group reporting lower mean scores on Burnout and Intensity of Cognitive Anxiety, while the mean Intensity of Self-confidence scores was significantly higher for the Facilitative group. Another significant correlation determined in this study is the relationship between

competition anxiety and burnout of soccer players. This correlation means that more burned out players experience less competition anxiety. This result seems contradictory when compared with the previous studies (Gualberto & Wiggins, 2008). However there is a positive moderate correlation between competitive state anxiety and burnout. This positive correlation is consistent with the previously reported data (Wiggins et al., 2005) and suggests that more burned out players experience a more comprehensive anxiety since competitive state anxiety inventory evaluates and tests anxiety from different perspectives. As hypothesized, athletes rating their trait anxiety as debilitating of performance reported a significantly higher mean Burnout score than those rating their anxiety as facilitative of performance. Even though the Debilitative group reported a higher mean Burnout score, both groups overall had relatively low mean scores. Nonetheless, athletes who perceive anxiety as debilitating appear to be more at risk for burnout, meaning that these athletes are expected to experience more emotional and physical exhaustion, devaluation of their personal accomplishments, and depersonalization toward their sport (Wiggins & Lai, 2005). Furthermore, correlation data of this study shows that aggression and burnout shows a insignificantly correlation which may imply that burned out professional soccer players tend to be less aggressive. Inconsistency with the literature at anxiety-

ety-burnout and competitive state-burnout correlations may be associated with the devaluation concept that may result in response to match fixing rumours. This perspective of burnout concept can be confirmed with further studies.

CONCLUSION

In this study, relationship between competitive state anxiety, competition anxiety, burnout and aggression were evaluated at an important time point for Turkish football and interesting deviations in aggression-burnout and competition anxiety-burnout correlations were determined. Although further studies are required for confirmation of these deviated correlations, this study may direct sport psychologists to study the effects of lowered environment of trust on burnout, aggression and competition anxiety; more specifically on devaluation. Thus, mental training might be used to mediate perceptions of burnout by teaching athletes to view their stress and anxiety associated with sport as more facilitative.

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PROFESYONEL FUTBOLCULARDA TÜKENMİŞLİK: SALDIRGANLIK VE KAYGI'NIN ROLÜ

Özet: Tükenmişlik karmaşık bir sendrom olup, aşırı stress, bilişsel, fizyolojik, davranışsal ve durumsal etkiler gibi kişisel faktörler neden olabilir. Tükenmişlik, insanda sadece psikolojik değil aynı zamanda fizyolojik olarak etkiler, enerji kaynaklarının kaybı, kardiovasküler riskindeki artış, enfeksiyon ve sakatlık riskinin artması örnek olarak verilebilir. Tükenmişlik her ne kadar spor'un bütün alanların da görülsede son 10 yıldır özellikle de futbolda sıkça karşılaşılmaktadır. Bu çalışmada Türkiye'de önemli bir yere sahip olan futbol da tükenmişlik, yarışma kaygısı, yarışma durumluluk kaygısı ve saldırganlık arasındaki ilişki ve tükenmişlik seviyesini etkileyen yaş, eğitim seviyesi, medeni durum, oyun mevkiisi ve lig seviyesi gibi faktörler değerlendirilmiştir. Bu çalışma Türk futbolundaki şike söylentileri üzerine bir ay ertelenen futbol sezonu döneminde rastgele seçilen Türkiye profesyonel ligindeki takımların buldukları kamplara gidilerek, gerekli presedürler ve izinler alınarak yapılmıştır. Bu çalışmaya Türkiye profesyonel liglerinde oynayan 19-30 yaşları arasında (ortalama= 24.4, SS= 2.88) toplam 554 erkek profesyonel futbolcu gönüllü olarak katılmış olup, çalışmanın amacı kendilerine açık bir şekilde anlatılmış ve demografik, tükenmişlik, kaygı, saldırganlık anket, envantör ve ölçekler uygulanmıştır. Bu çalışma da, profesyonel futbolcuların tükenmişlik seviyelerini değerlendirmek için Raedeke ve Smith'in, (2001) 15 maddeden oluşan ve 5 dereceli likert tipi cevaplanarak, 3 alt ölçek olan duygusal /fiziksel tükenme , düşük başarı duygusu (kişisel başarı) ve duyarsızlaşma için güvenilirliği sırasıyla .91, .85, .90 olan Atletik tükenmişlik anketi (ABQ) kullanılmıştır. Yarışma kaygısı algılarını belirlemek için için Martens'in, (SCAT, 1977) 15 maddeden oluşan ve Türkçe güvenilirliği Özbekçi (1989) tarafından yapılan testin 10 maddesinin kaygı ile ilgili olan, geri kalan 5 maddenin ise öznel cevap azaltan sorularla ilgili olan testi, yarışma durumluluk kaygısı için Martens ve arkadaşları'nın, (CSAI-2, 1990) 27 sorudan oluşan ve 4'lü Likert ölçeği olan 3 alt ölçekli Türkçe güvenilirliği sırasıyla .94, .96, .92 olarak Koruç (1998) tarafından yapılan envanter, futbolcuların saldırganlık seviyelerini ölçmek için de Kiper'in (1984) geliştirdiği

30 maddelik 3 alt ölçekli ve 7'li Likert tipi saldırganlık ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Cronbach alfa güvenirlik ve geçerlilik testi yapılarak verilerin ortalamaları, standart sapmaları, hesaplanarak Pearson Korelasyon analizi ve çoklu Regrasyon analizi yapılmıştır. Futbolcuların farklı değişkenlerinin, futbolcuların tükenmişlik seviyeleri üzerine etkilerini anlamak için üç adımlı hiyerarşik regresyon modeli kullanılmıştır. Birinci modeli yaş, medeni hali ve eğitim seviyeleri oluşturulmuştur. Daha sonra ikinci model de, lig seviyeleri ve oyun mevkiileri kullanılmıştır. Hiyerarşik regresyon analizi için son model de, yarışma kaygısı, yarışma durumluluk kaygısı ve saldırganlık seviyeleri kullanılmıştır. Model 1 ve 3'de belirgin ilişki bulunurken halbuki, model 2'de ilişki bulunmamıştır. Hiyerarşik regrasyon analiz sonuçları; sporcu'nun yaşı ($\beta = .23$; $t = 5.02$; $p < .01$), yarışma kaygıları ($\beta = .19$; $t = 4.45$; $p < .01$) ve yarışma durumluluk kaygıları ($\beta = .23$; $t = 5.43$; $p < .01$) arasında sporcuların tükenmişlik seviyelerinde belirlenmesinde bir ilişki tespit edilmiştir. Her ne kadar medeni halleri, oyun mevkiileri, eğitim seviyeleri, lig seviyeleri ve saldırganlık seviye değerleri yüksekse de bütün sporcuların tükenmişlik belirtileri ile ilişiksizlik ortaya çıkmıştır. Normal olarak saldırganlığın tükenmişliği tetiklediği düşünülse de çalışmamızda böyle bir ilişkiye rastlanmamıştır. Futbolcu yaşının tükenmişlik seviyesiyle ilişkili olması daha sakin ve tecrübeli olmalarına bağlanabilir. Yarışma kaygısı ve yarışma durumluluk kaygısının futbolcuların tükenmişlik seviyeleriyle ilişkili bulunması manidardır. Çalışmamız profesyonel futbolcuların tükenmişlik seviyelerini hangi değişkenlerin etkilediğini bilinmesi açısından spor adamlarına ve özellikle antrenörlere katkısı olacaktır ancak, bu konuda daha özel ve daha fazla çalışmalar da yapılmalıdır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Tükenmişlik, Futbol, saldırganlık, kaygı, şike söylentileri

LEADERSHIP AND SATISFACTION OF THE TURKISH YOUNG NATIONAL FOOTBALL TEAM PLAYERS

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Abstract: This study is intended to state the difference between the preferred and perceived actual leadership behaviours of the coaches by the players of the Turkish Young National Team. It is also intended to determine the relationship between the satisfaction level of the athletes and the leadership behaviour of the coaches. To provide data, both Athletic Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998) and Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) of Chelladurai have been applied (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). The research evaluates the leadership behavior in 5 different aspects. 7 dimensions of athletes' satisfaction are evaluated in our study. The data has been evaluated with the help of SPSS program and Frequency T Test, ANOVA analysis and Bonferroni test have been applied. As a result, when the preferences of young players are considered, trainers who will work with this age group are required to show interest in the personal development of the players, help them out of their problems and give them social support. The athlete's way of perceiving actual the leadership behaviour has certain differences in the aspects of both democratic behaviours, autocratic behaviours and positive feedback due to his personal qualities. The leadership behaviours which are perceived by the athletes are determined by the qualities that the trainer has.

Keywords: Coach, Soccer. Leadership, Athlete Satisfaction, Behavior, Player

INTRODUCTION

Sports have been improving economically, socially and culturally as they play an important role in the communication between countries. Especially football has always been the focus and is constantly attracting more and more spectators (Özerkan, 2000). What determines the nature of a group is the leader regardless of the job area they belong to (Ramsay, 2003). A coach needs to have certain qualities in order to manage a football

team. These qualities involve good communication skills with the footballers and between the footballers and to implement his philosophy about the game. This will eventually lead to success in sport (Erdem, 2005). Besides a successful coach is able to analyse the footballers (Casey, 2004). He determines the weaknesses of his players and trains them to make up for what they lack. Moreover, he analyses the tactics of his rivals and makes his players aware of them (Genç, 1998). A coach should know about his players'

preferences, requests and conditions and also evaluate them (Erdem, 2005).

A coach needs to be knowledgeable about the types of leadership so that he can prevent any conflict that may come up in the team. He must adopt the right behaviour pattern in order to motivate the athletes. Because athletes all differ psychologically and socially. So coaches have to update themselves and adapt to the novelties (Körük, 2003). In that way, they will serve well both for themselves and for the club they work for.

The style being applied by the coach has been gaining prominence in a team's success. Coaches' style becomes a factor in which skills and strategies are to be taught, how to make decisions, how to make preparations for the trainings and matches, which methods are to be applied in disciplining the players, and most of all, in which roles are to be casted to the players in taking decisions (Rainer, 1998). The basic problem of the players, which they encounter throughout the period of preparation for the matches, is the style of leadership being applied by their coaches. Tutko & Richard state that, numerous coaches, acting as the leaders, give credence to iron discipline, strictness of the rules, good motivation, and inhuman attitudes of the players, and that they are sensed as being autocratic (Tutko & Richard, 1971).

Sage, Chelladurai, Riemer, and Carron have developed the theoretical know-

ledge about leadership upon reviewing them. Chelladurai's multi-faceted leadership model puts forth the essential factors, required for rendering the leadership in a more conceptual condition. Due to the incongruity between the situational points of view, Chelladurai (1980), has put forth the Multi-Faceted Leadership Style (LSS) model. Three dimensions of the leadership behavior are given prominence in this model. Sportive satisfaction and performance outcome depends on the goodness of fit between three leadership behavior (required, preferred, and actual leadership behaviors) (Weinberg & Gould, 1989).

In the studies, having been conducted on the Leadersip styles of the coaches, who aim to improve the performance of their players by coaching them both physically, and mentally, Chelladurai, Haggerty, and Baxter (1989) have found out that, coaches choose more autocratic style the most, than their players, and that the players also tend to prefer autocratic style, more than participative style, while Salminen & Lukkonen (1996) have found out that, the coaches, who attach more importance to the emotions and opinions of their players, tend to develop better relationships with their players (Chelladurai, Haggerty and Baxter, 1989).

Weinberg & Gould (2003) have put forth that, the older, and the more mature the persons become as athletes, the ever-increasing ratios thereof prefer coaches,

who are authoritarian, and supportive as well from a social point of view. Garland & Baryy, as being concluded from their study, in which they inquire the effect of the leadership behaviors and individual characteristics on the players, who play football in college, as long as they were treated together, leadership behaviors and individual characteristics were found to contribute to a wide range of aspects, from performance to satisfaction. Players from this group are open-minded, extroverted, and emotionally stable players. Such players perceived their coaches as being highly instructive in their coaches, and with the style of making democratic decisions (Weinberg & Gould 2003).

This study is intended to state the difference between the preferred and perceived actual leadership behaviors of the coaches by the players of the Turkish Young National Team. It is also intended to determine the relationship between the satisfaction level of the athletes and the leadership behaviour of the coaches.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

PURPOSE

Purpose of this research is to ascertain the leadership behavior, which the Turkish footballers at national-team level would like to in their national team coaches, and to determine the relationship between the actual perceived behavior that the leader displays and the satisfaction of their own points of view. It has also been intended

herein to determine the differences between the behaviors, which the players would like to see in their coaches, and the actual behaviors they observed from their coaches, and the levels of their satisfaction as well, by way of taking the players' league categories, their positions, ages, and educational backgrounds, as well as the positions in which their coaches had played, their coaching durations, and the ages of their coaches as the criteria

METHOD OF RESARCH

Having the research arranged in accordance with the on-site inquiry method, a questionnaire form, which is consisted of 4 sections, was used. In the first section, the ages of the players, the educational backgrounds, the positions, and the league, in which they were playing thereof, as well as the positions in which their coaches had played, their coaching durations, and the ages of their coaches were asked. In the second and third sections, 5-fold Likert-type scale of leadership in the sports (actual perceived and preferred leadership), and in the last section Athletes' Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) were applied. Questionnaires were applied to a total of 100 footballers (20 of whom are from U-16 national team, 18 of whom are from U-17 national team, 25 of whom are from U-18 national team, 17 of whom are from U-19 national team, and the remaining 20 of whom are from U-20 national team) during their national team camps.

DATA COLLECTION

To provide data, both Athletic Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) and Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) of Chelladurai have been applied. Preferred and perceived version of Chelladurai and Saleh's (1980) Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS) were used to assess the leader behavior; training and instruction behavior, democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, social support, positive feedback behavior through both a preference (I prefer my coach to...) and a perceived version (my coach to...) version

The items are assigned a score between 1 and 5 (1= never, 5=always). (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). Validity and reliability of the scale was conducted by Toroa and Tiryaki (Toros & Tiryaki 2001).

Athletes' Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ), which has 15 sub-scales, was developed by Riemer & Chelladurai in the year 1998 (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). Its validity and reliability study was conducted by İnce. (İnce 2006). Validity and reliability of 7 sub-scales used in this study were reviewed by Türksoy and translated from English to Turkish and then Turkish to English by 5 translators. Also translated questions were asked to 5 football coaches in order to find out whether they can be understood by the players. About phrases in the questions that are not easily understood they were asked to suggest new ones and these suggestions were sent to the translators.

After that, the final amendments were checked (Türksoy 2008). In this study, 7 sub-scales (individual performance, team performance, strategy, personal treatment, training and instruction, team integration, academic support services) of it correlated to the leadership behaviors of coaches are used. While the scale was designed as 7-fold likert-type scale, it has been identified herein with "not at all satisfactory", "Moderately Satisfied" and "Extremely Satisfied" numerical values of which vary consecutively from 7 to 1.

THE ANALYSIS OF DATA

The data has been evaluated with the help of SPSS program and Frequency T Test, ANOVA analysis and Bonferroni Test have been applied. 100 players of Turkish National Football Teams (U16, U17, U18, U19 and U20) have participated in this research study. In every category, there are players that play in their true age group and those and those are permitted to play up. For example, the players at the age of 16 and below, in the U16 and the players at the age of 17 and below, in the U17.

3.FINDINGS

The related descriptive statistics of the answers which young national football team players' gave to the questionnaire.

Table 1: The descriptive information about the players who have joined the research.

Variable		N	%
The League played	U16	20	20.0
	U17	18	18.0
	U18	25	25.0
	U19	17	17.0
	U20	20	20.0
Position	Defence	31	31.0
	Midfield	33	33.0
	Offence	26	26.0
	Goalkeeper	10	10.0
Age	14-16	21	21.0
	17	35	35.0
	18-20	44	44.0
Education	High School	69	69.0
	University	31	31.0

Table 2. Information about the coaches as given by the football players who have joined the research.

Variables		N	%
The league played	U-16	20	20.0
	U-17	18	18.0
	U-18	25	25.0
	U-19	17	17.0
	U-20	20	20.0
Position	Defence	31	31.0
	Midfield	33	33.0
	Offence	26	26.0
	Goalkeeper	10	10.0
Age	14 -16	21	21.0
	17	35	35.0
	18 – 20	44	44.0
Education	High School	69	69.0
	University	31	31.0

Table 3. The conclusion of the T test which determines the differences of the leadership behaviours (LSS) of a coach as they are perceived and as preferred.

Variables		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	p
Training and Instruction	Perception	100	3.83	.43	1.648	.103
	Preference	100	3.90	.40		
Democratic Behaviour	Perception	100	3.57	.48	.619	.537
	Preference	100	3.61	.45		
Autocratic Behaviour	Perception	100	3.04	.54	1.211	.229
	Preference	100	3.13	.55		
Social Support	Perception	100	3.71	.52	2.391	.019
	Preference	100	3.85	.44		
Positive Feedback	Perception	100	3.79	.58	1.424	.158
	Preference	100	3.69	.59		

A meaningful difference do exist between the points, which were obtained from participant footballers hereto in the two implementations of the sub-dimension of social support of their coaches' actual perceived and preferred leadership behavior scales ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4. The mean and standard deviations of the scores obtained in the “Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire”

Variables		N	Minimal value	Maximum Value	Mean	Std. Deviation
Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ)	Individual Performance	100	1.33	5.00	3.67	.80
	Team Performance	100	1.33	5.00	3.72	.85
	Strategy	100	1.33	5.00	3.68	.82
	Personal Treatment	100	1.20	5.00	3.78	.82
	Training and Instruction	100	1.00	5.00	3.77	.88
	Team Integration	100	1.50	5.00	3.86	.78
	Academic support services	100	1.50	5.00	3.78	.81

Table 5. Bonferroni Test Results for LSS (actual perceived leadership) and ASQ dimensions according to players League.

Scale	*The league		Difference of means	p
Autocratic Behaviour (LSS- actual perceived)	U-16	U-18*	-.48	.020
	U-16	U-19*	-.50	.032
Team Performance (ASQ)	U-17*	U-20	.95	.004
Personal Treatment (ASQ)	U-17*	U-20	.76	.031
Training and Instruction (ASQ)	U-17*	U-20	.93	.008

* Group with higher values

Table 6. Bonferroni Test Results for LSS (actual perception leadership) dimensions according to players age.

Scale	Age		Difference of means	p
Democratic Behaviour	17*	18-20	.26	.034
Positive Feedback	14-16*	18-20	.45	.009

Homogeneous distribution is used for the categorization of the groups.

Table 7. Bonferroni Test Results for LSS (preferred leadership) dimensions according to coaches game position (as a former footballer).

Scale	Position played by the coach		Difference of means	p
Democratic Behaviour	Orta saha	Kaleci*	-.48	.007

Table 8. Bonferroni Test Results for LSS and ASQ dimensions according to the Technical Directorship duration of the coach.

Scale	Technical Directorship Duration of the Coach.		Difference of means	p
	3-5 year	6-8 year*		
Autocratic Behaviour (Preferred)	3-5 year	6-8 year*	-.48	.020
	3-5 year	9 and over*	-.51	.018
Team Performance (ASQ)	3-5 year	6-8 year*	-.82	.009
Training and Instruction (ASQ)	3-5 year	6-8year*	-.92	.004

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

What has been intended herein is to ascertain the difference between the actual perceived leadership behaviors, which the Turkish footballers players, who play at U16, U17, U18, U19, and U20 national-team levels observe in their national team coaches, and the ones they would prefer to see from their national team coaches from their own points of view, and to inquire the compatibility of the difference between the levels of athletes' satisfaction, and the leadership behaviors. A total of 100 footballers participated herein, 31 of whom play in the defense, 33 of whom play in the midfield, 26 of whom play in the attacking field, and the remaining 10 of whom are goalkeepers. 69% of the group is high-school graduates. Taking the ages of the coaches into consideration, only 12% thereof are 50 years old, and more. In Turksoy's study on the Super League players, 16.7% of them are at the age of 50, and above. In Turksoy's study (2011) on 107 footballers range from the age of 12 to 14, no coaches older than the age of 30 could have been chanced upon

(Türksoy, 2008; Türksoy *et al.*, 2011). According to these results, it may well be said that, football coaches in Turkey may not be able to sustain their professional lives to their advanced ages.

While it has been ascertained in our research that, 89% of the coaches have coaching experiences of 6 years and longer, in a research among Super League players, it has been found out that, the technical directorship experiences of the coaches serving in this league are also for a period of 6 years and longer in general (Türksoy, 2008). In reference to this outcome, it may be said that serving in the national team do require knowledge and experience.

In consideration of the periods, throughout which the players works with the national team coaches, 53.0% thereof are seen to have worked together for a period of 1-2 year(s). The ratio of the coaches, having worked with the players for 3 years and above is only 7.0% Such a situation may be described with the fact that, the terms of service of the coaches in general,

serving in the federations, are bound at most with the terms of service of the chairpersons of their federations.

It has been seen among the coaches serving in the professional leagues that, they usually work in their clubs for one term, and no longer than two terms at most, and that they are frequently changing clubs.

In the research, footballers considered the highest dimension of the actual leadership behavior, which they had perceived from their coaches, as instruction and training. In other words, they are content with the instructions they are receiving from their coaches. They not only marked the lowest point to the autocratic behavior being revealed by their coaches, but also to the autocratic behavior among the leadership behaviors they prefer, and they thereby made it clear that they would prefer no more autocratic behaviors than those being revealed in the current situation. Taking a glance at the points given to the autocratic and democratic behaviors, they saw their coaches as more democratic, and made their choices respectively.

In the study of Chelladurai *et al.* (1988), which sought after the effect of cultural variance on the university students in terms of sports leadership, while Japan athletes were perceiving the autocratic behavior at high levels, Canadian athletes were perceiving instruction and training, democratic behavior, and positive feed-

back (Chelladurai *et al.*, 1988). Körük, in a study for determining leadership behavior types of the amateur football coaches, and the motivation techniques being applied by them, has ascertained that, majority of the amateur football coaches tend to display a democratic-weighted situational leadership (Körük, 2003).

While the actual leadership type being sensed by the footballers from their coaches and the leadership styles being preferred by the same footballers have been compared herein, it has been seen that, they did not prefer any application better than the existing one in the sub-dimensions of instruction and training, autocratic behavior, democratic behavior, and positive feedback. In addition thereto, they were only expecting more social support from their coaches. In the study of Chelladurai *et al.* (1988), while Japan athletes preferred autocratic behaviors and social support more, Canadian athletes preferred instruction and education. In parallel with the choices of the players, it is deemed significant for the coaches to treat each footballer as an individual, to help them in their personal problems, to create a positive atmosphere within the team, and thereby to establish sincere relationships therein. The closer are the actual leadership behaviors of the players' coaches to the players' preferred leadership behaviors, the higher will the athletes' satisfaction dimension escalate in the same direction. It has been ascertained that, the footballers gain the highest

satisfaction from the integrity of their teams, while they gain the least satisfaction from the individual performances. In other words, an athlete's discontent with his/her own performance may be correlated with the athlete's own self, more than with his/her coach.

Having taken the athletes' qualities (the league in which the players were playing, the position of the players, as well as the ages and educational backgrounds thereof) as the criteria, and taking a glance at the perceived actual leadership behaviors, preferred leadership behaviors, and athletes' satisfactions over these criteria, while no difference was chanced upon as per the positions in which the players were playing, and the educational background thereof as well, the awaited differences were chanced upon as per the league in which the players were playing, and as per the ages thereof. As per the league in which the footballers play, difference was chanced upon at the sub-dimension of autocratic behavior among the coach's actual leadership behavior. Such a difference is lower among the U-16 footballers, than that among U-18/19 footballers ($p < 0.05$). In other words, U-16 players find their own coaches acting less autocratically in view of the U-18/19 players. However, no meaningful difference exists among other league groups. In the athletes' satisfaction scale, the points of the sub-dimensions of satisfaction from the team's performance, satisfaction from the individual behavior, and satisfaction

from the trainings are meaningfully higher among U-17 footballers than those among the U-20 footballers ($p < 0.05$). However, no meaningful difference exists among other groups. In Türksoy's study (2008) among the Super League and 1st Division players, while Super League preferred more instructions and trainings, 1st Division players preferred autocratic behaviors more (Türksoy, 2008). In our research, while no difference was chanced upon in terms of the actual and preferred leadership behaviors as per the position the player plays in, and that of the satisfaction being obtained by the player, difference was chanced upon as per the age of the player in terms of the actual perceived and preferred leadership behaviors. Meaningful difference was chanced upon among those at the age of 17, and those between 18-20, in terms of the democratic sub-dimension of the coach's actual leadership behavior ($p < 0.05$). Points of those from the age 17 are meaningfully higher than those of age range of 18-20. In other words, the coaches' of the footballers from the age range of 17 do act more democratically. As per the preferred leadership behavior, the age range of 14-16 is ranked meaningfully higher than the age range of 18-20 in terms of the sub-dimension of the positive feed-back. As a consequence, taking the qualities of the athletes' as criteria, difference was chanced upon the autocratic and democratic dimensions of the actual perceived leadership behavior. Besides, it was further ascertained to be

influential on the dimension of satisfaction being obtained by the athletes.

Taking the coach's qualities (the positions they had played in, coaching durations and ages thereof) into consideration, no difference was chanced upon the sub-dimensions of the actual leadership performance of the players' coach. Having chanced upon a difference in the sub-dimension of democratic behavior of the preferred leadership behavior, the difference in question is meaningfully lower among the footballers, whose coaches are used to be midfielders, than among those, whose coaches are used to be goalkeepers ($p < 0.05$). In other words, it being less expected from the footballers, whose coaches are used to be midfielders, to deem democracy as their preferred leadership behavior, than those, whose coaches are used to be goalkeepers.

In their study, conducted among the footballers at the college, Garland & Barry (1990) inquired the influence of the leadership behaviors and personal characteristics on the performance of the players. In view of the attained result, dealing with them together, leadership behaviors and personal characteristics are deemed to bring significant contributions in numerous factors from performance to satisfaction. Coaches were actual perceived as with high dimension of trainings and instructions, and possessing democratic decision-taking style, coaches' social supports and positive feedbacks to the athle-

tes were correlated with high performance, while the performances of the other players, who had actual perceived their coaches as possessing autocratic decision-taking style, were observed at lower levels (Garland & Barry 1990).

In view of the points of the sub-dimensions of the preferred leadership behavior and athletes' satisfaction according to the coaches' coaching durations, the difference was chanced upon in the autocratic dimension of the preferred leadership behavior, and in the satisfaction from the team's performance, and satisfaction from the individual performance in terms of athletes' satisfaction ($p < 0.05$). Autocratic dimension of the leadership behavior being preferred by the footballers in their coaches is lower in coaches with 3-5 years of coaching durations than that of those with 6-8 years, and more than 9 years of coaching durations. It may be said that, coaches tend to act more democratically in the beginning of their careers, they then incline towards autocracy in the course of time. Garland & Barry (1990) stated that, top-level coaches tend to act democratic in the trainings, and autocratic in such situations being influential on the athletes, such as competitions. Less experienced, or rookie coaches are also less experienced in athletes' management. That is why they do have focusing problems in such issues as training, instructing and in positive feedback, and this constitutes the learned theoretical point of view to one point at the least (Garland & Barry 1990).

Coaches with coaching durations of 3-5 years are lower in terms of the athletes' satisfaction scale's dimensions of satisfaction from the team's performance, and satisfaction from the instructions and training, than those of the coaches with coaching durations of 6-8 years. No meaningful difference was chanced upon in terms of other coaching durations. Out of this conclusion, it may be said that, professionally experienced coaches bring more satisfaction in the athletes in the dimension of instructions and training, and in the team harmony.

In terms of the coach qualities, the most effective criterion has been found as the coaching duration, and this criterion has further been found to be influential on the footballers' preferred leadership behaviors in their coaches, and on the satisfaction they obtain. Coaches' leadership behaviors also act decisively on the level of athletes' satisfactions. The outcomes of our study further support the view that, the leadership behavior is an influential factor on the performance, and on the satisfaction, and consequently on the success. Due to the fact that the participant players of our research have been expecting more social support from their coaches, than they were being provided with at the time, the coaches to be working with junior players should have been taught in such topics as child and adolescent development, communication, empathy, etc.

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TÜRK GENÇ MİLLİ FUTBOL TAKIMINDA LİDERLİK ALGILAMASI VE TATMİN

Özet: Bu çalışma Türkiye’de genç milli futbol takımlarında görev yapan futbolcuların antrenörlerinde algıladıkları gerçek liderlik davranışı ile tercih ettikleri lider davranışları arasındaki farkı oyuncuların kendi görüşleri içerisinde tespit etmek ve sporcunun tatmin düzeyi ile lider davranışı arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemek amacıyla yapılmıştır. Veri elde etme aracı olarak Chelladurai’nin Sporda Liderlik Ölçeği (Chelladurai ve Saleh, 1980) ve Sporcu Tatmin anketi (Riemer ve Chelladurai, 1998) uygulanmıştır. Araştırmamızda lider davranışı beş alt boyuttan; demokratik davranış, otokratik davranış, eğitim ve antrenman, sosyal destek ve pozitif geri bildirim açısından değerlendirilmiştir. Sporcu tatmin anketi ise 15 alt boyut olup antrenörün liderlik davranışıyla ilişkisi olacağı düşünülen 7 alt boyut ele alınmıştır. Ele alınan 7 alt boyut; bireysel performanstan tatmin, takım performansından tatmin, stratejiden tatmin, kişisel davranıştan tatmin, eğitim ve antrenmandan tatmin, takım bütünlüğünden tatmin ve akademik destek hizmetlerinden tatmindir. Araştırmaya Türkiye Futbol federasyonu tarafından milli takıma çağrılan ve kamp eğitimine katılan toplam 100 sporcuya uygulanmıştır. Çalışmada elde edilen bulgular SPSS programında değerlendirilirken frekans dağılımları, ortalama ve standart sapma, T testi, Anova ve Bonferroni analizleri yapılmıştır. Anova sonucunda farklılığa rastlanan boyutlar için bonferroni yapılmış ve bonferroni analizinde de farklılık görülen sonuçlar çalışmaya yansıtılmıştır. Sonuç olarak futbolcuların antrenörlerinde algıladıkları gerçek liderlik davranışı ile tercih ettikleri lider davranışları karşılaştırılmış, demokratik davranış, otokratik davranış, eğitim ve antrenman ve pozitif geri bildirim var olan mevcut durumdan daha iyisini tercih etmedikleri görülmüştür. Fakat oyuncular antrenörlerinden mevcut olandan daha fazla sosyal destek görmek istediklerin ifade etmişlerdir. Bu nedenle bu yaş grubu ile çalışacak antrenörlerin ergen gelişimini iyi bilmesi, sosyal yönden oyuncuyu destekleyici olması, empati becerisini geliştirmesi ve doğru iletişim şeklini uyguluyor olması önemli olmaktadır. Oyuncunun niteliklerine göre algılanan gerçek liderlik davranışının demokratik ve otokratik davranış ve pozitif geri bildirim boyutunda farklılıklar vardır. Antrenör özelliklerine göre ise lider davranışının otokratik, demokratik davranış boyutunda sporcunun aldığı tatminde ise takım performansı ile eğitim ve antrenmandan tatmin boyutu üzerinde etkilidir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Antrenör, Futbol, Liderlik, Tatmin, Davranış, Oyuncu

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS' ACHIEVEMENT GOALS AND ATTITUDES TOWARD PHYSICAL EDUCATION CLASSES

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Abstract: The aim of this study is to determine the relationship between secondary school students' attitude towards physical education classes and their achievement goal orientations. The participants of the study consist of 212 secondary school students 129 (60.8%) of whom are boys and 83 (39.2%) are girls. It has been found out that the attitudes of students is significantly related to Outcome Orientation Without Effort sub-dimension ($p < .05$). It has been found that students having negative attitudes towards physical education classes have higher scores of outcome orientation without effort than those exhibiting a positive attitude ($p < .05$). Secondary school students' attitude towards physical education classes and their achievement goal orientation do not differ by gender.

Keywords: Motivational climate, attitudes, goal orientation, physical education.

INTRODUCTION

Physical education classes are primarily responsible for the lack of participation in physical activity in the modern society (De la Cruz-Sánchez et al., 2011). Physical education class is an important and necessary means for students to participate in physical activities and to look healthier and better. Therefore, physical education classes are required to be further strengthened within school structure (Cale, 2000). Performing physical education classes effectively and regularly may help develop positive attitudes of students towards physical activity (Ntoumanis, 2002). Attitudes which include individuals' perceptions, opinions and judgments of a certain

behaviour and which are extremely important for the formation of an active lifestyle (Digelidis et al., 2003) have been a popular subject for research carried out in the field of sports and physical activity participated by the young and children in the last two decades (Sit and Lindner, 2005). The results obtained from these studies reveal that students' positive attitudes towards physical education classes play an important role in their active lives outside the school (Subramaniam and Silverman, 2007).

Among the main objectives of physical education classes is included developing necessary knowledge, attitude and skills of children and the young to perform physical activities in an active life style

and strengthening their motivation (Chatoupis and Emmanuel, 2003; Chen and Ennis 2004; Green, 2008). Motivation, analyzed in human psychology and behaviour, is considered as an extremely effective and complex construct for individuals to manage time for a particular task, determine their method, organize their energy and form their opinions and desires (Urdan and Schoenfelder, 2006). This complex construct has held its popularity in the studies on physical education classes (Warburton and Spray, 2008). Experts in this field state that in order to increase participation in physical education classes, in physical activities outside the school and in sports for free time and health, students' motivation should be developed positively (Robazza et al., 2006).

The contribution of attitudes is great in strengthening student motivation for exercise and developing behaviours positively (Hagger and Chatzisarantis, 2005). There are studies stating that student attitudes directly affect the possible relationship between their searches for support and achievement orientations (Tanaka et al., 2002). The primary objective of all educational processes, including physical education, is to increase learning motivation of students (Erpič, 2011). Motivation is considered to affect learning outcomes directly and to be the fundamental factor to realize successful learning (Butterworth and Weinstein, 1996; Chen,

2001). Thus motivation may be claimed to be a significant factor in the formation of behaviours and attitudes.

Pedagogues, besides pointing out the need to determine the factors affecting achievement, emphasize the necessity for expressing clearly the relationships of these factors with attitudes (Subramaniam and Silverman, 2007; Abu Bakar et al., 2010). In the studies focusing on the importance of the relationship between attitude and orientation for achievement motivation in the field of physical education, it is emphasized that student attitude is required to be developed in a positive direction (Subramaniam and Silverman, 2000; De la Cruz-Sánchez et al., 2011).

There are four important theories of achievement motivation among motivation theories. These theories are; the theory of need for achievement claiming that personal and situational factors are the determiners of behaviour, attribution theory focusing on how individuals explain achievements and failures, efficacy theory used to explain achievement behaviour especially in children, achievement goal theory in which an individual's motivation is determined by his achievement goals, perceived ability and achievement behaviour (Weinberg and Gould, 2003).

Achievement goal theory, which emphasizes that the most basic drive of an individual is to be competent and successful (Sit and Lindner, 2005), is a

social cognitive construct developed with the aim of assessing abilities and determining the direction of achievement perception (Nicholls, 1989). The aim of this social cognitive construct is (Nicholls, 1989) to determine students' learning orientation and density within a practice aimed at the goals set (Stornes et al., 2008). Achievement goal theory is designed over two different goal orientations being learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation (Ames and Archer, 1988; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Nicholls, 1984). Performance goal orientation explains the concerns of an individual to gain superiority with little effort over others and to avoid looking incompetent before others. Task goal theory, on the other hand, is concerned with increasing individuals' abilities through learning (Xiang et al., 2003; Ingles et al., 2009).

As attitudes directly affect student behaviour (Rikard and Banville, 2006), it is important to examine the motivational processes influencing their attitude and behaviour towards physical activities (Vierling et al., 2007). The aim of this study is to determine the relationship between secondary school students' attitude towards physical education classes and their achievement goal orientations.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

PARTICIPANTS

212 secondary school students, 129 (60.8%) boys and 83 girls (39.2%)

participated in the study selected by the convenience sampling method. 42 (19.8%) students are at the fifth grade, 32 (15.1%) students are at the sixth grade, 63 (29.7%) at the seventh grade and 75 (35.4%) at the eighth grade. The average age of the students was found to be 13.26 ± 1.45 .

MEASURES

Attitude scale of physical education and sport: Attitude scale of physical education and sport developed by Demirhan and Altay (2001) includes one single dimension and 24 items 12 of which are positive and 12 negative. The Coefficient of internal consistency of the scale is .93. The correlation coefficient for the scale is .83. Each item in the scale is answered over a five-point likert scale ranging from 1 "strongly disagree" and 5 "strongly agree". In the interpretation of the findings obtained following data analysis, arithmetic means between 1.00 and 3.00 represents negative attitude while means between 3.01 and 5.00 reveal positive attitude.

Learning and performance orientations in physical education classes' questionnaire: The questionnaire developed by Papaioannou (1994) and adapted into Turkish by Kiremitci (in press) consists of five sub-dimensions namely Teacher-Initiated Learning Orientation, Students' Competitive Orientation, Students' Worries About Mistakes, Outcome Orientation Without Effort, and Students' Learning



Orientation. The 27 items in the scale are answered over a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 “strongly disagree” and 5 “strongly agree”. In the adaptation study carried out by Kiremitci (in press), coefficients of internal consistency belonging to the sub-dimensions of the scale range between .78 and .89. Fit indexes obtained as a result of the CFA were calculated as $\chi^2= 691.83$; $df= 314$ ($\chi^2/df=2.20$) and $RMSEA= .064$, $SRMR= .054$, $NNFI= .91$, $CFI= .92$, $IFI= .92$ and $GFI= .85$.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

In accordance with the aims of the study, scores regarding students’ attitudes towards physical education classes were calculated in the first place and students with positive and negative attitudes were determined. Pearson correlation test was used in order to identify the possible relationship between students’ attitudes towards physical education classes and goal orientations sub dimensions. Students’ goal orientations towards physical education classes were analyzed by using t-test according to attitude differences. All statistical analyses carried out within the scope of the study were done with SPSS 13.0 package program and the degree of significance was determined as .05.

RESULTS

Assessing the mean scores of students on the physical education and sports attitude scale, overall attitude towards physical

education classes has been found to be positive ($4.08 \pm .69$). 180 (84.9%, mean= $4.30 \pm .48$) of the participants exhibited a positive attitude while 32 (15.1%, mean= $2.81 \pm .11$) of them had a negative attitude (Table 1).

Table 1. Means scores and standard deviations for students on attitudes toward physical education

	N	%	Mean	Sd.
Positive attitude	180	84.9	4.30	.48
Negative attitude	32	15.1	2.81	.11
General attitude	212	100	4.08	.69

It has been concluded that the sub dimensions forming students’ goal orientations in physical education classes have significant relationships among themselves ($p<.01$) while the variable of attitude has a significant relationship only with the Outcome Orientation Without Effort sub dimension ($p<.05$) (Table 2).

Table 2. Correlations between goal orientations and attitudes toward physical education on secondary school students

	TILO	SWAM	SCO	OOWE	ATPE
SLO	.728**	.396**	.651**	.276**	.081
TILO		.353**	.597**	.300**	.049
SWAM			.343**	.457**	-.006
SCO				.278**	.117
OOWE					-.141*

* $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$

Students’ Learning Orientation = SLO, Teacher-Initiated Learning Orientation = TILO, Students’ Worries About Mistakes = SWAM, Students’ Competitive Orientation = SCO, Outcome Orientation Without Effort = OOWE, Attitudes toward physical education = ATPE

It has been found that the groups formed according to the direction of students' attitudes towards physical education classes have significant differences only with the Outcome Orientation Without Effort sub dimension ($p < .05$) among the sub dimensions comprising goal orientations in physical education classes. Students having a negative attitude towards physical education classes have been found to have higher scores in completing a task without effort than those having positive attitudes (Table 3).

Table 3. Comparison of positive and negative attitudes of secondary school students on goal orientation in physical education classes

	Aspect of Attitude	N	Mean	Sd.	t
SLO	Negative Attitude	32	3.87	.81	-.165
	Positive Attitude	180	3.90	.80	
TILO	Negative Attitude	32	3.93	.83	.402
	Positive Attitude	180	3.86	.82	
SWAM	Negative Attitude	32	3.58	.98	.743
	Positive Attitude	180	3.46	.80	
SCO	Negative Attitude	32	3.74	.80	-.118
	Positive Attitude	180	3.83	.87	
OOWE	Negative Attitude	32	3.37	.97	2.218*
	Positive Attitude	180	2.98	.89	

* $p < .05$

In the scores which students obtained from the sub dimensions of attitude and goal

orientation towards physical education classes, no significant difference has been found between genders (Table 4).

Table 4. Comparison of gender differences of secondary school students on goal orientations and attitudes toward physical education classes

	Gender	N	Mean	Sd.	t
SLO	Female	83	3.90	.79	.116
	Male	129	3.88	.81	
TILO	Female	83	3.86	.85	-.207
	Male	129	3.89	.82	
SWAM	Female	83	3.49	.82	.172
	Male	129	3.47	.84	
SCO	Female	83	3.83	.78	.143
	Male	129	3.81	.90	
OOWE	Female	83	3.05	.84	.127
	Male	129	3.03	.96	
ATPE	Female	83	4.09	.73	.296
	Male	129	4.06	.67	

DISCUSSION

The fact that secondary school students have highly positive attitudes towards physical education classes supports the results obtained in the studies carried out by researchers such as Subramaniam and Silverman (2007), Toriola (2010), Dismore and Bailey (2010) and Zeng et al. (2011). Considering the relationship between students' attitudes towards physical education classes and goal orientation sub- dimensions, it has been found that there is a significant relationship between attitude and Outcome Orientation Without Effort ($p < .05$). Moreover, in the analysis done regarding goal orientation sub dimensions among student groups exhibiting positive and negative attitudes, a significant difference has been identified

in the Outcome Orientation Without Effort sub dimension. Also, students with negative attitudes have been found to have higher scores in the Outcome Orientation Without Effort sub dimension than those exhibiting positive attitudes. In his study Papaioannou (1994) states that in order for students to succeed in physical education classes, positive attitudes towards the class and high efforts are required together. In addition, Solmon (2003) asserts that students having positive attitudes towards physical education classes are more willing at participation in the class and putting effort, students with negative attitudes, on the other hand, do not comply with the instructions given by the teacher and do not try to solve the problems that come up. Therefore, motivations of students with negative attitudes may be increased and they may be supported to have more fun in the class and put more effort. In his study, Ntoumanis (2002) states that students develop negative attitudes when they do not enjoy a class. In their studies, Koca and Hein (2003) and De la Cruz-Sánchez et al., (2011) claim that there is a relationship between positive attitudes towards a class and students' motivation and willingness to put effort.

The finding that students' attitudes towards physical education classes do not differ between girls and boys supports the results of the studies of Gürbüz and Özkan'ın (2012), Kamtsios (2010) and Subramaniam and Silverman

(2007). This conclusion is not; however, parallel with the findings of Silverman and Subramaniam (1999), Chung and Phillips (2002), Şişko and Demirhan (2002), Hünük and Demirhan (2003), Koca and Demirhan (2004), Koca and Aşçı (2004; 2006), Taşgın and Tekin (2009) and Yoncalık (2011). This reveals that the effect of the variable of gender on attitude has not yet been clearly identified.

Using the same scale in the present study Flores et al. (2008) examined students' goal orientations towards physical education classes in terms of gender differences and found significant differences in the sub dimensions of Students' Worries About Mistakes, Students' Competitive Orientation and Outcome Orientation Without Effort which form a student's performance orientation. This significant gender difference identified in performance orientation may be due to the practice-based structure of physical education classes and individual differences of students. The results obtained from the present study regarding the fact that goal orientation does not vary by gender support the findings of studies carried out using different measurements tools in the literature (White et al., 1998; Xiang and Lee, 2002).

Examining the relationship that is possible to occur between attitude and goal orientations it can be said that students with negative attitudes

focus on the outcome without putting effort. In contrast, positive attitudes towards physical education classes may be considered to motivate students to increase their effort during the class and increase their enjoyment of the class. In their study Bryan and Solmon (2012) concluded that students' positive attitudes towards physical education classes would improve if they were provided with a task oriented class environment and their attitude and motivation for the class would increase if they were given opportunities to use their creativity.

In conclusion, it is necessary to organize physical education classes which put the students in the centre, increase their creativity and participation, and are learning and task oriented. This would improve students' positive attitudes towards the class and increase their efforts and enjoyment of the class.

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ORTAÖĞRETİM ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN BEDEN EĞİTİMİ DERSLERİNE YÖNELİK BAŞARI HEDEFLERİ VE TUTUMLARI ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

Özet: Bu çalışmanın amacı, ortaokul öğrencilerinin beden eğitimi derslerine yönelik tutumları ile başarı hedef yönelimlerinin arasındaki ilişkinin belirlenmesidir. Bu çalışmada yer alan ikincil amaç doğrultusunda, öğrencilerin beden eğitimi derslerine yönelik tutum ve hedef yönelimleri, cinsiyet değişkenine göre analiz edilmiştir. Çalışmaya İzmir ili sınırları içerisinde orta öğretimin kurumlarında öğrenim gören 212 (erkek = 129 [%60.8]; kız= 83 [%39.2]) öğrenci katılım göstermiştir. Öğrencilerin yaş ortalamaları 13.26 ± 1.45 olarak tespit edilmiştir. Öğrencilerin 180'i (%84.9) beden eğitimi derslerine yönelik olumlu tutum gösterirken, 32'i (%15.1) olumsuz tutum sergilemektedir. Bu sonuç genel olarak öğrencilerin beden eğitimine yönelik olumlu tutum (ort.= 4.08) sahibi olduğunu göstermektedir. Öğrencilerin beden eğitimi derslerine yönelik tutum ve başarı hedef yönelimleri ilişkilendirildiğinde, öğrenci tutumları ve **çabalamadan sonuç yönelimi alt boyutunun anlamlı düzeyde ilişkili olduğu görülmektedir ($p < .05$).** Bununla birlikte, olumlu ve olumsuz tutum gösteren öğrencilerin, hedef yönelimleri alt boyutlarından almış oldukları puanlar karşılaştırılması sonucunda, **çabalamadan sonuç yönelimi alt boyutunda oluşan farkın anlamlı olduğu belirlenmiştir ($p < .05$).** Ayrıca, cinsiyet değişkenine göre öğrencilerin beden eğitimi derslerine yönelik tutum ve hedef yönelimleri incelendiğinde, kız ve erkek öğrenciler arasındaki farkın anlamlı olmadığı tespit edilmiştir ($p > .05$). Elde edilen bu sonuçlar, öğrencilerin merkeze çekildiği, yaratıcılarını ve katılımlarını arttırmaya yönelik, görev yönelimli derslerin uygulanmaya konmasının, öğrencilerin derse yönelik tutumlarını, derste göstermiş oldukları çabayı ve dersten aldıkları zevki olumlu yönde etkileyeceği düşüncesini doğrulamaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Motivasyonel iklim, tutum, hedef yönelimi, beden eğitim

AN ANALYSIS OF ARMENIAN ISSUE AT THE CONTEXT OF HISTORICAL DEPTH AND PULPIC DIPLOMACY

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Abstract: In this article, an analysis was made on the Armenian issue from a multidisciplinary perspective, at the context of historical depth and public diplomacy. In this study; descriptive method, historical comparison and discourse analysis are used on the basis on relevant sources and documents. Some of the decisions of the European Parliament as a case study are examined on the historical and scientific facts that were reached inductively. That is to say; the Armenian issue which reached a damaging stage in terms of Turkey's foreign policy and its relations with other countries, now is much far from being a historical problem and now is politicized especially by performing public diplomacy and lobbying of Armenians and European parliaments. Genocide claims nowadays taken up by the parliaments of several countries to their agenda, and becoming enacted in states such as Greece and France, have been carried in the leadership of the European Parliament to the European Union platforms and have been connected to Turkey's accession process. Evaluating the Armenian issue in the light of the facts and documents, it can be seen that it has no historical, scientific and legal basis for Armenian genocide claims. With propaganda and public diplomacy activities at international communication and relations, this situation brings into mind that a new version of a pressure diplomacy which was put into the sheath of a variety of colors and prints from 1878 to 1914 is exhibited. In recent years, Turkey is intensively accused of Armenian genocide, and especially in April of each year, the number of these attacks increases and becomes almost offensive. It can clearly be seen who all of these policies, encourage the Armenians not to recognize the existing borders and to make demand for new land as a repetition of history. It is necessary to evaluate the so-called Armenian genocide allegations of which propaganda is made and which are announced to the world with assassinations and terrorism and then are enacted at parliaments, as a communication strategy within the frame of the 4T plan. The Armenian issue, which is re-heated with allegations of genocide, now is beyond being a historical dimension and are put to the forefront in terms of international relations, and again has become a damaging factor for relations with some countries and an obstacle in front of Turkey's foreign policy especially after the Cold War. In this context, under the cause-effect relationship and to make a historical comparison; evaluating the Armenian question in the historical process, it can be seen that this emerged as an extension of policies that were implemented in the XIX century by big states in order to break up the Ottoman Empire. During the struggle for dominance that started on the territory of the Ottoman in the XIX century and lasted until the first half of the XX century, the big states of Europe, the United States and Russia did not only create allies from different ethnic and religious groups from the Balkans, the Middle East and Anatolia within the empire but also provoked these groups against one another. Thus laid the foundations of policies and strategies to cover the XIX century and onwards period. Without know these basics, the events which will take place today and tomorrow cannot be analyzed accurately. Therefore, it is proved that Armenian genocide allegations considered in the light of the tragic facts and documents, there is no legal, historical and scientific basis. It is examined that no substantial change has been observed in the Armenian policy of Europe in the XIX century and the Armenian policy of today's Europe towards Turkey.

Keywords: European Union, Armenian Question, Relocation, 4T Plan, Public Diplomacy, Propaganda, International Communication.

INTRODUCTION

The Armenian issue, which developed in conjunction with the London-Zurich Treaties in 1959 about the 1878 Ayastefonos and Berlin and Cyprus topics, today gathered speed with the decision made by the European Parliament and was connected to the process of Turkey gaining full membership in the European Union and thus has become one of the major problems of Turkish foreign policy. With the contribution of lobbying and propaganda activities of Armenians, since the 1980s, the European Parliament show the events of 1915-1917 in accordance with the definition of genocide of the decision taken by the United Nations in December 9, 1948. European Parliament has declared this as genocide and has requested from the Turkish government to accept this issue and has declared that the fact that Turkey's rejection of this case constitutes a definite obstacle for the EU membership. In this article examining the historical dimension of the events, we do see that no substantial change has been observed in the Armenian policy of Europe in the XIX century and the Armenian policy of today's Europe towards Turkey.

RESEARCH METHODS

This study seeks to explore and discuss the debates on the Armenian issue from a historical perspective by relying on discursive and context analysis of historical sources and documents. The literature review is followed by the analysis of

case studies. Decisions pertaining to the Armenian issue that have been discussed and passed into law in some European Parliaments resolution and some member states of European Union such as France and Greece are analyzed as case studies. The historical analysis together with the case studies aims to shed light on how a historical issue has evolved into a political controversy over time.

I think that current major observation of the historical politicized events like Armenian issue just not enough to explain and analyze with only today's data. Because, the current data may not contain all the answers to all the questions. It should be participated in the examination of the development of their past time. History has duty to identify not only the events, but also looking for the cause-effect relationship between events. In other words, history is looking documents, facts and events at the correlation between them and the relationship works by calling the social issues to reach generalizations. Such an understanding of the history was given for the first time by Islamic historian and sociologist Ibn Khaldun. According to Ibn Khaldun, the meaning of which is hidden in the study of history, to think, to investigate the formation of the asset and the flow of the causes and events that you need to know in order to understand their disease. No matter which discipline and the field of science, it has a history of research topic or problem. The researcher must examine it. It should known what

studies have been conducted to date in that area. Looking at developments in the European Union and around the world in this connection, approaches which are often expressed in Turkish public opinion and decision-circles in Europe stating “we are not able to promote ourselves better”, “The Armenian Diaspora finds support” or “Let’s leave history to historians” are not the type of problem-solving. It is necessary to analyze the issue in historical depth very well so we discuss this phenomena in our study.

The results of this study is that Armenian issue is highly politicized. Armenian issue is not only limited to the European Parliament resolutions and reports, but also in general in western world. The decisions taken in relation to the genocide of the Armenians in Europe and America and practices are coordinated. The fact that in various forms and intervals, decisions have been taken against the Turks in direction of committing genocide against Armenians in 1915 and the approach shown as justification for this has become a basic policy of the West with an integrity, planned, scheduled and coordinated as proved in this study. Consensus provided on the subject shows that Turkey is not able to understand the goal it is directed to and its importance, also is an political and social deficiency.

On the other hand, it is seen that the basic aim of the European Armenian Federation which is a subsidiary of the Dashnak

Party and is Brussels-based, is to ensure that especially Turkey recognizes the genocide, and that Turkey only is accepted to the European membership after fulfilling entire demands of the entire Armenians, in other words, to ensure that these demands shall be a prerequisite for full membership of Turkey. It was converted into a political pressure fact and communication strategy for Turkey.

The proposals of this article is that the full membership in the European Union adventure of Turkey which departed from being a rational choice and turned into an untold adventure of passion. It has become a tool of the Armenian psychological operations, too. It has become a tool that adversely affects the image of the country, which have been used by some countries against Turkey concerning international communications and international law areas.

From the mentioned decisions in this article as a case study, it can be seen that the Armenian issue which has occupied Turkey’s domestic and foreign policy for many years, and more like is going to occupy it for much more time.

In recent time completely has been inflicted from its historical reality and has become a foreign policy putting forwards demands unacceptable for Turkey. Furthermore, some countries wanting to prevent Turkey’s EU membership have used the Armenian issue as a political tool and will always be able to use the Armenian

allegations. Because the European Parliament decision dated June 18, 1987 recognizing the Armenian genocide, and then the decisions taken with reference to this decision, are drawing the route of this and make it quite easier.

After all, look at the dimension of historical events Armenian politics and propaganda activities of Europe in XIX. century, it has been observed that any substantial change in Europe today on the basis of Armenian policy towards Turkey.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES OF PROPAGANDA ACTIVITIES

Evaluating the Armenian question in the historical process, it can be seen that this emerged as an extension of policies that were implemented in the XIX century by big states in order to break up the Ottoman Empire (Seydi, 2003: 96-97). During the struggle for dominance that started on the territory of the Ottoman in the XIX century and lasted until the first half of the XX century, the big states of Europe, the United States and Russia did not only create allies from different ethnic and religious groups from the Balkans, the Middle East and Anatolia within the empire but also provoked these groups against one another and thus laid the foundations of policies to cover the XIX century and onwards period (İnalçık, 2007:259-260).

As it is known, the political, social and economic developments on the world in

the XVIII and XIX century have forced the Ottoman Turkey administrators to make interventions against this and together with radical changes in the structure of the society and the state, initiated the modernization of the Ottoman. In addition to expansionist and protectionist policies of great colonial European states which became strengthened as a result of Industrial Revolution especially the French Revolution and the spreading of the emerging nationalism caused the emergence of the idea of independence in the non-Muslim citizens of the Ottoman Empire. In this context *under the condition of western propaganda and public diplomacy activities; the Serbs, Greeks, Romanians and Bulgarians from the Christian Communities in the Balkans, emerging as a so-called independent state-driven countries through rebellion with the support and instigation of the great European powers, has become encouraging and a sample for the Armenians.*

Within the context of public diplomacy and propaganda of great powers, the idea of Armenian nationalism became strengthened with the support of missionaries, foreign schools and the great imperial states. Under the leadership of the church oriented propaganda towards the movement of independence has gained momentum. By the treaty signed as a result of the 1877-78 Ottoman- Russian war, the Armenian Issue gained international dimension and this became an issue which was used as a pressure tool against the Ottoman Turkey by Europe and the USA

which have had ambitions in this region and especially by Russia.

The Armenian question was one of the most challenging issues of Abdulhamid II period of the Empire when the attacks began and when Turkey was being tried to be destroyed through wars, domestic and foreign intrigue. Abdulhamid II clearly saw that under the control of propaganda activities, European missionaries put enmity between the Armenians and the Kurds which had been living together with peace and tranquility for centuries. The Sultan, did not only hold Europe but also America responsible for these actions. Because missionaries in charge of American colleges which had been opened with the allowance of Mahmud II in various parts of the country had been making suggestions harmful and destructive propaganda activities and public diplomacy to Christian subjects (Karaca,1993 : 75).

Thus, the Armenian events used as a tool for efforts of the great powers as a means of destructing the Ottoman Empire, in the last quarter of the XIX century, have been an extension of politics including at first sight to root the Ottoman Empire out of Europe, and then increasingly to take away the Turks' right to live even in Anatolia. The most important material used for this purpose had been the Armenians living in the Ottoman Empire. From the particular will of Abdulhamid II, it is possible to observe revolts carried out as a

result of propaganda activities and public diplomacy drive of the Armenians by great powers, and how these forces used the consulates as spies in order to perform each of these drives (Engin, 2005:44).

It was seen that American missionary activities carried out in collaboration with the British mission organizations and under the protection of British and American diplomats gained density after the 1840s between the Bulgarians and Armenians. Like mission organizations belonging to other states, also the activities of organizations in the American missions had developed as an element of danger and threat to the Ottoman Empire more as political rather than religious aspects and most of the time has been a decisive factor of the Ottoman-American diplomatic relations. Ottoman archival documents show that American missionaries had a preparatory, preventive and interventionist role in the Bulgarian and Armenian uprisings, and also that major task had been undertaken by them to demonstrate these uprisings to the American and European public opinion with an exaggerated and anti-Turkish-tone under the condition of propaganda activities and public diplomacy (Aydın, 2008:45) .

Due to loyalty to the Ottoman Empire, the Armenians referred as "loyal nation" have been started to be used first by Russia who wanted to take over the former Eastern Anatolia, and then began to be used by the British (Inalcık,2007:260).

The Armenians, hoping that independence would be given to them with the Treaty of Berlin occurring after the 1877-78 Ottoman-Russian War, but could not reach this aim, in the next period, adopted strategy of terrorism as a method to reach their objectives and have founded the terrorist organizations named TASNAK (Dashnak) and HINCAK (Hinchak) (Engin, 2007:205-249).

OTTOMAN REFORM PROJECT FOR ARMENIANS FAILED

While the driven Armenians continued their efforts of politicization between the years of 1878-1894 with terrorism, the Ottoman Empire, being engaged with the Anatolian Question of the reform was trying to prevent the European states in terms of interference with the internal affairs (Karaca, 1993:145). With a state to be established by The Armenians never being the majority in Anatolia, Russia would have been able to sneak into the Mediterranean and the Middle East. On the contrary, an Armenian state under the auspices of the England could prevent this. Both parties using the Armenian for their own imperial interests, together with the political process since 1878, by creating an Armed Revolutionary Committees adopted identity as an organized, planned and purposeful group, continuously espoused of armed terrorist acts. Just the same as the Kurdism cases of today, the Ottoman Empire, between 1878-1915 both with the intervention of

the European powers, as well as his own global accord, had made many administrative and political reforms in favor of the non-Muslims, especially in favor of the Armenians.

Although the 1895 Reform Project in particular, was applied in general and made under the supervision of the European States, the Armenians continued expanding their organized, planned and armed rebellions. It was seen that the parts coming from necessity and which should be applied of this project, with the political interest calculations of European states and their requests for sanctions deviated from the actual path. By 1915 it will reveal that the reform project disguised as a hidden invasion plan which used some elements of the Ottoman Empire, especially the Armenians, as a pawn.

This pressure of the European states which lasted 37 years between the years 1878-1915, will lead to the justifiable suspicion and antipathy of the Ottoman administrators, against Europe-sourced reforms, requests and projects. Until 1915 including the Unions and Progress association, it cannot be ignored that the Ottoman State administrators gave all of their efforts for a very long time to solve the Armenian issue in good faith, even if it was necessary to be in cooperation with the Armenian armed revolutionary committees (Karaca, 2001,169).

Some Armenians creating terror in Istanbul and provinces by establishing the

Hinchak and Dashnak terrorist organizations especially were supported by the British. This tradition of terror would continue in the following years, and the leaders and dignitaries of the Unions and Progress association would be killed by the Armenian terrorists (<http://www.ttk.org.tr/templates/resimler/File/tpasa-cinayeti.pdf>) Access date: 07.10.2009

It will reveal how personally Dashnak resources, hidden from the public opinion and stolen from some libraries to be destroyed, have been used by Tsarist Russia and Western imperialism against Turkey, and the justified war during the occupation of the Turkish army and the Armenian atrocities with documents.

In fact, the first prime minister of Armenians who were allegedly subjected of the genocide Ovanes Kachaznuni, assesses the event as a war and openly said that they were tools of imperialists (Kaçaznuni, 2009:11). He openly admitted that the Armenian genocide is a big lie, a slander, that it is in compliance to the relocation decision of the leading names of the Dashnak movement, Prime Minister Ovanes Katchaznuni who personally experienced the events of 1915, that means that the Ottoman did not make any massacre or genocide, that they made the Armenians who united with the Russians and stabbed the knife in the back of their homeland the Ottomans, to immigrate for the purpose of control, and that in fact the Armenians provoked by the West

has massacred the Muslim population. When we apply the testimony of history, it can be seen that as a result of Europe's propaganda machine and political plans have caused that states, including the Armenians and other Christian elements, have been confronted with their own countries and that these have been reason to experience several negative events by applying non-Muslim elements of the Ottoman Empire, under the shadow of the so-called Armenian genocide allegations against the Turks as atrocities and massacres (Saray, 2003:29-75).

Justin McCarthy, examining in detail the ethnic cleaning and executing process against the Ottoman Muslims between the years of 1821-1922, has made research in relation to how millions of Muslims in the Balkans, the Middle East and Asia have been killed and relocated and also investigated how the ethnic and religious killings which Muslims had been exposed. While the periods, when the Russian Empire's expansionist policy and emerge of new nations in the Balkans came on the stage of history, in Western literature, traditionally are tried to be explained from the point of view of the Christian nations, in the work of Justin McCarthy entitled "Death and Exile", these developments, for the first time, have been explained from the point of view of the Turks and other Muslims who had been the real victims of imperialism, nationalism and ethnic conflict. It was seen that the number of Muslim Turks being subject to death

casualties and forced immigration from the Greek uprising until 1922 appears as ultimately a total of 5.06 million deaths and 5.381 million who have been forced to immigration (McCarthy, 1998:374).

From the Christian communities in the Balkans the Serbs, Greeks, Romanians and Bulgarians took a sample by the subversive and separatist terrorist activities carried out against the Ottoman Empire and Armenians who made several riots from 1890 until 1914, saw the World War I as an opportunity for themselves and they have been in war against the Ottoman Empire, of which they were citizen once, in cooperation with especially Russia and the Other Allies (Öztuna,2006:18). The Armenian committee members, in order to hit the Ottoman armies fighting against Russia from their back and to cut their supply routes, started armed uprisings and murders (Halaçoğlu,2006:135). At the beginning of World War I, the Ottoman government, in the face of this situation, tried to prevent incidents through warnings and administrative measures. In the administrative life of the Ottoman Empire, measures like forced resettlement, immigration acts, relocation to another area, as an policy of exile, from time to time also was applied to Muslim elements, emerges as a method, which the state was forced to use in the face of these developments. The Armenians have continued their activities during the World War I and after the War of Tur-

kish Independence against the Turkish government (Rüstem, 2001,18-45).

NOT ONLY HAD THE ARMENIANS UNDERGONE EXİLE

Analysis of 600 years of Ottoman history, it will be seen that almost in every period when mass movement and riots occurred for various reasons, those involved in the events, had sentenced to "relocation" regardless of religion or ethnic origin. The deportation law issued during the World War I was not only applied to the Armenians but where necessary each ethnic group living in the Ottoman Empire were relocated as needed. For example, due to war conditions, also the Arabs and Greeks temporarily sent from Syria and Medina to Anatolia and Rumeli, were affected by the law of the relocation. In fact, the transportation and housing applied to the Arabs did not differ from those applied to the Armenians (Beyoğlu, 2004: 30-52). This situation, as with the other contemporaries, is the continuation of relocation policy and forced displacement, which was applied in the classical period of the Ottoman Empire for various reasons. As can be seen in many contemporary states, the Ottoman Turkey in this regard has continued its traditional policy and understanding.

This historical application will also be implemented in the years of National Struggle and the Republic where necessary. Even recent history is full of many similar state- applications. The subject

to be discussed here, is why the government decides immigration and relocation whether or not the officers complied with the law of the period, whether or not they have confronted the corruption and abuses in practice (Beyoğlu, 2004:49). For this reason, dispatch and relocation or deportation issues of Armenian event should be evaluated in this context. I.e., the relocation of Armenians, where Armenian citizens have been temporarily sent to safer parts of the country due to war with the relocation and transfer decision of the Ottoman Empire and showing them that at the end of World War I those who want to do so, might go back, alone is the logical extraction that there was nothing as genocide. In fact, some of those who went into exile returned to the old place. Those coming back were supported and ensured ease in any way (Bakar, 2007: 235-252).

As it can be understood by historical data, such relocation was not planned, but was a situation occurring due to war as a forced application after entering into war with the Russians, the fact that the Armenians collaborated with the enemy and started armed rebellion. This co-operation undeniably clearly reveals from the correspondence of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Russia (Türküzü, 1983:45-80).

As it started as a forced relocation of housing, the arguments put forwards in Armenian related issues, without knowing anything about the issue of reform, its

background and what was made before, were incomplete and misleading. As it can be understood from sources, the most important reason why the Ottoman Empire was drift to the war with Germany and why all Ottoman elements experienced great suffering and disasters, was the political attitude demonstrated and policy pursued by the European powers and especially the United Kingdom and Russia. The thesis and counter-arguments put forward in the debates today, show, that it has been based entirely on the developments in the years 1915-1922. The fact that today, Turkey is left to face the same problem, shows that here has not been much change in the politics of the Western states in this region (Karaca, 1993:170).

THE RE-HEATED ARMENIAN ALLEGATIONS

Propaganda machine have been working under the condition of some of the Western and Armenians, rather than basing their allegations on historical and scientific foundations, prefer to take as a basis the memoir type subjective artifacts/works and use history in a very selective way in compliance to their own interests. In this respect, historical events, are not evaluated in a special cause and effect relationship and are not treated as a whole with a certain consistency in itself, but the arguments in favor of the Armenians are taken and are used as an information warehouse, and history virtually is imp-

risoned in 1915. Thus, the reasons for the Armenian deportations and events of the Armenian organizations during the relocation process and the policies against the Armenians of the big states are tried to be caused to be forgotten, and the Turkish nation is blamed with a scenario, that the Armenians in the Ottoman Empire were subject to genocide in 1915 without any reason. The Humanity's most vile, vulgar imprescriptibly crimes of genocide, which is tried to be attached historically and culturally to the Turkishness as a black mark, is tried to be arrogated to the entire nation.

As stated by İlber Ortaylı, in case that genocide, which constitutes a very serious crime and blame for a society, is adopted, it will be affixed an unfair label to the future Turkish generations and their ancestors (Ortaylı, 2009:198). However, in the second half of the XIX Century and in the first quarter of the XX century, despite of numerous adverse effects experienced by the Turkish nation, or even the incompatible political attitudes of the Armenians and the armed actions, historical sources focusing on these developments and the Turkish folkloric values, show that the Turks did not develop any feelings of racial hatred against non-Muslims or any anti-Armenian feelings especially against the Armenians.

On the contrary, the presence of a deep sense of hatred and anti-Turkism is clearly visible against the Turks especially

in the Armenian clergy and intellectuals and also ordinary Armenians (Karaça,2001:170). In this context, Armenians operating against Turkey, especially towards the end of the Cold War, so to speak from the last periods of the USSR, were seen to have been directed to a target to make the Turks accept the genocide claims at international organizations whose decisions Turkey had to comply with, in order to achieve that Turkey adopts and accepts their requests and wishes.

Since the Armenians knew that the decisions taken by the National parliaments of the state will not impact too much on Turkey, they, in particular, have tended to target international organizations to take decisions (Arslan, 2005:146).

Although many Armenian sources, state that the genocide claims had been accepted by the United Nations and the Council of Europe, this is not true for the moment. However, since the decisions taken by national parliaments would be effective in the decision-making of the United Nations, it can be seen that all of these studies are a preparation and infrastructure stage to achieve that the UN recognizes the Armenian genocide claims (Ataöv,1986:3). The European Commonwealth of which Turkey wants to be a member of, with its decisions it takes, is a transnational corporation with power to impose sanctions on Turkey. The Armenians, achieving that their request, immediately after Turkey's application for

full membership in the EC in 1987, was confirmed by the European Parliament, also have the wish to attain the objectives that the United Nations also takes a similar decision.

ARMENIAN ALLEGATIONS AT THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY AXIS

Nowadays, the Armenian issue, re-entered the European political agenda after a period of 70 years. Until 1965, the Armenians exactly have not made genocide claims for 50 years. When we are seeking for an answer to the question of how it comes that something unthinkable since half a century, has emerged at once, as stated by Ali Tayyar Onder, was the fact that the Western States and especially the USA, who already in 1961 had foreseeing that the Soviet Union would be divided and that five new states would be established in Central Asia, have put into effect their new policy in order to prevent Turkey with its historical and cultural potential to become the leader of these countries and also has put this policy in effect which had foreseen to destroy and divide Turkey as it was planned in 1960, by declaring Turkey as the “new big enemy” in order to prevent Turkey to become leader of the Muslim countries with the purpose to distract the energy reserves in the hand (Önder, 2009: 62).

Considering the historical fact that the Western Countries have no habit of heading to a destination based on histori-

cal events before directing to a concrete and interest-based target and as they do not have a habit of making explanations, it will be not hard to see what meaning the explanations and decisions being converted to a systematic Western policy regarding the Armenians have (Aydoğan, 2004: 402).

Since 1965, ‘Diaspora Armenians’ have started to make black propaganda against Turkey in unity and have begun to intensively utter their claims of genocide which are not related to historical facts described above. In particular, after Turkey had increased its prestige with the London and Zurich Treaties signed in 1959 in order to achieve important rights in the Cyprus issue, in the axis of westernization policies it also had applied to the European Economic Community (EEC) for membership, and wanted to become a member in order to take its place in all institutions in the EEC as an European state (Arslan, 2008:59).

In fact, even Turkey showed such a political will as of the beginning of the relationship and requested membership just as a European state, contrary to this fact according to the preference of the EEC, it consented to be put on the Article 238 (Soysal,1991:654) which was prepared in order to expand the scope of the traditional European exploitations, allowing to make regulations for associate membership of the former colonies, and in order to

regulate the relations of Europe with the former colonies.

As stated by Prof. Dr. Ali Arslan who wrote about this remarkable issue in his book for the first time in Turkey, even this event at the very beginning of the relationship shows from what angle the European with their historical colonial mentality look at the Turks, and that they never consider the Turks to be equal with them, and that they based their relations with Turkey on a basis as explained in this sentence. It was also quite remarkable that in 1963, with the Treaty of Ankara in Turkey, right after being accepted to the associate membership of the EEC, as it was an old colony of Europe, the Armenian patriarch started a multi-dimensional war including propaganda and public diplomacy all around the word against Turkey which tried to become European.

ARMENIAN PROPAGANDA MACHINE

According to Bilal Şimşir this new war had repeated itself as follows: *“To use the Turkish nation for the Armenian ambitions of some collaborators and publishing tools emerging in Turkey in order to carry out the followings: to make systematical publications accusing with the so-called genocide, and the implementation of a relentless propaganda campaign, erection of monuments of genocide in various countries, ostensibly to cherish the memory of the victims of the genocide, but in fact, in order to whip up feelings of hatred and antagonism against the Turkish nation,*

to carry out armed and bomb attacks against the Turkish organizations and Turkish diplomats and to kill diplomats and their family members only because they represent Turkey abroad and because they are Turkish citizens, carrying the Armenian allegations to the political platform and making some local and national parliaments of various countries to take decisions of ‘ recognition of the genocide ‘, using the EU organs as an instruments of repression against Turkey “ (Şimşir, 2007:226-227).

This new Armenian propaganda war which was declared in 1964, since then has survived to the present day going through the various stages. Bilal Şimşir who closely witnessed personally the propaganda campaigns initiated systematically in 1964 upon calls of the patriarchs has issued this subject in his book named “The Armenian Question 1774-2000” within the frame of historical origins, Armenian propaganda in America, the Armenian issue during the War of Independence and the Republican period, the Turkish victims of Armenian terrorism, Turkish martyr diplomats and the Armenian issue during the EU accession process. Considering the events and developments coming from the past and covering today all together, it is seen that the arguments put forward, have been put into practice in accordance to the 4T plan, (Terör, Tanıma, Tazminat, Toprak), “Terror, Recognition, Compensation, Territory “. Introducing the Armenian genocide, to the public opinion of the world

as terrorism means to realize the 3T requests with the 4T plan.

Especially Russia, USA, France, Greece, Cyprus, Syria, Lebanon and many other European states openly or secretly supporting the Armenian terrorism are supporting the Armenians and do sympathize them. The Christian countries having an antipathy against the Ottoman Empire which had the leadership in the Islamic world for centuries, had no antipathy at all in terms of the terrorist actions perpetrated by the Armenians whom they thought that they had been hard done (Saraya, 2003:134).

Propaganda machine was working in a period where Turkey's concerns about the on the Cyprus issue with the U.S. and EU increased, Turkey made efforts to create its own policies in this regard, the fact that the Armenian Churches controlled by the West and the anti-Turkey policies of the Armenians became more powerful, directed the Turkey- EC / EU relations in another direction. ASALA (Hyland, 1991: 26) was established in Beirut in 1975 and the PKK was established the same year in Syria Bekaa and both organizations with the terrorism they applied by surprisingly getting powerful, gave serious damage to Turkey (Karakoç, 2008:52). Armed-bomb attacks against Turkish diplomats first started in the United States and then concentrated in the formerly EC and present EU countries.

This situation created the terrorist phase as the first phase of the 4T plan. The most Armenian attacks against Turkish diplomats, between the EU members were realized in France and Austria. Especially France was leading with 8 attacks, 17 dead and 71 wounded people (Şimşir, 2005:231-234). France today is the ringleader of those who oppose Turkey's EU membership, and is followed by Austria. We wonder if it a coincidence that these two countries which tolerated the Armenian killings yesterday, today strongly oppose Turkey's EU membership.

In 1985 after a period of 10 years of armed attacks and terrorism of ASALA, the Armenian arguments became politicized in accordance with the 4T Plan, and after this date almost all western countries and especially EC/EU began to take "Armenian genocide" decisions. From the EU countries, at first the Parliament of Greece, with the decision dated April 25, 1996 determined April, 24 to be of day of commemoration of the genocide of the Armenians by the Turks (http://www.eraren.org//bilgibankasi/tr/index1_2_4.htm). Access Date:20.12.2012

A striking issue was that while it was discussed at the parliaments, the decision taken by the European Parliament in relation to the Armenian Genocide in 1987, which we will be examining in detail below, was shown as reference decision.

The fact that ASALA terrorist acts of terrorism suddenly stopped, and then was

drawn to an international political ground creating a justification for terror with unfounded, baseless and arguments not in compliance with historical facts in order to convert them to legitimate politics; shows that the Armenian issue, was pre-programmed and put in the Western policies and that this would be used as a political pressure element against Turkey.

In this context, classifying the Armenian issue in the historical process, the period from after the 1877-78 Ottoman-Russian War, when imperial powers were created and from the beginning of the Armenian question directed by being converted into an ethno political identity, until the period of the establishment of the Turkish Republic after the victory of the War of Independence, will be referred to as FIRST WAVE, The Turkish hostility and victimization policy in the Republican period, the problem, which traditionally has been forgotten by the Turks, which almost was wiped from the national mind, and which was restructured with lies far from reality, and then transferred in order to increase the coefficient of hatred in every generation and in parallel was tried to be shown as the cause for anything negatively experienced in Diaspora, and thus the average perception of the Armenians about the Turks was turned into an image of any kind of evil and negativity, was used successfully by the Armenians. By again pressing the button after the Cyprus Peace Operation the process from 1974 until the 1983 Paris Orly Airport

massacre can be seen as SECOND WAVE. During this period, the beginning of the massacre of Turkish diplomats and acts of terrorism by establishing a treacherous ambush, contain the assassinations and attacks realized by the heir of the tradition of the Dashnak terrorism group, namely the ASALA and the Justice Commandos of the Armenian Genocide and this constitutes the terrorist part of the 4T plan (Özbek, 2008).

The process in which the so-called Armenian genocide allegations have been introduced to the world through terrorism and the stage of their recognition process, is the Third Wave, in which we are still living. The third wave is a stage where no bombs are thrown, no bullets are fired, embassies are not busted, and here issues are handled in political platforms and parliaments, and by claiming that the XX Century's first genocide was carried out by the Turks, it is requested that Turks accept this issue, they are alleged with. Immediately after the Armenian terror based on hatred, they were striving hard to make Turkey to accept it through political channels. In fact, the city councils, national parliaments, the European Union Parliament approved draft law stating that the Turks are responsible for the Armenian genocide, and did even put these in effect. The Armenian genocide is imposed to Turkey at the state parliaments and the European Parliament in order to achieve that the Turks accept the recognition of the Armenian Genocide and that

relevant issues are handled. The fact that the Armenian Diaspora organizations enhanced their activities, that various countries' parliaments one after another put into effect the Armenian Genocide laws and the Armenian allegations, thanks to the decisions taken by the EP, have become an element of pressure in international relations of Turkey and have even become a tool used by some countries against Turkey. Especially from the fact that those who do not want Turkey to enter the EU perform politics by means of using this topic, and against the "other" or better to say the "enemy" Turkey, both themselves and Armenians, are earning benefit (Arslan, 2005:126). With reference to the decisions of the European Parliament concerning the Turkey-EU relations, the issue to accept these allegations and to recognize the genocide is given as conditions for the acceptance of Turkey's full membership (Arslan, 2005: 146).

Thus, the Armenian allegations are connected to Turkey's EU accession process, and through the European Parliament, either directly or indirectly with various sleeves, it is requested to accept these allegations and to recognize the so-called genocide is given as conditions for the acceptance to full membership.

RESOLUTIONS OF EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT THAT RECOGNIZING THE ARMENIAN GENOCIDE

Since the 1980s, the EP, playing a decisive role in the relations between Turkey and

the EC/EU, in particular after the formal application of Turkey for membership in the European Community, came to the agenda by taking important decisions. With institutional changes in the EU, it was seen that the powers of the European Parliament representing the will of the Europeans in the period after 1980 gradually started to be increased and that in parallel it tried to show its strength on Turkey (Poyraz, 2009:149-199).

It was observed that it was the European Parliament, which stated EU's demands to Turkey in an understandably language far from the diplomatic language, in the most obvious and quite rude way and that the decisions taken later were put into effect as decisions taken by the Council or the Commission in the later process. Therefore, in order to analyze the attitude and policies of the EU towards Turkey it should be taken advantage of decisions taken by the EP. As pointed out in this regard by Bilal Şimşir: *"We formally appealed for EU membership in 1987. Since then Europe was thinking "the more pressure we can apply on them the more will be gain profit" and as such they took out of the shelves any moldy existing files and began to put them into our faces. Particular, the European Parliament took decisions in this regard. But our newspapers ignore these decisions, whether they do ignore them or release them after trimming these. And when the news emerge they try to calm down our public by saying 'Do not worry, the decision of the EP are not important, it is the decision of the commission*

which are essential But then we have a look and what do we see, a decision adopted by the European Parliament, for example, five years later, within the EU's complex decision-making process this time turns out as a decision of the commission " (Şimşir, 2006:10).

The European Commission, never ignores the decisions of the European Parliament as it is thought in Turkey, the commission is taking these decisions into account. In the examinations it makes, reports it prepares, it always is referring to the decisions of the EP. Although in Turkey the resolutions of the EP are referred to as recommended resolutions, it is important as part of the European acquis and with reference to these decisions, similar decisions are taken by other EU institutions. On the other hand, when the European Commission adopts a decision, they are putting these in the face of candidate countries for membership saying "since you're becoming a member of the EU, then you have to accept them" (Şimşir, 2006:10). Within this frame, the decisions taken by the EP on the Armenian question, can be seen as one of the most important criteria of the EU's approach to the Armenian problem.

REFERENCE EP DECISION DATED JUNE 18, 1987

The EP's decision of recognizing the Armenian genocide was saying "the Armenian incidents in the years 1915-1917 are found to be in compliance to the definition of genocide in the decision of the Uni-

ted Nations dated December 9, 1948 and declares the decision and asks the Turkish government to accept it. It declares that it will be a final barrier for Turkey's membership of the EU if Turkey rejects this phenomenon", immediately after ASALA laid down their weapons. Since the decision dated June 18, 1987, which was taken in relation to the Armenian problem right after Turkey's application for full membership of the European Community has been accepted and was shown as reference decision for every decisions to be taken later and the reports, it can be said that this is the most comprehensive decision and the timing of taking this decision is quite remarkable (Arslan, 2008:126-149). Therefore, all of the decision will be discussed in this part of the study.

This decision made reference to relevant proposal given earlier at the EP, writing proposals and reports and contained provisions relation to the Armenian problem of biased manner, that were quite disturbing Turkey in. The decision emphasizes that the Armenian side evaluate the events of 1915 as genocide planned under the 1948 United Nations Convention, but that the Turkish Nation refuses this on grounds that the accuses are groundless charges of genocide.

According to the decision, the EP is sure that adoption of the minorities identity of Armenian people living in Turkey in terms of ethnic, linguistic and religious

elements, begins with the adoption of their own history. The member states invite the community to dedicate a day of memory to especially the massacres and crimes carried out against the Armenians and Jews in the 20th Century. In this context, the EP with the decision of 1987 declares to make an important support of an initiative to encourage talks between the Armenian and Turkish peoples.

The Turkish nation is accused with the most vulgar and ignominious crime of humanity which is genocide and which has no written or oral cultural-historical sub-structure and which legally is not being able to lapse of time. Furthermore it is illogical and non – moral to make the Turkish nation accept the genocide with an assumption without any historical, legal and scientific devoid of any foundation, stating that the Turks caused genocide of the Armenians and that the only responsible for this is the Ottoman Empire. As stated by Gunduz Aktan, since in the Ottoman Empire there was no such thing as an anti-Armenianism feeling similar to the anti-Semitism of the Nazis against Jews , e.g. there was no racist hatred against the Armenians, here relocation has not been made with the purpose to destroy the Armenians as a group. The decision to expel, was given in order to prevent the movement against the armies of the Ottoman started with the historical treaty of Armenia and Russia, with which Armenia, within the framework of friendship and cooperation, merged with the

Russian occupation army and also to prevent the Turks and Muslims who made up 84% of the population in the East at the region called 'Vilayat-i sitte' , being eliminated with an ethnical cleaning in genocidal proportions as it happened in the Balkans. The reason of relocation on one hand was directed to military requirements and on the other, to defend the existence of the Turkish-Muslim population, what could not have been achieved in the Balkan.

GREEK-ARMENIAN COOPERATION

Article 4 of the above examined decision about the recognition of the Armenian genocide by the European Parliament dated June 18, 1987, even the wishes of the Greek, and the political Kurdsists have been taken into account and it is said that "Genocide applied against the Armenians must be accepted by the Young Turk government; the government must be willing to apply international law rules for the differences of opinion with Greece, to hold the Turkish forces invading in Cyprus, to deny the existence of the Kurdish issue, the absence of a real parliamentary democracy, to have no respect against individual and collective freedoms, and in particular religious freedom in Turkey and similar elements, are 'insurmountable obstacles' to prevent Turkey to participate in the community (*European Parliament, Resolution on a Politi-*

cal Solution to the Armenian Question, Doc. A2-33/87 , 18.06.2007)

These problems identified by the EP in the process will be brought to Turkey with all its weight and depth by politicizing them. At the time this decision was discussed and strongly condemned in the Parliament of Turkey. The approach of the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the period is as follows: "We do feel regret about the Decision accepted by the European Parliament, which is completely contrary to historical facts, one-sided and full with unfair accuses about our country, as the government we do not accept this decision. The resolution adopted, on the Armenian issue, is not only giving place to completely unrealistic claims, but at the same time, also includes unfounded allegations of Turkey's in hostile environments which have nothing to do at all with this issue such as the Cyprus issue and Greek-Turkish relations. In the same way, expressions to serve some of the aims of known separatist elements, are also included in the text of the decision The resulting table, reveals how hostile environments of Turkey are in a cooperation. So far, if there are any persons wondering who at least morally supports the terrorist organizations carrying out criminal activities against Turkey, it will be enough for them to read the text of the draft which was adopted. The sad thing about this issue is that those who are not willing to make settlements in issues such as the Cyprus issue through negotiati-

ons, are taking refuge in the shadow of the Armenian militant organization, and have chosen the path to express their own views ...

According to the European Union acquis, the European Parliament is not an institution judging historical events, but by taking a political decision by becoming party of an historical event with which it has nothing to do, it has become a pressure element against Turkey. Moreover, even here during the draft of the resolution, hostile environments of Turkey came together and shared attitudes showcasing a historical-political hatred.

On the other hand, another striking effect, is the historical Greek- Armenian cooperation's size rising above the common hatred against Turkey starting at the end of the XIX century. Greeks and Armenians, in the First World War, have proved their hatred of the highest level being reached by terror activities applied before and after the war by fighting together against their common enemy, the Turks. As you remember, from the moment it was founded on the territory of the Ottoman, Greece won soil against Turkey and was enlarging continuously, and this was taken as an example by the Armenians. In other words, the smaller the Turkish territory became, the more grew Greece.

Finally, by spreading from Izmir to Anatolia, it has tried to realize its megalia idea but was confronted with Turkish national

resistance led by Mustafa Kemal. One of those coming to Turkey during the years of occupation and witnessing the persecution made by the Greek army in Anatolia was Prof. Arnold Toynbee. Events he experienced, according to his own words, greatly changed the view of him against the Greeks and the Turks. This British historian who was sent in order to make propaganda and to witness rebirth of the ancient Greek civilization in Anatolia, gave a document at his return, documenting the contrary, namely the brutality of the Greek, and condemning the government's imperialist policies, promoting these atrocities. This, at least for them who had sent him there, constituted a disappointment with a scandal grade. For this reason, the smear propaganda campaign started against him continued unabated until he left the university (Toynbee, 2007:5).

Remembering that during and after the period when the Greeks were gaining independence, was taken as an example by the Armenians, during the stage of expansion of the territory, Greece benefited from the continuous support and assistance of the Western countries, it will be seen that there is nothing much changed in this respect today. Since Europe also today stands behind Greece and Armenia, and supports them, Greece wants to become dominant on Cyprus and the Aegean region and Armenia want to become dominant at Nagorno-Karabakh and Azerbaijan and thus continue to

implement historical policies (Manisalı, 2003:10).

In fact, history is full of genocides against Turks. Since the Turks do not know to lament for the dead or since this is not placed in their culture, genocides, and suffer against the Turks was never engraved in history, the suffering experienced was not transferred to future generations and were quickly forgotten.

However, history is full of events where the Turks were always confronted with genocide, after they retreat in the West from Vienna, from the Balkans and in the East from the Caucasus. In Vienna, Mora, in the Balkans, recently in Bosnia, in Azerbaijan it has always been the Turks and Muslims who were subjected to genocide. Considering the Caucasus, it can be seen that history pages of the last two centuries are full with genocides against the Turks. In the Khanate of Erevan, in Baku, Gence, it always have been the Turks who have been massacred. But today, what a contradiction it again is the Turkish Nation being exposed to these accusations of the Western public opinion. The Armenians, taking the events experienced on the Balkans as an example and realizing the first planned deportation and genocide on Azerbaijani territories between the years 1905-1907 in order to establish Great Armenia, in the years 1915-1918-20 once more forced the Turks to leave their land. They attempted to do the same thing in Anatolia, but had found the Ottoman

administration against them. Azerbaijani Turks living in Armenia during the USSR period, were subject to great migration in the years 1948-53 and approximately 150 thousand Azerbaijanis were expelled from the historic homeland Armenia and the Azerbaijani Turks were subjected to genocide for the third time. Last genocide was realized in front of the eyes of the modern world with conflicts that started in 1988. The Nagorno-Karabakh which turned into armed conflict in 1988, in short time flooded beyond the borders of Nagorno-Karabakh, and military achievements gained at the front gave the Armenian the possibility to come to the interior of the Azerbaijanis. As a result, 20 percent of Azerbaijan's territory has been occupied by the forces of Armenia (İlbay, 2009).

On the other hand, the Greeks just like the French, at the Lausanne Peace Negotiations did speak in favor of Armenians and did not hesitate to receive plenty of Armenian immigrants in their country. The Greeks, after Lausanne, dealing with their internal and external problems, in the Cyprus issue which was uncovered by the directives of the British from 1960, seeing old friends Armenians on their side, had given permission to its old allies for the establishment of the Armenian Community Committee" in Athens, Piraeus, Thessaloniki and Nicosia, and at the 50th anniversary of the events of 1915, supported the Armenians, applying to the United Nations for rights. A joyous celebration of Memorial Day ceremonies April 24 were

provided to the Armenians and the Greek Interior Minister Tsirimokos speaking at these ceremonies, accused the Turks of cruelty and slaughter against the Armenians. Greece, as in political Kurdish partisan issues, also became the most ardent advocate of the Armenian issue, (Çitlioğlu,2009:15-45)) and the April 24th memorial day, every year is memorized with the participation of the members of the Greek government, political parties, the archbishop of Athens and academics, and hostile speeches are continued to be held on this occasion. These meetings held in Greece are also joined by the Beirut Armenian Church and representatives of the Armenian and Greek communities in Cyprus (Saray,2003:135-136) Many more similar examples can be given.

In the international arena the sacred Armenian-Greek cooperation continues by being shaped on the historical Turkish hostility, and the Greek and Armenian lobbies with a great solidarity in the European Parliament, are continuing to have an influence on the decisions taken against Turkey. As can be seen in this decision, in terms of both the Armenian genocide, as well as the Cyprus issue, decisions supporting arguments of both sides were taken at the same time. Games played on Cyprus should be evaluated in this context.

POST- 1999 PERIOD

Turkey's EU candidacy, coming to the agenda once more with the 1999 Helsin-

ki Summit, gave some sections in the EP the opportunity to come up again with the issue of the Armenian genocide and this subject, usually were discussed during the examination of the reports prepared by the European Commission on Turkey at the Parliament. Moreover, the EP, putting into force the 1987 decision identifying the Armenian genocide with the Holocaust and being accepted with its various dimensions, was converted into a pressure element in EU's relations with Turkey and Turkey will always be confronted with this decision as this decision was referred to in several decisions and reports on various bases which we will define below. After the 1987 decision, the European Parliament, in relation to the so-called Armenian genocide took decisions in 2000, 2002 and 2005 with the same quality and nearly the same rhetoric. In one of these decisions the EP states, "the Turkish Government and the Grand National Assembly of Turkey is invited to accept in front of the public the genocide to which the Armenian minority was exposed to especially prior to the establishment of modern state of in order to provide a fresh support for the Armenian minority which forms an important part of Turkish society" (European Parliament, *European Parliament resolution on the 1999 Regular Report from the Commission on Turkey's progress towards accession* (COM (1999) 513-C5-0036/2000-2000/2014 (COS),15.11.2000).

It was determined that two more articles in relation to the so-called Armenian genocide had been added to this decision which was taken with the weighted votes of left-wing parties and with the subject "the steps taken by Turkey towards full membership in the EU". In this decision, the EP is claiming that the Armenians constitute an important part of Turkish society and wants the Turkish Government to officially recognize the genocide suffered by the Armenian minority. In the other article added Turkey is invited to establish normal diplomatic and trade relations with Armenia and to lift the embargo. As it can be understood from this decision, the EP supports the official thesis of Armenia in an historical event and thus becomes a political party of it and it also can be reached the conclusion that it acts one sided and biased against Turkey.

In fact, these requests, in diplomatic arrangements with different formats, will take place in the first "Turkey's Progress Report" prepared after the adaption of Turkey's EU membership application. Although, since 1998, there was not made any direct evaluation of the Armenian issue in the progress reports on Turkey's EU accession process which is published by the EU Commission each year, the 2000 Progress Report states that Turkey made some initiatives by contributing peace and stability in the Caucasus, and that the most important element of this initiatives is that the Stability Pact was not sufficient for the Caucasus, to elimi-

nate the unstable condition due to the continuance of the Karabakh issue, and it is reminded that Turkey still keeps closed its border with Armenia (.Commission of the European Communities, 2000 Regular Report on Turkey's Progress Towards Accession, 8.11.2000, http://europa.eu.int/comm/enlargement/report_11_00/pdf/en/tu_en.pdf s.67) Access Date:03.12.2009

By the 2000s, it is seen that now in Western capitals the 25th establishment anniversary celebrations of ASALA are made (Bayar,2000), that in Europe and America one after the other Armenian genocide decisions taken almost in an epidemic way, and that Armenian propaganda is ongoing and even being spread. In fact, France will announce the year 2006 as the year of Armenia (Hürriyet 2005).

The decision of the European Union in relation to the 2011 Progress Report does not include any word about the "genocide", but relations with Armenia were evaluated in this decision. For the re-establishment of dialogue between Azerbaijan and Armenia it is requested from Turkey to take an active role in this issue, and it is also asked to lift the embargo of Armenia. In the report it is mentioned that the border between Turkey and Armenia is still closed, and they confined themselves by emphasizing that an unofficial "Turkish-Armenian Reconciliation Commission" was created in order to achieve a development in the dialogue and

mutual understanding about economy, tourism, culture, education, research, the environment and mass media tools (Commission of the European Communities, 2001 Regular Report on Turkey's Progress Towards Accession, SEC(2001) 1756, 13.11.2001) However, the "genocide" issue, will appear again when the European Parliament in 2002 examines another report about the relations with the South Caucasus countries.

In the footnote of the explanations sections of a decision taken on February 28, 2002 by the EP with the heading "South Caucasus Report" which also did contain arguments of the Armenian genocide and, contrary to the other reports also used the name of Atatürk it is said as follows: "The fact that Genocide was recognized by the EP and some European countries, that at the end of the First World War, some responsible of the Turkish Regime were sentenced with some severe penalties due to the offence of genocide may constitute a basis for a suggestion of the EU for Turkey to bring this problem to a conclusion... Kemal Atatürk in his speech at the National Assembly dated April 10, 1921, came to the conclusion that the Young Turks regime, during the First World War, conducted genocide against the Armenian people." (EU Relations with South Caucasus, P5_TA(2002)0085 A5-0028/2002).

It is remarkable that European Parliament claims that Atatürk accepted that the Turks committed Armenians genoci-

de, and brings it into an act of parliament. However, contrary to these claims, there is no record of sources, stating that Atatürk recognized the Armenian genocide, and this also is not contained in his Parliamentary speech dated April 10, 1921. That means, Atatürk did not make any speech on April 10, 1921 in the Parliament, the Assembly protocols are clearly available (Bozdağ,2009).This decision alone shows that the allegations are unfounded and do lack from sincerity, and also shows the great damaging dimensions in the relationship.

In the meantime, the European Armenian Federation continuing its lobby and propaganda activities on December 3 2002, did send an anti-Turkey call to the governments of the 15 EU member countries, and stated that Turkey increased to apply pressure in terms achieving a date of accession of Turkey before the EU peak meeting to be held on 12-13 December 2002, and asked them not to give the genocidal, denying and aggressive Turkey a date for negotiations. In this paper published by the Armenians besides of serious human rights violations, it is specified that they do not want Turkey to be given a date for negotiations due to its general insensitivity against moral values and the ideals of peace and justice generally identifying Europe (Lütem, 2003:31). In the European Parliament resolution on the 2002 Progress Report, by putting the phrase “the solution of the Cyprus problem and the normalization of relations with Armenia,

of course is included in the issues prescribing the fulfillment of the Copenhagen criteria”, it was attempted to link the “genocide” issue to the Copenhagen criteria. It is seen that this request overlaps with the call of the European Armenian Federation stating that ‘Turkey’s recognition of the Armenian genocide, is the basic condition to become a member of the EU within the framework of democracy and human rights criteria”. Since in the Copenhagen Criteria to which countries wishing to join the EU must comply with, there is nothing said about the adoption of the so-called Armenian genocide, the Armenians, try to impose that democracy and human rights criteria also covers this issue (Lütem, 2003:25-27).

After the European Parliament took a new recommendation decision in this issue on December 15, 2004. The EP General Assembly, by secret ballot, accepted the Eurlings Report which created new pressure fields against Turkey and which requested Turkey to accept the Armenian genocide (Eurlings,2004:3). It is again remarkable that this report, openly accusing Turkey of genocide, wanting Turkey to accept the genocide against the Armenians in 1915 and wanting from Turkey to open the border with Armenia, was adopted two days before the December 17, 2004 EU Summit.

In this resolution it is stated that the borders between Turkey and Armenia are still closed and that the Turkish leaders

missed a good opportunity to establish good neighborly relations with Armenia, and emphasizes that the Turkish authorities failed to comply with other aspects of the Armenian question stated in the decision of the European Parliament dated 1987. In the European Parliament decision, with the purpose that Turkey and Armenia clearly overcome the tragic experiences of the past, if possible, with the help of an independent committee of a board of assessors, it is believed to continue the process of reconciliation, and Turkey is requested to open its border with Armenia in the shortest possible time. The keep good relation to your neighbors- pressure of the EU in relation to Turkey also includes Armenia and Greece.

In the draft report issued by Dutch MEP Camiel Eurlings of the EP Foreign Affairs Committee, not only the Armenian issue but also other requests that contain a variety of topics is seen to be contrary to the national interests of Turkey. While Turkey has hard times to get used to the EU's demands on the Cyprus issue, the EP report constituting a source for the progress report is full of fantasies, so to speak, it is officially being asked from Turkey to recognize the genocide, and Turkey is seen as the reason and responsible for the death of all the people known to have lived in Anatolia. As can be seen from these examples, the decisions of the European Parliament, much more do reflect the opinions of the Armenian than the European Commission reports. It is

remarkable that the EP, at various times, although in different subjects, insists that Turkey recognizes the so-called Armenian genocide, and to open its border with Armenia.

The only thing of the decisions of the Commission on what the Armenians will not be pleased, is that it was requested that the tragic experiences of the past shall be examined by an independent, two-sided committee of experts. Since they claim that the Armenian "genocide" is sufficiently proven, they do not support this expertise.

In the 21st paragraph of the declaration, accepted after the Summit December 17, 2004; the European Council refers to the decision taken by the European Parliament two days on December 15, 2004. In fact, this issue is also included in the European Commission progress report dated October 6, 2004. In the report instead of the phrase "genocide", with diplomatic word games it is used the phrase "tragic events" which could be accepted by Turkey. In addition, after requesting the establishment of diplomatic relations between Turkey and Armenia and prompting to open the land border in the report, the events of 1915 are mentioned as another important issue. In this respect, the fact that the final summit declaration dated December 17, 2004 points to the decision of the EP, in terms of Turkey shows that as of the approach to the Armenian issue in the commission's report

dated October 6, 2004 it is being gone backwards. From legal aspects the decisions of the summit are more effective than decisions of the commission. Since the EU Summit in Brussels, accepted the decision foreseeing to grant a date for accession negotiations for Turkey to the EU, the Turkish public opinion celebrated this in a festive air (Milliyet,2005) and it was considered that Turkey had entered the EU (Hürriyet, 2005).

A few days before Turkey's accession negotiations, on September 28, 2005, the EP adopted another decision more, particularly including the recognition of Southern Cyprus, and also including claims of the Armenian genocide and demands and complaints of the EU countries in relation to Turkey. Article J of the introductory section of this decision stipulates that the Turkish authorities, not yet fulfilled the demands of the European Parliament's decision of June 18, 1987 in relation to the Armenian issues. Article 5 of the process section of this decision invites Turkey to recognize the Armenian genocide, and it was stated, that this recognition is a precondition for joining the European Union.

The EP thus has once more proved its attitude against the so-called Armenian genocide. These decisions of the EP is such an important issue with important political, strategic and economical dimensions for Turkey that cannot be passed off with a defense stating: "the decisions of the

European Parliament is not binding but only advisory and shows the trends of the Parliament. According to Article 4, 6 and 10 of the EU Negotiating Framework Document in relation to the participation, dated October 3, 2005 signed by Turkey, "being bond to the condition of accepting of all decisions, declarations, etc. taken by EU institutions..." (<http://ekutup.gov.tr/ab/muzakere/cerceve.pdf>,10,10,2005). Access Date:13.12.2007

The resolution to the Armenian Genocide taken by many European states and the European Parliament is to be accepted and will be binding for Turkey. Thus, since decisions taken by the EP are part of the EU *acquis*, these will be binding for Turkey more than only being of nature of an advice (Teori, 2005: 3-8). Since the "The adoption of the Armenian Genocide" is not included in the Copenhagen criteria, and although in all other documents related to Turkey's candidacy, and latest in the Negotiating Framework document the records in relation to the request from Turkey to recognize the genocide claims are given with clear and precise terms, it was focused on this issue with diplomatic word games.

However, interpreting the above mentioned articles of the Negotiation Framework documents, we see the decisions taken by the EP, and it is understood that this situation if not now then in the near future will make Turkey to be obliged to accept the decision. In addition, since the

negotiations will also be held with Member States, also the Member States will be able to put their wishes on a separate table. Indeed, France, (Chirac, 2006). Netherlands and Austria have already said that they will discuss the Armenian “genocide” during the negotiations (Cumhuriyet, 2006).

If, during the negotiations, Turkey does not want to discuss this issue or indicates that it will not recognize the genocide claims, these countries will have the right to “veto” Turkey’s EU membership. Under normal circumstances it could be considered that Turkey’s EU accession process cannot be hold only for the “genocide” issue. However, if at the FP in the future, Turkey’s negotiations could be completed successfully and a Treaty of accession could be prepared, there is the possibility that the EP does not approve the Treaty of accession as long as Turkey does not take into consideration the decision of 1987 and other decisions taken in the same subjects in the ongoing period, and does not recognize the so-called Armenian genocide, and this possibility seems to be strong (Koç, 2005:36).

On the other hand, the demands of the EU in relation to the Armenian Genocide are also a part of the plan of giving a part of Turkey to the Armenians. Enlargement commissioner Olli Rehn speaking in the EP session held in Strasbourg on September 28, 2005, officially imposed the genocide in the Parliament and several

times recalled that the AP with its decisions accepted several times the motion of Turkey’s recognition of the Armenian genocide and again in 2004, took this decision and strongly defended that the Armenian should be a prerequisite for Turkey (Rehn, 2005).

OVERALL ASSESSMENT AND CONCLUSIONS

The Armenian issue which reached a damaging stage in terms of Turkey’s foreign policy and its relations with other countries, now is much far from being a historical problem and now is politicized especially by performing public diplomacy and lobbying of Armenians and European parliaments. Genocide claims nowadays taken up by the parliaments of several countries to their agenda, and becoming enacted in states such as Greece and France, have been carried in the leadership of the EP to the EU platforms and have been connected to Turkey’s accession process.

Evaluating the Armenian issue in the light of the facts and documents, it can be seen that it has no historical, scientific and legal basis for Armenian claims. This situation brings into mind that a new version of a pressure diplomacy, which was put into the sheath of a variety of colors and prints from 1878 to 1914 is exhibited. In recent years, Turkey is intensively accused of Armenian genocide, and especially in April of each year, the number of these attacks increases and becomes almost of-

fensive. It can clearly be seen who all of these policies, encourage the Armenians not to recognize the existing borders and to make demand for new land as a repetition of history.

It is necessary to evaluate the so-called Armenian genocide allegations of which propaganda is made and which are announced to the world with assassinations and terrorism and then are enacted at parliaments, within the frame of the 4T plan. The Armenian issue, which is reheated with allegations of genocide, now is beyond being a historical dimension and are put to the forefront in terms of international relations, and again has become a damaging factor for relations with some countries and an obstacle in front of Turkey's foreign policy especially after the Cold War. Looking at developments in the EU and around the world, approaches, which are often expressed in Turkish public opinion and decision-circles in Europe stating "we are not able to promote ourselves better", "The Armenian Diaspora finds support" or "Let's leave history to historians" are not the type of problem-solving approaches. It is necessary to analyze the issue very good. The subject is not only limited to the European Parliament resolutions and reports. The decisions taken in relation to the genocide of the Armenians in Europe and America and practices are coordinated.

The fact that in various forms and intervals, decisions have been taken against

the Turks in direction of committing genocide against Armenians in 1915 and the approach shown as justification for this has become a basic policy of the West with an integrity. Consensus provided on the subject shows that Turkey is not able to understand the goal it is directed to and its importance, also is an political and social deficiency. It is seen that the basic aim of the European Armenian Federation which is a subsidiary of the Dashnak Party and is Brussels-based, is to ensure that especially Turkey recognizes the genocide, and that Turkey only is accepted to the European membership after fulfilling entire demands of the entire Armenians, in other words, to ensure that these demands shall be a perquisite for full membership of Turkey.

The full membership in the EU adventure of Turkey which departed from being a rational choice and turned into an untold adventure of passion, has become a tool of the Armenian psychological operations. It has become a tool that adversely affects the image of the country, which have been used by some countries against Turkey concerning international relations, international law areas. From the above mentioned decisions, it can be seen that the Armenian issue which has occupied Turkey's domestic and foreign policy for many years, and more like is going to occupy it for much more time, in the recent time completely has been inflicted from its historical reality and has

become a foreign policy putting forwards demands unacceptable for Turkey.

In short, some countries wanting to prevent Turkey's EU membership have used the Armenian issue as a tool and will always be able to use the Armenian allegations. Because the European Parliament decision dated June 18, 1987 recognizing the Armenian genocide, and then the decisions taken with reference to this decision, are drawing the route of this and make it quite easier.

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ERMENİ MESELESİ'NİN TARİHİ DERİNLİĞİ VE KAMU DİPLOMASİSİ BAĞLAMINDA BİR ANALİZİ

Özet: Bu makalede multidisipliner bir bakış açısıyla Ermeni meselesinin; tarihi derinliği ve kamu diplomasisi bağlamında bir analizi yapılmıştır. Çalışmamızda, konu ile ilgili kaynaklara ve belgelere dayanarak betimleyici yöntem, tarihi karşılaştırma ve söylem analizi kullanılmıştır. Örnek olay çalışması olarak Avrupa Parlamentosu kararları incelenip tümevarım yöntemiyle bazı bilimsel verilere ulaşılmıştır. Şöyle ki; bugün Türkiye'nin dış politikasını ve diğer ülkeler ile olan ilişkilerini zedeleyici bir aşamaya gelmiş olan Ermeni sorunu, artık tarihi bir sorun olmanın çok ötesinde siyasallaşmış bir olgu olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Yunanistan ve Fransa'da olduğu gibi yasalaşan soykırımı iddialarının, Avrupa Parlamentosu öncülüğünde AB platformlarına taşınarak Türkiye'nin üyelik sürecine bağlandığı sorunsalını görüyoruz. Bu durum, 1878'den 1914'e kadar çeşitli renk ve kılıfa sokulan bir baskı diplomasisinin, çeşitli propaganda ve kamu diplomasisi faaliyetleriyle uluslararası iletişimde ve ilişkilerde yeni bir versiyonunun sergilendiğini göstermektedir. Bazı olayların sadece şimdiki durumda gözlenmesi yeterli değildir. Ermeni meselesinde olduğu gibi, şu andaki veriler soruların bütün cevaplarını içermeyebilir. Bu noktada tarih, sadece olayları tespit etmekle kalmayıp, olaylar arasında sebep-sonuç ilişkisi de aramaktadır. Başka bir ifade ile tarih, belgelere, olgulara ve olaylara bakarak, bunlar arasında bağlantı ve ilişki arayarak sosyal konularda genellemelere varmaya çalışır. Böyle bir anlayışın temellerini atan *İbn Haldun*'a göre, tarihin içinde saklı olan anlamı incelemek, düşünmek, araştırmak ve varlığın sebep ve illetlerini anlamak için olayların meydana gelişini ve akışını bilmek gerekir. Bu bağlamda; çalışmada tarihi sebep-sonuç ilişkisi içinde ele alıp bir karşılaştırma yapmak için bazı tarihi tespitler yapıldı. Şöyle ki, olaylar tarihsel süreç içerisinde ele alındığında Ermeni sorununun, XIX. yüzyılda büyük devletlerin Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nu parçalamak için uyguladıkları politikalarının bir uzantısı olarak ortaya çıktığı görülür. Osmanlı toprakları üzerinde XIX. yüzyılda başlayan ve XX. yüzyılın ilk yarısına kadar devam eden hâkimiyet mücadelesi boyunca, Avrupalı büyük devletler, Amerika Birleşik Devletleri ve Rusya, imparatorluk bünyesindeki Balkanlar, Ortadoğu ve Anadolu'da yaşayan birbirinden farklı etnik ve dinsel gruplardan müttefikler oluşturma stratejisi ve propaganda faaliyetleriyle döne-

mi şekillendirmişlerdi. Ayrıca, bu grupları birbirine karşı kışkırtıp örgütlemek suretiyle de XIX. yüzyıl ve sonrasını kapsayacak politikalarının temellerini attılar. Bu tarihi temeller bilinmeden bugün yaşanan ve yaşanacak olan olaylar doğru analiz edilemez. Dolayısıyla bu çalışmada tarihsel bir derinlikle Ermeni soykırımını iddialarının, yaşanan trajik gerçekler ve belgeler ışığında değerlendirildiğinde tarihi, ilmi ve hukuki hiçbir dayanağının olmadığı ve sorunun siyasallaştığı ispatlanmıştır. Türkiye son yıllarda yoğun bir şekilde Ermenilere soykırım yapmakla suçlanmakta ve özellikle her yılın Nisan ayında bu saldırılar artarak adeta saldırıya dönüşmektedir. Çalışmamızda; Ermeni suikastları ve terörle dünya kamuoyuna duyurularak propagandası yapılan, ardından parlamentolarda yasalaştırılan sözde Ermeni soykırımını iddiasının uluslararası iletişim bağlamında 4T planı çerçevesinde ilerlediğini tespit ettik. Soykırım iddialarıyla birlikte yeniden ısıtılan Ermeni sorunu, artık tarihi bir sorun olmanın çok ötesinde siyasallaşmış ve uluslararası iletişim boyutuyla ön plana çıkmış, özellikle Soğuk Savaş sonrasında yeniden Türkiye'nin dış politikasının önünde bir engel ve siyasi bir baskı unsuru olmuştur. Ayrıca, belli bazı ülkeler ile ilişkilerinde de zedeleyici bir faktör haline gelmiştir. Neticede; olayların tarihi boyutuna baktığımızda, Avrupa'nın XIX. yüzyıldaki Ermeni politikalarıyla günümüz Avrupa'sının Türkiye'ye yönelik Ermeni politikasının temelinde ve propaganda faaliyetlerinde esaslı bir değişimin olmadığı gözlenmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Avrupa Birliği, Ermeni Sorunu, Tehcir, 4T Planı, Propaganda, Kamu Diplomasisi Uluslararası İletişim

SPORT BRANDS PERCEPTIONS AMONG HEAVY USER UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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Abstract: The aim of the study is to explain popular sport brands' perception dimensions by students heavily use sport apparels. The sample of research consisted 223 university students from School of Physical Education and Sport. The research results revealed that perceptions on some of the brands with the statement expensive were significantly high and vary by gender and age groups. The results of this study indicate that with an appreciation with four brands, in point of popularity Adidas and Nike comes forward. Reebok was the most masculine one. Nike was the most expensive and Adidas was the most prestigious perceived brand. As far as Puma is concerned, the brand was perceived as expensive, progressive and gracious. Findings from this study provide managerial implications that can be used to better manage and market a sport brand. In this way, sport managers and marketers can enhance their brands by engaging in strategic activities designed to enhance the spectator experience with the offering.

Key words: Brand, Perception, Image, Brand Image, Brand Equity, Sport Brand

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE

Managers need to concentrate their efforts on managing their brands because of realizing brand is the most important asset of an organization. They use different branding strategies to increase the strength of the product image and carry out the market and product development strategies. These strategies are plans for systematic development of a brand to enable it to meet its objectives and distinguish or services from one another (Kaynak et al., 2007).

An extensive body of literature shows that brand means a name, term, symbol, design or a combination of them intended to identify services or goods of a seller or a group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competition (http1). In consumers perspective brand means memories, experiences, influences and they choose brands because of expecting a promise of quality. But in manufacturers perspective it is the name, the logo, colors and the symbols (Ewald and Moskovitz, 2006). Brand could be a symbolic embodiment of the information connected to the product or service that

creates recognition or association with customers in perceptive or psychological way. It differentiates products or services from others (Gladden and Funk, 2002) and allows the consumer to express his or her own self (Belk, 1988).

While brand reflects the idea of consumers about the product or the service, it is the fact that comes forward into the competition between firms. Companies, products or services must constantly want to be requested because of having higher revenues, cash flow and regular sales. Thus, the brand comes to the value and power indicator (Bosnjak et al., 2007). And it needs to be valued. The brand value lies in what consumers have experienced and learned about. The resulting brand associations held in a consumer's memory constitute the brand image and affect their behavior. Thereby, brand associations are important building blocks of customer-based brand equity and marketers should aim to optimize the attributes and benefits that the brand is associated with consumers, satisfying their wants and needs (Torres and Bijmunt, 2008).

Whereas branding has long been an essential marketing tool of for-profit firms to remain successful in an increasingly competitive environment, non-profit firms began to discuss the strategic use of brands in their sector in the mid-1990s (Voeth and Herbs, 2008). There are three important branding concepts and they are called, brand name, brand marks and

trademarks. Brand name refers the element of the brand that can be vocalized. When selecting a brand name for sporting goods or organizations, considerably marketing effort is required. Because choosing a name is such a critical decision for sport marketers to be ensure that the name symbolizes strength and confidence. The name of the brand must be positive, generate positive feelings, distinctive, easy to remember and pronounce. And also, it should be legally and ethically permissible. Brand mark is an aspect or element (such as color, design, picture, symbol, typeface) of a brand that cannot be expressed in words (Argan, 2008; Shank, 1999). A trademark identifies that an organization has legally registered its brand name or brand mark and thus prevents others from using it (Shank, 1999).

In sports market, from sport shoes to competitions, from a soccer ball to the fitness centers, there are various goods and services offered. Because of multitudes of the products in the sport market, goods and services must be classified. An important factor about the sport product is the brand image and there is a relationship between the image and the perceptions and attitudes of the consumers (Argan and Katırcı, 2008). Perception is the task for determining what is out there in our environment and in the world. It is affected by the experiences, environment, individual feelings, behaviors, aims and motivations (Shank, 1999). But at first glance the most important thing of the

brand is its image. It is a key component of customer-based brand equity and refers to the associations a consumer holds in memory (Torres and Bijmunt, 2008) and brings extra benefits such as trust, reliability and sophistication (Chiang et al., 2008).

Brand image is a complete concept with the whole of the product. It's all about the brand image which means as the reasoned or emotional perceptions that consumers attach to specific brands (Chiang and Jang, 2006). It is a concept that forms because of customers sensual feelings and can be reinforced by brand communications like advertising, promotion, customer service, word of mouth and other aspects of brand experience (Sung and Tinkham, 2005). Brand images are usually questioned by asking consumers the first words or images that come their mind when certain brand is mentioned. When the customers' responses are highly variable, non-forthcoming or refer to non-image attributes such as cost, it is an indicator of weak brand image. Gardner and Levy first posited brand image as an important part of consumer behavior research in 1955 (Vieregge et al., 2007). In sum, managing brands is so important consumers' base purchase decision on their awareness, perception and attachment to brands. Specifically, brand equity represents positive and negative associations with a particular brand name that adds to the value provided by the product (Rosner et al., 2004).

In marketing, brand image concept has been proposed to include associations related to attributes, benefits and attitudes (Keller, 1993). These benefits and attributes also are associated with sport brands, as well as overall/holistic evaluations of the brands. User or consumer of the sport brands tend to make attributions of the sports brand experience in terms of social, environmental, emotional, psychological. Additionally, consumers draw conclusions about a brand's overall image from impressions they have of the strengths and weakness of the brand's benefits and attributes. Images of sport brands are formed from past experiences, word-of-mouth, and marketing communications. Understanding the benefits and attributes that consumers associate with a sport brand lead to successful image management (Javalgi et al., 1992). To betray the brand image, perception maps about brand is applied. Multidimensional scaling and Correspondence analysis have been widely applied to create conceptual maps (Myers, 1996).

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES

The main aim of this study is to examine the perceptions about sport brands and to reveal the relationships among dimensions and brands. Previous studies (eg. Runeson and Frykholm, 1983; Robinson et al., 1998) underline perception is affected by some factors. One of the main factors is that perception varies by

gender. Generally speaking women's experiencing emotions are more intensely than men (Fujita et al., 1991). So they feel and show emotions deeper to anything. This effects their behaviors, feelings like love, sadness etc. By contrast, men are socially desirable and have self-oriented emotions (Robinson et al. 1998). So it can be said that perceptions on sport brands vary by gender and as a result the following hypothesized relationship is:

H1. Perceptions on sports brands vary by gender.

Cross-sectional and longitudinal studies show that age effects perception. For example from childhood or at the beginning of adolescence to early adult years perception differs. During adolescence although there is not much evidence, perceptions become much more negative (Maiano et al., 2004). Thus the second hypothesis is:

H2. Perceptions on sports brands vary by age groups.

METHOD OF RESEARCH

Two-hundred and twenty-three university students (141 male, 82 female) participated in this study. Students were selected from physical education and sports classes due to their interest. A questionnaire was developed consisting of two sections. The first section consisted 52 statements on perception dimensions of four popular sport brands. Seven point Likert Scale was used by respondents

in responding to attitude statements. In addition to the interview, statements used in this section were adapted from previous studies (e.g. Akar, 2008) The second section was designed to collect demographic data on respondents including students' individual usage of sport brands and their demographic information consisted of respondents' age, gender, average monthly household income and departments.

Questionnaires were distributed to individuals who were agreed to participate to the study following a short briefing in explaining the research aim. The questionnaires were answered by respondents in the researchers' presence. The time to explain the study and complete the questionnaire was approximately 15 minutes. A total of 260 survey forms were distributed,

223 of which were completely answered, resulting in a return rate of 85 percent. Since the questionnaire was used as the data collection method, SPSS 16 was used in the analysis of the data. A descriptive statistics, Frequency, percentage, averaging and standard deviation were used. In order to state the relationships and differentiations between variables, correspondence analysis, t-test and One-Way ANOVA were implemented.

Findings and Discussion

The Characteristics of Participants

Out of 223 respondents, 63.2% were males and 36.8 % were females. 20 to 22 years age braked (54.3 %) constituted merely half of all respondents. The reported percentages of respondents' average monthly income were less than 1000 TL constituted 37.2 % of all respondents. The percentage of respondents who were reported of having an average monthly income between 1001 and 1500 TL were

constituted 33.2% of all respondents. In terms of departments in School of Physical Education and Sports, 34.1% of the respondents were from recreation department and sports management department students of the respondents were 22.9%. The second class students came first of the respondents (31,4%), first, third and fourth class students were listed accordingly (See Table 1).

Table 1. Demographics of Participants

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>		<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>Gender</i>			<i>Department</i>		
Male	141	63.2	Coach Training	44	19.7
Female	82	36.8	Phy. Ed. and Sport	52	23.3
			Recreation and Sport	76	34.1
<i>Avarage Income</i>			Sport Management	51	22.9
500 TL	20	9			
501-1.000 TL	63	28.3	<i>Class</i>		
1.001-1500 TL	63	28.3	1 st	53	23.8
1.501-2000 TL	51	22.9	2 nd	69	31.4
2001 TL and <	22	9.9	3 rd	64	28.3
			4 th	29	12.5
<i>Age</i>			5 th <	8	3.6
17-19	38	17			
20-22	121	54.3			
23-25	47	21.1			
26 and >	13	5.8			

N= 223

Perception Dimensions of Brands

Table 2 shows respondents' perceptions about Nike and Adidas. In terms of res-

pondets' perceptions about Nike; Popularity (mean=5.94) and expensiveness (mean=5.78) came forward. Then the individuals heavily use sports apparels

agree with attitude statements included in survey form in following order. The brand was prestigious (mean=5.72), progressive (mean=5.48), elite (mean 5.42), attractive (mean=5.34), esthetic (mean=5.26) and it was gracious (mean= 5.23). And respondents' perceptions about Adidas; Popularity was the one drawing attention (mean=6.01). Also, Adidas was

perceived prestigious (mean=5.89), progressive (mean=5.83) and elite (5.59). Then the perceptions of Adidas in the survey form respectively were, expensive (mean=5.58), attractive (mean=5.55), masculine (mean=5.26), esthetic (mean=5.24) and also sympathetic (mean=5.06). (See Table 2)

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of Nike and Adidas

		<i>Nike</i>		<i>Adidas</i>	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
FEMMAS	(1) Feminine - Masculine (7)	4.54	1.31	5.26	1.23
NONELIT	(1) Unelite - Elite (7)	5.42	1.11	5.59	1.09
CHEEXP	(1) Cheap – Expensive (7)	5.78	0.90	5.58	1.15
UNPROG	(1) Unprogressive - Progressive (7)	5.48	1.12	5.83	1.01
UNPOPU	(1) Unpopular – Popular (7)	5.94	1.12	6.01	1.19
UNPRES	(1) Unprestigious – Prestigious (7)	5.72	1.0	5.89	1.03
BORGRA	(1) Boring – Gracious (7)	5.23	1.26	5.45	1.51
UNATTR	(1) Unattractive – Attractive (7)	5.34	1.22	5.55	1.44
ACCESS	(1) Accessible – Inaccessible (7)	4.00	1.66	4.14	1.82
UNEST	(1) Unesthetic – Esthetic (7)	5.26	1.18	5.24	1.48
UNSYM	(1) Unsympathetic – Sympathetic (7)	4.78	1.35	5.06	1.39
SOFTHR	(1) Soft – Hard (7)	4.30	1.30	4.57	1.40
BOREXC	(1) Unexciting – Exciting (7)	4.47	1.38	4.95	1.39

Table 3 shows Puma and Reebok brands perceptions. Puma was perceived expensive (mean=5.50) by the respondents of the study. Then the individuals perceived Puma respectively popular (mean=4.91), progressive (mean=4.85), gracious (mean=4.83), prestigious (mean=4.79), eli-

te (mean=4.77), masculine (mean=4.74), sympathetic (4.70). When the perception dimensions of Reebok are evaluated, Reebok was perceived expensive (mean=4.66), progressive (mean=4.62), elite (mean=4.58) and prestigious (mean=4.51) by the students. (See Table 3)

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of Puma and Reebok

		<i>Puma</i>		<i>Reebok</i>	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
FEMMAS	(1) Feminen - Masculine (7)	4.43	1.59	4.74	1.25
NONELIT	(1) Unelite - Elite (7)	4.77	1.35	4.58	1.19
CHEEXP	(1) Cheap – Expensive (7)	5.50	1.34	4.66	1.33
UNPROG	(1) Unprogressive - Progressive (7)	4.85	1.39	4.62	1.29
UNPOPU	(1) Unpopular – Popular (7)	4.91	1.42	4.50	1.24
UNPRES	(1) Unprestigious – Prestigious (7)	4.79	1.28	4.51	1.18
BORGRA	(1) Boring – Gracious (7)	4.83	1.39	4.46	1.22
UNATTR	(1) Unattractive – Attractive (7)	4.84	1.44	4.35	1.28
ACCESS	(1) Accessible – Inaccessible (7)	4.39	1.57	4.01	1.45
UNEST	(1) Unesthetic – Esthetic (7)	4.64	1.51	4.36	1.32
UNSYM	(1) Unsympathetic – Sympathetic (7)	4.70	1.40	4.47	1.28
SOFTHR	(1) Soft – Hard (7)	4.24	1.42	4.39	1.03
BOREXC	(1) Unexciting – Exciting (7)	4.38	1.51	4.15	1.34

Corresponde Analysis of Dimensions

To illustrate relationships between perception dimensions and brands, technique of correspondence analysis was applied. The objective of correspondence analysis is to portray data geometrically in low-dimensional space (Yavaş, 2001). Additionally, according to Hoffman and Franke (1986), correspondence analysis is a method of exploratory data analysis, which quantifies multivariate categorical data, affords a graphical representation of the structure in the data, and does not pose stringent measurement requirements. As a graphical method of data analysis, correspondence analysis is best

applied as a multivariate descriptive statistical technique which supplements other forms of analysis (Ngai and Cheng, 1997). Four graphical outputs generated by correspondence analysis are presented in Figure 1-2. The maps on the figure reveal the underlying dimensions related with popular sport brands.

The left part of Figure 1 shows the profile of each brand for the corresponding medium through which respondents' perception dimension of feminine-masculine. A significant chi-square value emerged for brands-feminine/masculine relationship. The value of $X^2_{(18)} = 115,100$ $p < 0.01$, indicating a statistically signi-

ficant relationship between brand and related dimension. The inertia ratio indicates the proportion importance of each dimension. The value of inertia explained 13.5% of the total variance. The proportion of 66.1%, 25.4% and 8% of the total variance explained the first, the second and third dimension, respectively. As it can be seen in left biplot on figure 1, Puma was perceived between feminine and less feminine. In contrast, Adidas was evaluated as masculine and very masculine by respondents. Lastly, Nike and Reebok were perceived mostly as neutral and less masculine.

Right part of Figure 2 indicates the relationship between four brands and popularity dimension. A significant chi-square value ($\chi^2_{(18)} = 277,917$ $p < 0.01$) was returned for the relationships. There was thus a statistically significant relationship between brand and popularity variables. The value of inertia explained 31.4% of the total variance. The proportion of 85.4%, 11% and 3.6% of the total variance explained the first, the second and third dimension, respectively. The right biplot (Figure 2) for the cross-tabulation of popularity by brands indicates that the four brands were differentiated in terms of popularity dimension. It would also seem that Adidas and Nike are popular and very popular. As it can be seen on the biplot, Puma was evaluated between of less popular and unpopular by respondent. Whereas, Reebok's image was eva-

luate at a point between of less unpopular and unpopular.

Figure 1. Perceptual Map Showing Feminine-Masculine and Popularity Dimensions of Brands

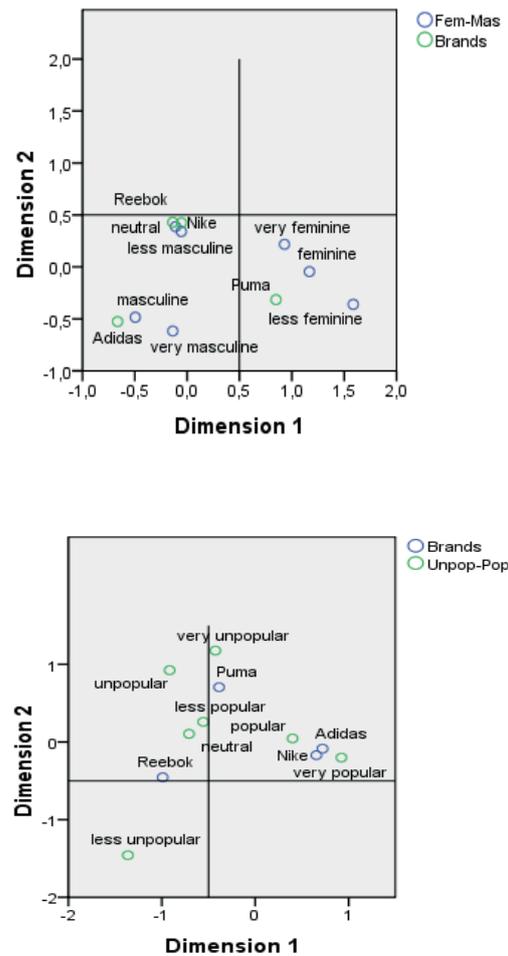
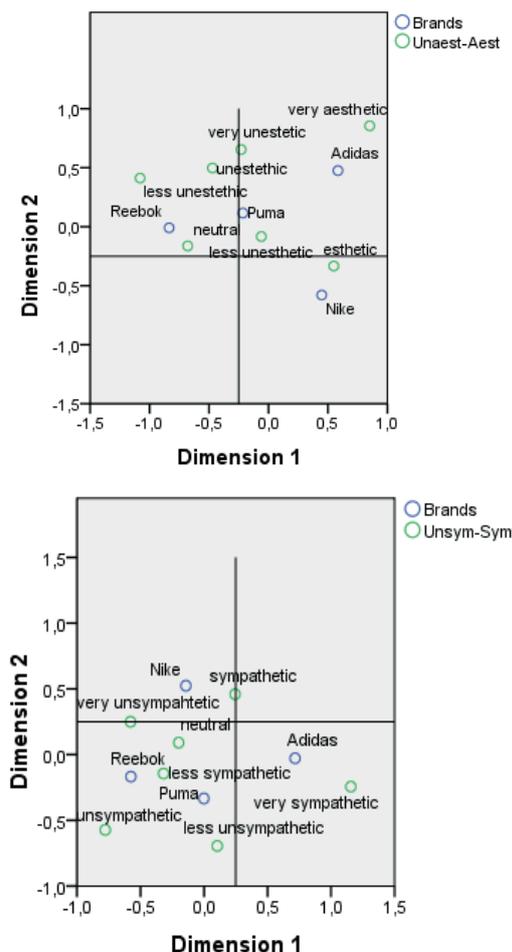


Figure 2 illustrates the graphical biplot generated by correspondence analysis. The left map on the related figure shows the relationship between brands and aesthetics. A significant chi-square value for brand- aesthetics relationship of $\chi^2_{(18)} = 115,688$ $p < 0.01$, indicates a statistically significant relationship between brand

and related dimension. The value of inertia explained 13.2% of the total variance. The proportion of 78%, 15.9% and 6.1% of the total variance explained the first, the second and third dimension, respectively. As the right part of the Figure 2 is shown, Adidas is very aesthetic. Additionally, Puma and Reebok were assessed as less unaesthetic brand. It can be stated from biplot that Nike has an aesthetic brand image.

Figure 2. Perceptual Map Showing Aesthetics and Sympathetic Dimensions of Brands



The right map on Figure 2 is the biplot for the cross-tabulation of sympathetic category by brands, which reveals the relationship between the row and column based on the proximities of points. A significant chi-square value was reported for the brand- sympathetic relationship, and is stipulated as $X^2_{(18)} = 51,120$ $p < 0.01$. Therefore, there is a statistically significant relationship between brand and sympathetic. The value of inertia explained 5.8% of the total variance. The proportion of 79%, 18.7% and 2.3% of the total variance explained the first, the second and third dimension, respectively. The right biplot indicates that Adidas was accepted as very sympathetic. Also, Nike was considered a sympathetic brand. Conversely, Puma and Reebok were seen by respondents as less sympathetic.

Differentiation of Brand Perceptions

In order to determine the variance on perception dimensions of sports brands between gender and age groups one-way ANOVA and t test methods were applied to data gathered via survey. In between variables with significant differences, averages of males were found higher than females.

Table 4 shows differentiation of Nike and Adidas perceptions based on respondents' demographics. On Nike brand as far as the gender variable is concerned, the only significant difference was on the statement of

cheap or expensive (CHEEXP). Mean of male respondents were higher than females. For the age groups variable, only two statements (CHEEXP and SOFTHR) were found significantly different. In order to assess differentiation of Adidas perceptions according to gender, two significant differences were found among

thirteen statements (ADIFEMMAS and ADICHEEXP). To observe the variance by age groups of perception dimensions of Adidas, results indicated a significant difference on ADIACCESS statement. (See Table 4)

Table 4. Differentiations of Brands (Nike, Adidas) According to Demographics

	<i>Nike</i>				<i>Adidas</i>			
	Gender		Age Group		Gender		Age Group	
	t	p	F	p	t	p	F	p
FEMMAS	0,138	0,890	2,934	0,055	2,453	0,015*	0,384	0,682
NONELIT	1,848	0,066	0,914	0,402	1,797	0,074	0,861	0,424
CHEEXP	2,716	0,007**	3,677	0,027*	2,563	0,011*	2,713	0,066
UNPROG	1,135	0,258	0,060	0,942	-0,373	0,709	1,153	0,318
UNPOPU	-0,101	0,919	0,320	0,727	0,476	0,634	1,350	0,261
UNPRES	-0,155	0,877	0,223	0,800	-0,053	0,958	0,307	0,736
BORGRA	-1,581	0,115	0,689	0,503	-0,649	0,517	0,232	0,793
UNATTR	1,323	0,187	0,118	0,888	0,405	0,686	0,547	0,580
ACCESS	-0,499	0,618	0,596	0,552	1,104	0,271	4,546	,012*
UNEST	1,370	0,172	0,866	0,422	-0,121	0,904	0,234	0,792
UNSYM	1,222	0,223	1,870	0,157	-1,046	0,297	0,047	0,954
SOFTHR	1,535	0,126	5,226	0,006**	0,634	0,527	0,188	0,828
BOREXC	1,027	0,306	0,213	0,808	-0,527	0,598	1,599	0,204
FEMMAS	0,138	0,890	2,934	0,055	2,453	0,015*	0,384	0,682

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

able 5 shows differentiation of Puma and Reebok perceptions compare to respondents gender and age groups. There was only a significant difference between gender and perception of Puma brand pres-

tigious or unprestigious statement (UNPRES). As for the age groups ten statements of the thirteen statements were found significantly different (NONELIT, CHEEXP, UNPROG, UNPOPU, UNPRES,

BORGRA, UNATTR, UNEST, UNSYM, BOREXC). In terms of differentiation of perceptions about Reebok brand according to gender, a statement (NONELIT) was found significantly different. As far

as age variable is concerned there was no significant difference between age groups and perception statements.

Table 5. Differentiations of Brands (Puma, Reebok) According to Demographics

	<i>Puma</i>				<i>Reebok</i>			
	Gender		Age Group		Gender		Age Group	
	t	p	F	p	t	p	F	p
FEMMAS	-0,253	0,801	1,532	0,219	1,480	0,140	1,406	0,247
NONELIT	-0,819	0,414	4,239	0,016*	2,047	0,042*	1,417	0,245
CHEEXP	0,841	0,401	15,947	0,000**	1,428	0,155	2,383	0,095
UNPROG	-0,278	0,781	7,290	0,001**	-0,275	0,784	0,295	0,745
UNPOPU	0,001	0,999	7,757	0,001**	-0,385	0,700	0,232	0,793
UNPRES	1,742	0,083	5,492	0,005**	-0,931	0,353	0,552	0,576
BORGRA	-0,225	0,822	5,561	0,004**	-0,602	0,548	0,494	0,610
UNATTR	0,295	0,768	6,731	0,001**	-0,318	0,750	1,058	0,349
ACCESS	2,351	0,020*	2,767	0,065	1,647	0,101	0,148	0,863
UNEST	0,543	0,588	4,867	0,009**	-0,252	0,801	0,515	0,598
UNSYM	-0,152	0,879	8,467	0,000**	-0,677	0,499	0,891	0,412
SOFTHR	1,288	0,199	1,798	0,168	-0,305	0,760	0,941	0,392
BOREXC	-0,126	0,900	4,369	0,014*	0,756	0,450	0,585	0,558
FEMMAS	-0,253	0,801	1,532	0,219	1,480	0,140	1,406	0,247

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Branding a sport product increases purchase behavior and attention to the product in terms of consumer behavior. But, first of all brand awareness must be created. Brand awareness attracts the consumer into the target market and makes people remember the brand name. After having

reached the desired level of awareness, purposes are to be directed to the brand image. Brand images are usually questioned by asking consumers the first words or images that come their mind when certain brand is mentioned. In this study researchers aimed to explain four popular sport brands perception dimensions and

conducted on heavily user students. This study also launched and exhibited application of correspondence analysis in assessing popular sport brands image. Correspondence analysis, as illustrated here, empowers sport brand managers by allowing them to visualize their brands' competitive standing relative to their competitors' strengths and weaknesses. Research results revealed that respondents' agreement on statements prestigious, popular, elite, progressive and attractive were found significantly high. However, respondents' perceptions on some of the brands statement expensive were significantly high, too. The results of this study indicated that with an appreciation with four brands, in point of popularity Adidas and Nike comes forward. Nike was the most expensive and Adidas was the most prestigious perceived brand. As far as Puma is concerned, the brand was perceived as expensive, progressive and gracious.

Nike and Adidas were also perceived prestigious, progressive, elite and attractive. In terms of accessibility Puma comes forward and the statement about hardness Adidas' has the highest score. In terms of differentiation of perceptions according to demographics (gender and age) there were significant differences. For example Nike's expensiveness was perceived significantly different both gender and age groups. When observing the variance by age groups of perception dimensions of Adidas, results indicated a

significant difference on accessibility statement. In terms of Puma brand as for the age groups ten statements of the thirteen statements were found significantly different. There was no significant difference between age groups and perception statements of Reebok brand but in terms of gender the only significant difference was on the statement Elite.

People's perceptions are effected from environmental and individual experiences so to influence their perceptions sports producers should be care about people's wants and needs. Just as in product positioning, perception of brand images really important for the producers. Findings from this study provide managerial implications that can be used to better manage and market a sport brand. In this way, sport managers and marketers can enhance their brands by engaging in strategic activities designed to enhance the spectator experience with the offering.

LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

As with all research, this study is not free of some limitations and suggests avenues for future research consideration. The current study focused specifically on limited number of people. Future research on perception dimensions on sports brands could be extended to include wider demographic base, both geographically and international-wise, to further explore the extent to which the findings are generalizable. Another limitation is the time the

research was done because perception is related with time. Four sport brands included into the research the most popular ones in Turkey. The respondents in the study were limited to those who are the students of Anadolu University, School of Physical Education and Sports and heavily use sports apparels in Eskisehir, Turkey. In future studies, many students or people should be included in a research to explain the perception dimensions of sports brands.

Acknowledgements

The current study was submitted as an oral presentation at International Marketing Communication Symposium in İzmir, Turkey, May, 29, 2009.

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ÜNİVERSİTE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN SPOR MARKALARINI ALGILAMA BOYUTLARI

Özet: Spor pazarında, spor ayakkabısından spor yarışmalarına, futbol topundan fitness merkezlerine kadar tüketiciye sunulan pek çok spor ürünü ve hizmetleri vardır. Spor pazarında bu kadar çok ürün ve hizmetin yer alması ürün ve hizmetlerin sınıflandırılması gerekliliğini ortaya çıkarır. Bu durumda spor ürün ve hizmetlerinde önemli bir faktör olan marka imajından bahsetmek faydalı olacaktır. Spor markasının imajının algısıyla tüketicilerin tutumları arasında önemli bir ilişki vardır ve araştırmanın amacı da ağırlıklı olarak spor ekipmanlarını kullanan ve giyen öğrencilerin spor markalarını algılama boyutlarını ortaya koymaktır. Araştırmaya 223 Beden Eğitimi ve Spor öğrencisi dahil edilmiştir. İki bölümden oluşan bir anket geliştirilmiştir. İlk bölümde dört spor markasının algılanma boyutlarını ortaya koymasını amaçlayan 52 ifade yer almıştır. Anketin ikinci bölümünde ise öğrencilerin demografik özelliklerini ortaya koymayı amaçlayan sorular yer almıştır. Değişkenler arasındaki ilişki ve farklılıkları ortaya koymak amacıyla correspondence analizi, t-test ve ANOVA analizleri kullanılmıştır. Çalışmaya katılan öğrencilerin yüzde 63.2'sini erkek, yüzde 36.8'ini kız öğrenciler oluşturmuştur. Öğrencilerin yüzde 33.2'sinin aylık gelirinin 1001-1500 TL arasında olduğu belirlenmiştir ve yüzde 34.1'ini rekreasyon öğrencileri oluşturmaktadır. Markalar ile algılama boyutlarını gösterebilmek için correspondence analiz tekniği kullanılmıştır. Analiz sonuçlarına göre tablolardan da görülebileceği üzere, Puma markası erkeksi ve kadınsı boyutunun arasında kalmıştır. Adidas markası ise erkeksi ve çok erkeksi arasında yer almaktadır. Nike ve Reebok ise nötr ve daha az erkeksi olarak algılanmıştır. Başka bir haritada ise Puma ve Reebok markalarının diğerlerine göre daha az popüler olarak algılandığı görülmektedir. Yapılan t-test ve ANOVA analizleri sonucunda, bazı spor markalarının pahalı olarak algılandığı ve bu algının yaş ve cinsiyete göre farklılık gösterdiğini belirtmektedir. Nike en pahalı, Adidas'ta en prestijli algılanan spor markasıdır. Puma ise pahalı, gelişen ve eğlenceli bir marka olarak algılanmıştır. Bu çalışmada, bir spor markasının daha iyi pazarlanması ve yönetimine ışık tutacak bulgular elde edilmiştir. Bu sayede, spor yönetimi ve pazarlamacıları tüketicilerinin deneyim ve beklentilerini daha iyi anlayarak bu doğrultu da tasarlanmış

stratejik faaliyetler yöneterek marka değerlerini artırma şansına sahip olabileceklerdir. Araştırmaya Türkiye’de en bilinen dört spor markası dahil edilmiştir ve araştırma sadece belirli bir coğrafik bölgedeki öğrenciler dahil edilmiştir. Gelecekte farklı markalar ve daha fazla katılımcı dâhil edilerek daha kapsamlı ve geniş sonuçlara ulaşmak mümkün olabilecektir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Marka, Algı, İmaj, Marka imajı, Marka Değeri, Spor Markası

ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL'S NEEDS FOR IN-SERVICE TRAINING: THE SAMPLE OF AĞRI İBRAHİM ÇEÇEN UNIVERSITY

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Abstract: The purpose of this study is to determine the needs of the Ağrı İbrahim Çeçen University administrative personnel's for in-service training. Descriptive survey was used in the study and 105 personnel working in the university participated in the study. The data of the study was collected with "Detecting the Administrative Personnel's Needs for In-Service Training" questionnaire which was developed by the researchers. The frequency (f) and arithmetic mean values of the data obtained from the questionnaire items was calculated and open ended questions were analyzed with content analysis method. As a result of the study, it was determined that the administrative personnel needs in-service training about "state organization, 657 civil servants law, 2547 law of higher education, dispatch and filing methods, problem solving and management skills, knowing personal rights, report preparation". Upon analyzing the views of the administrative personnel about in-service training, it was seen that "interests, demands and needs should be considered and the time allocated for in-service training" are important. In the responses of the personnel to the open ended questions, it was seen that the in-service training should be given by experts and the activities should be practical. According to data obtained, the writers made suggestions for an effective and efficient in-service training for the administrative personnel.

Keywords: In-service training, the need for in-service training, administrative personnel¹

¹ A part of this article was presented at the World Conference on Educational and Instructional Studies-Wceis-2012, November 07-09, 2012.

INTRODUCTION

It is depended on the increase of the quality of the education of the institution to survive from the intensive competition situations, rapid developments and changes caused by globalization. Education has an important role in determining the effectiveness and efficiency of the organizations which are set up to provide the social needs. The main purpose of the or-

ganizations is to serve the society by creating goods, labor or ideas. In the direction of this main purpose, individuals should be trained to be oriented to the institution, edify themselves, increase their professional competence, and gain the skills, knowledge and efforts to get promoted. As Parlayan (2003) states that there are several factors depending on the working environment and the person himself/herself. Education is also one of the determi-

nants affecting one's performance in an institution.

In an institution, labors are put into practice by the personnel working in various departments and ranks. It is only possible for the personnel to do their job effectively and efficiently by updating their knowledge and skills. Individuals can only keep pace with the changes occurring within or out of the institution (Aydın, 2012; Çevikbaş, 2002). In such an era in which the technology develops rapidly, the innovations in the social and economic fields and accordingly the knowledge about them increase, the institutions start to use the term human resources management instead of the term personnel management, total quality management practices gain speed the qualifications required for the personnel for a job also change (Aytaç, 2000; Khamadi, 1994). Scientific and technologic developments necessitate every employee to improve themselves and to learn the current knowledge and technologies about their profession.

Nowadays, difficulties in providing employment and market conditions have brought about competitions in labor force. In developed societies, institutions prefer their employees to be versatile and have advanced skills in their fields. Qualifications such as understanding complex relations within and out of institutions, adapting to the effective team work are what the employer desire from their employees

to have (Farrow, 1997; Osma, 2007). Therefore, it is important that university personnel working in different departments of the university should also follow the innovations and developments about their department just like the personnel working in other institutions. The education that one receives in formal education institutions may lose its topicality in time. So, in-service training is a necessity for gaining skills to evaluate production process, to share the knowledge and experience and to reach the ever-growing knowledge. The professional techniques and methods which change and develop more and more can only be taught with in-service training.

In-service training is an education which aims to increase the effectiveness and activities of the individuals in the work, to enrich the knowledge, skills and attitudes leading professional development, and it affects the institutions' general working methods. The general purpose of in-service training is that the individuals gain the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes to increase the efficiency of the proportion in the labor factor in the produced good and service (Gül, 2000; Pehlivan, 2012; Noon, 1992; Taymaz, Sunay and Aytaç, 1997).

Through in-service training, the individual gains the professional knowledge, skill and attitudes which are required for the work. The basic view of vocational training can be expressed as to prepare the

individual for a practical job. This view is an indirect expression of the fact that individuals who have received vocational training would have a better economic future compared to those who haven't received vocational training (Taymaz, Sunay and Aytaç, 1997). The changing and developing environmental conditions make the individuals and organizations improve themselves constantly. With the emphasis on quality, the constant improvement of the knowledge, skills and the attitudes, which the individuals should have, become a necessity. One of the common problems in almost every organization is the assurance of conformity of the personnel qualification to job specifications. The inconsonance between what the job requires and what qualifications the personnel has brought up the necessity of improving the labor force activities. The personnel who do not meet the requirements of the job in terms of competence are an obstacle for the aims and strength of the organization. In-service training is the best and most effective process to clear this obstacle (Açıklalın, 1994; Mathison, 1992; Yalın, 2001).

Determining the need for in-service training within an organization is the research to gather the required information for planning and programming the training activities. The need for education is the lack or the necessity of the knowledge, skills and attitudes to fulfill what the job or the service requires by the individual. In other words, the need for in-

service training is that the individual feels himself adequate in his job by solving the problems he encounters about his job. The individual is supposed to have gained the knowledge, skills and attitudes up to the mark to be sufficient in a task. Hence, the personnel working in government and private sector should have a specific level of adequateness to accomplish the goals of the organization, and in-service training is a necessity to provide this procedure (Karadeniz, 2008; Özan and Dikiçi, 2001; Roscoe, 2002; Veenman, Tulder, and Voeten, 1994).

Baki (2000) stated that faculties try to train personnel that the organizations need but this remains incapable within the long period, and people working in different organizations need support to follow the innovations which occur in time. He expressed that prevocational training is necessary for the personnel working in the organizations to understand better the changing tasks, roles and responsibilities; yet, it's not enough. After getting into a job, an individual observes that he needs a constant training because the knowledge and the skills he has gained during his education are not enough in practice, he realizes that he does not have enough information or knowledge about the field he works in, or the knowledge and the skills he has gained during his education changes rapidly (Metin, 2012).

University personnel should also have a constant training which meets their requ-

irements and help them to keep up with the changing and developing world (Ersoy, 1996). This need has been tried to be fulfilled with in-service training.

That the university personnel follow the innovations about their jobs improves the quality of the service. The education given by the formal education institutes may lose its currency in time. So, a constant in-service training is required for the skills of accessing the rapid increasing fund of knowledge, sharing the acquired information and skills and evaluating during the manufacturing process

The Purpose of the Study

It would be only possible with nationwide in-service training activities to prepare programs, which are appropriate to the developments in science and technology, about the information about their jobs for the personnel on duty and creating opportunities for them to apply and evaluate what they have learned. Consequently, it is thought that it would be useful to analyze the in-service training needs of the university personnel. In this study, it is aimed to determine the in-service needs of the administrative personnel of Ağrı İbrahim Çeçen University (AİÇU), a state university, where the researcher works and which is located in a relatively disadvantageous city, Ağrı. In parallel with this main purpose, answers are sought for the sub problems below.

Do AİÇU administrative personnel:

1. Have a difference between their arithmetic means in terms of importance and adequateness levels of the courses they have taken in basic training?
2. Have a difference between their arithmetic means in terms of importance and adequateness levels of the courses they have taken in preparation course?
3. What are their views about basic training and preparation course?
4. Have a difference between their views in terms of importance and adequateness levels of administrative staff?
5. What are their views about in-service training activities?

METHOD

Survey research, one of the quantitative research models, was used in the research. In survey research, the views or interests, skills, abilities, attitudes, etc. of the participants about a subject is determined and it is generally used in the researches which are applied on bigger samples compared to other researches (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz and Demirel, 2012). Within this research model, the surveys developed by the researchers were conducted on the AİÇU administrative personnel and it was aimed to analyze the in-service training needs.

The Sample and Procedure

Table 1.Data about the sample

T		f	%		f	%
Gender	Male	83	79	Experience	0-5 years	66 62,9
	Female	22	21		6-15 years	17 16,1
Age	20-30	59	56,2	Educational Status	16-20 years	22 21
	31-40	28	26,7		Secondary	14 13,3
	41-50	15	14,3		Associate's Degree	49 46,7
	51 and above	3	2,9		Bachelor's Degree	40 38,1
Unit	Rectorship	73	69,5	Master's Degree	2 1,9	
	Faculty	17	16,2			
	College	15	14,3			

The study group of the research is formed of 79 % (N=83) male, 22 % (N=21) female, 105 administrative personnel working AİÇU in total. The ages of the personnel are ranged between 56,2 % (N= 59) 20-30, 26,7 % (N= 28) 31-40, 14,3 % (N= 15) 41-50 and 2,9 % (N= 3) 51and above. Upon examining the work experience of the administrative personnel, it was seen that 62,9 % (N= 66) of the personnel has 0-5 years, 1,9 % (N= 2) of the personnel has 6-10 years, 14,3 % (N= 15) of the personnel has 11-15 years, 12,4 % (N= 13) of the personnel has 16-20 years and 8,6 % (N= 9) of the personnel has 21 years and more of work experience. On analyzing the educational status of the personnel, it was seen that 13,3 % (N= 14) of the personnel has secondary school grade, 46,7

% (N= 49) of the personnel has associate's degree, 38,1 % (N= 40) of the personnel has bachelor's degree, 1,9 % (N=2) of the personnel has master's degree. On analyzing the units of the administrative personnel, it was seen that 69,5 % (N=73) of the personnel works in rectorship, 16,2 % (N=17) of the personnel works in faculty, 14,3 % (N=15) of the personnel works in college.

Data Collection Tools

The questionnaire form developed by the researchers was used in the study to collect data. The questionnaire is formed of 4 sections. The first section includes a personal information form with which gender, age, work experience, educational status, unit information of the per-



sonnel is to be determined. The second section includes 5-point likert scale with 19 items to determine the importance and adequateness levels of the courses the personnel have taken in basic training and preparation course. The third section includes a 5-point likert scale with 21 items to determine the views of the participants about the executive acts. The fourth section includes seven open ended questions, which the participants have answered, related the views of the participants about in-service learning. Conducting the questionnaire took 20 minutes. After consulting the experts on the field of educational sciences about their opinions on the questionnaire, the pilot study of the questionnaire was done with 10 administrative personnel in order to assure the validity and reliability issues. So, this implememntation provided a piloting process prior to the data collection. According to the feedback obtained from the pilot study, the questionnaire took its final form.

Analysis of Data

After the questionnaire forms were conducted on the participants, the data was analyzed with SPSS 13.00. While the questionnaire items were being processed, the answers of the participants were graded and frequency, percent values and arithmetic means of the answers were calculated. Content analysis was used for the open ended questions.

FINDINGS

Correspondingly to the purpose of the study, the data obtained from the measuring instruments was statistically analyzed and the findings can be seen as below.

1. The perceptions and adequateness levels of the administrative personnel about the importance of the courses they have took in basic training

The arithmetic means of the importance and adequateness levels of the AİÇU administrative personnel about the courses they have took in basic training is indicated in Table 2.

Table 2. The arithmetic means of the importance and adequateness levels of the AİÇU administrative personnel about the courses they have took in basic training

	Significance level	Adequateness level
	\bar{x}	\bar{x}
1.Revolution History	3,40	3,78
2.The Constitution of the Republic of Turkey	4,21	3,41
3.State Organization	4,31	3,38

4.657 Civil Servants Law	4,58	3,56
5.2547 Law of Higher Education	4,34	3,17
6.Writing and Filing Procedures	4,46	3,67
7.Protecting Public Property and Saving Measures	4,53	3,87
8.Public Relations	4,51	4,00
9. Confidentiality and the Importance of Confidentiality	4,45	4,01
10.National Security	3,89	3,45
11.Communication and Telecommunication	4,32	3,80
12.Turkish Grammar	4,38	3,78
13.Civil Rights	4,55	3,95

After the Table 2 is analyzed, it can be seen that the administrative personnel stated that the importance level of the course "657 Civil Servants Law" is high ($X = 4,58$), but the adequateness level of this course is not adequate enough ($X = 3,56$). It can also be seen that the importance level of the course "Civil Rights" is ($X = 4,55$) and adequateness level is ($X = 3,95$), the importance level of the course "Protecting Public Property and Saving Measures" is ($X = 4,53$) and the adequateness level is ($X = 3,87$), the importance level of the course "Public Relations" is ($X = 4,51$), and the adequateness level is ($X = 4,00$). It can be seen that the importance level of the course "Writing and Filing Procedures" is ($X = 4,46$) while the adequateness level is ($X = 3,67$), the importance level of the course "Confidentiality and the Importance of Confidentiality" is ($X = 4,45$) while the adequateness level is ($X = 4,01$), the importance level of the course "Turkish Grammar" is ($X = 4,38$) while the adequateness level is ($X = 3,78$), the

importance level of the course "2547 Law of Higher Education" is ($X = 4,34$) while the adequateness level is ($X = 3,17$), the importance level of the course "Communication and Telecommunication" is ($X = 4,32$) while the adequateness level is ($X = 3,80$). It can also be seen that the importance level of the course "State Organization" is ($X = 4,31$) and the adequateness level is ($X = 3,38$), the importance level of the course "Turkish Constitution" is ($X = 4,21$) and the adequateness level is ($X = 3,41$), the importance level of the course "National Security" is ($X = 3,89$) and the adequateness level is ($X = 3,45$), the importance level of the course "Revolution History" is ($X = 3,40$) and the adequateness level is ($X = 3,78$).

As a result, it can be seen that except the course "Revolution History", the arithmetic means of the importance level of the courses the administrative personnel took in the basic training are higher than the arithmetic means of the adequateness

levels. The administrative personnel consider themselves inadequate about the indicated courses.

2. The perceptions and adequateness levels of the administrative personnel about the importance of the courses they

have took in preparation course

The arithmetic means of the importance level and adequateness level of the courses the AİÇU administrative personnel took in preparation course can be in Table 3.

Table 3. The arithmetic means of the importance level and adequateness level of the courses the AİÇU administrative personnel took in preparation course

	Importance level	Adequateness level
	\bar{x}	\bar{x}
1.The Constitution of the Republic of Turkey	4,07	3,59
2. 657 Civil Servants Law	4,36	3,58
3. 2547 Law of Higher Education	4,29	3,33
4. The Services and the Operations of the Units	4,21	3,62

As it can be seen in Table 3, the importance level of the course “657 Civil Servants Law” is ($X=4,36$) and the adequateness level is ($X=3,58$), the importance level of the course “2547 Law of Higher Education” is ($X= 4,29$) and the adequateness level is ($X= 3,33$), the importance level of the course “The Services and the Operations of the Units” is ($X=4,21$) and the adequateness level is ($X= 3,62$), the importance level of the course “The Constitution of the Republic of Turkey” is ($X= 4,07$) and the adequateness level is ($X=3,59$). According to table, it can be seen that the arithmetic means of the importance level of the courses the administrative personnel took in preparation course is higher than those of the adequateness level. According to these results, it can be said that the administrative personnel considers them-

selves inadequate about the courses they took.

3. The views of the administrative personnel about basic training and preparation course

Frequency and percent values of the answers of the AİÇU administrative personnel to the open ended questions about basic training and preparation course can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4. Frequency (f) and percent values (%) of the answers of the AİÇU administrative personnel to the open ended questions about basic training and preparation course

		f	%	The reasons of basic training being inadequate	f
Basic training	Adequate	42	40	Inadequacy of the superiors taught	30
	Inadequate	63	60	Procedure	13
				It was not applicable	32
				The time was very limited	40
				The training about my unit was missing	23
Preparation course	Adequate	39	37	The reasons of preparation course being inadequate	
	Inadequate	66	63	Inadequacy of the superiors taught	25
				Procedure	18
				It was not given particular importance to career development	17
				The time was very limited	25

As it can be seen in Table 4, 40 % (N= 42) of the administrative personnel participated in the research stated that the preparation course which they took in the first year of their jobs is adequate while 60 % (N= 63) of them stated that it isn't. 37 % (N= 39) of the administrative personnel stated that the preparation course is adequate while 63 % (N= 66) of them stated that it isn't. Some expressions of some of the personnel about the inadequacy of the basic training and preparation course can be seen below. "The courses were like tasks to fulfill the time for the superiors who gave the courses and just a procedure for the course attendees. I learned nothing." (Basic training, 26). "The courses were just read from a paper or on the internet. It was nothing else but a procedure to fulfill. (Basic training, 96). "Basic training is given just be-

cause it is compulsory. If they really wanted to educate the personnel, the procedure would be followed in a self-sacrificed and meticulous way. The superior who gives the lessons does not give adequate information. He doesn't even sometimes attend the courses..." (Basic training, 100).

"We didn't find any opportunity except to discuss the mistakes and injustice things we saw in the course. More comprehensive information wasn't given and some of the tutors didn't have adequate information. (Preparation course, 19). "I don't remember easily everything as everything was based on memorizing even though they tried to teach useful things." (Preparation course, 19). "They didn't give particular importance to career development. The courses were done out of working hours and they were too long, it was

a boring activity. The tutors were not expert about the subjects.” (Preparation course, 21).

4. The perceptions and adequateness levels of the administrative personnel about the importance of the administrative subjects given place in the activities

The administrative subjects which the AİÇU administrative personnel took in in-service training activities and the arithmetic means of the importance level and the level of their having information related to these subjects are indicated in Table 5.

Table 5. The views of the administrative personnel about the importance and adequateness levels related to the subject taken in in-service training

	Importance Level	Adequateness Level
	\bar{x}	\bar{x}
1. Computer (Using internet skills)	4,53	4,00
2. Office software (MSWord)	4,55	3,90
3. Office software (MS Excel)	4,52	3,64
4. Office software (MS Power Point)	4,22	3,38
5. Office management and regulation of government correspondence	4,47	3,80
5. Filing techniques	4,47	3,96
7. Labor discipline	4,57	4,17
8. Teamwork	4,55	4,08
9. Inter-office communication	4,46	3,80
10. Motivation	4,62	3,00
11. Maintaining and using office equipment efficiently	4,48	3,89
12. Speaking Turkish fluently	4,54	4,12
13. Code of protocol	4,33	3,90
14. Democracy and human rights	4,63	4,22
15. Environmental compliance	4,56	4,20
16. Time management	4,49	3,59
17. Personal development (NLP)	4,60	3,44
18. Problem solving skills	4,65	3,71
19. Personal rights	4,63	3,73
20. Report preparation	4,47	3,66
21. Skills of overcoming stress	4,60	3,32

It can be seen in Table 5 that the importance level of the views of the AİÇU administrative personnel about problem solving is ($X=4,65$) and the adequateness level is ($X=3,71$), the importance level of personal rights is ($X=4,63$) and the adequateness level is ($X=3,73$), the importance level of democracy and human rights is ($X=4,63$) and the adequateness level is ($X=4,22$), the importance level of motivation is ($X=4,62$) and the adequateness level is ($X=3,00$), the importance level of skills of overcoming stress is ($X=4,60$) and the adequateness level is ($X=3,32$), the importance level of personal development (NLP) is ($X=4,60$) and the adequateness level is ($X=3,44$), the importance level of labor discipline is ($X=4,57$) and the adequateness level is ($X=4,17$), the importance level of environmental compliance is ($X=4,56$) and the adequateness level is ($X=4,20$), the importance level of teamwork is ($X=4,55$) and the adequateness level is ($X=4,08$), the importance level of Office software (MS Word,) is ($X=4,55$) and the adequateness level is ($X=3,90$), the importance level of speaking Turkish fluently is ($X=4,54$) and the adequateness level is ($X=4,12$), the importance level of computer skills (Internet using skills, etc.) is ($X=4,53$) and the adequateness level is ($X=4,00$), the importance level of Office software (MS Excel) is ($X=4,52$) and the adequateness level is ($X=3,64$), the importance level of time management is ($X=4,49$) and the adequateness level is ($X=3,59$), the importance level of main-

taining and using office equipment efficiently is ($X=4,48$) and the adequateness level is ($X=3,89$), the importance level of report preparation is ($X=4,47$) and the adequateness level is ($X=3,66$), the importance level of office management and writing rules is ($X=4,47$) and the adequateness level is ($X=3,80$), the importance level of filing techniques is ($X=4,47$) and the adequateness level is ($X=3,96$), the importance level of inter-office communication is ($X=4,46$) and the adequateness level is ($X=3,80$), the importance level of code of protocol is ($X=4,33$) and the adequateness level is ($X=3,90$), the importance level of Office software (MS PowerPoint) is ($X=4,22$) and the adequateness level is ($X=3,38$).

According to Table 5, it can be seen that the arithmetic means of the administrative personnel about the importance of the administrative subjects are higher than those of the adequateness they felt.

5. The views of Ağrı İbrahim Çeçen University administrative personnel about in-service training activities

The percent and frequency values related to the views of AİÇU administrative personnel about in-service training activities can be seen in Table 6.

Table 6. The distribution of frequency (f) and percent values (%) of the answers of the AİÇU administrative personnel to the open ended questions about in-service training

	F	%	The reasons of those who state that in-service training should not be given to administrative personnel	f
Strongly agree	46	44	The personnel who pass KPSS should not take in-service training.	2
Agree	39	37	In-service training activities are not applicable.	3
Neutral	11	10	We had enough training; we do not need any other.	5
Disagree	6	6	Time	3
Strongly Disagree	3	3		

On analyzing Table 6, 81 % of the administrative personnel's answers (44 % (N=64) is "strongly agree", 37 % (N=99) is "agree") stated positive expressions while 10 % (N=11) of them are "neutral" and 9 % of them (6 % (N=6) is "disagree", 3 % (N=3) is "strongly disagree") stated negative expressions. Below are some of the expressions of some administrative personnel about not giving in-service training

"It is an unnecessary activity as it does not

give value for the time we spent." (87).

"Because we came here after being educated in much training." (58).

"The rules which are memorized are to be forgotten in time."

"The rules about the civil service only outlast if they are learned appropriately and on time." (38). The findings related to the number of personnel attended to in-service training can be seen in Table 7.

Table 7. The frequency (f) and percent value (%) distribution of the answers to the question about in-service training

		f	%			F	%
Did you attend in-service training course and seminars??	Yes	85	81	The number of the in-service training courses	1-3	69	66,7
	No	20	19		4-6	10	9,5
Do you follow the innovations about your tasks and fields?	Yes	49	46,7		7-9	1	1
	No	56	53,3		10 and more	5	4,8
The in-service training activities you have attended		n				F	%
Regulation of movable property		16		How should in-service training be given?	Seminar	21	20
Public tender act		18			Course	4	3,8
The use of student affairs automation		2			Conference	4	3,8
Information systems, management and organization		1			On-the-job training	50	47,6
Increasing the competences of public administrators		2			Distance Education	1	1
Economic Public Procurement Platform (EPPP)		3					
Seminar of Budget		1					
Government Correspondence		1					

As it can be seen in Table 7, 81 % (N=85) of the personnel working in AİÇU attended any of the in-service trainings while 19 % (N=20) of them haven't attended any of the in-service trainings. On analyzing the number of the training the personnel attended, the personnel stated that 66,7 % (N= 69) of them attended 1-3, 9,5 % (N= 10) of them attended 4-6, 1 % (N= 1) of them attended 7-9, 4,8 % (N= 5) of them attended 10 and more in-service trainings. When analyzing the frequency and

percent values about how the in-service training should be given, 20 % (N= 21) of the personnel stated that it should be given as a seminar, 3,8 % (N= 4) stated that as a course, 3,8 % (N= 4) stated that as a conference, 47,6 % (N= 50) of them stated that as a on-the-job training, 1 % (N= 1) stated that with distance education. 53,3 % (N= 56) of the personnel stated that they cannot follow the innovations about their field or duty while 46,7 % (N= 49) of them stated that they can. They stated

that the reasons why they cannot follow the innovations about their field or duty are that workload (17), not given the necessary opportunities (14), generally the superiors' attending the seminars and conferences (8), not being fond of the work (4), being understaffed (3). The in-service training to which the most of the

AİÇU personnel (N=16) have attended is regulation of movable property, and the least one (N=1) is budget and official correspondence.

The views of the AİÇU personnel about their needs for in-service learning are indicated in Table 8

Table 8. The analysis of the views of administrative personnel about their needs for in-service training

The views of the personnel about in-service training	f
In-service training activities should be given by experts	12
Personal development and communication should be prioritized in in-service training activities	10
In-service training activities should be applicable, not theoretic	18
The priority should be the working personnel, not the superiors.	6
In-service training activities should be held out of town.	28

As it is seen in Table 8, 28 of the AİÇU personnel who expressed their opinions stated that in-service trainings activities should be held out of town, 18 of them stated that in-service training activities should be applicable in real life, 12 of them stated that in-service trainings should be given by experts. Below are some expressions of some of the personnel about in-service training.

"A (NLP) training about administration should be given to all of the administrators for two days at weekend." (11).

"The trainings given need the personnel to be specialized. Personnel should be trained according to the needs of the units." (12).

"Instead of waiting personnel to do something, it is to give enough to the personnel. Considering the people in front of you as humans and treating them as such would be the best in-service training. Such trainings which train the administrators in the units as stated above should be given." (19).

"Let's please pay attention to the information given to be applicable, not theoretic. Personnel who demand to attend in-service trainings"

nings should be chosen fairly to increase our in-service training motivation.” (35).

“In-service training should be reconstituted considering the tasks the administrative personnel do. We are made to attend some courses and seminars perfunctorily even though they are not about our units.” (61).

CONCLUSION, DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTIONS

As a result of this study which was made with the Ağrı İbrahim Çeçen University administrative personnel to determine the in-service training needs of the personnel working in universities, it was determined that it is highly important for the in-service trainings to be accomplished that the in-service training needs should be defined before the trainings. It was determined with various research that it is needed first to make needs analysis for the in-service training activities to succeed and organizing the in-service training activities as to meet the needs of administrative personnel (Balcı, 2007; Chism, Lees, Evenback, 2002; Karadeniz, 2008; Malone, Straka, and Logan, 2000; Metin, 2012). Within this context, this study is of importance as it perceptibly presents the needs of Ağrı İbrahim Çeçen University administrative personnel.

It was determined that the administrative personnel consider themselves inadequate about the courses they took in basic training and preparation course. It was seen that only the arithmetic mean of ade-

quateness level about Revolution History course is higher than the arithmetic mean of importance level. The reasons for inadequateness can be seen in the answers of the administrative personnel to the open ended questions as “limited time, inadequacy of the superiors, the courses being not applicable, etc.” According to the findings obtained from the study, the administrative personnel consider themselves inadequate about the subjects related to administrative stuff. It was seen that the subjects in which the administrative mostly consider themselves inadequate are motivation, coping skills with stress, personal development (NLP), inter-office communication, personal rights, time management, problem solving skills and report preparation.

When examining the findings about giving the administrative personnel in-service training, 81 % of the personnel gave positive opinion that in-service training should be given. It was seen that those who think that in-service training should not be given stated their reasons as the in-service trainings are not adequate and applicable.

It was observed that the administrative personnel in general attend to in-service trainings, but these activities are inadequate. The administrative personnel stated that in-service training activities should be applicable on the job. It was seen that the in-service trainings to which the administrative personnel attend mostly

is "Regulation of Movable Property and Public Tender Act", and the one they attend least is "Government Correspondence". Besides, the administrative personnel stated that they cannot follow the innovations about their tasks or fields. It can be seen in the answers of the administrative personnel to the open ended questions that the reasons why they cannot follow the innovations are "not given the necessary opportunities" and "generally superior's attending to the in-service trainings".

When analyzing the answers of the administrative personnel related to their views about in-service training to the open ended questions, it was stated that "the in-service training activities should be given by experts; personal development and communication are not prioritized; the administrative personnel primarily attend the in-service trainings, not the superiors; in-service training activities should be held out of town."

In the light of the findings obtained from the study, it can be suggested as below.

1. The findings obtained from the study can be used to organize in-service training activities for the administrative personnel particularly in the universities newly established.
2. Before the in-service training activities prepared for the personnel working in different units are given, in-service training needs should be determined and the

programs should be made according to the results.

3. The courses and their content which were given to the administrative personnel working in different institutions in the first year of their service in basic training and preparation course should be reconstituted considering current conditions.
4. Opportunities should be provided to the personnel working in the universities to follow the in-service training activities.
5. The needs of the administrative personnel for in-service training should be determined regularly. The personnel who need in-service training should be provided to attend the in-service training activities.
6. Regulations in in-service training activities should be done for them to be more applicable.
7. Experts should give the basic training and preparation courses which are given as part of in-service training to the public servants mandatorily in the first year of their service.

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İDARİ PERSONELİNİN HİZMET İÇİ EĞİTİM (HİE) İHTİYACI: AĞRI İBRAHİM ÇEÇEN ÜNİVERSİTESİ ÖRNEĞİ

Özet: Bu çalışmanın amacı, Ağrı İbrahim Çeçen Üniversitesi idari personelinin hizmet içi eğitim (HİE) ihtiyacını belirlemektir. Küreselleşme sürecinin neden olduğu hızlı gelişme ve değişimlerle karşı karşıya kalan ve yoğun rekabet koşulları içinde olan örgütlerin varlıklarını sürdürebilmeleri, eğitim kalitelerini artırmalarına bağlıdır. Toplumsal ihtiyaçların karşılanabilmesi için kurulan örgütlerin etkinliğini ve verimliliğini belirlemede eğitim önemli bir rol oynamaktadır. Bir kurumda hizmetler çeşitli alan ve kademelerde çalışan personel tarafından gerçekleştirilir. Personelin görevini etkili ve verimli bir biçimde yerine getirebilmesi bilgi ve becerilerinin güncellenmesi ile olanaklıdır. Bireyler ancak bu şekilde kurum içinde ya da dışında meydana gelen değişmelere ayak uydurabilirler. Günümüzde istihdam yaratmada karşılaşılan zorluklar ve piyasa koşulları, iş gücü alanında rekabeti beraberinde getirmiştir. Gelişmiş toplumlarda kurumlar, çalışanlarının çok yönlü ve ustalaşmış becerilere sahibi olmalarını tercih etmektedirler. Karmaşık kurum içi ve kurum dışı ilişkileri kavrayabilme yeterliliği ve etkili ekip çalışmasına uyum gibi yetenekler de işverenler tarafından personelde bulunması arzu edilen özelliklerdendir. Dolayısıyla farklı kurumlarda çalışan personeller gibi üniversite bünyesinde farklı birimlerde görev yapan personelinde mesleki alanlarındaki yenilikleri ve gelişmeleri takip etmeleri önemlidir. Örgün eğitim kurumlarında verilen eğitim zaman içinde güncelliğini yitirebilmektedir. Bu yüzden, sürekli artan bilgi birikimine hızlı ulaşma, edinilen bilgi ve deneyimleri paylaşma ve üretim süreçlerinde değerlendirebilme becerisi için hizmet içi eğitim şarttır. Hizmet içi eğitim, kişilerin hizmetteki verim ve etkinliklerinin artırılmasını, mesleki gelişmeye yol açan bilgi, beceri ve tutumların zenginleştirilmesini amaç edinen ve kurumların genel çalışma düzenini sürekli olarak etkileyen eğitimidir. Hizmet içi eğitimin genel amacı, üretilen mal ve hizmette emek faktörüne düşen payın verimliliğini artırmak üzere insanların gerekli bilgi, beceri ve tutumları kazanmalarınıdır. Değişen ve gelişen çevre şartları örgütlerin ve bireylerin sürekli gelişimini gerekli kılmaktadır. Kaliteye verilen önemle birlikte çalışanların sahip olması gereken bilgi, beceri ve tutumların sürekli geliştirilmesi zorunlu hale gelmiştir. Hemen her örgütteki ortak problem alanlarından biri, personel niteliğinin iş gereklerine uygunluğunun sağlanamamasıdır. İşin

gerektirdiği ile personelin sahip olduğu yeterlikler arasındaki uyumsuzluklar, insan gücünü geliştirme faaliyetlerinin gerekliliğini ortaya çıkarmıştır. Yeterlik yönünden işin gereklerini karşılayamayan personel, örgütün amaçları ve etkinliği yönünden bir engeldir. Hizmet içi eğitim bu engel durumu aşmak için en iyi ve etkili süreçlerden biridir. Üniversitede çalışan personelin de gereksinimlerine uygun, değişen ve gelişen dünyaya ayak uydurabilmeleri için sürekli eğitim görmeleri gerekmektedir. Üniversitede çalışan personelin meslekleri ile ilgili yenilikleri takip etmeleri yapılan işin kalitesini artırır. Örgün eğitim kurumlarında verilen eğitim, zaman içinde güncelliğini yitirebilmektedir. Bu yüzden, sürekli artan bilgi birikimine hızlı ulaşma, edinilen bilgi ve deneyimleri paylaşma ve üretim süreçlerinde değerlendirebilme becerisi için sürekli bir meslek içi eğitim şarttır. Tarama yöntemi kullanılarak yapılan araştırma, üniversite bünyesinde çalışan 105 personel ile yürütülmüştür. Çalışmanın verileri araştırmacılar tarafından geliştirilen “İdari Personelin Hizmet İçi Eğitim (HİE) İhtiyacını Belirleme” anketi ile bir pilot uygulama sonrasında toplanmıştır. Anket maddelerinden elde edilen verilerin aritmetik ortalama ve frekans (f) değerleri bulunmuş açık uçlu sorular ise içerik analizi ile çözümlenmiştir. Araştırma sonucunda idari personelin “devlet teşkilatı, 657 Devlet Memurları Kanunu, 2547 Yükseköğretim Kanunu, yazışma ve dosyalama usulleri, problem çözme ve yönetim becerileri, özlük haklarını bilme rapor hazırlama” gibi konularda hizmet içi eğitime ihtiyacı olduğu belirlenmiştir. İdari personelin hizmet içi eğitim ile ilgili görüşleri incelendiğinde “HİE’de ilgi istek ve ihtiyaçların göz önünde bulundurulması gerektiği ve HİE için ayrılan sürenin” önemli olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Personelin açık uçlu sorulara verdikleri yanıtlarda ise HİE’nin uzman kişiler tarafından verilmesi gerektiği, etkinliklerin uygulamaya yönelik olması gerektiği ifade edilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Hizmet içi eğitim, hizmet içi eğitim ihtiyacı, idari personel

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