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**Dear readers,**

We gave place to a total of 7 articles in this volume which became entitled to be published and completed the process of referee evaluation. We wholeheartedly thank our esteemed authors who shared these precious and valuable articles. In this volume, there are 3 studies in different subjects about Sports Sciences. We got 3 articles in different subjects from Educational Sciences and one article from the field of Business Administration to you. 262 publications were sent to our journal as of the eighth volume, and 93 of them are still under referee evaluation. 162 publications didn't meet the conditions of journal publication and couldn't get through the referee evaluation process positively. We pay attention to equal distribution in each volume and we do our best to publish the studies as fast as possible together with referees, science board, executive board and publication board. The publications sent to our journal are firstly evaluated by the authorized people in editorial board and then sent to field referees. Before that, the publications were evaluated just in terms of whether they were suitable for the journal, but as of the seventh volume they are carefully reviewed by field editors, editors and executive board. Referees are provided to be more actively, effectively and faster included in studies with these publications. Our journal applied to 14 different international indices as of the eighth volume and these applications were positively taken into consideration for review of the journal. Our next volume will be uploaded to the system at the end of June 2013. We wish health, wealth and happiness to all of you by hoping to be together in our 10th volume.

**Referees of this volume:**Nezahat GÜÇLÜ, Fatma TEZEL ŞAHİN, Ali Serdar YÜCEL, Gökşen ARAS, Şahika KARACA, Hülya Gülay OGELMAN, Sinan AYAN, Fehmi TUNCEL, Kürşad ZORLU, Mutlu TÜRKMEN, Fatih ÇATIKKAŞ, Yener ÖZEN, Ayhan AYTAÇ, Sinan AYAN, Adalet KANDIR, Zeki KAYA

**Condolence:** The esteemed mother of Dr. Ali Serdar YÜCEL-who is among the referees of our journal and a member of editorial board-passed away. We wish God's mercy and grace to him and his relatives together with patience.



## EVALUATION OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' OPINIONS OF MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION

*Semra DEMİR<sup>1</sup> Fatma BAŞARIR<sup>2</sup>*

**Abstract:** This study is concerned with the perception of multicultural education at the level of faculty of education, with a more open expression it's about the discovery of pre-service teachers' views of multicultural education which has goals such as educational equity and excellence, multicultural social competence, curriculum reform. Revealing teacher candidates' views on multicultural education can be considered as one of the critical steps to be taken to eliminate the bias, discrimination and inconsistencies that may occur in educational settings. The main purpose of this study is to evaluate pre-service teachers' views on multicultural education according to several variables. This study is in the category of descriptive researches according to the research objective. The model of this study is survey model when it's examined in terms of types of descriptive studies. The study group of the research consists of the fourth-grade students studying at Erciyes University Faculty of Education in 2011-2012 academic years. Personal Information Form and Multicultural Education Scale developed by the researchers were used for data collection. Data obtained from the study was computerized and analyzed by using SPSS 17.00 for Windows. Results suggest that even though teacher candidates have not received any training on multicultural education, their views on this issue are positive. The results of this study have revealed that female pre-service teachers' scores on multicultural education are higher than the scores of male pre-service teachers.

**Keywords:** *Multi-cultural education, Pre-service teachers' opinions, Faculty of Education.*

1 Erciyes University, Faculty of Education, Educational Sciences Department

2 Nevşehir University, Nevşehir Vocational College

### **Evaluation Of Pre-Service Teachers' Opinions Of Multicultural Education**

#### **Introduction**

It is not possible to say that today's societies have homogeneous qualities both in terms of individuals and social groups. Pluralism has almost become a natural structure of our societies and differentiated identities increasing with each passing day have turned out to be a fact of the world we live in. Accordingly, multiculturalism has become the subject of many different disciplines in the field of social sciences in recent times.

Multiculturalism is the recognition of race, ethnicity, language, sexual orientation, gender, age, disability status, social class, education, religious orientation, and other cultural dimensions (APA, 2002). According to Akdemir (2004), multiculturalism is the pluralism of incompatible yet reasonably comprehensive cultures. According to Canatan (2009), multiculturalism puts emphasis on the phenomenon of "diversity" which intrinsically disrupts all kinds of uniformity, unity and partnership in the society. Multiculturalism which is based on individuals and groups that make up a society coming from different backgrounds in terms of

language, religion, race, history and geography exists in communities living in a single political unit and within common borders (URL-1). The main objective of multi-culturalist discourse is the recognition and countenance of differences, herewith the creation of a harmonious and productive society (Yalcin, 2002, 46).

Education plays the most important role to preserve the culture of consensus in societies where differences intensively exist. In this respect, it's considered that the concept of multicultural education holds an important part in studies in the field of education. It can be said that the transition from agricultural society to industrial society and then to information society, migration events, unions among countries because of economic, social etc. reasons are effective in increasing the importance of this concept. In this period, while communities go through a transition from locality to universality, the creation of universal principles in education, recognition of different cultures, and acceleration of intercultural interaction have become a necessity. In addition, individuals grown in modern societies are expected to interact with different cultural groups and develop positive attitudes in these interactions. Therefore, the developed countries are dedicated to the work of multicultural education when they identify problems and find solutions related to education (Cirik, 2008, 27).

According to Banks et al. (2001), multicultural education is an idea, an educational reform movement, and a process that seeks to create equal educational opportunities for all

students, including those from different racial, ethnic, and social-class groups. It tries to create equal educational opportunities for all students by changing the total school environment. Gay (1994) defined multicultural education as an idea, an educational reform movement, and a process intended to change the structure of educational institutions so that all students would have an equal chance to achieve academic success. Mwonga, (2005) described the concept as a form of democratic citizenship education that recognized the plurality of the society, and attempted to bring historically marginalized groups to the forefront of public education, to further develop active democratic citizens. What these definitions have in common is that multicultural education is student-centered (Polat, 2009). Banks (1974), stated that multicultural education offered a type of training related to all cultural groups.

According to Gay (1994), educational equity and excellence, multicultural social competence, and curriculum reform are included among the major goals of multicultural education. Educational equity and excellence is based on the notion that educational excellence is unattainable for any student when certain groups are deprived of a fair chance to receive the highest quality education possible. It stands for comparability instead of sameness in providing equal educational opportunities for different students. It derives from the idea that when all students are offered more choices compatible with their cultural styles about how they will learn, none will be unnecessarily advantaged or disadvantaged

at the learning procedure. The purpose of multicultural social competence is to support cross-cultural communication, interpersonal relations, perspective taking, contextual analysis, understanding alternative points of view and frames of reference. It helps students understand the cultural differences and learn to interact with different people without making hasty and arbitrary value judgments about their intrinsic worth. Curriculum reform is related to the determination of the bias in written and oral materials.

Prepared in accordance with the constructivist approach in 2005 in Turkey, primary school curriculum's taking into account individual differences caused the reflection of the issue of multiculturalism to educational institutions. There is a significant relationship between multicultural education and constructivist approach which is sensitive to the lives of students from different social and cultural backgrounds and aims to educate individuals who are sharing and inclined to cooperate and work in groups (Toprak, 2008, 31). Both the constructivist approach and multiculturalism put emphasis on individual differences, pluralism and critical thinking, rest that knowledge is structured by a learner and attach importance to the accuracy of knowledge in the context and an individual's subjective signification rather than the concept of absolute knowledge. Constructivist approach where individual is at such a forefront cannot be considered separately from multicultural education.

Being one of the most important aspects of

educational institutions, teachers are practitioners of the curriculum prepared in accordance with constructivism. With the phenomenon of globalization, teachers have begun to encounter a number of problems that they haven't previously encountered in classrooms. The steady increase in the number of children with different cultural, ethnic, religious, etc. backgrounds is only one of these problems. Another problem is that some students show difference in their appearance and are ridiculed by others. Problems similar to these confront teachers with educational challenges that they do not know or do not expect and urge them to seek solutions (Kostova, 2009, 219). However, what is important is not the constant increase in the number of students in schools, it's teachers' responses to differences. Positive or negative responses of teachers can affect self-esteem and academic achievement of students from different backgrounds (Brown, 2007, 57). However, researches show that many teachers not having the necessary infrastructure are not sufficiently prepared to reconstruct the learning environment for students with different cultural backgrounds (Shade, 1989, Takaki, 1993; Au & Kawakami, 1994; Banks and Banks, 1995; Foster, 1995; Spring, 1995; Hollins, 1996; Gay, 2000; Gay, 2002). Teachers need to understand the basic principles of multicultural education in order to design effective learning and teaching environments (Fox & Gay, 1995; Melnick & Zeichner, 1998; Bennett, 2001; Sleeter & Grant, 2003; Banks, 2005).

Based on these findings, multicultural teacher education is of great importance. In the U.S.,

the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) determined one of the six basic standards as “*Experiences of Working with Different Students*”. In this context, in order for teachers to obtain credentials, all teacher education programs have to contain courses on multicultural education (NCATE, 2008). In Turkey, concerning teacher competencies, “General Proficiency Draft of Teaching Profession” has been developed by commissions working under the *General Directorate of Teacher Training and Education*. This draft is composed of six major competency areas, 31 sub-competencies about these competences and 233 performance indicators. The definition of competency area “*Personal and Professional Values-Professional Development*” which is one of the six competences is as follows; “*Teacher considers students as individuals, values them. He/she strives for the highest level of learning and development considering students’ social and cultural differences and interests.*” “*Taking into account the developmental characteristics, interests and needs of students and valuing them*” has been determined among the sub-competencies of “*student recognition*” competency. In addition, “*Diversification of teaching respecting individual differences*” has been determined among the sub-competencies of “*Learning and Teaching Process*”, one of the six competencies (URL-2). Therefore, considering individual and cultural differences are among the teacher qualifications continuously developed and updated to improve the status and the quality of the teaching profession.

In the case of multicultural teacher compe-

tences, faculties of education training teachers are of great importance. However, pre-service teachers studying in the faculties of education come from very different social, cultural and ethnic backgrounds and constitute a wide range with all these characteristics. However, researches reveal that teachers may be prejudiced against students who are different from themselves in the classroom and these trends may have a negative effect on communication with different groups and students’ academic and social development (Baker, 1981; Bandura, 1982; Pohan, 1994; Gay, 2000; Nieto, 2000; Brown, 2004). Baker (1981), stated that many teachers might lack the required knowledge about history, religion and cultural differences of ethnic groups. According to him, this situation is not surprising as a result of the training teachers receive, for most of the teachers haven’t had training related to multiculturalism in faculties of education.

According to Barry and Lechner (1995), teachers must have the skills and willingness to interact with students and parents whose cultural backgrounds are different from their own. However, acquiring these competencies and attitudes does not seem to be easy (Wayson, 1988; Garcia and Pugh, 1992). According to Brown (2000), Banks (1996), and Sleeter (1995), the training intended for multicultural education practices in faculties of education will have a positive impact on awareness, beliefs, and behaviours of pre-service teachers about diversity. But researches show that a single course or field experience is insufficient to cause the desired changes in pre-service teachers’ perspectives and their teaching

practices in the classroom (Barry and Lechner 1995; Zeichner, Grant, Gay, Gillette, Valli, & Villegas, 1998; Xu, 2001; Brown 2004; Uk-pokodu 2004; Locke 2009). This is because each student brings her/her own attitudes, beliefs, values, dispositions, and experiences, and these “filter”s have an impact on interpreting her/his teacher preparation courses (Goodman 1988; Hollingsworth 1989; Borko and Putnam 1996; Garmon, 1998; Rosaen 2003). Therefore, Teresa and Pivera (2004) recommended creating a multi-cultural learning environment to help pre-service teachers to internalize multiculturalism rather than teaching them cultural sensitivity theoretically. Multicultural teacher education must be comprehensive and long term, it must provide convenient information, experiences, and support for pre-service teachers throughout their preparation program and even into the early stages of their in-service teaching, if possible (Grant 1994; Barry and Lechner 1995; Causey, Thomas, and Armento 2000). Unless pre-service teachers receive comprehensive training on multicultural education, they will continue to have difficulty on cultural diversity and doubt their abilities to provide effective education for different students (Gay and Howard, 2000, 15). In the literature, there are several studies examining pre-service teachers’ views on multiculturalism (Pohan, 1994, 1995; Cockrell, Placier, Cockrell, & Middleton, 1999; Montecinos and Rios, 1999; Bryan and Atwater, 2002; Middleton, 2002). Based on the results of the researches, the discovery of the views of pre-service teachers is of great importance as views can be predictors of their

classroom practices (Rios, 1996; Richardson 2003).

This study is concerned with the perception of multicultural education at the level of faculty of education, with a more open expression it’s about the discovery of pre-service teachers’ views of multicultural education which has goals such as *educational equity and excellence, multicultural social competence, curriculum reform*. Revealing teacher candidates’ views on multicultural education can be considered as one of the critical steps to be taken to eliminate the bias, discrimination and inconsistencies that may occur in educational settings.

The main purpose of this study is to evaluate pre-service teachers’ views on multicultural education according to several variables.

In the study, answers of the following questions were sought for this purpose:

1. What are the pre-service teachers’ views on multicultural education?
2. Do pre-service teachers’ views on multicultural education differentiate in terms of gender, mother tongue, income level of parents, department, educational background of parents, place of settlement and geographical region of the birth record province?

## **Method**

### **Model of the Study**

This study is in the category of descriptive researches according to the research objective.

Descriptive researches seek answers for the questions of “What is it?” and “What’s happening?”, detect states, and describe (Ural and Kılıç, 2006, 19). Descriptive research is the first and basic act of research and is of great importance in understanding and improving information. The model of this study is survey model when it’s examined in terms of types of descriptive studies (Ekiz, 2003, 20). The views of Erciyes University Faculty of Education students on multicultural education constitute the subject of the research. Without interfering with these views in any way, existing situation was tried to be described in accordance with the nature of the survey model.

### **The Study Group**

The study group of the research consists of the fourth-grade students studying at Erciyes University Faculty of Education in 2011-2012 academic year. It was determined that there were 729 students registered in the fourth class during the research period. The reason to prefer the fourth-grade students as the study group is that they are the closest ones to become a teacher and the most experienced individuals in their faculties. It is thought that the measurement tool’s being answered on the basis of voluntary participation reduced the rate of participation but improved the quality of the data. The researchers distributed 500 copies of the measuring tool, 354 of these returned without data loss on critical variables or the majority of the scale. The number of returned scale accounts for the 48.5% of the total students. Detailed information about the participants is presented in the findings part.

### **Data Collection Tools**

*Personal Information Form* and *Multicultural Education Scale* developed by the researchers were used for data collection. In the development of *The Multicultural Education Scale*, first of all, literature survey was done in libraries and secondary sources were collected, then theoretical framework was established. In order for items to be the products of a unique study, an evenly ranged 5-point Likert-type scale that hasn’t been used before tried to be developed. For this, all possible items that can be taken from the theoretical framework related to the research problem were written as a list. In order to enrich the scale items with data from the field, face-to-face interviews were planned and conducted. The data obtained from the interviews was organized and transformed into scale items. Herewith, the pre-form of data collection tool was created.

After the data collection tool was developed into a draft, it was presented to the views of the faculty members of Erciyes University Faculty of Education, Nevşehir University Faculty of Education, Niğde University Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences and opinions of experts were taken for content validity. Scale forms were modified and developed in accordance with comments and suggestions received and thus the final form of the scale was constructed. The scale was applied to 20 pre-service teachers having the properties of the study group and their views were taken on the clarity and understandability of the scale. Pilot study of scale

forms was applied to 42 pre-service teachers of Erciyes University Faculty of Education 4<sup>th</sup> grade students and the validity and reliability of the scale was carried out within the scope of this research. Overall reliability of the 26 items of *The Multicultural Education Scale* was found  $\alpha = 0.922$ . As a result of the KMO and Bartlett analysis, it was determined that the value of KMO was 0.954 and the value of Bartlett was smaller than 0.05, which showed that factor analysis could be made. As a result of the factor analysis, the three factors whose total variance is 61.88% were formed. Reliability of 13 items constituting the factor *educational equity and excellence* was found  $\alpha = 0.929$ . Variance ratio of 26.2% was obtained when factor analysis was performed. Reliability of 9 items constituting the factor *multicultural social competence* was found  $\alpha = 0.924$ . Variance ratio of 20.3% was obtained when factor analysis was performed. Reliability of 4 items constituting the factor *curriculum reform* was found  $\alpha = 0.875$ . Variance ratio of % 15,3 was obtained when factor analysis was performed. With these features, it can be said that this scale used in this study is one of the data collection tools with high reliability and validity for measuring the desired feature. Scale items are 5-point Likert-type. 5 point was given the option *strongly agree*, 4 point was given the option *agree*, 3 point was given the option *undecided*, 2 point was given the option *disagree*, 1 point was given the *strongly disagree*. The results of the scale diffused 5.00-1.00=4.00 point width. This width was divided by five and the levels determining the cut points of the scale were identified. The scale

evaluation criteria were defined as; 1.00-1.79; very low, 1.80-2.59; low, 2.60- 3.39; moderate, 3.40 -4.19; high and 4.20- 5.00; very high, respectively.

In the dimension *educational equity and excellence* of the scale, there are items related to providing equal educational opportunities for different students, arranging the classroom environment in a way accepting different points of view, accepting the differences and similarities among students, using content, teaching methods and evaluation techniques responsive to multiculturalism, creating tolerance towards diversity, studying the effects of race, ethnic origin, language, and social class interaction in society on student behavior (items 14, 15, 17, 18,19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 25, 26.). In the factor *multicultural social competence*, there are items related to vision of alternative perspectives in the classroom, empathic interaction with different individuals, reduction of prejudices against different groups, development of a democratic attitude toward different groups, helping teachers and students gain different knowledge, skills and attitudes from each other, ensuring that individuals are at peace with their own identities (items 1, 2, 3, 4,5, 6,7, 8, 9.). In the dimension of *curriculum reform*, there are items related to taking into account the differences of society in objectives and content of curricula and textbooks (items 10, 11, 12, 13.).

*Personal Information Form* which was used to obtain demographic information was prepared by considering the various factors that can have an impact on pre-service teachers'

opinions about multicultural education. In the *Personal Information Form* participants were asked their gender, mother tongue, income level of parents, department, educational background of parents, place of settlement and geographical region of the birth record province.

### Statistical Analysis of Data

Data obtained from the study was computerized and analyzed by using SPSS 17.00 for Windows. Descriptive statistical methods (number, percentage, mean, standard deviation) were used in the evaluation of the data. Kormogrov Smirnov-Normal Distribution test was applied for the variables of the study. It was identified that variables didn't disperse normally. Non-parametric methods were used during the data analysis. To compare quantitative data, Mann-Whitney U test was used for the comparison of the difference between two groups, in case of more than two groups, Kruskal-Wallis H-test was used for the inter-group comparisons of parameters.

### 3. Findings

Findings part of this study consists of two sections. While the findings regarding the profile of participants are given in the first section, the findings obtained in accordance with the research questions are presented in the second section.

#### 3.1. Findings Regarding the Participant Profile

Profiles of Erciyes University Faculty of Education students whose opinions of multicul-

tural education were researched are presented below.

**a. Distribution of the Study Group by Gender:** Distribution of the study group by gender is examined in Table 1. Accordingly, 226 (63.8%) of pre-service teachers participated in the survey are female, while 128 (36.2%) of them are male. To put it more clearly, more than half of the participants (pre-service teachers) are women. The reason for this may be that female pre-service teachers are more sensitive to the issue than their male fellows considering that participation in the study is on a voluntary basis or the number of female pre-service teachers at the Faculty of Education is more than the number of male pre-service teachers.

**Table 1** Distribution of the Study Group by Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Female	226	63,8
Male	128	36,2

**b. Distribution of the Study Group by Mother Tongue:** Distribution of the study group by mother tongue is examined in Table 2. It's seen that mother tongues of 331 (93.5%) pre-service teachers participated in the survey are Turkish, while mother tongues of 23 (6.5%) of them are other languages. As can be seen on these findings, mother tongues of most of the pre-service teachers are Turkish.

**Table 2** Distribution of the Study Group by Mother Tongue

Mother Tongue	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Turkish	331	93,5
Other Languages	23	6,5

**c. Distribution of the Study Group by Income Level of Parents:** Distribution of the study group by income level of parents is examined in Table 3. Accordingly, it's seen that 20 of (% 5,6) prospective teachers participated in the survey have 0-499 TL income, 56 (% 15,8) of them have 500-999 TL income, 82 (% 23,2) of them have 1000-1499 TL income, 82 (% 23,2) of them have 1500-1999 TL income, 49 (% 13,8) of them have 2000-2499 TL income, 22 (% 6,2) of them have 2500-2999 TL income, 43 (12.1%) of them have 3000 and higher level of income.

**Table 3** Distribution of the Study Group by Income Level of Parents

Income Level (")	Frequency	Percentage (%)
0-499	20	5,6
500-999	56	15,8
1000-1499	82	23,2
1500-1999	82	23,2
2000-2499	49	13,8
2500-2999	22	6,2
3000 and above	43	12,1

**d. Distribution of the Study Group by Department:** Distribution of the study group by department is examined in Table 4. Accordingly, 54 (% 15,3) of the pre-service teachers participated in the survey study in *Religious Culture and Ethics Teaching*, 55 (15.5%) of them in *Science Teaching*, 27 (7.6%) of them

in *English Language Teaching*, 59 (16.7%) of them in *Mathematics Teaching*, 84 (23.7%) of them in *Primary School Teaching*, 42 (11.9%) of them in *Social Studies Teaching*, 33 (9.3%) of them in *Turkish Language Teaching* department. According to the findings, while the highest participation rate belongs to the *Primary School Teaching*, the lowest participation rate was determined as *English Language Teaching*. The reason for the highest participation rate from the *Primary School Teaching* department may be that this department is represented by a greater number of students compared to other departments in the faculty or primary school teacher candidates may be more interested in the topic (Herron, Green, Russell & Southard, 1995). The student quota of *English Language Teaching* department is less than the other departments, which may be a factor affecting their participation.

**Table 4** Distribution of the Study Group by Department

Department	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Religious Culture and Ethics Teaching	54	15,3
Science Teaching	55	15,5
English Language Teaching	27	7,6
Mathematics Teaching	59	16,7
Primary School Teaching	84	23,7
Social Studies Teaching	42	11,9
Turkish Language Teaching	33	9,3

**e. Distribution of the Study Group by Educational Background of Mother:** Distribution of the study group by educational background of mother is examined in Table 5.

Accordingly, it is seen that while mothers of 25 (7.1%) pre-service teachers participated in the study are illiterate, mothers of 21 (5.9%) pre-service teachers are literate. It's also seen that 182 (51.4%) mothers are primary school, 40 (11.3%) mothers are secondary school, 51 (14.4%) mothers are high school, 35 (9.9%) mothers are college graduates.

**Table 5** Distribution of the Study Group by Educational Background of Mother

Educational Background of Mother	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Illiterate	25	7,1
Literate	21	5,9
Primary School	182	51,4
Secondary School	40	11,3
High School	51	14,4
College	35	9,9

**f. Distribution of the Study Group by Educational Background of Father:** Distribution of the study group by educational background of father is examined in Table 6. Accordingly, it is seen that fathers of 11 (% 3,1) pre-service teachers participated in the study are literate. It's also seen that 114 (32,2%) fathers are primary school, 42 (11,9%) fathers are secondary school, 80 (22,6%) fathers are high school, 107 (30,2%) fathers are college graduates.

**Table 6** Distribution of the Study Group by Educational Background of Father

Educational Background of Father	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Literate	11	3,1
Primary School	114	32,2
Secondary School	42	11,9
High School	80	22,6
College	107	30,2

**g. Distribution of the Study Group by Place of Settlement:** Distribution of the study group by place of settlement is examined in Table 7. Accordingly, it is seen that 47 (% 13,3) of pre-service teachers participated in the study live in a village/town, 64 (% 18,1) of them live in a country. 126 (% 35,6) of them live in a province and 117 (% 33,1) of them live in a metropolis.

**Table 7** Distribution of the Study Group by Place of Settlement

Place of Settlement	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Village/Town	47	13,3
Country	64	18,1
Province	126	35,6
Metropolis	117	33,1

**h. Distribution of the Study Group by Geographical Region of the Birth Record Province:** Distribution of the study group by geographical region of the birth record province is examined in Table 8. Accordingly, 14 (4.0%) pre-service teachers participated in the study appear to be born in the Marmara Region, 6 (1.7%) of them born in the Aegean Region, 53 (15.0%) of them born in the Mediterranean Region, 233 (65.8%) of them born in the Central Anatolia Region, 19 (5.4%) of them born in the Black Sea Region, 17 (4.8%) of them born in the Eastern Anatolia Region and 12 (% 3,4) of them born in the South Eastern Anatolia Region.

**Table 8** Distribution of the Study Group by Geographical Region of the Birth Record Province

Geographical Regions	Frekans	Yüzde (%)
Marmara	14	4,0
Eagean	6	1,7
Mediterranean	53	15,0
Central Anatolia	233	65,8
Black Sea	19	5,4
Eastern Anatolia	17	4,8
South Eastern Anatolia	12	3,4

### 3.2. Findings Regarding Opinions of Pre-service Teachers on Multicultural Education

In this section, where it is tried to be determined Erciyes University Faculty of Education students' opinions on multicultural education and whether these opinions differ according to variables such as gender, mother tongue, income level of parents, department, educational background of parents, place of settlement and geographical region of the birth record province, the findings obtained by statistically analyzing the data collected are given. Sequence of the questions whose responses are being sought for the purpose of the research followed in granting of the findings.

#### 3.2.1. Pre-service Teachers' Opinions on Multicultural Education

The first question whose response is being sought in the research is what the Erciyes University Faculty of Education students' opinions about multicultural education are. Views of the students have been examined in

terms of dimensions *Educational Equity and Excellence*, *Multicultural Social Competence* and *Curriculum Reform*. The limits specified in the method section have been made use of in the interpretation of the data obtained according to the arithmetic averages.

**Table 9** Means of Pre-service Teachers' Opinions on Multicultural Education

Dimensions	N	Mean	Sd	Min.	Max.
Educational Equity and Excellence	354	4,090	0,707	1,000	5,000
Multicultural Social Competence	354	3,969	0,753	1,000	5,000
Curriculum Reform	354	3,914	0,909	1,000	5,000

As can be seen in Table 9, means of pre-service teachers' opinions on multicultural education were found as; *Educational Equity and Excellence*;  $\bar{X} = 4,090 \pm 0,707$ , *Multicultural Social Competence*;  $\bar{X} = 3,969 \pm 0,753$ , *Curriculum Reform*;  $\bar{X} = 3,914 \pm 0,909$ . These values prove that pre-service teachers' views of multicultural education disperse on the options *strongly agree* and *agree*. In other words, prospective teachers have positive opinions about multi-cultural education. These findings also reveal that participants are in agreement at a *high* and a *very high* degree with skills and approaches such as arranging the classroom environment in a way accepting different points of view, making sure that students acquire the necessary skills required for a positive communication with different students, the necessity of using *content*, *teaching methods* and *assessment tools* responsive to multiculturalism, empathy for different indi-

viduals, considering the differences during the preparation of textbooks.

### 3. 2.2. Differentiation of Pre-service Teachers' Opinions on Multicultural Education by Demographic Variables

**Table 10** Differentiation of Pre-service Teachers' Opinions on Multicultural Education by Gender

<i>Dimensions</i>	<b>Group</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>MW</b>	<b>P</b>
Educational Equity and Excellence	Female	226	4,195	0,575	11988,000	<b>0,007</b>
	Male	128	3,904	0,865		
Multicultural Social Competence	Female	226	4,099	0,593	11763,500	<b>0,003</b>
	Male	128	3,740	0,933		
Curriculum Reform	Female	226	4,105	0,712	10633,500	<b>0,000</b>
	Male	128	3,576	1,102		

As a result of Mann-Whitney-U test performed in order to determine whether pre-service teachers' opinions change according to gender in all the dimensions of the scale, the difference among group means was found statistically significant in all three dimensions (*educational equity and excellence*;  $U = 11988.00$ ,  $p = 0.007 < 0.05$ , and a *multicultural social competence*;  $U = 11763.50$ ,  $p = 0.003 < 0.05$ , and *curriculum reform*  $U = 10633.50$   $p = 0.000 < 0.05$ ). In the first dimension, female pre-service teachers' scores ( $\bar{x} = 4,195$ ) were higher than the scores of male pre-service teachers ( $\bar{x} = 3.904$ ). In the sec-

ond dimension, female pre-service teachers' scores ( $\bar{x} = 4,099$ ) were higher than the scores of male pre-service teachers ( $\bar{x} = 3,740$ ). Female pre-service teachers' *curriculum reform* scores ( $\bar{x} = 4.105$ ) were higher than male pre-service teachers' curriculum reform scores ( $\bar{x} = 3.576$ ). In all dimensions of the scale, female student teachers reported more positive opinions than their male peers. This is because female participants may believe in the importance of including diversity and multiculturalism in educational settings more than male participants (Capella-Santana, 1995).

**Table 11** Differentiation of Pre-service Teachers' Opinions on Multicultural Education by Mother Tongue Variable

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>Grup</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>MW</b>	<b>p</b>
Educational Equity and Excellence	Turkish	331	4,087	0,685	2975,000	0,079
	Others	23	4,134	0,992		
Multicultural Social Competence	Turkish	331	3,968	0,740	3609,000	0,677
	Others	23	3,981	0,947		
Curriculum Reform	Turkish	331	3,925	0,862	3515,000	0,534
	Others	23	3,750	1,442		

It was found that *educational equity and excellence* ( $U=2975,000$ ;  $p=0,079>0,05$ ), *multicultural social competence* ( $U = 3609.000$ ,  $p = 0.677> 0.05$ ), and *curriculum reform* ( $U =$

$3515.000$ ,  $p = 0.534> 0.05$ ) score means of pre-service teachers participated in the study did not differ significantly by *mother tongue* variable.

**Table 12** Differentiation of Pre-service Teachers' Opinions on Multicultural Education by *Income Level of Parents* Variable

Dimensions	Groups (TL)	N	Mean	Sd	KW	p
Educational Equity and Excellence	0-499	20	3,846	0,635	14,378	<b>0,026</b>
	500-999	56	3,923	0,905		
	1000-1499	82	4,295	0,397		
	1500-1999	82	4,059	0,763		
	2000-2499	49	4,024	0,789		
	2500-2999	22	4,353	0,339		
	3000 and above	43	4,030	0,745		
Multicultural Social Competence	0-499	20	3,939	0,821	9,782	0,134
	500-999	56	3,808	0,768		
	1000-1499	82	4,088	0,633		
	1500-1999	82	3,931	0,798		
	2000-2499	49	3,762	0,949		
	2500-2999	22	4,232	0,470		
	3000 and above	43	4,142	0,609		
Curriculum Reform	0-499	20	3,638	0,954	13,487	<b>0,036</b>
	500-999	56	3,621	1,187		
	1000-1499	82	4,104	0,678		
	1500-1999	82	3,915	0,800		
	2000-2499	49	3,847	1,037		
	2500-2999	22	4,398	0,480		
	3000 and above	43	3,890	0,931		

According to the Kruskal-Wallis H-test which were performed in order to determine whether pre-service teachers' *educational equity and excellence* score means change by income level of parents, the difference among the groups was found statistically significant ( $KW = 14.378$ ,  $p = 0.026 < 0.05$ ). Mann-Whitney U test was performed to determine which group caused the difference. Accordingly, *Educational equity and excellence* scores of par-

ticipants from families with income of 1000-1499 TL were higher than the scores of participants from families with income of 0-499 TL ( $U=457,000$ ;  $p=0,002<0,05$ ) and 500-999 TL ( $U=1776,500$ ;  $p=0,024<0,05$ ). The scores of those who have 2500-2999 TL income were higher than the scores of participants who have 0-499 TL ( $U=100,500$ ;  $p=0,003<0,05$ ) and 500-999 TL ( $U=434,000$ ;  $p=0,043<0,05$ ). According to the Kruskal-Wallis H-test which

were carried out in order to determine whether there was a meaningful difference between pre-service teachers' *multicultural social competence* score means and income level of their parents, the difference among group means was not significant (KW = 9.782, p = 0.134 > 0.05). According to the Kruskal-Wallis H-test made in order to determine whether pre-service teachers' *curriculum reform* score means change by income level of parents, it was found that the difference among group means was significant (KW=13,487; p=0,036<0,05). The results of further analysis revealed that *curriculum reform* scores of pre-

service teachers with a 1000-1499 TL family income were higher than the scores of those with 0-499 TL (U=581,000; p=0,041<0,05) and 500-999 TL (U=1830,000; p=0,041<0,05) family incomes. *Curriculum reform* scores of pre-service teachers with 2500-2999 TL family income levels were higher than the scores of those with 0-499 TL (U=102,000; p=0,003<0,05), 500-999 TL (U=366,500; p=0,005<0,05), 1500-1999 TL (U=575,500; p=0,009<0,05), 2000-2499 TL (U=373,500; p=0,036<0,05) and 3000 and above TL (U=320,000; p=0,029<0,05) family incomes.

**Table 13** Differentiation of Pre-service Teachers' Opinions on Multicultural Education by *Department* Variable

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Sd</i>	<i>KW</i>	<i>p</i>
Educational Equity and Excellence	Religious Culture and Ethics Teaching	54	4,147	0,628	58,915	<b>0,000</b>
	Science Teaching	55	3,522	0,795		
	English Language Teaching	27	4,362	0,758		
	Mathematics Teaching	59	4,069	0,678		
	Primary School Teaching	84	4,223	0,598		
	Social Studies Teaching	42	4,280	0,753		
	Turkish Language Teaching	33	4,179	0,335		
Multicultural Social Competence	Religious Culture and Ethics Teaching	54	3,955	0,625	34,691	<b>0,000</b>
	Science Teaching	55	3,624	0,766		
	English Language Teaching	27	4,272	0,776		
	Mathematics Teaching	59	3,911	0,861		
	Primary School Teaching	84	4,000	0,722		
	Social Studies Teaching	42	4,238	0,730		
	Turkish Language Teaching	33	4,003	0,608		
Curriculum Reform	Religious Culture and Ethics Teaching	54	3,912	0,727	43,287	<b>0,000</b>
	Science Teaching	55	3,423	0,841		
	English Language Teaching	27	4,139	0,821		
	Mathematics Teaching	59	3,886	0,873		
	Primary School Teaching	84	4,033	0,895		
	Social Studies Teaching	42	4,179	1,196		
	Turkish Language Teaching	33	3,962	0,778		

According to the Kruskal-Wallis H-test performed in order to determine whether pre-service teachers' *educational equity and excellence* score means change by *department*, the difference among the groups was found statistically significant (KW=58,915;  $p=0,000<0,05$ ). Mann-Whitney U test was used to determine which group caused the difference. Accordingly, *educational equity and excellence* scores of teacher candidates studying in *Social Studies Teaching* were found to be higher than the scores of those who study in *Religious Culture and Ethics* (U=864,000;  $p=0,046<0,05$ ); Science (U = 343.500,  $p = 0.000 <0.05$ ), Mathematics (U = 894.000,  $p = 0.017 <0.05$ ) and Turkish Language Teaching (U=478,500;  $p=0,022<0,05$ ). *Educational equity and excellence* scores of teacher candidates studying in *English Language Teaching* were found to be higher than *Educational equity and excellence* scores of those who study in *Religious Culture and Ethics* (U=497,000;  $p=0,020<0,05$ ); Science U = 187.000,  $p = 0.000 <0.05$ ), Mathematics (U = 506.000,  $p = 0.007 <0.05$ ), and Turkish Language Teaching (U=275,000;  $p=0,011<0,05$ ).

*Multicultural social competence* score means of teacher candidates differ significantly by *department*. According to further analysis; *multicultural social competence* scores of teacher candidates studying in *English Language Teaching* were found to be higher than *multicultural social competence* scores of those studying in *Religious Culture and Eth-*

*ics* (U = 430.000,  $p = 0.003 <0.05$ ) *Science* (U = 310.000,  $p = 0.000 <0.05$ ), *Mathematics* (U = 557.000,  $p = 0.025 <0.05$ ); *Primary School* (U = 808.000,  $p = 0.024 <0.05$ ) and *Turkish Language Teaching* (U = 297.000,  $p = 0.027 <0.05$ ). *Multicultural social competence* scores of teacher candidates studying in *Social Studies Teaching* were found higher than the scores of those studying in *Religious Culture and Ethics* (U = 695.500,  $p = 0.001 <0.05$ ) *Science* (U = 512.500,  $p = 0.000 <0.05$ ), *Mathematics* (U = 917.500,  $p = 0.026 <0.05$ ), *Primary School* (U = 1283.500,  $p = 0.013 <0.05$ ) *Turkish Language Teaching* (U = 476.500,  $p = 0.020 <0.05$ ).

The *curriculum reform* score means of teacher candidates vary significantly in terms of *department* variable (KW = 43.287,  $p = 0.000 <0.05$ ). According to Mann-Whitney U test results; it was found that *curriculum reform* score means of teacher candidates studying in *Social Studies Teaching* were higher than *curriculum reform* score means of those studying in *Religious Culture and Ethics* (U = 663.000,  $p = 0.000 <0.05$ ), *Mathematics* (U = 773.500,  $p = 0.001 <0.05$ ) *Science* (U = 433.000,  $p = 0.000 <0.05$ ); *Primary School* (U = 1338.500,  $p = 0.025 <0.05$ ), *Turkish Language Teaching* (U = 454.500,  $p = 0.010 <0.05$ ). *Curriculum reform* scores of teacher candidates studying in *Social Studies Teaching* were higher than *curriculum reform* score means of those studying in *Science Teaching* (U=315,500;  $p=0,000<0,05$ ).

**Table 14** Differentiation of Pre-service Teachers' Opinions on Multicultural Education by *Educational Background of Mother* Variable

Dimensions	Groups	N	Mean	Sd	KW	p
Educational Equity and Excellence	<i>İlliterate</i>	25	4,129	0,897	14,936	<b>0,011</b>
	Literate	21	3,817	0,878		
	Primary School	182	4,178	0,654		
	Secondary School	40	4,212	0,449		
	High School	51	3,988	0,668		
	College	35	3,778	0,883		
Multicultural Social Competence	<i>İlliterate</i>	25	4,084	0,801	7,397	<b>0,193</b>
	Literate	21	3,614	0,871		
	Primary School	182	4,018	0,709		
	Secondary School	40	4,097	0,664		
	High School	51	3,845	0,821		
	College	35	3,879	0,818		
Curriculum Reform	<i>İlliterate</i>	25	3,680	1,370	15,926	<b>0,007</b>
	Literate	21	3,452	0,954		
	Primary School	182	4,036	0,814		
	Secondary School	40	4,113	0,610		
	High School	51	3,819	1,065		
	College	35	3,636	0,834		

According to the Kruskal-Wallis H-test carried out in order to determine whether pre-service teachers' *educational equity and excellence* score means vary by *educational background of mother*, it was found that the difference among group means was statistically significant (KW = 14.936, p = 0.011 < 0.05). Mann-Whitney U test was used to determine which group caused the difference.

Accordingly, it was found that *educational equity and excellence* scores of pre-service teachers whose mothers are *primary school* graduates were higher than the scores of those whose mothers are *high school* (U=3736,500; p=0,033<0,05) and *college* graduates (U=2123,500; p=0,002<0,05). However, it

was found that scores of teacher candidates whose mothers are *secondary school* graduates were higher than the scores of those whose mothers are *college* graduates (U=477,000; p=0,018<0,05). *Multicultural social competence* score means of pre-service teachers don't vary by *educational background of mother* (KW=7,397; p=0,193>0,05).

*Curriculum reform* score means of pre-service teachers significantly differ by *educational background of mother* (KW=15,926; p=0,007<0,05). According to Mann-Whitney U test carried out subsequently; it was found that *curriculum* scores of pre-service teachers whose mothers are *primary school* graduates were higher than the scores of those

whose mothers are *literate* ( $U=1160,500$ ;  $p=0,003<0,05$ ). It was also found that *curriculum reform* scores of pre-service teachers whose mothers are *secondary school* graduates were higher than the scores of those whose mothers are *literate* ( $U=245,000$ ;  $p=0,006<0,05$ ). *Curriculum reform* scores of teacher candidates whose mothers are *primary school* graduates were found to be higher

than their fellows, whose mothers are *college* graduates ( $U=2161,000$ ;  $p=0,002<0,05$ ). *Curriculum reform* scores of teacher candidates whose mothers are *secondary school* graduates were found to be higher than the scores of their fellows whose mothers are *college* graduates ( $U=2161,000$ ;  $p=0,002<0,05$ ). ( $U=455,000$ ;  $p=0,007<0,05$ ).

**Table 15** Differentiation of Pre-service Teachers' Opinions on Multicultural Education by *Educational Background of Father* Variable

Dimensions	Groups	N	Mean	Sd	KW	P
Educational Equity and Excellence	Literate	11	3,776	1,149	7,914	0,095
	Primary School	114	4,162	0,691		
	Secondary School	42	3,965	0,657		
	High School	80	4,215	0,566		
	College	107	4,001	0,764		
Multicultural Social Competence	Literate	11	3,596	1,078	9,127	0,058
	Primary School	114	4,054	0,673		
	Secondary School	42	3,791	0,728		
	High School	80	4,075	0,725		
	College	107	3,909	0,809		
Curriculum Reform	Literate	11	2,909	1,578	9,527	0,049
	Primary School	114	4,000	0,924		
	Secondary School	42	3,923	0,645		
	High School	80	4,056	0,778		
	College	107	3,815	0,924		

*Educational equity and excellence* score means of pre-service teachers didn't differ significantly by *educational background of father* ( $KW=7,914$ ;  $p=0,095>0,05$ ). *Multicultural social competence* score means of pre-service teachers didn't differ significantly by *educational background of father* ( $KW=9,127$ ;  $p=0,058>0,05$ ), either.

*Curriculum reform* score means of pre-service teachers differ significantly by *educa-*

*tional background of father* ( $KW=9,527$ ;  $p=0,049<0,05$ ). Mann-Whitney U test was made to find out which group caused the difference. Accordingly, it was found that *curriculum reform* scores of pre-service teachers whose fathers are *primary school* graduates were higher than the scores of those whose fathers are *literate* ( $U=370,000$ ;  $p=0,023<0,05$ ). It was also found that *curriculum reform* scores of pre-service teachers whose fathers

are *secondary school* graduates were higher than the scores of those whose fathers are *literate* ( $U=141,000$ ;  $p=0,043<0,05$ ). *Curriculum reform* scores of pre-service teachers

whose fathers are *high school* graduates were higher than the scores of those whose fathers are *literate* ( $U=255,000$ ;  $p=0,023<0,05$ ).

**Table 16** Differentiation of Pre-service Teachers' Opinions on Multicultural Education by *Place of Settlement* Variable

Dimensions	Groups	N	Mean	Sd	KW	P
Educational Equity and Excellence	Village/Town	47	3,900	0,884	3,281	0,350
	Country	64	4,145	0,633		
	Province	126	4,081	0,692		
	Metropolitan	117	4,146	0,676		
Multicultural Social Competence	Village/Town	47	3,664	0,866	12,339	0,006
	Country	64	3,998	0,616		
	Province	126	3,960	0,766		
	Metropolitan	117	4,085	0,734		
Curriculum Reform	Village/Town	47	3,356	1,193	12,926	0,005
	Country	64	4,012	0,640		
	Province	126	3,968	0,838		
	Metropolitan	117	4,026	0,906		

*Educational equity and excellence* score means of pre-service teachers didn't significantly differ by *place of settlement* ( $KW=3,281$ ;  $p=0,350>0,05$ ). *Multicultural social competence* score means of pre-service teachers significantly differ by *place of settlement* ( $KW=12,339$ ;  $p=0,006<0,05$ ). Mann-Whitney U test was used to determine which group caused the difference. Accordingly, it was found that *multicultural social competence* score means of pre-service teachers whose place of settlement are a *country* were higher than the scores of those whose place of settlement are a *village/town* ( $U=1101,500$ ;  $p=0,016<0,05$ ). It was also found that *multicultural social competence* score means of pre-service teachers whose place of settlement are a *province* were higher than the scores of those whose place of settlement are a *village/*

*town* ( $U=2338,000$ ;  $p=0,033<0,05$ ). *Multicultural social competence* score means of pre-service teachers whose place of settlement is a *metropolis* were higher than the scores of those whose place of settlement are a *village/town* ( $U=1814,500$ ;  $p=0,001<0,05$ ).

*Curriculum reform* score means of pre-service teachers significantly differ by *place of settlement* ( $KW=12,926$ ;  $p=0,005<0,05$ ). Mann-Whitney U test was used to determine which group caused the difference. Accordingly, it was found that *curriculum reform* score means of pre-service teachers whose place of settlement is a *country* were higher than the score means of their fellows who live in a *village /town* ( $U=1068,500$ ;  $p=0,008<0,05$ ). It was also found that *curriculum reform* score means of pre-service teachers whose place of

settlement are a *province* were higher than the score means of those whose place of settlement are a *village /town* ( $U=2071,500$ ;  $p=0,002<0,05$ ). *Curriculum reform* score means of pre-service teachers whose place of settlement are a *metropolis* were higher than the score means of those whose place of

settlement are a *village /town* ( $U=1843,000$ ;  $p=0,001<0,05$ ). In their study, Valentin (2006) and Çoban, Karaman and Doğan (2010) stated that individuals grown in metropolitan areas were more tolerant about multiculturalism than those grown in towns.

**Table 17** Differentiation of Pre-service Teachers' Opinions on Multicultural Education by *Geographical Region of the Birth Record Province* Variable

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Sd</i>	<i>KW</i>	<i>P</i>
Educational Equity and Excellence	Marmara	14	3,747	0,788	16,224	0,013
	Eagean	6	3,949	0,246		
	Mediterranean	53	4,135	0,464		
	Central Anatolia	233	4,060	0,773		
	Black Sea	19	4,372	0,304		
	Eastern Anatolia	17	4,430	0,418		
	Southeastern Anatolia	12	4,013	0,867		
Multicultural Social Competence	Marmara	14	3,659	0,804	10,787	0,095
	Eagean	6	3,685	0,630		
	Mediterranean	53	3,876	0,661		
	Central Anatolia	233	3,982	0,804		
	Black Sea	19	4,246	0,384		
	Eastern Anatolia	17	4,020	0,445		
	Southeastern Anatolia	12	4,120	0,827		
Curriculum Reform	Marmara	14	3,536	0,784	10,824	0,094
	Eagean	6	3,542	0,621		
	Mediterranean	53	3,802	0,910		
	Central Anatolia	233	3,943	0,921		
	Black Sea	19	4,197	0,329		
	Eastern Anatolia	17	3,971	1,166		
	Southeastern Anatolia	12	3,938	1,067		

According to the Kruskal-Wallis H-test made in order to determine whether pre-service teachers' *educational equity and excellence* score means differ by *geographical region of the birth record province*, it was found that the difference among group means was statistically significant ( $KW=16,224$ ;  $p=0,013<0,05$ ). Mann-Whitney U test was

used to determine which group caused the difference. Accordingly, it was found that *educational equity and excellence* scores of pre-service teachers whose *geographical regions of the birth record province* are the Eastern Anatolia Region were higher than the scores of those whose *geographical regions of the birth record province* are the Marmara-

ra Region, ( $U=45,000$ ;  $p=0,003<0,05$ ); the Eagean Region ( $U=17,000$ ;  $p=0,017<0,05$ ) the Mediterranean Region, ( $U=283,000$ ;  $p=0,021<0,05$ ); the Central Anatolia Region ( $U=1399,500$ ;  $p=0,043<0,05$ ). It was also found that *educational equity and excellence* scores of pre-service teachers whose *geographical regions of the birth record province* are the *Black Sea Region* were higher than the scores of those whose *geographical regions of the birth record province* are the *Eagean Region* ( $U=15,500$ ;  $p=0,008<0,05$ ) and the *Mediterranean Region* ( $U=313,000$ ;  $p=0,015<0,05$ ). *Educational equity and excellence* scores of pre-service teachers didn't significantly differ by *geographical region of the birth record province* ( $KW=10,787$ ;  $p=0,095>0,05$ ). *Curriculum reform* scores of pre-service teachers didn't differ significantly by *geographical region of the birth record province* ( $KW=10,824$ ;  $p=0,094>0,05$ ).

## Results and Discussion

In this study, the opinions of pre-teachers on multi-cultural education were analyzed in the sample of Erciyes University. The results of the research reveal that pre-service teachers' views of multicultural education are positive. The means of opinions of pre-service teachers participated in the study on multicultural education were determined respectively as *educational equity and excellence* ( $\bar{x}=4,090$ ), *multi-cultural social competence* ( $\bar{x}=3,969$ ), and *curriculum reform* ( $\bar{x}=3,914$ ). These results suggest that even though teacher candidates have not received any training on multicultural education, their views on this issue

are positive. This result is also consistent with the studies in the related literature. In Anıl and Yavuz (2010)'s study, pre-service teachers' attitudes toward multicultural education were measured and teacher candidates were identified to have positive attitudes towards multicultural education. In Polat (2009)'s study, teacher candidates have been determined as having an inclination towards multicultural education in "high-level". Çoban et al. (2010) reported that pre-service teachers' perspectives on cultural diversity were positive. Similarly, Toprak (2008) has determined that teachers have positive attitudes towards multicultural education. However, studies related to the topic in question in Turkey are very limited and it's clear that that pre-service teachers do not receive adequate education intended for the preparation of a multi-cultural learning environment. On the other hand, in the United States, National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE, 2002) has highlighted the need to educate pre-service teachers as culture-sensitive for their development. Ngai (2004), argues that an effective teaching and learning should start from teacher training process to achieve success in primary and secondary schools on multicultural education. Adams and Hall (2002) have detected that teachers demonstrate positive attitudes towards multi-cultural education. Barry and Lechner (1995) measured pre-service teachers' attitudes and awareness about multicultural teaching and learning and determined that most of them had awareness about issues related to multicultural education and were prepared for cultural diversity. Okojie-

Boulder (2010) examined the multicultural education perceptions of graduate students and faculty members who worked in a faculty of education and identified that both graduate students and faculty members have positive perceptions of multicultural education.

The results of this study have revealed that female pre-service teachers' scores on multicultural education are higher than the scores of male pre-service teachers. Considering the gender variable for college students, it is seen that similar findings have been encountered in some surveys. It has been determined that female students politically tend to be more liberal and increase their cultural awareness, advocate civil rights, are opposed to social differences, are open to diversity, adopt positive thoughts on campus diversity compared to male students (Astin, 1993, Levin and Cureton, 1996, Springer et al, 1996, Whitt et al, 2001, conveyor: Whitt, Pascarella, Elkins Nesheim, Marth ve Pierson, 2003: 588). In their studies, Ford and Quinn (2010) have concluded that female teacher candidates' scores to participate in multicultural education regulations are higher than the scores of male teacher candidates. In their study investigating college students' perceptions related to differences within the campus, Whatley, Lee, Toms ve Wang (2012) have stated that females agree more strongly than males that diversity among faculty is important for their educational growth. Asada, Swank and Gold-ey (2003) investigated the multicultural education perceptions of university students and have argued that females of lower socio-economic status have more positive perceptions

of multicultural education than their male peers. In addition, according to the study results of Çoban et al. (2010), females are more tolerant towards "political opinion" differences than males.

According to the data obtained from the study, there are significant differences in pre-service teachers' opinions of multi-cultural education in terms of departments. While students from *English Language Teaching* department have the highest *educational equity and excellence* and *multicultural social competence* score means, the lowest score means belong to the students who study in *Science Teaching* department. While the highest *curriculum reform* score means belong to the students studying in *Social Sciences* and *English Language Teaching* respectively, the lowest *curriculum reform* score means belong to the students studying in *Science Teaching* department. Similarly, Polat (2009) has found out that pre-service teachers studying in *English Language Teaching* have the highest arithmetic means related to *cultural empathy* sub-dimension of multicultural personality. Relationship between language and culture in language teaching is a fact that often focused on and accepted by all language educators. It can be concluded that students who are exposed to the culture of the target language in the process of language training have experiences about cultural differences and therefore these experiences have a positive impact on their views of multicultural education. *Social Studies Teaching* students' having higher scores than the others may be related to their undergraduate courses that are associated with

multicultural education such as *Sociology, Citizenship, Democracy and Human Rights*.

Pre-service teachers studying in *Science Teaching* have the lowest score means in all dimensions of the scale. A similar result have come out in Toprak (2008)'s study. Accordingly, *Science* teachers exhibit more negative attitudes towards multicultural education than teachers of *Social Sciences*. Toprak stated that this situation was due to the fact that *Science* teachers considered multicultural education as not being related to the subject they taught. These results indicate that teacher candidates studying in the department in question may need support for a multicultural point of view. A similar result have come out in Okojie-Boulder (2010)'s study. Significant differences have been found between faculty of education students' perceptions of multicultural education and the departments they study. In their study, Banks et al. (2001) stated that only academic knowledge and skills were not enough for teachers, being sensitive to multiculturalism was also imperative for academic success of students. Therefore, it's considered that pre-service teachers' receiving training appropriate to a multicultural perspective in all departments of colleges of education will help teacher candidates in all branches to develop positive vision and attitude towards multicultural education.

*Multicultural social competence* and *curriculum reform* score means of pre-service teachers participated in the study showed significant difference in terms of *place of settlement* variable. Accordingly, while teacher candi-

dates whose place of settlement is a metropolis had the highest score means, pre-service teachers whose place of settlement is a village/town had the lowest score means. When it's considered that metropolises have a more heterogeneous structure than villages/towns, previous experiences and locations in which pre-service teachers grew have impacts on their opinions of multicultural education. A similar result have come out in Yazıcı et al. (2010)'s research. Accordingly, teachers who had previous training in a heterogeneous residential area had a more positive attitude than the ones who had previous training in homogeneous residential area. Çoban et al. (2010) have found that individuals grown in a metropolis are more tolerant to "sexual orientations" than those grown in a country.

In the research, while *multicultural social competence* and *curriculum reform* score means of pre-service teachers don't differ by *geographical region of the birth record province, educational equity and excellence* score means significantly differ by *geographical region of the birth record province*.

While pre-service teachers whose *geographical regions of the birth record province* are the Eastern Anatolia Region have the highest *educational equity and excellence* score means, pre-service teachers whose *geographical regions of the birth record province* are the Marmara Region have the lowest *educational equity and excellence* score means. Gay (1994) stated that educational excellence was unattainable for any student when certain groups were denied a fair chance to receive

the highest quality education possible. According to him, when all students are given more choices about how they will learn, choices that are compatible with their cultural styles, none of them will be unnecessarily advantaged or disadvantaged in the learning procedure. In Turkey, increasing the efforts to prevent poverty and lack of investment in eastern provinces may be an important step towards the elimination of inequality.

The pre-service teachers' views on multicultural education don't significantly differ by their mother tongue. This result can be explained by pre-service teachers who participated in the survey were not in equal numbers on the basis of mother tongue. (Turkish 93.5%, other 6.5%).

Studies conducted both in Turkey and in the rest of the world suggest that teachers' and pre-service teachers' perspectives of multicultural education are positive. However, it is important to transform the multicultural awareness, knowledge and skills to behavior rather than to have favorable opinions or attitudes of multicultural education. Indeed, in a study conducted by Ezer, Millet and Patkin (2006) it has been determined that although teaching staff working in faculties of education consider multicultural education to be important in faculties of education, they don't strive enough to implement it. As teacher training institutions, faculties of education have important responsibilities to provide pre-service teachers with effective teaching qualifications. It is believed that training teachers in accordance with multicultural perspectives

will contribute to Turkey, which is the process of joining the EU.

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## ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARININ ÇOK KÜLTÜRLÜ EĞİTİME İLİŞKİN GÖRÜŞLERİNİN DEĞERLENDİRİLMESİ

**Özet:** Farklılıkların yoğun olarak yaşandığı toplumlarda uzlaşılı kültürünün yaşatılmasında en önemli rolü eğitim üstlenmektedir. Bu doğrultuda eğitim alanında yapılan çalışmalarda çok kültürlü eğitim (multicultural education) kavramının önemli bir yer tuttuğu görülmektedir. Tarım toplumundan, sanayi toplumuna, ardından bilgi toplumuna geçişin, yaşanan göç olaylarının ve ülkeler arasında, ekonomik, sosyal vb. sebeplerle oluşturulan birliklerin, bu kavramın önemini artmasında etkili olduğu söylenebilir. Toplumlar bu dönemde, yerellikten evrenselliğe doğru bir geçiş yaşarken, eğitimde evrensel ilkelerin oluşturulması ve farklı kültürlerin tanınarak, kültürlerarası etkileşimin ivme kazanması, zorunluluk haline gelmiştir. Bunların dışında, modern toplumlarda yetişen bireylerin, farklı kültürel gruplarla etkileşim içerisinde olmaları ve bu etkileşimlerinde olumlu tutumlar geliştirmeleri beklenmektedir. Dolayısıyla, gelişmiş ülkeler, eğitime ilişkin sorunlarını belirleyip çözümler üretirken, çok kültürlü eğitim çalışmalarına da yer vermektedirler. Bu çalışma, Türkiye’de Eğitim Fakültesi düzeyinde çok kültürlü eğitimin nasıl algılandığı, daha açık bir ifade ile; öğretmen adaylarının, çok kültürlü sosyal yeterlik, *eğitimde eşitlik ve mükemmellik*, *öğretim programı reformu* gibi amaçları olan çok kültürlü eğitim hakkındaki görüşlerinin ortaya çıkarılması ile ilgilidir. Öğretmen adaylarının, çok kültürlü eğitime ilişkin görüşlerinin ortaya çıkarılması, eğitim ortamlarında oluşabilecek önyargıyı, ayrımcılığı ve tutarsızlıkları ortadan kaldırmada atılacak kritik adımlardan biri olarak düşünülebilir. Araştırma amacına göre bu çalışma betimleyici araştırmalar kategorisinde yer almaktadır. Betimleyici araştırmaların çeşitleri açısından ele alındığı zaman bu çalışmanın modeli tarama (survey) modelidir. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu, 2011-2012 eğitim-öğretim yılında Erciyes Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesinde birinci ve ikinci öğretim programlarında öğrenim görmekte olan dördüncü sınıf öğrencileri oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmada verilerin toplanmasında araştırmacılar tarafından geliştirilen Çok kültürlü Eğitim Ölçeği, ve *Kişisel Bilgi Formu* kullanılmıştır. Araştırmada elde edilen veriler SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) for Windows 17.0 programı kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Araştırmanın sonuçları öğretmen adaylarının çok kültürlü eğitime ilişkin görüşlerinin yüksek olduğunu göstermektedir. Cinsiyetin, öğrenim görülen bölümün, yerleşim yerinin, görüşleri etkileyen önemli değişkenler olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

**Anahtar kelimeler:** Çok kültürlü eğitim, öğretmen adaylarının görüşleri, Eğitim fakültesi.

## DETERMINATION OF JOB SATISFACTION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION TEACHERS (CITY OF DÜZCE EXAMPLE)

*Ferhat TAMCAHAN<sup>1</sup>, Hasip CANA<sup>2</sup>*

**Abstract:** The importance given to education has been gradually increasing in recent years; so many researches are made in the field of education. Teachers are one of the most important elements of education army. Therefore, most of researches are teacher-focused. Especially satisfaction and dissatisfaction subject of teachers is a field which attracts the researchers' attention. This study has been carried out with the purpose of examining the job satisfaction levels of physical education teachers. Population of research is composed of physical education teachers working in primary schools of city of Düzce. Sample of the research constitutes of 45 teachers working in primary schools of city of Düzce. In the research, findings about the job satisfaction levels of physical education teachers were determined by using 30-point questionnaire of Minoseta Job Satisfaction Scale (MSQ). Personal information questionnaire is composed of 12 questions including vocational and personal information directed to determining the demographic features of participant teachers.

After the schools in which application will be performed were ascertained and the required permissions were taken, physical education teachers working in primary schools were invited to a meeting to be held, and scales were applied to physical education teachers. It lasted 5 minutes to apply the scales. Arithmetic mean was used in determining the job satisfaction levels of physical education teachers and in job satisfaction levels of personal variable groups according to dimensions. In determination of these job satisfaction levels, "Likert Model with 5 point participation degree" from 1 to 5 was used. According to the findings obtained, 4 hypotheses stating that there isn't difference in dimensions of job satisfaction levels of physical education teachers as per their Sex, Age, Vocational Seniority and Working in Another School were made. As a result of analyses made with the data obtained, the hypothesis directed to sex has been partially accepted and partially declined according to dimensions. Hypotheses as directed to Age, Vocational Seniority and Working in Another School were accepted. As a result of the analyses made according to the dimensions of data obtained from Job Satisfaction Scale of physical education teachers; their job satisfaction levels are the highest and while determining the dimension of social needs, it has been also determined that the lowest dimensions of their job satisfaction levels are economic conditions.

**Keywords:** *Job Satisfaction, Physical Education, Vocational Exhaustion.*

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1 Sakarya University Physical Education and Sport Highschool

2 Sakarya University Physical Education and Sport Highschool

## INTRODUCTION

Education is an important social institution which prepares the society to the culture for change by means of young generations. A healthy change for education depends on to what extent it adjusts with the new methods and techniques in this field. This key will function at the rate of efficiency of school, teacher, student, classroom and classes being the main elements of education fact (Doğan, 1997).

Gaining the human power being expert in fast growing fields such as industry, economy and medicine for countries depends on education system's training the personnel who accommodate themselves to the today's technology and who can follow the changes closely (Yaman, 2009).

Day by day, the importance given to education is increasing, many studies and researches are made and new opinions are put forth. Although these opinions present different education environment, a different method, different tools and many other suggestions, the point they get together is the importance of teacher. Teachers not only give lecture, but also have some tasks like preparing the students who step into the life. They have such heavy duties as bringing children in knowledge and skill, causing the school to be loved, enjoying teaching activities, making social activities, socializing the students. Today, societies see the physical education and sports as an inseparable, integral part of general education to raise healthy generations. So, they maintain the condition in a way to include all

terms of human life by adopting it as a government policy.

Especially schools have significant place in causing physical education and sports to be loved and applied.

This is only provided with physical education and sports teachers who have scientific knowledge in this field (Bilge, 1989). The place and importance of educational institutions in raising new generation and development of society is a fact known by everyone. Teachers are the leading element of the most important ones of educational institutions. Teachers come across many problems about their job in their working places or because of the conditions of the place where they work. When these problems aren't solved, job satisfaction levels of teachers in the institution where they work decrease and it affects their motivation negatively. Job dissatisfaction and low motivation cause performance decrease, absence from work, leaving from work, polarization between employees and in relation with managers, and demoralization. Therefore, it is necessary to determine positive and negative factors affecting the job satisfaction in order to provide all vocational skills of teachers to use in their working place and to create a healthy organization, and it is also required to create alternative models in removing the factors affecting the job satisfaction level negatively. The most important factor in economic, social and cultural development of a society is teachers. In this context, the more teachers work in a satisfied and efficient way, the more raising of new generation and devel-

opment of society will be fast and steady in that way (Mezirlioglu, 2005).

## RESEARCH METHOD

Research population is composed of physical education teachers working in city of Düzce. 45 teachers working in primary schools in city of Düzce constitute the research sample. 73.3% (n:33) of teachers in the sample is male, 26.7% (n:12) is female.

After the researches about the job satisfaction are examined and researches on the corporate structure are completed, 30-point questionnaire of Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale (MSQ) has been decided to be used. Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale (MSQ) was used by researchers in many researches about the job satisfaction. Reliability coefficient changes between 0 and +1. Values of reliability coefficient near 1 mean that the reliability is high, and internal consistency among the substances is high and it is demanded so. As the scale is 5-point likert type, reliability has been checked with Cronbach alpha coefficient. Cronbach alpha coefficient reliability of 30-point scale which gives information about the internal consistency has been found as 0,836. Besides, demographic information of physical education teachers was found via the questions about the personal information in the questionnaire.

The scale also has sub-dimensions like the job and its character, working conditions of the job, vocational and social relations, economic conditions, management and supervision and social needs. Job satisfaction scale known as

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and factors affecting the job satisfaction of teachers has been analyzed and the job satisfaction dimension of the scale was tried to be improved with these studies. Turkish translation of the short version of this scale was used by Baycan (1985) from Boğaziçi University in post graduate thesis and it was concluded as appropriate. The scale was used in many researches later. Demir (2002) and Öztürk (2002) used this scale in their studies. In answers given to the sub-points of job satisfaction dimensions of Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale, teachers were demanded to choose one of the choices of 'Never (1), Little (2), Medium (3), High (4), A lot (5)' within the framework of 5-point participation degree. It took 5 minutes to apply the scales. Data obtained were interpreted by using T-test, One Way ANOVA tests with average, standard deviation, frequency and percentage distribution. The significance level in statistical analyses was accepted as 0.05.

## FINDINGS

### Findings Belonging to Demographic Information of Physical Education Teachers

**Table 1. The Distribution Table of Physical Education Teachers As Per Their Sex**

Sex	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Female	12	26,7%
Male	33	73,3%

According to the results in Table 1, when the relation between the sexes of physical education teachers working in primary schools of city of Düzce is examined, it has been found that 26.7% is female and 73.3% is male. By

looking at this result, it is observed that the number of male teachers with 73.3% is more.

**Table 2. The Distribution Table of Physical Education Teachers As Per Their Ages**

Age	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Age 30 and below	20	44,4%
31-40	21	46,7%
41-50	4	8,9%

According to the results in Table 2, when the relation between the ages of physical education teachers working in primary schools of

city of Düzce is examined it has been found that 44.4% of physical education teachers is at the age of 30 and below, 46.7% is between the ages of 31-40, 8.9% is between the ages of 41-50. By looking at this result, it is observed that the 31-40 age range is at higher level with the rate of 46.7%.

### **Findings about the Job Satisfaction of Physical Education Teachers**

Average statistics of job satisfaction levels of physical education teachers who participated in questionnaire are shown in Table 3.

**Table 3. Average Statistics Table of Job Satisfaction Levels of Physical Education Teachers**

	<i>Average</i>	<i>Satisfaction Level</i>
<b>Job and its Character</b>	<b>3,05</b>	<b>Medium</b>
<b>Working conditions of Job</b>	<b>2,58</b>	<b>Low</b>
<b>Vocational and Social Relations</b>	<b>2,94</b>	<b>Medium</b>
<b>Economic Conditions</b>	<b>2,33</b>	<b>Low</b>
<b>Way of Management and Supervision</b>	<b>2,77</b>	<b>Medium</b>
<b>Social Needs</b>	<b>3,35</b>	<b>Medium</b>
<b>General Job Satisfaction</b>	<b>2,89</b>	<b>Medium</b>

It has been observed that teachers have the highest job satisfaction about their social needs ( $\bar{X}=3.35$ ); and the lowest job satisfaction is about their economic conditions ( $\bar{X}=2.33$ ). teachers have “medium” level of job satisfaction in terms of General Job Satisfaction. The calculated average is interpreted as very low job satisfaction between 1-8; low between 1.81-2.60; medium between 2.61-

3.40; high between 3.41-4.20 and very high between 4.21-5. It is between medium and low level of calculated averages. Whether there is a significant difference between the job satisfaction levels of physical education teachers as per their sex was analyzed with t test for independent samples and the results are shown in Table 4.

**Table 4. Table for the Relation between Job Satisfaction Levels of Physical Education Teachers As Per Their Sex (t-test)**

	Sex	N	Average	Std. Deviation	t	Sd	P
Job and its Character	Female	12	2,82	0,31	-2,351	43	0,023
	Male	33	3,14	0,43			
Working Conditions of Job	Female	12	2,49	0,60	-0,681	43	0,499
	Male	33	2,61	0,49			
Vocational and Social Relations	Female	12	2,86	0,74	-0,426	43	0,672
	Male	33	2,97	0,76			
Economic Conditions	Female	12	2,38	0,68	0,211	43	0,834
	Male	33	2,32	0,84			
The Way of Management and Supervision	Female	12	2,63	0,54	-0,948	43	0,349
	Male	33	2,82	0,63			
Social Needs	Female	12	3,24	0,31	-1,167	37,382	0,250
	Male	33	3,39	0,59			
General Job Satisfaction	Female	12	2,76	0,33	-1,268	43	0,211
	Male	33	2,93	0,42			

Job satisfaction levels of male teachers regarding “job and its character ( $\bar{X}=3.14$ ), working conditions of the job ( $\bar{X}=2.61$ ), vocational and social relations ( $\bar{X}=2.97$ ), the way of management and supervision ( $\bar{X}=2.82$ ) and social needs ( $\bar{X}=3.39$ )” were found higher than female teachers. Satisfaction levels of female teachers regarding “economic conditions ( $\bar{X}=2.38$ )” were found relatively higher than male teachers. Satisfaction levels of physical education teachers regarding the job and its character differ statistically as per their sex ( $p<0.05$ ). however, a significant difference couldn’t be found between the satisfaction levels of female and

male physical education teachers regarding working conditions of the job, vocational and social relations, the way of management and supervision and social needs ( $p>0.05$ ).

In terms of general job satisfaction, job satisfaction of male teachers ( $\bar{X}=2.93$ ) was found higher than female teachers. But a significant difference between the job satisfaction of female and male physical education teachers couldn’t be found ( $p>0.05$ ). Whether there is a significant difference between the job satisfaction levels of physical education teachers as per their seniority was analyzed with one way variance analysis and the results are shown in Table 5.

**Table 5. Table for the Relation between Job Satisfaction Levels of Physical Education Teachers As Per Their Age (One-way Variance Analysis)**

		N	Average	Std. Devia.	F	p
Job and its Character	Age 30 and below	20	3,09	0,35	0,150	0,861
	Age 31-40	21	3,02	0,39		
	Age 41-50	4	3,04	0,88		
Working Conditions of Job	Age 30 and below	20	2,50	0,43	0,410	0,667
	Age 31-40	21	2,65	0,59		
	Age 41-50	4	2,59	0,62		
Vocational and Social Relations	Age 30 and below	20	3,00	0,46	0,110	0,896
	Age 31-40	21	2,89	0,93		
	Age 41-50	4	2,92	1,07		
Economic Conditions	Age 30 and below	20	2,40	0,64	0,570	0,570
	Age 31-40	21	2,21	0,96		
	Age 41-50	4	2,63	0,48		
The Way of Management and Supervision	Age 30 and below	20	2,85	0,58	1,212	0,308
	Age 31-40	21	2,63	0,55		
	Age 41-50	4	3,06	0,94		
Social Needs	Age 30 and below	20	3,43	0,47	0,572	0,569
	Age 31-40	21	3,33	0,54		
	Age 41-50	4	3,12	0,82		
General Job Satisfaction	Age 30 and below	20	2,91	0,35	0,077	0,926
	Age 31-40	21	2,86	0,40		
	Age 41-50	4	2,90	0,74		

Satisfaction levels of physical education teachers at the age of 30 and below regarding “job and its character ( $\bar{X}=3.09$ ), vocational and social relations ( $\bar{X}=3.00$ ) and social needs ( $\bar{X}=3.43$ )” were found higher than the teachers at different ages. Satisfaction levels of physical education teachers between the ages of 41-50 regarding “the way of management and supervision ( $\bar{X}=3.06$ ), economic conditions ( $\bar{X}=2.63$ )” and satisfaction levels of teachers between the ages of 31-40 regard-

ing “working conditions of the job ( $\bar{X}=2.65$ )” were found higher than the physical education teachers at different ages. Job satisfaction of teachers between the ages of 41-50 ( $\bar{X}=2.90$ ) was found higher in terms of general job satisfaction. However, a significant difference couldn’t be found due to all F values calculated for each dimension (0,150;**0,861**, 0,410;**0,667**, 0,110;**0,896**, 0,570;**0,570**, 1,212;**0,308**, 0,572;**0,569**) ( $p > 0.05$ ).

**Table 6. Table for the Relation between Job Satisfaction Levels of Physical Education Teachers As Per Their Vocational Seniority (One-way Variance Analysis)**

		N	Average	Std. Devia	F	p
<b>Job and its Character</b>	1-5	17	3,18	0,35	1,237	0,309
	6-10	20	2,94	0,36		
	11-15	5	3,14	0,27		
	16-20	3	2,90	1,11		
<b>Working Conditions of Job</b>	1-5	17	2,43	0,55	1,329	0,278
	6-10	20	2,69	0,51		
	11-15	5	2,45	0,19		
	16-20	3	2,92	0,71		
<b>Vocational and Social Relations</b>	1-5	17	3,06	0,59	1,655	0,192
	6-10	20	2,90	0,56		
	11-15	5	3,20	1,30		
	16-20	3	2,11	1,35		
<b>Economic Conditions</b>	1-5	17	2,56	0,79	0,763	0,521
	6-10	20	2,18	0,82		
	11-15	5	2,20	0,91		
	16-20	3	2,33	0,29		
<b>The Way of Management and Supervision</b>	1-5	17	2,87	0,63	1,024	0,392
	6-10	20	2,60	0,48		
	11-15	5	2,90	0,63		
	16-20	3	3,08	1,18		
<b>Social Needs</b>	1-5	17	3,50	0,49	0,897	0,451
	6-10	20	3,30	0,48		
	11-15	5	3,10	0,61		
	16-20	3	3,28	0,95		
<b>General Job Satisfaction</b>	1-5	17	2,95	0,39	0,204	0,893
	6-10	20	2,85	0,35		
	11-15	5	2,86	0,38		
	16-20	3	2,89	0,90		

Satisfaction levels of physical education teachers having 1-5 years of vocational seniority regarding “job and its character ( $\bar{X}=3.18$ ), economic conditions ( $\bar{X}=2.56$ ), social needs ( $\bar{X}=3.50$ )” were found higher than the other physical education teachers having more seniority. Satisfaction levels of physical education teachers having 11-15 years of seniority regarding “vocational and social needs ( $\bar{X}=3.20$ )” and physical education teachers having 16-20 years of seniority regarding “the way of management and supervision ( $\bar{X}=3.08$ ) and working conditions of job ( $\bar{X}=2.92$ )” were found higher. Job satisfaction

of teachers having 1-5 years of seniority ( $\bar{X}=2.95$ ) were found higher in terms of general job satisfaction. However, a significant difference couldn't be found due to all F values calculated for each dimension (1,237;0,309, 1,329;0,278, 1,655;0,192, 0,763;0,521, 1,024;0,392, 0,897;0,451) ( $p > 0.05$ ).

Whether there is a significant difference between the job satisfaction levels of physical education teachers as per working in another school was analyzed with t test for independent samples and the results are shown in Table 7.

**Table 7. Table for the Relation between Job Satisfaction Levels of Physical Education Teachers As Per Working in Another School (T-Test)**

Are you working in another school apart from your current school?		N	Average	Standard deviation	t	Sd	p
Job and its Character	Yes	10	3,14	0,35	0,755	43	0,454
	No	35	3,03	0,44			
Working Conditions of Job	Yes	10	2,50	0,48	-0,532	43	0,598
	No	35	2,60	0,54			
Vocational and Social Relations	Yes	10	2,90	0,69	-0,193	43	0,848
	No	35	2,95	0,78			
Economic Conditions	Yes	10	2,20	0,71	-0,600	43	0,551
	No	35	2,37	0,82			
The Way of Management and Supervision	Yes	10	2,85	0,79	0,490	43	0,626
	No	35	2,74	0,55			
Social Needs	Yes	10	3,48	0,48	0,888	43	0,380
	No	35	3,31	0,54			
General Job Satisfaction	Yes	10	2,91	0,39	0,216	43	0,830
	No	35	2,88	0,41			

Satisfaction levels of physical education teachers working in another school regarding

“job and its character ( $\bar{X}=3.14$ ), the way of management and supervision ( $\bar{X}=2.85$ ) and

social needs ( $\bar{X}=3.48$ )” were found higher than the teachers not working in another school. Satisfaction levels of teachers not working in another school regarding “economic conditions ( $\bar{X}=2.37$ ), working conditions of job ( $\bar{X}=2.60$ ), vocational and social relations ( $\bar{X}=2.60$ )” were found higher than the teachers working in another school.

In terms of general job satisfaction, job satisfaction of teachers working in another school ( $\bar{X}=2.91$ ) was found higher than the teachers not working in another school. However, a significant difference couldn't be found between satisfaction levels of physical education teachers working and not working in another school and satisfaction levels measured with sub-dimensions ( $p>0.05$ ).

## DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Among the answers given by the individuals who answered the questionnaire to the statements regarding all of job satisfaction dimensions, it is observed that physical education teachers agree with the statements concerning the character of job, working conditions, economic conditions of job, opportunities for socializing, management mentality in their working place and social needs at a medium level. When the average of the evaluation at level of dimensions is examined, it is seen that the average of job satisfaction level of physical education teachers is 2,89. This result means participation at “medium” level when looked in terms of likert type grading (5-point grading) (Table: 3).

According to this result, “medium” level of job satisfaction level suggests the necessity to take precautions for physical education teachers to be at Good and Very Good level. This result coincides with the results of research made by Koçak (2006) and Gülay(2006).

As a result of the analyses of data obtained from job satisfaction scale of physical education teachers made according to the dimensions, the dimensions in which job satisfaction levels are the highest are Job and its Character, Vocational and social Relations dimension were determined. This result coincides with the research result of Balcı (2004).

The lowest dimensions of Job Satisfaction levels have been found as Economic Conditions and Working Conditions of Job. The lowest job satisfaction was found as wage (payments) as a result of studies of

Balcı(2004), Gülay(2006), Tahta(1995), Suyünç(1998), Günbayı(1999), Koldaş(2000), Demir(2002), Öztürk(2002) and it coincides with the result of this research. However, Leavitt (1996) focused on high wage low job satisfaction in a public institution which is an unexpected relation and summarized the subject as stating that high wage doesn't reduce the problem of job satisfaction. As in this research, increasing wages/payments alone may not be enough to increase satisfaction. Arıkan (1979) stated in the research

named “The Relation of Participation to Decisions and Participation-Satisfaction” made in Azot Sanayi T.A.Ş that as the difference between perceived participation and demanded

participation decreases, the employee's satisfaction in her/his job increases. These results are in parallel with the research results. Therefore, it is thought that job satisfaction levels of physical education teachers will increase as a result of increasing wages/payments and improving the working conditions of the job.

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## BEDEN EĞİTİMİ ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN İŞ DOYUM DÜZEYLERİNİN TESPİTİ (DÜZCE ÖRNEĞİ)

**Özet:** Son yıllarda eğitime verilen önem giderek artmakta, bu yüzden eğitim alanında birçok araştırmalar yapılmaktadır. Öğretmenler eğitim ordusunun en önemli öğelerindedir. Dolayısıyla araştırmaların çoğu öğretmen odaklıdır. Özellikle de öğretmenlerin doyum ya da doyumsuzluk konusu araştırmacıların ilgisini çeken bir alandır. Bu çalışmada beden eğitimi öğretmenlerinin iş doyum düzeylerini incelemek amacı ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırmanın evrenini Düzce ilinde ilköğretim okullarında görev yapmakta olan beden eğitimi öğretmenleri oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmanın örneklemini ise Düzce ilinde bulunan ilköğretim okullarında görev yapmakta olan 45 öğretmen oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmada beden eğitimi öğretmenlerinin iş doyum düzeylerine ait bulgular Minoseta İş Doyum Ölçeğinin (MSQ) 30 maddelik formu kullanılarak belirlenmiştir. Kişisel bilgi formu araştırmaya katılan öğretmenlerin demografik özelliklerini belirlemeye yönelik mesleki ve kişisel bilgileri içeren 12 sorudan oluşmaktadır. Uygulama yapılacak olan okullar belirlenip gerekli izinler alındıktan sonra yapılmış olan bir toplantıya ilköğretim okullarında görev yapan beden eğitimi öğretmenleri de davet edilerek toplantıya katılan beden eğitimi öğretmenlerine ölçekler uygulanmıştır. Ölçekleri uygulama süresi 5 dk. sürmüştür. Beden Eğitimi öğretmenlerinin genel iş doyum düzeylerinin tespitinde ve kişisel değişken gruplarının boyutlara göre iş doyum düzeylerinde aritmetik ortalama kullanılmıştır. Bu iş doyum düzeylerinin saptanmasında 1’den 5’e kadar olan “5’li katılım derecesi olan Likert Modeli” kullanılmıştır. Elde edilen bulgulara göre beden eğitimi öğretmenlerinin mesleki doyum düzeylerinin boyutları açısından Cinsiyete, Yaşlarına, Mesleki Kıdemlerine ve Başka Okulda Görev Yapma Durumlarına göre farklılık yoktur şeklinde 4 hipotez kurulmuştur. Elde edilen veriler ile yapılan analizler sonucu; Cinsiyete yönelik hipotezin boyutlara göre bir kısmı kabul, bir kısmı reddedilmiştir. Yaş, Mesleki Kıdem ve Başka Okulda Görev Yapma Durumlarına yönelik hipotezler hipotezler kabul edilmiştir. Beden Eğitimi öğretmenlerinin Mesleki Doyum Ölçeğinden elde edilen verilerin boyutlara göre yapılan analizleri sonucunda, Mesleki Doyum düzeylerinin en yüksek olduğu; sosyal gereksinimler boyutu tespit edilirken, Mesleki Doyum düzeylerinin en düşük boyutlarının da ekonomik şartlar olduğu belirlenmiştir.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** İş Doyum, Mesleki Doyum, Beden Eğitimi, Mesleki Tükenmişlik.

## EXAMINING FREE TIME ACTIVITIES OF ACADEMICIANS AND ITS FREQUENCY (BİTLİS EREN UNIVERSITY SAMPLE)

*Muhammed Bahadır SANDIKÇI<sup>1</sup>; Çetin YAMAN<sup>2</sup>; Hasip CANA<sup>3</sup>*

*<sup>1</sup> Bitlis Eren University Physical Education and Sport Highschool*

*<sup>2</sup> Sakarya University Physical Education and Sport Highschool*

**Abstract:** The aim of this study was to determine free time activities performed by academic staff and the frequency of these activities of academicians. In addition, examining the effects of doing sports on healthy level and job productivity of academicians were aimed, too. 244 academic staffs working in Bitlis Eren University participated in research in total. Free time-free time and sport survey developed by Tel (2007) were used to determine free time activities of participants. Frequency analysis and Kruskal-Wallis variance analysis in SPSS 15.0 for Windows program were used for analysis of data obtained. At the end of research, it was determined that frequencies of free time activities of academicians are different from each other but there is just a significant difference in “caring to family and children” and “hunting” activities ( $p<0,05$ ). There was a difference between nonattendance reason to free time activities and age groups of academicians who joined in research but it was determined that there was a statistically significant difference between only attendance rations to “facilities and equipment are adequate ” and “I don’t have free time” ideas ( $p<0,05$ ). It was determined that there was no statistically significant difference regarding expectations from university to evaluate free times as per the marital status of academicians ( $p>0,05$ ). It was determined that there was no statistically significant difference between making sport and watching sport competitions frequencies with expertise field of academicians ( $p>0,05$ ). It was determined that there was statistically significant difference between attendance reason to sports and age groups of academicians ( $p<0,05$ ).

**Key words:** University, academic staff, free time

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2 Sakarya University Physical Education and Sport Highschool

3 Sakarya University Physical Education and Sport Highschool

## INTRODUCTION

Free time is the time which helps the individual to relax, enjoy and use for her/his social and personal success, to socialize with people culturally, socially, psychologically and vocationally and to be in interaction and cooperation with her/his free will in times left from working and other tasks of individual (Binarbaşı, 2006: 15-20).

Free time-with its narrow meaning- is the time in which the person is free from the responsibilities related to work, from living on or other tasks without having an obligation. Free time with its wide meaning means the right of free usage and opportunities for self-development by means of participating in series of hobbies and occupations within the scope of many cultural and public services (Gökalp, 2007: 4).

In today's conditions, when the conveniences provided by scientific and technologic developments to the human life are considered, it is observed that working hours are gradually decreasing, and the free time individuals allocate to themselves is increasing. Making use of free times in a true and positive way will be possible with the training studies to be made in this field (Mutlu, 2008: 1).

Sports activities serve as means of encouraging the cultural interaction in society, bringing the social behaviors and relations to the required level, helping people to make use of their free times, extending sports in a wide scale and raising physically and mentally healthy generations (Gökalp, 2007: 4).

Sports are a kind of activity which maintains the physical, mental and social development of individual. In modern societies, it is a widely accepted fact that individuals participating in sports activities are physically healthier than the ones who don't participate in. Sports activities help the development of individual's all organs. Some activities increase circulation. Outdoor sports activities carry the person to a healthy body and life as a whole (Danacı, 2008: 6).

## PURPOSE

The aim of this study is to determine free time activities of university academic staff, its frequency and physical activity level of academicians. Besides, evaluating the effects of doing sports on health level and labor productivity of academic staff has been aimed.

## METHOD OF RESEARCH

Population is composed of 244 academic personnel working in Bitlis Eren University in 2011-2012 academic year. Research sample is composed of 89 academicians in total as 25 women and 64 men who participated in the study voluntarily working in central and district campuses.

## DATA COLLECTION

The questionnaire used by Tel (2007) in the doctoral thesis titled "A Sociologic Research on Free Time Activities of Academics: East Anatolian Example" was used in order to determine free time activities of participant academicians, sports activities they do in their free time and the frequency of these activities. This questionnaire has 140 questions. In our study, only the questions that are related to our research have been used. Other irrel-

evant questions in the questionnaire haven't been included in the research. The survey is composed of 70 questions in total.

### THE ANALYSIS OF DATA

The analysis of data obtained was made in SPSS 15.0 for Windows program. Frequency and Kruskal Wallis Variance analyses were used in order to determine the doing frequency of free time activities

### FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

#### Main Findings

**Table 1. Percentage distribution of sex of academicians**

Variable	f	%
Woman	25	28,1
Man	64	71,9
<b>Total</b>	89	100,0

28.1% of participant academicians is woman, 71.9% is man.

**Table 2. Percentage distribution of ages of academicians**

Variable	F	%
20-25	6	6,7
26-30	16	18,0
31-35	35	39,3
36-40	17	19,1
41-45	12	13,5
46 and over	3	3,4
<b>Total</b>	89	100,0

Among the academicians who participated in the research, 6.7% is in 20-25 age group, 18% is in 26-30 age group, 39.3% is in 31-35 age group, 19,1% is in 36-40 age group, 13.5% is in 41-45 age group and 3.4% is in the age group of 46 years and over.

**Table 3. Percentage distribution of marital status of academicians**

Variable	F	%
Married	55	61,8
Single	32	36,0
Divorced	2	2,2
<b>Total</b>	89	100,0

61.8% of academicians who participated in the research is married, 36% is single and 2.2% is divorced.

**Table 4. Percentage distribution of academic titles of participant academicians**

Variable	f	%
Assişt. Prof.Dr	21	23,6
Lecturer	44	49,4
Instructor	7	7,9
Res. Assişt.	17	19,1
<b>Total</b>	89	100,0

23.6% of participant academicians has the title of Assişt. Prof. Dr., 49.4% has the title of Lecturer, 7.9% has the title of Instructor and 19.1% has the title of Res. Assişt.

**Table 5. Percentage distribution of expertise of academicians**

Variable	F	%
Health Sciences	11	12,4
Social Sciences	41	46,1
Sciences	37	41,6
<b>Total</b>	89	100,0

12.4% of the participants is in health sciences expertise field, 46.1% is in social sciences expertise field, 41.6% is in science expertise field.

**Table 6. Percentage distribution of age of academicians**

Variable	F	%
1-5 years	64	71,9
6-10 years	4	4,5
11-15 years	10	11,2
16-20 years	11	12,4
<b>Total</b>	89	100,0

71.9% of the participants is academicians for 1-5 years, 4.5% is for 6-10 years, 11.2% is for 11-15 years and 12.4% is for 16-20 years.

**Table 7. Percentage distribution of average weekly lesson hours of academicians**

Variable	f	%
0-10 hours	35	39,3
11-20 hours	24	27,0
21-30 hours	19	21,3
31 and more	11	12,4
<b>Total</b>	89	100,0

39.3% of the participants gives weekly lecture up to 10 hours, 27% gives up to 11-20 hours, 21.3% gives up to 21-30 hours and 12.4% gives 31 hours and more.

**Table 8. Kruskal-Wallis table showing the comparison of types of activities which academicians do in free time, and the frequency of doing these activities as per the lecture hours academicians give**

What are the types of free time activities and the frequency of doing them	Weekly lecture hours	N	X	Ss	Chi-Square	P
I'm not busy with anything, I take a rest	0-10 hours	35	2,54	1,01	2,844	,241
	11-20 hours	24	2,17	0,76		
	21-30 hours	19	2,26	0,87		
	31+	11	2,55	0,82		



I read book, newspaper and magazine	0-10 hours	35	3,77	0,84	1,691	,429
	11-20 hours	24	4,00	0,72		
	21-30 hours	19	4,00	0,88		
	31+	11	3,64	0,81		
I listen to music, play an instrument	0-10 hours	35	3,29	1,15	2,821	,244
	11-20 hours	24	3,38	0,82		
	21-30 hours	19	2,95	0,85		
	31+	11	2,73	0,65		
I watch TV, video, vcd	0-10 hours	35	3,63	0,91	2,960	,228
	11-20 hours	24	3,29	0,81		
	21-30 hours	19	3,58	0,96		
	31+	11	3,73	0,47		
I got to cinema and theatre	0-10 hours	35	2,80	0,87	0,167	,920
	11-20 hours	24	2,83	0,87		
	21-30 hours	19	2,95	0,97		
	31+	11	2,36	0,67		
I go window-shopping and shopping	0-10 hours	35	3,17	0,95	1,551	,461
	11-20 hours	24	3,21	0,66		
	21-30 hours	19	2,95	0,85		
	31+	11	3,18	0,98		
I do sports/ I watch sports competition	0-10 hours	35	2,91	1,07	1,868	,393
	11-20 hours	24	3,04	1,00		
	21-30 hours	19	3,37	1,16		
	31+	11	3,36	0,92		
I participate in social, cultural activities	0-10 hours	35	3,17	0,86	1,726	,422
	11-20 hours	24	3,29	0,95		
	21-30 hours	19	3,53	0,90		
	31+	11	2,73	1,01		

I care about my family and children	0-10 hours	35	3,40	1,31	7,641	,022*
	11-20 hours	24	3,50	1,18		
	21-30 hours	19	4,26	0,93		
	31+	11	4,09	0,83		
I visit neighbors or relatives	0-10 hours	35	2,57	0,85	4,210	,122
	11-20 hours	24	2,79	0,83		
	21-30 hours	19	3,05	0,71		
	31+	11	2,64	0,92		
I chat with friends/ go around	0-10 hours	35	3,46	0,85	2,878	,237
	11-20 hours	24	3,63	0,88		
	21-30 hours	19	3,89	0,74		
	31+	11	3,73	0,65		
I go the cafes	0-10 hours	35	2,49	1,15	2,902	,234
	11-20 hours	24	2,13	1,03		
	21-30 hours	19	2,58	0,90		
	31+	11	2,91	1,22		
I go to pubs, night clubs, brasserie etc.	0-10 hours	35	1,34	0,59	0,345	,841
	11-20 hours	24	1,50	0,83		
	21-30 hours	19	1,42	0,61		
	31+	11	1,00	0,00		
I deal with my hobbies	0-10 hours	35	3,11	1,08	4,440	,109
	11-20 hours	24	3,63	0,88		
	21-30 hours	19	3,11	0,99		
	31+	11	3,00	1,10		
I use internet (chat, games, hobby)	0-10 hours	35	3,09	1,22	0,650	,722
	11-20 hours	24	3,29	1,23		
	21-30 hours	19	3,16	0,90		
	31+	11	2,91	0,70		
I go hunting (land and water hunting)	0-10 hours	35	1,34	0,97	6,507	,039
	11-20 hours	24	1,17	0,38		
	21-30 hours	19	1,89	1,15		
	31+	11	1,09	0,30		

\*p<0,05

When we examine the free time activities of academicians and the frequency of participating in these activities by the lecture hours academicians give; academicians giving lecture up to 10 hours hardly ever do the activities of going to such places as pubs, night clubs and brasserie etc. and going hunting but they rarely do the activities of doing nothing and taking a rest, visiting neighbors or relatives, going to cafes. Academicians giving lecture up to 10 hours sometimes do the activities of listening to music or playing an instrument, going to cinema and theatre, window-shopping and shopping, doing sports-watching sports, participating in social and cultural activities, dealing with the hobbies and using internet (chat, game, hobbies); they frequently do the activities of reading book, newspaper and magazine, watching TV, video and vcd, caring about their family and children and chatting with their friends and wandering. Academicians giving 11-20 hours of lecture hardly ever do the activities of going to such places as pubs, night clubs and brasserie etc. and going hunting, they rarely do the activities of doing nothing and taking a rest, going to cafes and sometimes do the activities of listening to music or playing an instrument, watching TV, video and vcd, going to cinema, theatre window-shopping and shopping, doing sports-watching sports competitions, participating in social and cultural activities, visiting neighbors or relatives and using internet (chat, game, hobbies) and they frequently do the activities of reading book, newspaper and magazine, caring about their family and children, chatting with their friends and wan-

dering, dealing with their hobbies and going hunting. Academicians giving 21-30 hours of lecture hardly ever go to such places as pubs, night clubs and brasserie etc, they rarely do the activities of doing nothing and taking a rest and going to cafes, they sometimes do the activities of listening to music or playing an instrument, going to cinema, theatre window-shopping and shopping, doing sports-watching sports competitions, visiting neighbors or relatives, dealing with hobbies and using internet (chat, game, hobbies), they frequently do the activities of reading book, newspaper and magazine, watching TV, video and vcd, participating in social and cultural activities, chatting with their friends and wandering, they almost always do the activity of caring about their family and children. Academicians giving lecture for 31 hours and more never go to go to such places as pubs, night clubs and brasserie etc, and they almost never go hunting. Academicians giving lecture for 31 hours and more rarely do the activities of doing nothing and taking a rest and going to cinema, theatre. They sometimes do the activities of listening to music or playing an instrument, window-shopping and going shopping, doing sports-watching sports competitions, participating in social and cultural activities, visiting neighbors or relatives, going to cafes, dealing with their hobbies and using internet (chat, game, hobbies), and they frequently do the activities of reading book, newspaper and magazine, watching TV, video and vcd, caring about their family and children, chatting with their friends and wandering. The frequency of doing the free time activities for participant

academicians is different from each other but there is a significant difference between the frequencies of doing the activities of “car- ing about their family and children and going

hunting” ( $p < 0,05$ ). Differences between the frequencies of doing the other activities aren’t statistically meaningful ( $p > 0,05$ ).

**Table 9. Kruskal-Wallis table showing the comparison of reasons of academicians’ not participating in free time activities as per the age groups of academicians**

Reasons of not participating in free time activities	A g e groups	N	X	Ss	Chi-Square	P
Free time activities are expensive	20-29	22	2,86	1,08	1,627	,443
	30-39	52	2,52	1,21		
	40+	15	2,53	1,13		
I don’t know what to do	20-29	22	2,32	1,25	0,922	,631
	30-39	52	2,13	1,07		
	40+	15	2,47	1,25		
I don’t have friends and social incentives to direct me to the activities	20-29	22	2,45	1,30	0,031	,985
	30-39	52	2,35	1,10		
	40+	15	2,40	1,18		
I don’t have the habit of spending my free time with certain activities	20-29	22	2,09	1,06	0,149	,928
	30-39	52	2,21	1,27		
	40+	15	2,33	1,35		
My surrounding prevents me to participate in such kind of activities	20-29	22	2,91	1,51	4,283	,117
	30-39	52	2,79	1,36		
	40+	15	2,00	1,00		
Facility and equipment aren’t enough	20-29	22	4,05	0,84	7,311	,026*
	30-39	52	3,54	1,16		
	40+	15	2,87	1,51		
Programs aren’t for me	20-29	22	3,23	1,07	2,134	,344
	30-39	52	2,98	1,31		
	40+	15	2,60	1,45		
I don’t have free time	20-29	22	3,23	1,19	6,334	,042*
	30-39	52	2,42	1,27		
	40+	15	2,60	1,45		

\* $p < 0,05$

When we examine the reasons of academicians' not participating in free time activities as per the age groups, while academicians in the 20-29 age group disagree with the thoughts of "I don't know what to do", "I don't have friends and social incentives to direct me to the activities", "I don't have the habit of spending my free time with certain activities"; they are hesitant to agree with the thoughts of "free time activities are expensive", "my surrounding prevents me to participate in such kind of activities", "programs aren't for me" and "I don't have free time" and they agree with the thought of "facility and equipment aren't enough". While academicians in 30-39 age group disagree with the thoughts of "free time activities are expensive", "I don't know what to do", "I don't have friends and social incentives to direct me to the activities", "I don't have the habit of spending my free time with certain activities" and "I don't have free time"; they are hesitant about the thoughts of

"my surrounding prevents me to participate in such kind of activities", "programs aren't for me", and they only agree with the thought of "facility and equipment aren't enough". Academicians in the age group of 40 and older disagree with the thoughts of "free time activities are expensive", "I don't know what to do", "I don't have friends and social incentives to direct me to the activities", "I don't have the habit of spending my free time with certain activities", "my surrounding prevents me to participate in such kind of activities", but they are hesitant about the thoughts of "facility and equipment aren't enough", "programs aren't for me" and "I don't have free time". There are differences between the age groups of participant academicians and their reasons of not participating in free time activities but only the difference between the rates of agreement with the thoughts of "facility and equipment aren't enough" and "I don't have free time" is statistically meaningful ( $p < 0,05$ ).

**Table 10. Kruskal-Wallis table showing the comparison of expectations of academicians from the university to make use of free time as per the marital status of academicians**

Expectations from the university to make use of free time	Marital Status	N	X	Ss	Chi-Square	P
Organization and support of sports activities	Married	55	4,29	0,88	2,694	,260
	Single	32	4,53	0,62		
	Divorced	2	4,00	0,00		
Organization of such activities as artistic, cultural, exhibition, conference, meeting, chat	Married	55	4,36	0,82	0,197	,906
	Single	32	4,50	0,57		
	Divorced	2	4,50	0,71		
Organization of various hobby clubs and making them active	Married	55	4,27	0,83	2,621	,270
	Single	32	4,41	0,91		
	Divorced	2	4,00	0,00		

Opening and increasing the places in which chess, billiard and cards are played	Married	55	4,00	1,11	2,952	,229
	Single	32	4,03	1,20		
	Divorced	2	3,00	0,00		
Organization of activities done by company employees together ( Picnic, sightseeing etc.)	Married	55	4,20	0,99	0,875	,645
	Single	32	3,97	1,23		
	Divorced	2	4,00	0,00		

When we examine the expectations of participant academicians from the university to make use of their free time as per the marital status of academicians; married academicians agree with the thought of “opening and increasing the places in which chess, billiard and cards are played” and they totally agree with the thoughts of “organization and support of sports activities”, “organization of such activities as artistic, cultural, exhibition, conference, meeting and chat”, “organization of various hobby clubs and making them active” and “organization of activities done by company employees together (picnic, sightseeing etc.)”. Single academicians agree with the thoughts of “opening and increasing the places in which chess, billiard and cards are played” and “organization of activities done by company employees together (picnic, sightseeing etc.)” but they totally agree with the thoughts of “organization and sup-

port of sports activities”, “organization of such activities as artistic, cultural, exhibition, conference, meeting and chat”, “organization of various hobby clubs and making them active”. While divorced academicians are hesitant to agree with the thought of “opening and increasing the places in which chess, billiard and cards are played”, they agree with the thoughts of “organization and support of sports activities”, “organization of various hobby clubs and making them active”, “organization of activities done by company employees together (picnic, sightseeing etc.)” and they totally agree with the thought of “organization of such activities as artistic, cultural, exhibition, conference, meeting and chat”. There are differences between marital statuses of academicians regarding the expectations from the university to make use of free times. However, these differences aren’t statistically meaningful ( $p>0,05$ ).

**Table 11. Kruskal-Wallis table showing the comparison of academicians' interest to sports as per the area of expertise of academicians**

Interest to sports	Area of expertise	N	X	Ss	Chi-Square	P
I do sports	Health Sci.	11	3,27	0,90	,086	,958
	Social Sci.	41	3,37	1,04		
	Sciences	37	3,22	1,03		
I watch sports (TV, Hall and Stadium)	Health Sci.	11	2,91	0,94	1,374	,503
	Social Sci.	41	3,24	1,18		
	Sciences	37	3,27	0,96		

When we examine the academicians' interest to sports as per their area of expertise; academicians in the fields of health, social and sciences sometimes do sports. In the same way, the academicians in the field of both health, social and sciences sometimes watch sports

competition. There isn't a statistically meaningful difference between the area of expertise of participant academicians, frequency of doing sports and the frequency of watching sports competitions ( $p>0,05$ ).

**Table 12. Kruskal Wallis table showing the comparison of academicians' purpose of doing sports as per the age groups of academicians**

Their purpose of doing sports	Age Groups	N	X	Ss	Chi-Square	P
I want to be healthy	20-29	22	4,23	1,19	0,836	,658
	30-39	52	4,44	0,70		
	40+	15	4,60	0,63		
I don't see sports as a means of enjoying the life	20-29	22	3,45	1,34	1,584	,453
	30-39	52	3,83	1,12		
	40+	15	3,87	1,36		
It becomes a habit	20-29	22	3,55	1,06	1,336	,513
	30-39	52	3,50	0,96		
	40+	15	3,73	1,22		

It's a good way to make use of free times	20-29	22	3,59	1,33	6,845	,033*
	30-39	52	3,83	0,92		
	40+	15	4,40	0,91		
It's a good way to make friends	20-29	22	2,14	1,21	7,143	,028*
	30-39	52	2,92	1,19		
	40+	15	3,00	1,20		
There are people around me who are interested in sports	20-29	22	2,41	1,18	7,644	,022*
	30-39	52	3,08	1,19		
	40+	15	3,47	1,25		
I believe that sports increase the efficiency of work	20-29	22	3,41	1,37	2,367	,306
	30-39	52	3,90	1,07		
	40+	15	4,00	1,00		
It keeps out of bad habits	20-29	22	3,09	1,57	3,367	,186
	30-39	52	3,77	1,18		
	40+	15	3,93	1,03		
I like sports	20-29	22	3,91	1,31	1,037	,595
	30-39	52	4,33	0,81		
	40+	15	4,27	0,88		

\*p<0,05

When we examine the academicians' purpose of doing sports as per the age groups of academicians, academicians in 20-29 age group disagree the thoughts of "it's a good way to make friends", "there are people around me who are interested in sports", but they are hesitant to agree with the thought of "it keeps out of bad habits" and they agree with the thoughts of "I don't see sports as a means of enjoying life", "it becomes a habit", "it's a good way to make use of free times", "I believe sports increase the efficiency of work", "I like sports". While the academicians in 30-39 age group are hesitant to agree with the thoughts of "it's a good way to make friends" and "there are people

around me who are interested in sports", they agree with the thoughts of "I don't see sports as a means of enjoying life", "it becomes a habit", "it's a good way to make use of free times", "I believe sports increase the efficiency of work" and "it keeps out of bad habits", and they totally agree with the thoughts of "I want to be healthy" and "I like sports". Academicians in the age group of 40 and over are hesitant to agree with the thought of "it's a good way to make friends", but they agree with the thoughts of "I don't see sports as a means of enjoying life", "it becomes a habit", "there are people around me who are interested in sports", "I believe sports increase the efficiency of work" and "it keeps out of bad hab-

its”; they also totally agree with the thoughts of “I want to be healthy”, “it’s a good way to make use of free times”, and “I like sports”. There are differences between the age groups of academicians and their purpose of participating in sports but only the differences between the rates of agreeing with the thoughts of “it’s a good way to make use of free times”, “it’s a good way to make friends” and “there are people around me who are interested in sports” are statistically meaningful ( $p < 0,05$ ).

### Discussion

It has been found that the frequency of doing free time activities of participant academicians are different from each other, but there is only a statistically meaningful difference between the frequencies of doing the activity of “caring about their family and children and going hunting” ( $p < 0,05$ ), differences between the frequencies of doing other activities aren’t statistically meaningful ( $p > 0,05$ ).

Balcı (2003: 158) studied the university students’ participation in free time activities in Ankara in a similar study, and it was seen that they allocate most of their time to such inactive activities as going to cinema, listening to music, using computer and internet.

In a similar study in which the place and importance of sports in free time activities of youth are discussed, it has been determined that 10.8% of participant youth does sport, 7.9% goes to cafes, 19.6% goes to internet cafes, and most of them (45.2%) is at home in their free times. In the same study, it is stated that a group of 16.5% prefers spending their

free time in some other places (Gökalp, 2007: 72-73).

Lecturers’ preparation to the lesson, being thesis advisor and scientific preparations in addition to giving lecture are a big part of their working hours. Lecturers are under a pressure of intense lecture and a scientific study. Despite this, they are expected to do their tasks about their social status and to maintain their roles in their social circles and to participate in free time activities. Free time activities they participate in both give physical and psychological relief, and they will increase the efficiency and pace of working (Tel, 2007: 220).

In our study, it has been stated that there are some differences between academicians’ age groups and their reasons of not participating in free time activities but among these differences, only the difference between the rates of agreeing with the thoughts of “facility and equipment aren’t enough” and “I don’t have free time” is statistically meaningful ( $p < 0,05$ ).

Ergin (2000) ascertained in a study carried out on students of School of Physical Training and Sports that universities don’t have adequate resources to make free time activities and the first reason why students don’t participate in free time activities is economic insufficiency. According to results of the study carried out on university students, university students can’t participate in sports and recreative activities although they eagerly want just because of the organization inadequacy, inadequate facilities and incentives (Soyer and Can, 2003). There is parallelism between

this study and our research findings, and it supports our research findings.

Özcan (1999) ascertained in his study in which he examined the free time activities of lecturers and teachers that lecturers and teachers can't participate in free time activities adequately because of such reasons as economic troubles, insufficient time and inadequate facilities.

In a similar study carried out on employees working in private sector, when the reasons of not participating in free time activities were examined, it was seen that the biggest factor is inadequate financial situation (33%) and not finding the necessary ambient (32%) (Okumuş, 2002: 53).

In our study, it has been found that there are some differences between the expectations from the university and marital status of academicians to make use of free time, but these differences aren't statistically meaningful ( $p>0,05$ ).

In a similar study carried out on employees working in private sector, it has been determined that the companies of 64.8% of participants organize free time activities, and these activities are for sports (30%), for travelling-fun (29%) and for educational (23%) purpose. In this study, it has been ascertained that first preference for the activities demanded to be organized by companies is for social (%38,2), and the second preference is for cultural activities (%32,1); when the age factor is taken into account, it is seen that young individuals prefer sports activities and middle-aged indi-

viduals and older ones prefer historical and touristic travels, social and cultural activities to be organized. In the same study, it has been stated that activities requiring active participation especially in public organizations in city of Kocaeli have never been organized (Okumuş, 2002: 51). In a study in which the place and importance of sports in activities of youth to make use of their free time, it has been determined that 32.5% of youth want sports facilities to be built in certain points in order to evaluate their free time (Gökalp, 2007: 73).

Enabling recreative-oriented opportunities both to students and staff in universities and organized activities provide physical, mental, social and psychological health to develop. Making use of time fully and well affects academic success in a positive way (Alay, 2000). In a similar study about the demands of university staff from the university regarding the free time activities, the rate of ones who want sports activities to be organized has been found as 91.4% (Tel, 2007: 218). Therefore, universities should make and apply programs to make use of free times. It has been stated in the research that while making these programs, staff employment being expert in their field is necessary to participate in free time activities (Kaya, 2003).

It has been ascertained that there isn't a statistically meaningful difference between the area of expertise of participant academicians and their frequency of doing sports and watching sports competition ( $p>0,05$ ).

In another study on the place and importance of sports in participation of teachers working in secondary schools in free time activities, the first reason of teachers to participate in free time activities has been determined as “physical fitness and being healthy” with 58.2% (Tunçel, 1999).

61% of society in Germany prefers sports as a free time activity. Main causes in high rate of preferring active participation to sports activities in free time root from the personal and social features of sports (Kırkpınar, 2004). According to this information in literature, we can show the inadequate personal and social interest given to sports in our country as the main reason for academic staff in our study to participate in sports activities at low level.

Karaküçük has stated in his study named “Recreative Functions of Sports” that sports is one of the most comprehensive and interesting areas of recreation, sports and recreation affect each other, sports provides an important movement area in meeting recreative needs and recreation plays important roles in sports’ becoming widespread, being known and gaining success in society (Aktaran: Kırkpınar, 2004).

In our study, it has been ascertained that there are differences between the age groups of academicians and their reason for participating in sports, but only the differences between the rates of agreeing with the thoughts of “it’s a good way to make use of free time”, “it’s a good way to make new friends” and “there are people around me who are interested in sports” are statistically meaningful ( $p<0,05$ ).

In a study carried out on teachers by Binarbaşı (2006), it has been stated that 26.8% of teachers between the ages of 27-33 and 40.8% of teachers at the age 48 and older participate in free time activities in order to maintain their health

In a similar study on the place and importance of sports in participation of teachers working in secondary schools in free time activities, the first reason of teachers to participate in free time activities has been determined as “physical fitness and being healthy” with 58.2% (Tunçel, 1999).

61% of society in Germany prefers sports as a free time activity. Main causes in high rate of preferring active participation to sports activities in free time root from the personal and social features of sports (Kırkpınar, 2004). According to this information in literature, we can show the inadequate personal and social interest given to sports in our country as the main reason for academic staff in our study to participate in sports activities at low level.

## CONCLUSION AND SUGESSTIONS

### Results

1.It has been ascertained that the participant academicians’ frequency of doing the free time activities are different from each other, but there is a statistically meaningful difference only between the frequencies of doing the activities “caring about family and children and going hunting” ( $p<0,05$ ), differences between the frequencies of doing the other activities aren’t statistically meaningful ( $p>0,05$ ).

2. There are differences between the age groups of participant academicians and their reasons for not participating in free time activities but only the difference between the rates of agreeing with the thoughts of “facility and equipment aren’t enough” and “I don’t have free time” has been found as statistically meaningful ( $p < 0,05$ ).

3. It has been found out that there are some differences between the marital status of academicians about the expectations from the university to make use of free times, but these differences aren’t statistically meaningful ( $p > 0,05$ ).

4. It has been ascertained that there isn’t statistically meaningful difference between the area of expertise of participant academicians and their frequency of doing sports and watching sports competition ( $p > 0,05$ ).

5. It has been determined that there are differences between the age group of academicians and their reasons for participating in sports, but among these differences only the differences between the rates of agreeing with the thoughts of “it’s a good way to make use of free times”, “it’s a good way to make new friends”, and “there are people around me who are interested in sports” are statistically meaningful ( $p < 0,05$ ).

### Suggestions

1. Development of sports and recreation fields in universities is an important subject for academicians working in universities to be able to make use of their free time efficiently.

2. Findings to be obtained at the end of our research may be a resource and guide for new researchers who will do research in this field.

3. Studies necessary to remove or minimize the conditions affecting the participation of academic and administrative university staff in free time activities negatively can be carried out.

4. Better working hours and working conditions can be provided in order to increase the efficiency of academic and administrative university staff in making use of their free time.

5. University managements can organize travel, entertainment and other kinds of activities for academic staff to make use of their free time in times apart from the lecture hours.

6. Precautions necessary to minimize the conditions negatively affecting the physical activity levels of all staff working in university can be taken.

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## AKADEMİSYENLERİN SERBEST ZAMAN ETKİNLİKLERİ VE BU ETKİNLİKLERİN SIKLIKLARININ İNCELENMESİ (BİTLİS EREN ÜNİVERSİTESİ ÖRNEĞİ)

**Özet:** Son yıllarda önemi gittikçe artan rekreatif etkinliklerin sosyal yaşantı, fiziksel aktivite ve gün içerisinde performans arttırıcı etkileri yapılan çalışmalarla anlaşılmaktadır. Bu doğrultuda Bitlis Eren Üniversitesi akademik personelinin boş zamanlarında ne gibi rekreatif faaliyetlerde bulunduğu, faaliyetlerin sıklığı, akademik personelin üniversiteden beklentilerini ve akademik personelin fiziksel aktivite düzeylerinin bazı değişkenlerle ilişkisi bakımından incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Bunun yanında spor yapmanın akademik personelin sağlık durumuna ve iş verimliliğine etkilerinin incelenmesi de amaçlanmıştır. Araştırmaya Bitlis Eren Üniversitesinde görev yapan toplam 244 akademik personel katılmıştır. Katılımcıların serbest zaman etkinliklerini tespit etmek için Tel (2007) tarafından geliştirilen serbest zaman-serbest zaman ve spor anketi kullanılmıştır. Elde edilen verilerin analizinde SPSS 15.0 for Windows programında One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov, Mann-Whitney U testi, Kruskal-Wallis varyans analizi, Ki-Kare (X<sup>2</sup>) ve frekans analizleri kullanılmıştır. Yaptığımız çalışmada, akademik personelinin boş zamanlarında yaptıkları etkinlik türleri ve bu etkinliklere katılma sıklıklarını incelenmiş ve araştırmaya katılan akademisyenler tarafından bar, gazino, birahane vb. ile ava gitmenin neredeyse hiç tercih edilmediği, hiçbir şeyle uğraşmayıp dinlenmek ile kahvehane veya kafeterya ya gitmek nadiren tercih edildiği, müzik dinlemek veya müzik aleti çalmak, sinema ve tiyatroya gitmek, çarşı-pazar gezip alışveriş yapmak, spor yapmak ya da spor yarışmalarını izlemek, komşulara veya akrabalara gitmek, hobiler ile ilgilenmek ve internetten yararlanmak (chat, oyun, hobi) ara sıra tercih edildiği, kitap, gazete ve dergi okumak, tv, video ve vcd izlemek, aile ve çocuklarla ilgilenmek ile arkadaşlarla sohbet edip gezmek sıklıkla tercih edildiği belirlenmiştir. Bu bulgulara göre, araştırmaya katılan akademisyenlerin boş zamanlarda yaptıkları etkinlik türlerinin ve bu etkinlikleri yapma sıklıklarının farklı olduğu sonucu ortaya çıkmıştır. Bunun yanında, akademik personelin yaptıkları serbest zaman etkinlikleri ve bu etkinlikleri yapma sıklıkları ile cinsiyetleri, yaş grupları, ekonomik gelir seviyeleri, haftalık ders saatleri ve akademik ünvanları arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olmadığı belirlenmiştir. Araştırmanın sonunda araştırmaya katılan akademik personelin boş zaman etkinliklerine katılmama nedenlerinin başında ‘‘tesis ve araç-gereçlerin yetersiz olmasının’’ geldiği, boş zamanları değerlendirmek için üniversiteden beklentilerin başında ise ‘‘üniversitedeki sportif faaliyet ve organizasyonların desteklenmesinin’’ geldiği belirlenmiştir. Araştırmaya katılan akademik personelin sporu ‘‘sağlıklı yaşam sürdürmek için’’ ve ‘‘sporu sevdikleri’’ için yaptıkları belirlenmiştir. Akademisyenlerin spor çalışmalarını yaptıkları yerlerin başında da Gençlik Hizmetleri ve Spor İl Müdürlüğüne bağlı olan spor tesislerinin geldiği belirlenmiştir. Araştırmaya katılan akademik personelin yaptıkları serbest zaman etkinlikleri ve bu etkinlikleri yapma sıklıkları arasında cinsiyet, yaş, aylık ortalama gelir, girilen ders saati ve akademik unvana göre istatistiksel olarak anlamlı fark vardır (p<0,05). Akademik personelin yaptıkları sportif etkinlikler ve bu etkinlikleri yapma sıklıkları arasında aylık ortalama gelir durumu, girilen ders saati ve akademik unvana göre istatistiksel olarak anlamlı fark vardır (p<0,05). Ancak akademisyenlerin yaptıkları sportif etkinlikler ve bu etkinlikleri yapma sıklıkları arasında cinsiyet ve yaşa göre istatistiksel olarak anlamlı fark olmadığı belirlenmiştir (p>0,05).

**Anahtar kelimeler:** Üniversite, Akademik Personel, Serbest Zaman

## AN EXPLANATION OF JOB INVOLVEMENT WITH THE THEORY OF ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION AND PERCEIVED IDENTITY-BASED TRUST: AN EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

*Seçil BAL TAŞTAN<sup>1</sup>*

**Abstract:** This study aims to examine the relationship between organizational socialization and job involvement with the mediating role of identity-based trust of bank employees working in private banks organizations in Istanbul-Turkey. It is aimed to understand how the employees' job involvement was explained by organizational socialization and identity-based trust perception. This study follows the theory of organizational socialization and positive psychology approach in order to examine the proposed links consisting a number of positive and significant relationships between the research concepts. The findings revealed that organizational socialization had positive significant correlations with job involvement and with identity-based trust. As further, the research results have provided evidence that identity-based trust significantly mediated the relationship between organizational socialization and job involvement.

**Keywords:** Job Involvement, Organizational Socialization, Identity-Based Trust

<sup>1</sup> PhD Lecturer Marmara University Faculty of Business Administration  
Department of Business Administration (Lectured in English), Turkey

### INTRODUCTION

With supporting the trend of “positive psychology”, it is aimed to study the concept of “job involvement” which has not received sufficient focus of empirical attention within the literature and it is tried to examine the concept with a concentration on its antecedents. Therefore, job involvement has been determined as the primary variable of this study. Taking into account the importance of employees' job involvement for organizations, research should focus on the identification of its antecedents. Bozionelos (2004, p.69) has

also pointed out the importance of examining the potential antecedents of job involvement of the employees within the organizational settings.

Moreover, Saks and Gruman (2011, p.14) have provided the implications for the theory, research and practice of the organizational socialization and its positive work outcomes. Ashforth, Sluss and Harrison (2007) addressed that organizational socialization is significant for explaining positive job outcomes because it presents the employees about realistic view of the organization as well all work condi-

tions. As such, the literature background of theory of organizational socialization indicated that the concept was related to forms of commitment, prosocial behavior, job involvement, and several other positive work attitudes (e.g. Schein 1988; Ashforth and Saks, 1996; Reio and Callahan, 2004).

## **THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

In the past, organizational socialization was primarily viewed from the perspective of the organization, as a one-way conduit from the organization to the newcomer about technical aspects of the job and the organization's cultural norms and procedures (Miller and Jablin, 1991). Within the organizations, during the organizational socialization process, the employees are involved in acquiring new information clarifying their roles, and adjusting their behavior to what expected by the organization. As a result of this, recently, the organizations have realized that the newcomers and the current employees have interactive roles in the socialization process and that their perspectives must be taken into consideration. This involvement allows the employees to interact with organizational members and settings and ensures that a common meaning and understanding is developed between the organization and the employees (Yang, 2008). Therefore, it is understood that through organizational socialization, the employees learn the right roles and behaviors, involve their jobs and develop internal positive feeling towards the organization, such as satisfaction, trust, justice perceptions etc.. In the relevant literature, it was also recognized that these

relationships held when forms of organizational trust were added to the equations, particularly for the previously mentioned three commitment forms. The models of organizational socialization, organizational identification, and organizational trust have explained a relatively large amount of the variance in job involvement (e.g. Dalay, 2007; Cohen and Veled-Hecht, 2010, Han, 2010; Hameed, Arain, Roques and Peretti, 2011).

However, mediating affect of identity-based trust as one form of organizational trust concept has not been examined within the relationship between organizational socialization and job involvement. The evidences we have encountered suggest that increased identity-based trust encourages positive changes in task characteristics, performance effectiveness, job involvement, and several other positive outcomes both directly and indirectly. Therefore, in this study it is found meaningful and necessary to focus on the role of identity-based trust and organizational socialization in explaining job involvement construct. As further, although, several studies have been conducted on organizational socialization, trust, and job involvement, these variables have not been adequately investigated in Turkey. Consequently, in this study, the researcher intends to investigate and examine the identity-based trust as mediator of the relationship between organizational socialization and job involvement.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW AND DEFINITIONS OF THE CONCEPTS**

### **Job Involvement Construct**

Lodahl and Kejner (1965) have introduced the “job involvement” term to the literature and several empirical studies relating job involvement as a positive organizational behavior concept have been conducted. Within positive organizational behavior studies, job involvement was examined to a variety of personal and situational characteristics in diverse work settings. The construct of job involvement has been defined as “the degree to which one is cognitively preoccupied with, engaged in, and concerned with one’s present job” (Paulay, Alliger, and Stone-Romero, 1994, p. 225). Job involvement was referred as, the degree to which a person psychologically identifies himself/herself with his/her work, or the importance of work in his/her total self-image (Kanungo, 1979, p.133). Lodahl and Kejner (1965) integrated the information relevant to the terms “morale” and “ego-involvement” and named the concept “job involvement”.

Lodahl and Kejner (1965) asserted that “job involvement” operationalized protestant work ethic and was a stable attitude that developed when the value of work became part of the self-concept. Further refining job involvement, Kanungo (1982) observed that prior researchers’ definitions were contaminated by other constructs such as intrinsic motivation, and that the authors interchanged the term job with work, which is more general and non-equivalent. Work involvement refers to the extent to which an individual is generally interested in, identifies with, and is pre-occupied with one’s work in comparison to other aspects of one’s life (Kanungo, 1982). Kanungo argued that “job involvement

is a descriptive belief that is contemporaneously caused whereas work involvement is a normative belief that is historically caused” (Kanungo, 1982). It was mentioned that the job involvement was related to the need satisfying potential of one’s current job that developed via socialization in a specific culture (Bozionelos, 2004, p.69). Later, Paullay et al. (1994) confirmed Kanungo’s distinction between job involvement and work involvement, which they called work centrality.

The job-involved employee has been described as one whose job is an integral part of his/her self-definition (Roteberry and Moberg, 2007, p.203). As such, many theorists have hypothesized that highly job-involved employees will put forth substantial effort towards the achievement of organizational objectives and be less likely to turnover (e.g. Kahn, 1990; Kanungo, 1979; Lawler, 1986; Pfeffer, 1994). Conversely, low job-involved employees (e.g. those who are alienated; Seeman, 1959) have been hypothesized to be more likely to leave the organization and/or “withdraw effort from the job” and either apply that energy to tasks outside the realm of work or “engage in various undesirable on-the-job activities” (Kanungo, 1979, p. 133; Roteberry and Moberg, 2007, p.203)

The results of recent studies suggest that job involvement differs from other related constructs such as intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction, organizational support, and organizational commitment (Blau, 1986; Shore, Thornton, and Shore, 1990; Mathieu and Farr, 1991; Shore and Wayne, 1993; Elloy and Fly-

nn, 1998; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnysky, 2002).

Employee job involvement has been predicted to have numerous outcomes and antecedents regarding the organizational and individual aspects (Brown, 1996; Lawler, 1986; Kahn, 1990; Pfeffer, 1994; Dimitriades, 2007). Some researchers claimed that employee involvement has motivational effects of increased employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Pearson and Duffy, 1999; Guthrie, 2001; Bozionelos, 2004). Scott-Ladd and Marshall (2004, p.646) have implied that job involvement constitutes an important motivational variable that is of interest to organizations, especially in the new economy, which imposes the need for full mobilization of the human resources. A number of researches have focused on the identification of the antecedents of job involvement (Brown, 1996; Bozionelos, 2004, p.69; Dalay, 2007). Multiple variables have been linked with job involvement. Self-esteem which played an important role for employees to view themselves as being more competent and to engage themselves to the challenging and growth-engendering experiences at work, and internal motivation (Gardner, Dunham, Cummings, and Pierce, 1989; Brown, 1996) are among these variables.

Moreover, it was indicated that individuals may become involved in their jobs in response to specific attributes of the work situation (Mudrack, 2004, p. 490). Supporting this argument, in a research implemented by Rabinowitz and Hall (1977), it was found that

job involvement was related to the personal characteristics of the employee (e.g., age, protestant work ethic), aspects of the situation (e.g., participation in decision making), and various individual outcomes (e.g., satisfaction, turnover). Brown (1996, p.3) has demonstrated that personality variables, role perceptions, job characteristics and supervisory variables were the antecedents of job involvement. Another implication was provided by Dimitriades (2007, p.469) who has emphasized that as employees develop a better understanding and acceptance of organizational goals and values, conveyed through the organizational climate, they are likely to become more identified and involved with their job. Additionally, in their study, Richardson and Vandenberg (2005) confirmed the association of managerial perceptions and leadership with a work-unit level model of involvement climate.

### **Organizational Socialization Domain**

Organizations increasingly realized that employee was the key to their success and view employer-employee relationship as a mutually beneficial process. Organizational socialization defined how an organization addressed the interests of its employees and how that was reflected in its interest (Judeh, 2011, p.172). Organizational socialization helped both the organization and its employees to meet their needs (Hau-Siu Chow, 2002). The first period in joining an organization is very critical for new employees. A basic premise of organizational socialization practices is that the nature of a new employee's initial

experiences is imperative to his adjustment to the new environment (Fogarty, 1992; Saks and Ashforth, 1997). Besides, “Socialization Resources Theory” argued that organizations should design effective orientation training programs that guide new employees about each aspect of stressful situations of organization as well as strategies to cope with them (Manzoor, 2011, p.516).

Kozlowski (1995) described organizational socialization as the process through which newcomers learn more about the organization and become fully assimilated insiders. When individuals join organizations, they must learn to understand and make sense of their new surroundings (Louis, 1980 as cited in Salavati, Ahmadi, Sheikhesmaeili and Mirzaei, 2011, p.395). Socialization can be defined as “socialization is the activity that confronts and lends structure to the entry of non-members into an already existing world or a sector of that world” (Wentworth, 1980 as cited Salavati et al., 2011, p.396). Organizational socialization refers to the process by which newcomers make the transition from being organizational outsiders to being insiders (Bauer, Erdogan, Liden, Wayne, 2007). The method by which this sense-making occurs is known as organizational socialization (Gruman, Saks and Zweig, 2006). Louis (1980 as cited in Salavati et al., 2011, p.395) defined organizational socialization as the process by which an individual comes to appreciate the values, abilities, expected behaviors, and social knowledge essential for assuming an organizational role and for participating as an organizational member.

Thereby, these definitions emphasizes the importance of socialization as being important in helping the individual successfully adjust to the people and culture of an organization (Taormina, 2009) and an individual in socialization process provided the knowledge and skills that needed for organizational role (Feldman, 1981); learns the organizational culture (Van-Vianen, 2000); and learn the values, abilities, attitudes and organizational social knowledge (Taormina, 2009). Through this process, employees acquire knowledge about and adjust to new jobs, roles, work groups, and the culture of the organization in order to participate better as an organizational member and to exhibit better job performance (Haueter, Macan, and Winter, 2003; Saks, Uggerslev and Fassina, 2007; Cohen and Veled-Hecht, 2010, p.537). While socialization can occur at every stage, the socialization of newcomers in particular is considered crucial (Cohen and Veled-Hecht, 2010, p.537). Thus, organizational socialization refers to the process by which newcomers make the transition from being organizational outsiders to being insiders (Bauer et al., 2007). Through this process, employees acquire knowledge about and adjust to new jobs, roles, work groups, and the culture of the organization in order to participate better as an organizational member (Saks, Uggerslev and Fassina, 2007; Salavati et al., 2011). With that respect, it was indicated that organizational socialization exerts an impact on employees’ performance and organizational stability and has numerous impacts on individual and organizational outcomes (Jones, 1986; King, Xia, Quick and

Sethi, 2005; Judeh, 2011).

### **Identity-Based Trust Domain**

Trust has been studied from different viewpoints which include social psychology, philosophy, economics, management, and organizational behavior research. Trust in organization refers to the perceptions of employees regarding the trustworthiness of their organization. The organizational environment is continually observed by the employees while considering the trustworthiness of their organization and views of organization regarding its employees and their roles are communicated by the organizational processes, and employees will respond to trust relations communicated by the organization (Tan and Tan 2000; Dalay, 2007; Hameed et al., 2011).

Fukuyama characterizes trust as (as cited in Smith and Birney, 2005, p.473): “the expectation that arises within a community of regular, honest, and cooperative behavior, based on commonly shared norms, on the part of other members of that community”. The term has been defined by Demircan and Ceylan (2003) as the way an employee perceives the support offered by the organization, and his/her confidence in leaders or associates that they are honest and true to their word. Smith and Birney (2005, p.472) defined trust through expectations and implied that “a person has trust in the occurrence of an event if they expect the event’s occurrence and their expectations lead to behavior that is perceived to have greater negative consequences if the expectation is not confirmed than positive motivational experiences if confirmed”. Smith

and Birney (2005) claimed that trust enables cooperative human endeavors and is vital to inter-organizational relationships.

It is recognized that different classifications for trust are made in the literature. For instance, Aryee, Budhwar, and Chen (2002) discussed trust as a combination of cognition-based and affect-based trust. In addition to inter-organizational trust and interpersonal trust, according to Zarrai and Gharbi (2008), “category-based trust” is another prominent form of trust which is also very relevant within the organizational domain. In respect of their point of view, the critical aspect of organizational trust is based on the roles, practices and control structures that influence the functioning of an organization. Trust is explained by Zarrai and Gharbi (2008) as it is based on the assumption that the individual in the role has passed a screening process and complied with the processes, such as training and certification, as a result socialization and training processes can promote organizational trust.

Based on the literature review, it is seen that the construct of organizational trust has been discussed in a wide range of research work in organizational science and also examined with a systematic attention. According to Hakonen, Lipponen, Vartiainen, and Kokko (2006), most authors seem to agree that trust is generally beneficial for organizations and studies (e.g. Dirks and Ferrin, 2001; Han, 2010; Han and Harms, 2010; Hameed et al., 2011) have demonstrated that trust has multiple positive outcomes in organizations such as increased commitment, job performance,

organizational citizenship behaviors, job involvement, loyalty and career satisfaction.

Furthermore, different researchers have examined the dimensionality and classification of the organizational trust construct. Among those, Lewicki and Bunker (1996) classified trust in three levels as; calculus-based trust, knowledge-based trust and identification-based trust. Lewicki and Bunker (1996) have distinguished between three types of trust and organized them in hierarchical manner. The calculus-based trust is placed at first level, knowledge-based trust at second level, and identity-based trust at third level.

Calculus-based trust predominates in a first-time encounter and is based on rational choice deliberations. Trust emerges when the trustor perceives that the trustee's intentions and actions are beneficial (Pirson, 2007). Knowledge-based trust derives from repeated interactions over time between the trustor and trustee. Reliability and dependability in previous interactions with the trustor give rise to positive expectations about the trustee's intentions (Pirson, 2007). Identification-based trust is defined by Lewicki and Bunker (1995) as confidence based upon the understanding that full internalization of each other's desires and intentions has been achieved—the parties understand each other, agree with what each other wants, and are prepared to support one another in pursuit of those ends (as cited in McAllister et al., 2006). This means that the trustier fully internalizes the preferences of the other party, and identify with him/her on that ground (Melikoğlu, 2009).

Pirson (2007) mentioned that identification-based trust reflects a mutual respect for and support of each other's motivation. In his research, he stated that identity-based trust is intense and highly moral. Since common goals and shared values form the basis for this relationship, actors are able to anticipate each other's reactions and know what type of behavior enables congenial collaboration. (Pirson, 2007). Based on these approaches, in this study, we are interested in the identity-based trust, which suggests that the trustier fully internalizes the preferences of the other party.

Brewer (1981) has initially argued that individual's knowledge of shared social identity may become a base for presumptive trust. As per social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1985; Ashforth and Mael, 1989) all individuals possess multiple social identities, relating to different social categories and groups they belong to (Brewer and Gardner 1996; Hogg and Abram 1988). With the help of these identities individuals define themselves and their relationship to others. Thus, this trust is termed as identity-based trust. Borgen (2001) has argued that one of the trust making mechanisms is strong identification. When identification with other's desires and intentions is the basis of trust, then the existence of trust can be explained as both parties understand and acknowledge the other's wants. Thereby, it was mentioned that established organizational socialization implementations that represent work experiences and shared values, such as met expectations, perceptions of organizational justice, and relationship with the co-workers and supervisors are the determi-

nants of the identity-based trust perceptions of individuals (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnysky, 2002; Han and Harms, 2010).

### **Theoretical Framework and Development of Hypotheses**

A brief review of the literature provides support for the relationship between organizational socialization and individuals' job involvement attitude. As further, it is recognized that there are empirical evidences supporting the assumption which underlines the impact of organizational socialization on both identity-based trust and job involvement.

In a research implemented by Rabinowitz and Hall (1977), it was found that job involvement was related to the personal characteristics of the employee (e.g., age, protestant work ethic), aspects of the situation (e.g., participation in decision making), and various individual outcomes (e.g., satisfaction, turnover). A study by Richardson and Vandenberg (2005) examined the association of managerial perceptions and leadership with a work-unit level model of involvement climate. Moreover, employee's job involvement has been examined to have significant antecedents of several organizational and individual aspects. In a model created by Kanungo (1979) for the description of the development of job involvement, it was asserted that after an organizational socialization process, an employee can satisfy salient needs which will lead him/her to allocate the majority of his/her energy to the job and, subsequently, the employee can immerse himself/herself in the job. As a result, it was stated that the employee's job at-

titudes and behaviors at work were positively affected by the socialization process.

It was also indicated that effective organizational socialization can have lasting and positive effects, enhancing person-organization fit and person-job fit as well as job involvement (Cohen and Veled-Hecht, 2010, p.537). Other studies have also demonstrated that organizational socialization affects a variety of constructs that reflect newcomer adjustment through broadening the knowledge of individual about the work setting reduces the uncertainty and anxiety inherent in the early work experience (Ashforth and Saks, 1996; Cooper-Thomas and Anderson, 2002).

As discussed previously, the basic argument is that in the workplace context, organizational socialization will be more strongly related to commitment foci that provide more opportunities for exchange relationships – that is, the organization, the job, and the work group (Cohen and Veled-Hecht, 2010). In the early stages of employment, organizational socialization helps employees establish exchange relationships with these formal information about the organization's expectations and the likely outcomes of meeting or failing to meet those expectation (Gregersen, 1993). In fact, organizational socialization can act much as described in the expectancy or path-goal theory of motivation (Evans, 1970) by clarifying the paths between effort and performance and between performance and outcomes. Thus, job involvement and commitment are among the individual outcomes of their relationships to the work setting, so it is emphasized that

their relationship with organizational socialization is strong (Cohen and Veled-Hecht, 2010).

As further, the review of literature provides that several researches have confirmed organizational socialization's strong association with high organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction, and low turnover intention (Fisher, 1986; Manzoor, 2011). Kennedy and Berger (1994, p.58) highlighted that organizational socialization could decrease the turnover rates of an organization. Crant (2000) addressed the impact of organizational socialization on individuals' proactive behavior and organizational citizenship behaviors at work. Cohen (2003) has paid particular attention to examine the relationship of different commitment forms with the organizational socialization. Judeh (2011, p.172) has also provided evidence about the positive relationship between employee socialization and organizational commitment. Additionally, Chao, O'Learly-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, and Gardner, (1994) and Haueter et al. (2003) have looked at socialization from a content perspective and demonstrated that organizational socialization increased commitment.

Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2006) proposed that values and goals socialization is positively associated with extra-role performance, and they believed extra-role performance is strongly related to individual's learning from colleagues, supervisor and mentor. The results of Salavati et al.'s (2011, p.395) study showed a significant correlation

between organizational socialization and organizational citizenship behavior in staff of higher education institutes. Also in accordance with the other results of their study, organizational socialization variable was effective on five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior and their research conceptual model was confirmed with goodness of fit. Organizational loyalty was also examined as an outcome of organizational socialization and it was mentioned that employees who are more knowledgeable might also feel their employer has a greater vested interest in them (Mitus, 2006). Consequently, they reciprocate by showing greater trust and loyalty to the organization (Mitus, 2006).

As discussed earlier, several studies on trust have shown that trust has significant positive relationships with many organizational variables such as communication, performance, citizenship behavior, involvement and cooperation (Mishra and Morrissey, 1990; Costigan, Ilter, and Berman, 1998). It is suggested that trust is an essential element in constructive human relationships. It is a source of togetherness and feeling of security (Mishra and Morrissey 1990). Past research indicates that organizational trust has significant effect on employees' level of job satisfaction, commitment and involvement (Dirks and Ferrin 2001; 2002). Trust in organization has been reported to have a negative impact on turnover intentions (the higher employee's trust in organization, the less likely they will leave the organization). Schnake and Dumluer (2000) have implied that trust in organization has significant negative relationship

with turnover intentions. Dirks and Ferrin's (2001) Meta analysis also recorded that trust is a significant predictor of an individual's intent to quit. Hameed et al. (2011) empirically examined the effects of organizational identification on organizational trust and the mediating role of trust between identification and job attitudes (turnover intentions and job satisfaction). Moreover, Dalay (2007) has tested the positive relationship between trust construct and job involvement and Reio and Callahan (2004) have revealed the impacts of organizational socialization on positive work attitudes.

The study of Coştuğan et. al. (1998) revealed a link between employee's level of trust and several behaviors (e.g. risk taking, assertiveness, and personal initiative to improve personally). In other words, it was stated that if an employee showed high levels of trust toward his or her organization, the individual has taken more risks, worked harder, and showed high levels of identification with and involvement to the organization. Moreover, according to Borgen (2001), one antecedent of organizational trust was strong identification. Borgen (2001) claimed that, when trust is based on identification with the other's desires and intentions, trust exists because the parties effectively understand and appreciate the other's wants. It was also implied that identification-based trust develops when "both knows and predicts the other's needs, preferences and choices and also shares some of those same needs, preferences and choices as one's own" (Melikoğlu, 2009 p.32). As further, Han and Harms (2010) have confirmed

the mediating role of trust on the relationship between organizational identification and conflict at work.

With that respect, the theoretical work in the field of organizational socialization has supported the role of trust as mediator between the organizational socialization and job attitudes but this relationship has never been tested empirically for the mediating role of identity-based trust on the relationship between organizational socialization and job involvement. It is recognized that Puusa and Tolvanen (2006) have also called for an empirical study for testing these relationships. Besides, though the past few decades have added a great deal to understanding these constructs, there is still a need for more research on the correlates of organizational socialization.

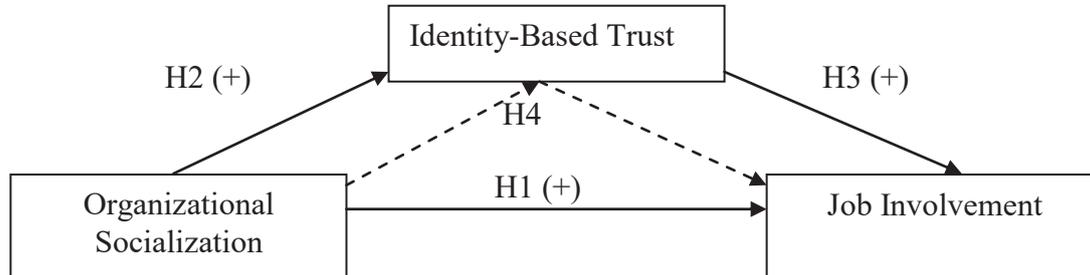
Therefore, the purpose of this study is two-fold. The first purpose is to highlight the importance of organizational socialization in the development of identity-based trust and job involvement through theoretical evidences. The second one is to empirically demonstrate the mediating role of trust in the relations between organizational socialization and job involvement. This approach relies on Lawler's (1992) theory of attachment, a principle of proximal rules that explains why "actors develop stronger affective ties to subgroups within a social system rather than to the social system, to local communities rather than to states, to work organization, and so forth" (Lawler, 1992, p. 334). Interpersonal attachment produces a stronger commitment and

involvement to subgroups and to the job itself, because the impact for positive results is likely to be attributed to the stronger affective ties to organization (Lawler, 1992).

In this study, it is assumed that if employees have developed the feelings of shared needs and values and the knowledge of expected roles and behaviors through the organizational socialization processes then they trust the acts of the organization. As a result they feel satisfied with and involved to their jobs. Since, job involvement is a very important factor for the organization as it has significant impact on positive work attitudes of its

members, it is found valuable to empirically examine its potential determinants of organizational socialization and identity-based trust. It is expected that as the employee becomes comfortable in the organization and familiar with its workings, perceptions of identification-based trust feed into the set of exchange relationships formed during the socialization process. Therefore, we can predict that a good quality of an organizational socialization can be related to identity-based trust and job involvement attitudes in employees. Finally, with this review of variables, we defined the hypothesized relationships and presented the hypothetical model of this study.

**Figure 1. Assumed Mediating Effect of Identity-Based Trust on the Organizational Socialization and Job Involvement Relationship**



H1. Organizational socialization will be positively related to job involvement.

H2. Organizational socialization will be positively related to identity-based trust.

H3. Identity-based trust will be positively related to job involvement.

H4. Identity-based trust mediates the relationship between organizational socialization and job involvement.

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### Sample Design and Procedure

The research population of the study was the employees working in banking sector of Turkey. The data collection was done through onsite administration of a survey to a sample of employees who were working in banking sector in Istanbul-Turkey. The participants were randomly sampled across departments and ranks. The reason of simple random sam-

pling technique for data collection was that it was difficult to select the data from only a one specified sector; people are no more research oriented. Thus, the design of study is cross sectional. These individuals were sent covering letters in which it was mentioned the purpose and scope of the study and it was assured that their responses would be retained completely confidential. Total 500 questionnaires were distributed. Out of 500, only 250 usable responses were received. Thus, total response rate was 50%. The sample was composed of bank workers (59.6%) and administrative staff (40.4%). Majority of the respondents were aged between 23 to 30 years (50.7%) and 31 to 44 years (49.3%).

### Selection of Instruments

All variables of the research model were measured on five point Likert scales ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5). All items were translated via a procedure of double-back translation. Scores for each scale were calculated by averaging all responses on the relevant items.

“Identity-Based Trust” was measured by adapting the seven-item scale of trust adapted from Robinson (1996). This scale showed good reliability in past studies (e.g. Restubog, Hornsey, Bordia, and Esposito, 2008; Hameed et al., 2011). A sample item is “I believe my organization has high integrity”. The internal consistency for this study was 0.88. “Organizational socialization” (OS) was measured using Katz’s (1988)’s scale included 16 questions. This scale is recently used by Salavati et al. (2011) and the reliability of the scale was

calculated as 0.92. Cronbach’s alpha obtained in this study is 0.89. “Job Involvement” (JI) was measured by using Paullay, Alliger, and Stone-Romero’s (1994) scale which is composed of 27 job involvement items (e.g. “I don’t mind spending a half-hour past quitting time, if I can finish something I’ve been working on.”). This scale was used in a study of Rotenbery and Moberg (2007) and its reliability was verified. The internal consistency for this study was 0.92.

Following Demographic Variables were included in the questionnaire for ruling out the other possible explanations for the significant relationships. Gender was coded as 1 = male and 2 = female. For age, respondents were asked to choose their appropriate age category from given list starting from 1 = 23 years-30 years to 2 = 31 years-45 years and 3=more than 46 years. Tenure (years of employment in current organization) was measured as 1 = less than three years to 6= greater than 15 years; and type of organization was measured as 1 = public and 2 = private.

### Results

In this study, initially, mean values and standard deviations of all interval scaled variables were calculated, in order to see the general perception on organizational socialization construct, identity-based trust, and job involvement construct. Then, factor analyses conducted and the internal consistency of the variables were confirmed. Later, correlation analyses, and regression analysis were conducted to test the hypotheses and to examine the direction of relations.

The mean values shown in Table 1 indicate that, identity-based trust is the highest (Mean: 4,209) and job involvement is the lowest (Mean: 3,295).

It was seen that all of the variables (items of the factors were calculated as total) of the research model showed significant correlations between each other (Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level/2-tailed) (Table 2). Especially, organizational socialization (independent variable) has shown strong positive significant correlation with job involvement ( $r=0,789$ ;  $p<.01$ ). The organizational socialization variable also has showed moderate positive significant correlation with identity-based trust ( $r=0,659$ ;  $p<.01$ ) and finally iden-

tity-based trust has shown moderate positive correlation with job involvement ( $r=0,528$ ;  $p<.01$ ). These results “supported Hypothesis 1, Hypothesis 2, and Hypothesis 3”.

In order to examine the explanatory power of the organizational socialization variable on the job involvement, regression analysis was conducted. When Table 3 is examined, it can be seen that averaged Organizational Socialization has significant effect on job involvement ( $\beta=,425$ ;  $p= ,000$ ). Moreover, it is seen that averaged Organizational Socialization has significant effect on identity-based trust ( $\beta=,402$ ;  $p= ,000$ ) and identity-based trust has significant effect on job involvement ( $\beta=,388$ ;  $p= ,000$ ).

**Table 1. Mean Values and Standard Deviations for the Constructs**

CONSTRUCTS	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
<i>Identity-Based Trust:</i>	4,209	1,06
<i>Organizational Socialization:</i>	4,178	1,09
<i>Job Involvement:</i>	3,295	1,16

**Table 2. Correlation Analysis Results of All Constructs**

CONSTRUCT:	1	2	3
<b>1.Organizational Socialization</b>	1	0,659*	0,789
<b>2.Identity-Based Trust</b>	0,659*	1	0,528*
<b>3.Job Involvement</b>	0,789*	0,528*	1

\*Correlation is significant at the 0,01 level (2-tailed). All the variables are scored on a 1 to 5 point scale. (N: 250)

**Table 3. Regression Analysis Results for Organizational Socialization, Identity-Based Trust and Job Involvement**

<b>Dependent Variable:</b>	Job Involvement			
<b>Independent Variable</b>		<b>Beta</b>	<b>t value</b>	<b>p value</b>
Organizational Socialization		0,425	5,060	0,000
R = 0,425; R <sup>2</sup> = 0,405; F = 92,415; p = 0,000				
<b>Dependent Variable:</b>	Job Involvement			
<b>Independent Variable</b>		<b>Beta</b>	<b>t value</b>	<b>p value</b>
Identity-Based Trust		0,388	4,088	0,000
R = 0,388; R <sup>2</sup> = 0,325; F = 91,747; p = 0,000				
<b>Dependent Variable:</b>	Identity-Based Trust			
<b>Independent Variable</b>		<b>Beta</b>	<b>t value</b>	<b>p value</b>
Organizational Socialization		0,402	4,196	0,000
R = 0,402; R <sup>2</sup> = 0,391; F = 88,655; p = 0,000				

Table 3 shows that organizational socialization is statistically significant ( $p$  value:  $0,00 < 0,05$ ) in predicting the identity-based trust explaining the 39,1% of the variance in identity-based trust and statistically significant ( $p$  value:  $0,00 < 0,05$ ) in predicting job involvement explaining the 40,5% of the variance in job involvement. Besides, Table 1 reveals that identity-based trust has the explanatory

power of 32,5% ( $p$  value:  $0,00 < 0,05$ ) on job involvement.

In the next stage, a mediation model (Hypothesis 4) was tested. In this model a link from organizational socialization to identity-based trust and from identity-based trust to job involvement was included. The results of the analysis are displayed on Table 4.

**Table 4. Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results for the Mediating Role of Identity-Based Trust on Organizational Socialization and Job Involvement Relationship**

Variables	B	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj. R <sup>2</sup>	F
<b>Step 1 (1)</b> <b>Organizational Socialization</b>			,402***	,626	88,655
	,338	,402*			
<b>Step 2 (2)</b> <b>Organizational Socialization</b>			,405***	,223	92,415
	,277*	,425*			
<b>Step 3 (3)</b> <b>- Organizational Socialization</b> <b>-Identity-Based Trust</b>			,677***	,642	55,615
	,373*	,411*			
	,385*	,429*			

\* p<.05 \*\* p<.01 \*\*\*p<.001

(1) 1. Step: Dependent variable: Identity-Based Trust; Independent variable: Organizational Socialization

(2) 2. Step: Dependent variable: Job Involvement; Independent variable: Organizational Socialization

(3) 3. Step: Dependent variable: Job Involvement; Independent variables: Organizational Socialization and Identity-Based Trust

According to Table 4, the results meaningfully support the mediating contribution of identity-based trust between organizational socialization and job involvement. Hypothesis 4 was supported as identity-based trust showed mediation between organizational socialization and job involvement. In the final step of the model, with the inclusion of identity-based trust in the analysis, the effect

of the organizational socialization on job involvement has decreased ( $\beta = 0,411, p < 0.05$ ). It was seen that in the third step the beta coefficient was lower than the second step ( $\beta = 0,425, p < 0.05$ ). As the reports show, the mediating role of identity-based trust is confirmed and “Hypothesis 4” is “supported”.

## CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

In this study, the relationship between organizational socialization and job involvement was investigated and the mediating role of identity-based trust on this relationship is tried to be tested. The research findings were interpreted and it was seen that all of the variables of the research model showed significant positive correlations between each other. It was revealed that organizational socialization which was the independent variable of this study had strong positive significant correla-

tion with job involvement and organizational socialization also had positive significant correlation with identity-based trust. Besides, the findings have indicated that identity-based trust was positively correlated with job involvement. According to all these results, it is concluded that hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 were supported. These findings supported the related studies' results which have revealed that job involvement was an important outcome of organizational socialization and organizational trust (e.g. Cohen and Veled-Hecht, 2010; Chao, O'Learly-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, and Gardner 1994; Gruman et al., 2006; Heimann, B. and Pittenger, 1996).

These findings are also consistent with the previous arguments which addressed the strong association between organizational socialization and commitment, proactive behavior, and job involvement (Cohen and Veled-Hecht, 2010; Gregersen, 1993; Ashforth and Saks, 1996; Cooper-Thomas and Anderson, 2002). Besides, the results of this study have supported the relevant literature which provided several researches confirming organizational socialization's strong relation with high job involvement (Fisher, 1986; Judeh, 2011; Manzoor, 2011).

Furthermore, as it was discussed within the aims of this study, it was tried to examine the mediation model with the inclusion of identity-based trust which was the assumed mediating variable of the research framework. According to the statistical findings, since there was a link from organizational socialization to identity-based trust and from identity-

based trust to job involvement, the mediating contribution of identity-based trust was confirmed. Thus, it is concluded that since identity-based trust showed mediation between organizational socialization and job involvement, Hypothesis 4 was supported. Moreover, the explanatory power of the organizational socialization on the job involvement and on the identity-based trust was examined and it is concluded that organizational socialization has significant effects on both job involvement and identity-based trust. Additionally, it is demonstrated that identity-based trust has significant effect on job involvement. Consequently, these findings can be the indicators of the positive significant relationship between organizational socialization and job involvement and the indication of the mediating role of the identity-based trust perceptions of the individuals.

In the present case, it can be suggested that the findings of this research study are consistent with the past studies indicating the relationships among identity-based trust, organizational socialization and job involvement (Mishra and Morrissey, 1990; Costigan, et.al., 1998). This study supports the implications of theory of organizational socialization and the notion that emphasizes the role of identification and trust in constructive human relationships, togetherness, and involvement to job (Mishra and Morrissey 1990; Dirks and Ferrin 2001; Hameed et al, 2011). Consequently, it is implied that the important result of the current study is that organizational socialization and identity-based trust hold the distinction of being the explanatory constructs of job involve-

ment in the context of this research setting.

With that respect, it is concluded that the theoretical work in the field of organizational socialization has supported the role of trust as mediator between the organizational socialization and job attitudes but this relationship has never been tested empirically for the mediating role of identity-based trust on the relationship between organizational socialization and job involvement. It is recognized that Puusa and Tolvanen (2006) have also called for an empirical study for testing these integrated links. Therefore, upon the knowledge of the author, the current study has been the first study examining these relationships and has value for adding findings related to the research constructs. Besides, though the past few decades have added a great deal to understanding these constructs, there is still a need for more research on the correlates of organizational socialization and further studies are recommended for examining the multi variable and dimensional models upon these concepts.

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## İŞE ADANMIŞLIĞIN ÖRGÜTSEL SOSYALLEŞME TEORİSİ VE ÖZDEŞLEŞMEYE DAYALI GÜVEN ALGISI İLE AÇIKLANMASI: AMPİRİK BİR ARAŞTIRMA

**Özet:** Bu çalışma, örgütsel sosyalleşme ve işe adanmışlık arasındaki ilişkiyi özdeşleşmeye dayalı güven algısının ara değişken rolü ile birlikte incelemeye çalışmaktadır. Bu çerçevede çalışmanın amacı, bir pozitif psikoloji kavramı olarak işe adanmışlık algısının çalışanların örgütsel sosyalleşme süreçleri ile ilgili gelişimleri ve algılamaları ve örgütleriyle özdeşleşmelerine dayalı güven algıları ile nasıl ve ne yönde açıklanabildiğini ortaya koymaktır. Bu araştırma ile birlikte aynı zamanda, özdeşleşmeye dayalı güven algısının örgütsel sosyalleşmenin işe adanmışlığı açıklayıcı gücünü pekiştirme ya da azaltma rolün olup olmaması durumu değerlendirilmeye çalışılmaktadır. Bu araştırmada ele alınan kavramlar arasındaki pozitif ve anlamlı ilişkilerin incelenmesi örgütsel sosyalleşme teorisine ve pozitif psikoloji yaklaşımına dayanmaktadır. Bu çalışma İstanbul'daki özel bankalarda görev yapan çalışanlar üzerindeki bir araştırmayla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırmada toplam 500 kişiye anket dağıtılmış ve 250 kişiden geçerli geri dönüş olabilmıştır. Böylece araştırmada geri dönüş oranı %50 olup, analize tabi tutulmuş olan anket sayısı 250 olmuştur. Araştırmada yer alan katılımcılar bankaların çeşitli servis ve departmanlarında görev yapmakta olan ve tesadüfi olarak belirlenen örneklem grubunu teşkil etmektedir. Örneklem içerisinde yer alan katılımcıların %59.6'sı banka servis personeli, %40.4'ü ise idari-yönetim düzeyinde personeldir. Katılımcıların büyük çoğunluğunun (%50.7) 23-30 yaş grubunda yer almakta olduğu ve 31-44 yaş aralığında (%49.3) yer aldığı görülmüştür. Araştırma verilerinin toplanmasında yüz yüze anket yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Araştırma kapsamında uygulanan anket formu, dört bölümden oluşmaktadır. Birinci bölümde, katılımcı ile ilgili kişisel verileri (cinsiyet, yaş, eğitim düzeyi, medeni hal, görev süresi) toplamayı amaçlayan toplam demografik sorular sorulmuştur. İkinci bölüm, katılımcıların işe adanmışlık düzeylerini, üçüncü bölüm örgütle sosyalleşme algılarını ve dördüncü bölüm özdeşleşmeye dayalı güven algısını belirlemek üzere yöneltilen sorulardan oluşmuştur. Anketteki ölçeklerin her bir soru maddesine ilişkin cevapları "Kesinlikle Katılıyorum" (5) ifadesinden "Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum" (1) ifadesine kadar uzanan 5'li Likert ölçeği şeklindedir. Araştırmada kullanılan ölçüm araçları şöyledir: "Özdeşleşmeye Dayalı Güven Algısı", Robinson (1996) tarafından geliştirilmiş olan 7 madeli ölçek ile ölçülmüştür. "Örgütsel Sosyalleşme" algısı Katz'a (1988) ait 16 soruluk ölçek ile ölçülmüştür. "İşe Adanmışlık" ise Paullay, Alliger, ve Stone-Romero (1994) tarafından geliştirilmiş olan 27 maddelik ölçek ile değerlendirilmiştir. Bu çalışmada ölçeklere ait içsel güvenilirlik değerleri şöyledir: "Özdeşleşmeye Dayalı Güven Algısı" için 0.88; "Örgütsel Sosyalleşme" algısı için 0.92; ve "İşe Adanmışlık" algısı için 0.92 güvenilirlik değerleri tespit edilebilmiştir. Bu çalışmada, çalışanların işe adanmışlık düzeyinin örgütsel sosyalleşme ve özdeşleşmeye dayalı güven algısı ile nasıl açıklanabileceği anlaşılmasına çalışılmıştır. Araştırmada elde edilen bulgular örgütsel sosyalleşmenin işe adanmışlık ve özdeşleşmeye dayalı güven algısı ile pozitif ve anlamlı olarak ilişkisinin olduğunu göstermiştir. Bununla birlikte, araştırma sonuçlarına göre, özdeşleşmeye dayalı güven algısının örgütsel sosyalleşme ve işe adanmışlık arasındaki ilişkiyi ara değişken olarak etkileyen bir role sahip olduğu saptanmıştır.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** İşe Adanmışlık, Örgütsel Sosyalleşme, Özdeşleşmeye Dayalı Güven

## AN EXAMINATION OF ADOLESCENTS' METHODS OF COPING WITH STRESS

*Arzu ÖZYÜREK*

*Karabuk University, School of Healty, Department of Child Development*

**Abstract:** Stress is known for its damaging effect since it could be seen in every individual and could cause damage. Especially stress in adolescence could affect the adolescents more than the other individuals. Using effective ways to cope with the stress in adolescence is crucial in terms of preventing negative behaviors and psychological problems stemming from the stress factors. This study examined the adolescents' methods to cope with the stress and 1.700 sample students aged between 15-18 years and studying in secondary schools in Karabuk province of Turkey were included. "Scale of Stress Tendency" and "Scale of Methods to cope with Stress" were used in the collection of the data. Analyses were done by using SPSS software, version 16.0. T-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used in determination of the relationship between personal characteristics and subscale dimensions. When there is a significant difference, Scheffe test was used to determine the source of the difference. As a result of the study, a highly significant difference was found between the adolescents' tendency to stress and their methods to cope with it ( $p < .001$ ). A significant difference was found between the genders, ages and number of siblings of the adolescents and educational status of their parents with the subscale scores. Suggestions were developed by discussing the results in the light of the findings and literature review.

**Key Words:** Adolescence, Stress Tendency, Coping With Stress

### INTRODUCTION

Stress can be defined as; the state of over-stimulation that occurs physically or psychologically when the individual perceives the internal and external factors as a threat or challenge; or the individual's physical, psychological or cognitive reactions towards the stimulants that compel the individual to reestablish the balance. Stress is a psychological state that everybody could feel in their daily lives. The reasons, symptoms and levels of the stress could be different in every person (Özmutaf, 2006; Demirkıran, 2009; Duman, 2009; Eryılmaz, 2009; Terzian, Moore & Nguyen, 2010; Ardiç, 2010).

The individual should be affected by the changes in the environment in order to be stressed (Erkmen and Çetin ). Stress is generally connected with internal and external stress factors. *Environmental stress factors* can be listed such as; a monotonous lifestyle, economic problems, social and cultural changes, transportation problems and technological changes. *Individual stress factors* could be; individual's gender, development period characteristics, genetic characteristics, needs and motivations, socio-economic levels, intelligence and previous experience, personality, anxiety level and etc. *Social stress factors*; familial problems, job environment, economical problems, climate, religion, social

class, sense of isolation and etc (Güçlü, 2001; Ilgar, 2001; Kara, 2009; Stöppler, 2011).

Reactions to stress occur in organism in three stages such as alarm reactions, resistance and exhaustion. In the *Stage of Alarm*; the body of the individual shows a reaction as “fight or run” due to activation of sympathetic nervous system when meeting with a source of stress. Increase in the number of heart beat and breathing, rise in blood pressure and a sudden release of adrenaline can be seen at this time. In the *Stage of Resistance*; the energy lost in the stage of alarm is tried to be regained and destruction of the body is tried to be repaired. Parasympathetic nervous system begins to be affective and physiological responses become normal when the stress is coped with. The individual tries to do his best to resist the stress in this stage. In the *Stage of exhaustion*; if the sources of tension during the stage of adaptation and their intensity do not decrease or even increase, the individual cannot cope with them and becomes vulnerable to the effects of the other sources of stress (Güçlü, 2001).

Perhaps people experience stress starting from prenatal period. It helps children to adapt to a new situation and to develop skills to cope with the difficulties they meet during their lives (Middlebrooks & Audage, 2008). Trying to fulfill the physical, emotional, social, educational and professional developmental needs of a new developmental stage leads to different levels of stress on adolescents. Developmental stress experiences are also added to everyday problems and traumatic stress (Aydın, 2008).

## Adolescence and Stress

Adolescence is an important period in which the individual experiences psychological and physiological changes that occurs between 10-19 years of age. Adolescent and the parents might have several problems. Individual begins to mature sexually and a rapid growth and development occur in the body during the early adolescence which lasts 1 or 2 years (11-13 years of age for girls, 13-14 years of age for boys). During the middle adolescence, the most extreme behaviors and problems are seen and the feelings of the adolescents are disrupted. In the period of late adolescence, individuals are more stable and are more successful in solving problems and they begin to show adult attitudes in order to convince the other people that they are adults (Geçgil and Yıldız, 2006; Yakınlar, 2006).

According to Elkind (1986), there are three stress factors that the adolescents face with. These are; *stress factors that can be observed visually* such as substance use and violations of the rules; *stress factors that cannot be observed visually and unavoidable* such as losing a relative which is unexpected and causes big changes in individual’s life and *stress factors that can be observed but unavoidable* such as exams. Life experiences that include stress can be a threat to the healthy development of adolescents. Children and adolescents are generally confronted with the events that contain stress. In general, the factors that cause stress are; developmental tasks, relationships with the family and peers, problems stemming from school and exams,

health and sexual problems and illnesses such as asthma, headache and stomachache (Cited by: Eryılmaz, 2009). Symptoms such as nervousness or unusual sensuality, sleeping difficulties or nightmares, difficulty in focusing attention, anxiety, eating or toilet problems, headache and stomachache, increase in unexplained fear or anxiety, returning to an earlier developmental stage, problems in family and peer relations and trying to use drugs or alcohol can be seen in children and adolescents (NASP, 2009).

### **Coping with Stress in Adolescence**

Coping with stress is to strengthen the behaviors or emotional reactions to reduce, eliminate or withstand the tension caused by the stress factors (Güney, 2001). In order to cope with the stress, the individual who is stressed should know the factors that make him stressed and the ways how to cope with it and should use these methods when necessary (Kara, 2009). Everybody should find the right methods for themselves to cope with the stress and should manage their own stress. *Problem focused* strategies aim to do something to change the stressed situations. On the other hand, *sense focused* strategies try to eliminate negative effects without trying to solve the problem. Planned problem solving, positive reevaluation, taking responsibility, confrontation and compromise are the strategies to cope with the stress and they are among problem focused strategies. Defense mechanisms in Freud's psychoanalytic theory are among sense focused strategies to cope with the stress. Although the strategies that

include intervention to the symptoms instead of intervention to the cause of the problem are less effective, they may contribute to provide the emotional balance (Aydın, 2006). How the behaviors to cope with the stress occur may change according to how the source of the stress is dealt with. Methods and approaches, especially in adolescence, depend on the developmental and personal characteristics of adolescents as much as the characteristics of the source of the stress (Duman, 2009).

Adolescence, which includes physical, psychological and social maturation in transition into adulthood, is called as "time of storm and stress". During this period, intensive and negative affective disorders indicate a serious need for support (Şatıroğlu, 2002, Casey et al., 2010). The processes to cope with the stress, which are used by the adolescent to reach the targets that are expected from him by the society, are important. It is considered that the processes to cope with the stress that were developed by the adolescent form the basis of the processes to cope with the stress in adulthood and earlier experiences affect the future development (Basut and Erden, 2005; Eryılmaz, 2009).

Adolescents who do not have the skills to cope with the stress yet, develop these skills by using their experiences. Thus, the effects of the family and adults gain importance. It is necessary for the parents or for the adults to teach the adolescent how to react the stress caused by physical and emotional inhibitions (Middlebrooks & Audage, 2008). The studies on the methods to cope with the stress in ado-

lescence are based on adult models. Previous studies show that adolescents have several problems due to the lack of the skills to cope with the stress such as low academic success, adaptation, anxiety, depression, eating disorders and psycho-social problems. Besides, related studies showed that the lack of skills to cope with the stress and life events form an important source of stress for adolescents. (Eryılmaz, 2009). Nowadays, adolescents are confronted with a stressful situation at school since there is a huge competition to be successful in education and they have difficulty in coping with the stress (Oral, Çok and Kutlu, 2005). Some factors such as positive problem solving skills, supporting skills to facilitate the relationship with adults and peers at home or school, the ability to learn from mistakes, consistent and positive discipline, ability to express emotions appropriately, feel physically and emotionally safe, sparing time to relaxation and entertainment, developing academic, social, extracurricular and life skills could be listed as the subsidiary factors to prevent the stress. Families could help their children by realizing their children's behaviors and feelings, creating confidence in the child, being open to talk to them, encouraging them to express their feelings, being the right models, encouraging them to form healthy friendships, teaching them how to solve problems and by making contact with their teachers or guidance and counseling services (NASP, 2009). During adolescence, the parents who can find suitable solutions become role models to adolescents for active coping and the parents who are harsh become role models to adolescents

for passive coping. During this period, some behaviors of the adolescent to cope with the stress could bring negative results. It has been seen that there is a strong correlation between the tendency to use substance to cope with the stress and the relationship with their friends. It is considered that the antisocial behaviors decrease with the end of adolescence (Basut ve Erden, 2005).

When the literature was reviewed, it was found that the adolescents who committed crimes were not able to use proper methods to cope with the stress. It is necessary to eliminate the negative implications of stress on the individual, family and the society since it has a dominant effect on the development of undesirable attitudes and behaviors in adolescents. Within the scope of the development of adolescent, which includes the education of the individual, it is important to determine the sources of the stress and the levels to cope with them, namely, to develop methods how to cope with the stress. In the light of the findings in this study, it is aimed to orient the adolescents to use effective ways to cope with the stress and to propose suggestions to take precautions that protect them from the negative effects of the stress.

## **METHOD**

### **Research Type**

In the study, screening model was used in which the individuals in the study are tried to be defined according to their conditions and as they are. This study aims to describe the

tendency of the adolescents to stress and their methods to cope with it.

### Universe and Sampling

Students between the ages of 14-19 years attending to secondary schools in Karabuk province of Turkey constitute the universe of the study. Among these students, 1700 students, 880 girls and 820 boys, those who are between the ages of 15-18 years and completed both of the scales constituted the sampling frame.

### Data Collection Tools

“Scale of Stress Tendency” which includes 20 items and scored from 1 to 5 was used in determination of the stress tendency of the adolescents (Miller, Smith and Mehler, 1988). Reliability and validity of the scale were examined in two separate studies that were conducted on Turkish samples (N=539 and N=343) and Cronbach alpha coefficients were found to be .74 and .78 (Şahin and Durak, 1995). “Scale of Methods to cope with Stress” which was adapted by Şahin and Durak from the Ways of Coping Inventory that was originally developed by Lazarus and Folkman and includes 30 items in 4 point Likert type was used in determination of the adolescents’ methods to cope with the stress. Problem focused/effective ways and sense focused/ineffective ways are the two dimensions of the scale. These two dimensions include 5 sub-dimensions that are consistent with factor analysis as “Self-Confident”, “Optimistic”, “Helpless”, “Submissive Approaches” and “Seeking Social Support”. The scale applied to three dif-

ferent sample group and reliability coefficients were calculated for each factor. It was determined that “Self-Confident Approach” sub-scale reliability ranged between  $\alpha=0.62$  ile  $\alpha=0.80$ , “Optimistic Approach” sub-scale reliability ranged  $\alpha=0.64$  and  $\alpha=0.49$ , “Helpless Approach” sub-scale reliability ranged between  $\alpha= 0.64$  ile  $\alpha= 0.73$ , “Submissive Approaches” sub-scale reliability between  $\alpha= 0.47$  ile  $\alpha=.72$  and “Seeking Social Support” sub-scale reliability ranged between  $\alpha=0.47$  ile  $\alpha=0.45$  (Temel, Bahar ve Çuhadar, 2007; Yamaç, 2009). In this study, the methods of the adolescents to cope with the stress were evaluated according to effective and ineffective ways subscale scores of the Scale of Methods to cope with Stress. Effective ways total score was obtained by adding the scores of “Self-Confident”, “Optimistic” and “Seeking Social Support”; and ineffective ways total score was obtained by adding the scores of “Helpless” and “Submissive Approaches”.

### Collection and Analysis of Data

Scales were applied to all of the secondary school classes with the help of guidance teachers. Data were analyzed by using SPSS 16.0. T-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used in determination of the relationship between personal characteristics and subscale dimensions. When there is a significant difference, Scheffe test was used to determine the source of the difference.

### FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In the study group, 51,8 % of the adolescents are girls, 48,2 % are boys; 28 % are at the

age of 15, 26,8 % are at the age of 16, 27,5 % are at the age of 17 and 17,8 % are at the age of 18; 4,4 % are the only child, 20,3 % have a sibling, 40,8 % have two siblings, 25,2 % have three siblings and 9,3 % have four or more siblings. 61,3 % of the mothers and 30,4 % of the fathers of the adolescents in the study group are primary school graduates; 17,6% of

the mothers and 22,2% of the fathers are secondary school graduates; 14,7% of the mothers and 28,1% of the fathers are high school graduates. The relationship between the Adolescents' Tendency to Stress and their Scale of Methods to cope with Stress scores are given in Table 1.

**Table 1. The relationship between the Adolescents' Tendency to Stress and their Scale of Methods to cope with Stress (Pearson Correlation)**

	Tendency to Stress	Coping with Stress
	r	r
Tendency to Stress	1,000***	.371***
Coping with Stress	.371***	1,000***

\*\*\*p<.001

In Table 1, there is a highly significant and positive relationship between the tendency to stress and coping with stress ( $r=.371, p<.001$ ). According to this, it could be stated that there is an increase in the adolescents' levels of coping with stress when their tendency to stress increase. Similar studies have found that there is a positive correlation between the stress symptoms and fulfilling the developmental tasks of high school students. There is an increase in the stress symptoms when high school students' levels of fulfilling the developmental tasks increase (Yakınlar, 2006). Rice et al claimed that the factors that affect coping with stress are; the form, number, time and synchronicity of life changes, external re-

sources such as social support of the parents and peers and internal resources such as control reactions perceived in intelligence and social success. On one hand, they affect the frequency of problems depending on basic life events, on the other hand, they affect the adaptation to every kind of important change (Cited by: Duman, 2009). The trust that the individual feels towards coping with stress is an important factor that affects the intensity of stress. Emotional support and having the same fear by the others make the stress more bearable (Ilgar, 2001). T-test scores of Scale of Methods to cope with Stress of the adolescents according to their genders are given in Table 2.

**Table 2. T-test Scores of Scale of Methods to cope with Stress of the Adolescents According to their Genders**

Gender	n	Effective Ways						Ineffective Ways			
		Optimistic		Self-Confident		Seeking Social Support		Helpless		Submissive	
		$\bar{x}$	S	$\bar{x}$	S	$\bar{x}$	S	$\bar{x}$	S	$\bar{x}$	S
Girls	880	13,70	3,00	21,27	3,95	11,93	2,15	19,96	4,54	11,63	3,15
Boys	820	14,13	2,86	21,22	3,69	11,28	2,15	19,15	4,22	11,84	3,25
t Test Results		t: -2,996 p: 0,003**		t: 0,260 p: 0,795		t: 6,269 p: 0,000***		t: 3,773 p: 0,000***		t: -1,358 p: 0,175	

\*\*p< .01, \*\*\*p<.001

In Table 2, there is a significant relationship between the genders of the adolescents and their methods to cope with the stress. It was observed that the girls used seeking social support in effective ways and helpless approach in ineffective ways more than the boys (p<.001); the boys used optimistic approach in effective ways more than the girls (p< .01). According to these results, it could be stated that the girls use seeking social support and the boys use optimistic approach as the effective way to cope with stress. Besides, the girls use helpless approach in ineffective ways. Seeking social support is a confusing way among the ways to cope with stress. The adolescent would have to gain their identity and autonomy while using seeking social sup-

port approach in effective ways to cope with stress (Duman, 2009).

Magaya et al (2005) determined in their study they did on Zimbabwean students that girls feel stressed more than boys and youngsters use sense focused strategies more than problem solving strategies when they are confronted with stress. Özer (2001) found that the girls use seeking social support and avoidance strategies more than boys in the study that examined the relationship between the strategies of the adolescents they use to cope with stress and self-image (Cited by: Sala Razi et al., 2009). These findings are similar to the findings in this study. ANOVA test scores of Scale of Methods to cope with Stress of the adolescents according to their ages are given in Table 3.

**Table 3. ANOVA Test Scores of Scale of Methods to cope with Stress of the Adolescents According to their Ages**

Age Group	N	Effective Ways						Ineffective Ways			
		Optimistic		Self-Confident		Seeking Social Support		Helpless		Submissive	
		$\bar{X}$	S	$\bar{X}$	S	$\bar{X}$	S	$\bar{X}$	S	$\bar{X}$	S
15 years	476	14,03	2,94	21,48	3,71	11,82	2,19	19,35	4,15	11,35	2,96
16 years	455	13,66	3,13	20,82	4,01	11,27	2,12	20,23	4,56	11,96	3,48
17 years	467	14,13	2,83	21,36	3,81	11,64	2,05	19,17	4,31	11,58	3,01
18 years	302	13,73	2,79	21,33	3,74	11,78	2,36	19,53	4,63	12,20	3,32
ANOVA Results		F: 2,626 p: .049*		F: 2,702 p:.044*		F: 5,760 p:.001**		F: 5,119 p:.002**		F: 5,535 p:.001**	

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

In Table 3, there is a significant relationship between the ages of the adolescents and the effective and ineffective methods they use to cope with the stress ( $p < .05$ ). According to the results of Scheffe test, the average score of the adolescents at the age of 16 to use social support are significantly lower than the average scores of the adolescents at the age of 15 and 18 ( $\bar{X} = 11,27$ ), on the other hand, the average helpless approach score of the adolescents at the age of 16 is significantly higher than the average helpless approach score of the adolescents at the age of 15 and 17 ( $\bar{X} = 20,23$ ). The average submissive approach score of the adolescents at the age of 15 are lower than the scores of the adolescents at the age 16 and 18 ( $\bar{X} = 11,35$ ). According to these results, it could be stated that the adolescents at the age of 16 use social support less than the adolescents at the age of 15 and 18; they internalized the helpless approach more than the adolescents at the age of 15 and 17; the adolescents

at the age of 15 internalized the submissive approach more than the adolescents at the age of 16 and 18.

The ages between 13 and 15 are critical in terms of the stress experiences and the behaviors to cope with the stress during the adolescence. The individuals started to secondary school which is more determining for them in terms of their future life conditions. The efforts to adapt become a problem due to the lack of experience (Oral, Çok and Kutlu, 2005). The less use of submissive approach by the adolescents at the age of 15 in the study shows that they are successful in their efforts to adapt. However, this situation changes at the age of 16 and it is observed that they tend to internalize helpless approach more to cope with the stress while they tend not to use social support. This situation might suggest that the adolescents at the age of 16 feel the effects of the developmental aspects of transition period more and they need more support to cope with stress.



Griffith, Dubow and Ippolito (2000) found in their study on the adolescents attending to 9<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> grades that the 9<sup>th</sup> graders use avoiding approach to cope with stress more than the others. They claimed that this situation might be because of the stressed caused by rapid physical and psychological changes in adolescents along with the stress caused by the change of school. Culture, values system and individual characteristics such as age and gender could be determinant in the effectiveness and ineffectiveness of the strategies used to cope with stress. Previous studies suggest that concerns for the future increase along with the increase in age (cited by: Aydın, 2006). When the adolescents' processes to cope with stress are examined generally, it could be observed

that either they use or recognize different ways to cope with stress as they become more mature. Sense focused strategies to cope with stress are developed at the last stages of childhood and at the first stages of adolescence with the increase of the ability to realize and to manage feelings. When the adolescents at different ages are compared, it is observed that; sense focused ways are used more during early adolescence and changing the focus behaviorally is replaced by changing the focus cognitively (Duman, 2009; Eryılmaz, 2009). ANOVA Test Scores of Scale of Methods to cope with Stress of the Adolescents According to the Number of their Siblings are given in Table 4.

**Table 4. ANOVA Test Scores of Scale of Methods to cope with Stress of the Adolescents According to the Number of their Siblings**

Number of Siblings	n	Effective Ways						Ineffective Ways			
		Optimistic		Self-Confident		Seeking Social Support		Helpless		Submissive	
		$\bar{x}$	S	$\bar{x}$	S	$\bar{x}$	S	$\bar{x}$	S	$\bar{x}$	S
Only child	74	14,08	2,65	21,56	3,47	11,51	2,33	19,21	4,23	11,64	3,23
Have 1 Sibling	345	14,18	2,87	21,49	3,81	11,84	2,15	19,19	4,44	11,64	3,19
Have 2 Siblings	694	13,93	3,00	21,36	3,80	11,59	2,08	19,41	4,23	11,65	2,98
Have 3 Siblings	429	13,61	2,84	20,88	3,88	11,61	2,26	19,80	4,45	11,86	3,52
Have 4 Siblings	158	13,95	3,21	21,02	3,98	11,29	2,32	20,65	4,45	11,98	3,18
ANOVA Results		F: 1,919 p: .105		F: : 1,742 p:.138		F: 1,837 p:.119		F: 3,667 p:.005*		F: 0,598 p:.664	

\*p<.01

In Table 4, there is not a significant relationship between the number of the siblings of the adolescents and the effective methods

they use to cope with the stress (p>.05). On the other hand, there is a significant relationship between the number of the siblings of the adolescents and the ineffective methods they

use to cope with the stress ( $p < .01$ ). According to the results of Scheffe test, the average helpless approach scores of the adolescents who have 4 siblings are significantly higher than the average scores of the adolescents who have 1 and 2 siblings ( $\bar{X} = 20,65$ ). According to these results, it could be stated that the adolescents who have 4 siblings internalized the helpless approach more than the adolescents who have 1 and 2 siblings. The knowledge that the adolescents acquired from the relationship with their siblings is very useful for them to comply with their friends. The only child lacks of this fundamental social training. The behaviors such as the presence of siblings, competition, cooperation, and aggression are the primary civilization behaviors in children (Temel and Aksoy, 2001).

Sala Razi et al (2009) found in their study that the use of self-confident and optimistic approaches to cope with stress increase when the communication skills of the children improve. The finding in the study that shows that the children who have 4 siblings use helpless approach more to cope with stress might suggest that the children can be affected by the variables that are not taken into consideration in this study such as the socio-economic status of the family, the attitudes of parents towards their children, their child-rearing attitudes and their relationship with their children. ANOVA Test Scores of Scale of Methods to cope with Stress of the Adolescents According to the Educational Status of their Mothers are given in Table 5.

**Table 5. ANOVA Test Scores of Scale of Methods to cope with Stress of the Adolescents According to the Educational Status of their Mothers**

Educational Status of Mothers	n	Effective Ways						Ineffective Ways			
		Optimistic		Self-Confident		Seeking Social Support		Helpless		Submissive	
		$\bar{X}$	S	$\bar{X}$	S	$\bar{X}$	S	$\bar{X}$	S	$\bar{X}$	S
Primary School	1042	13,98	2,82	21,16	3,82	11,56	2,25	19,87	4,35	11,82	3,09
Secondary School	299	13,90	3,08	21,42	3,79	11,64	1,89	19,15	4,49	11,44	2,97
High School	250	13,46	3,15	21,17	3,92	11,70	2,13	19,54	4,49	11,44	2,97
University	109	14,25	3,10	21,77	3,77	11,91	2,13	17,92	4,38	11,56	2,91
ANOVA Results		F: 2,691 p: .045*		F: 1,118 p: .341		F: 1,081 p: .356		F: 7,697 p: .000**		F: 1,072 p: .360	

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .001$

In Table 5, there is a significant relationship between the educational status of the mothers of the adolescents and the optimistic approach among the effective methods they use

to cope with the stress ( $p < .05$ ) and the helpless approach among the ineffective methods they use to cope with the stress ( $p < .001$ ). The adolescents who have the highest optimistic scores are the ones whose mothers are uni-



versity graduates. According to the results of Scheffe test, the helpless approach scores of the adolescents whose mothers are university graduates are significantly lower than the scores of the adolescents whose mothers are primary school or high school graduates ( $\bar{X} = 17,92$ ). It could be stated that the adolescents whose mothers are university graduates internalized the optimistic approach among

the effective methods more and the helpless approach among the ineffective methods less to cope with stress, accordingly, high education level of the mothers has a positive effect on coping with stress of the adolescents. ANOVA Test Scores of Scale of Methods to cope with Stress of the Adolescents According to the Educational Status of their Fathers are given in Table 6.

**Table 6. ANOVA Test Scores of Scale of Methods to cope with Stress of the Adolescents According to the Educational Status of their Fathers**

Educational Status of Fathers	n	Effective Ways						Ineffective Ways			
		Optimistic		Self-Confident		Seeking Social Support		Helpless		Submissive	
		$\bar{X}$	S	$\bar{X}$	S	$\bar{X}$	S	$\bar{X}$	S	$\bar{X}$	S
Primary School	516	13,92	2,90	20,97	3,90	11,35	2,17	20,29	4,40	11,91	3,06
Secondary School	377	13,86	2,92	21,23	3,83	11,54	2,11	19,75	4,26	11,75	3,07
High School	477	13,96	3,05	21,51	3,62	11,80	2,25	19,12	4,41	11,66	3,40
University	330	13,91	2,94	21,24	3,83	11,62	2,17	18,90	4,43	11,52	3,24
ANOVA Results		F: 0,100 p: .960		F: 1,705 p: .164		F: 5,259 p: .001*		F: 9,064 p: .000**		F: 1,126 p: .337	

\* $p < .01$ , \*\* $p < .001$

In Table 6, there is a significant relationship between the educational status of the fathers of the adolescents and seeking social support approach among the effective methods they use to cope with the stress ( $p < .01$ ) and the helpless approach among the ineffective methods they use to cope with the stress ( $p < .001$ ). According to the results of Scheffe test, seeking social support approach scores of the adolescents whose fathers are high school or university graduates are significantly higher than the scores of the adolescents whose fathers are primary school graduates. It could be stated

that the adolescents whose fathers are high school or university graduates internalized seeking social support approach among the effective methods more and the helpless approach among the ineffective methods less to cope with stress, accordingly, high education level of the fathers has a positive effect on coping with stress of the adolescents. The reasons such as the parents with high education levels are more concerned with the problems of their children and they expect high social and academic achievement may be a factor to increase the stress of the adolescent. On the other hand, parents' being role models would

affect the adolescent's behaviors to cope with stress positively (Basut and Erden, 2005).

When the literature is examined, it is obvious that "seeking social support" strategy is emphasized most. Social support is a multidimensional concept that includes advices and information, emotional and financial support, appreciation, helping the individual to cope with their problems, being a role model and social support. The people such as parents, partners, friends, family, teachers, relatives, neighbors and experts are very important in the lives of the individuals. Yıldırım (1998) observed in the study conducted on high school students that social support sources of adolescents are family, friends and teachers respectively (Cited by: Aydın, 2006).

## CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

This study aims to describe the tendency of the adolescents between 15-18 years of age to stress and their methods to cope with it. A highly significant and positive relationship between their tendency to stress and coping with stress and an increase in the adolescents' levels of coping with stress when their tendency to stress increase were found in the study. It was observed that the variables such as gender, age, number of siblings and educational status of the parents of the adolescents are influential in coping with stress. As a result, it could be stated that the adolescent need support in using seeking social support effective method, having an optimistic point of view and self-esteem to cope with stress. It would be difficult for the adolescents to cope with stress when they use helpless and

submissive methods to cope with it. Furthermore, it would be more likely for them to be exposed to the destructive effects of stress if they cannot cope with it. Therefore, focusing on studies about adolescents and taking the suggestions below into consideration could be effective in preventing problems caused by the stress of adolescence.

- It seems important that teachers should be informed about the characteristics of adolescents when it is considered that the adolescence includes secondary education years. All prospective teachers could be provided pre-service and teachers and schools managers could be provided in-service training about the characteristics of adolescents. Thus, it would be possible for them to be more active about the issues such as communicating with the adolescents, taking preventive precautions, developing solutions for their problems, being supportive and informing their families about the issues.
- It would be possible to make the individuals become aware of their physical, emotional, cognitive, social and personal development characteristics by offering them elective courses at school. The adolescents who are aware of the changes they will have in the future can pass through this period more easily and can be more self-confident to overcome the possible problems.
- Educational and social trainings towards gaining skills and awareness for adolescents about decision making, determination of aims for specific issues and their

lives, communication skills, conflict and problem solving and character education could be developed. Thus, it could be possible to direct the young people to social activities and to make them stay away from stressful situations.

- Young people's personal, social, educational and vocational development could be contributed with the help of school guidance and counseling programs. It would be possible to prevent the destructive effects of future concern stress by guiding young people to plan their life during and after school. Seminars on the effective methods to cope with stress could be arranged. Preventing situations that cause stress on young people could make them feel more confident about the methods to cope with stress.
- Families, as well as the adolescents, could be informed about stress. They can be reached through seminars, conferences, printed texts and theatre plays. It could be possible to make them provide social support and become positive role models to the adolescents.
- Developing problem solving skills of the adolescents, providing social support, helping them to plan the time and become aware of their personal capabilities could be effective in coping with stress in a positive and effective way. Besides, informing them about the strategies to cope with stress and the anger management, helping them about balanced diet, encouraging them to do relaxation exercises and sports

could help them cope with stress effectively.

- Providing participation and cooperation of psychological counselors, teachers, students, managers, parents and the society in preparation, implementation and evaluation of school guidance and counseling programs could be helpful to decrease or eliminate the stress on adolescents caused by various factors and the adverse outcomes associated with them.

The stress during adolescence has different characteristics according to the stress in adulthood. Therefore, the adolescents should be observed, listened to, encouraged to express their feelings when they are stressed and their feelings should be understood, their relationships with the environment should be observed and their communication skills should be supported. It should not be forgotten that it is highly important for the adolescents to determine the problems that cause their stress and develop solutions for those problems to cope with stress.

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## ERGENLERİN STRESLE BAŞA ÇIKMA TARZLARININ İNCELENMESİ

**Özet:**Stres, günlük yaşam içerisinde her insanın karşı karşıya kalabileceği psikolojik bir durumdur. Stres, her bireyde görülebildiği ve olumsuz durumlara neden olduğu için zarar verici özelliği ile bilinir. Özellikle ergenlik dönemindeki stres, ergenleri diğer bireylere göre daha fazla etkileyebilir. Alan yazın incelendiğinde, suça yönelen ergenlerin yaşamlarındaki stres etkenleri karşısında uygun başa çıkma yöntemlerini kullanamadıkları görülmektedir. Ergenlerde istenmeyen tutum ve davranışların gelişmesinde önemli bir etkiye sahip olduğu görülen stresin birey, aile ve topluma yönelik olumsuz yansımalarının önlenmesi gerekmektedir. Ergenin gelişim görevleri kapsamında eğitim öğretim yaşantılarında yer alan bu dönemde, ergenlerin stresle başa çıkmada etkili yöntemler kullanmaları, stres faktörlerinden etkilenecek olumsuz davranışlar ve psikolojik sorunların ortaya çıkmasını önlemek açısından stres kaynaklarının ve stresle başa çıkma düzeylerinin belirlenmesi önem taşımaktadır. Ergenlerin stresle başa çıkma tarzlarının incelendiği bu araştırmada, araştırmaya konu olan bireylerin kendi koşulları içinde ve var olduğu gibi tanımlanmaya çalışıldığı tarama modeli kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın evrenini Karabük İli ortaöğretim kurumlarına devam eden öğrenciler oluşturmuştur. Bu öğrencilerden her iki ölçüğe ait maddeleri tam olarak dolduran 880 kız 820 erkek olmak üzere, toplam 1700 öğrenci araştırmanın örneklemine alınmıştır. Ergenlerin strese yatkınlık düzeylerinin belirlenmesinde, 20 maddeden oluşan ve 1-5 arası puanlama ile değerlendirilen “Strese Yatkınlık Ölçeği” kullanılmıştır (Miller, Smith ve Mehler, 1988). Ergenlerin stresle başa çıkma tarzlarının belirlenmesinde, Lazarus ve Folkman tarafından geliştirilen Başa Çıkma Yolları Envanterinden (Ways of Coping Inventory) hareketle Şahin ve Durak tarafından uyarlanan, 30 maddeden oluşan, 4’lü likert tipindeki “Stresle Başa Çıkma Tarzları Ölçeği-SBÇTÖ” kullanılmıştır. Verilerin analizi SPSS 16.0 programında yapılmış, kişisel özellikler ve ölçek alt boyutları arasındaki ilişkinin belirlenmesinde t-Testi ve tek yönlü varyans analizi (ANOVA) kullanılmıştır. Anlamlı farklılığın olması durumunda farklılığın kaynağının belirlenmesinde Scheffe testi yapılmıştır. Araştırmada; 15-18 yaş grubundaki ergenlerin strese yatkınlık ve stresle başa çıkma tarzları arasında yüksek düzeyde anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu bulunmuştur ( $p<.001$ ). Ergenlerin cinsiyeti, yaşı, kardeş sayısı ve anne-baba öğrenim durumu ile stresle başa çıkma tarzları ölçeği alt boyut puanları arasındaki fark anlamlı bulunmuştur. Buna göre; kızların erkeklere göre etkili yöntemlerden sosyal desteğe başvurma ve etkisiz yöntemlerden çaresiz yaklaşımı, erkeklerin kızlara göre etkili yöntemlerden iyimser yaklaşımı daha fazla kullandıkları; 16 yaşındaki ergenlerin 15 ve 18 yaşındakilere göre daha az sosyal desteğe başvurduğu, 15 ve 17 yaşındakilere göre daha fazla çaresiz yaklaşımı benimsediği, 15 yaşındaki ergenlerin 16 ve 18 yaşındakilere göre daha az boyun eğici yaklaşımı benimsediği; 5 kardeş olanların 2 ve 3 kardeş olanlara göre stresle başa çıkmada etkisiz yöntemlerden çaresiz yaklaşımı daha fazla benimsedikleri; annesi yüksek okul mezunu olan ergenlerin stresle başa çıkmada etkili yöntemlerden iyimser yaklaşımı daha fazla, etkisiz yöntemlerden çaresiz yaklaşımı daha az benimsedikleri; babası lise ve yüksek okul mezunu olan ergenlerin stresle başa çıkmada etkili yöntemlerden sosyal desteğe başvurma yaklaşımını daha fazla, etkisiz yöntemlerden çaresiz yaklaşımı daha az benimsedikleri, dolayısıyla anne ve baba öğrenim durumunun yüksek olmasının ergenlerin stresle başa çıkmalarında olumlu etkisi olduğu bulunmuştur. Çalışma sonucunda; Ergenlerin stresle başa çıkmada sosyal desteğe başvurma etkili yöntemini kullanma, olaylara iyimser bir bakış açısıyla yaklaşma ve stresle başa çıkmada kendine güvenme konusunda desteklenmeye ihtiyaçları olduğu yargısına varılmıştır. Ergenler, stresle karşılaştıklarında başvurdukları yaklaşımlar çaresiz ve boyun eğici yöntemler olduğunda, stresle baş etmeleri güç olacaktır. Stresle baş edilmediğinde ise, stresin yıkıcı etkilerine maruz kalmaları daha muhtemeldir. Çalışmanın bulguları ve literatür bilgileri ışığında tartışılarak öneriler geliştirilmiştir.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Ergenlik Dönemi, Strese Yatkınlık, Stresle Başa Çıkma

## THE COMPARISON OF SOCIAL SKILL LEVELS OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS DOING SPORTS AND NOT DOING SPORTS (SAMPLE OF KARS)

*Cansel ARSLANOĞLU<sup>1</sup> Metin YAMAN<sup>2</sup> İlker ÖZMUTLU<sup>3</sup> Gökhan ACAR<sup>4</sup>*

**Abstract :**The purpose of this study is to compare social skill levels of the high school students according to different variables (gender, class, department, school type) who doing and not doing sports. The sample of the study consists of totally 476 students (234 female,242 male) participating and non participating to sport activities which were randomly chosen from seven high schools in Kars. Social skill inventory, developed by Riggio (1989) and adapted into Turkish by Yüksel (1997), has been randomly applied on the subjects. Also, personal information form was used. Descriptive statistics, Correlation analysis, T-test and One Way Anova parametric tests has been used for data showing normal distribution and tukey test has been used in order to determine differences between the groups. SPSS 15 (Statistical package for social sciences) has been used for evaluating the data and significance was taken (p) 0,05. As a result; students participating sports have higher social skill levels than not participating, according to gender variable, female students' emotional sensitivity, social sensitivity and social skill levels have higher than male, according to school type, general high school students have higher social sensitivity than vocational school students, according to class, ninth school students' emotional expressivity higher than tenth. Positive relationship was found when compared to the social skill levels of the high school students and relation with their participation to sport activities.

**Key words :** high school students, social skill level, sport

- 1 Kafkas University, Sarıkamış School of Physical Education and Sport
- 2 Gazi University, School of Physical Education and Sport
- 3 Kafkas University, Sarıkamış School of Physical Education and Sport
- 4 Kaşamonu University, School of Physical Education and Sport

### INTRODUCTION

A lot of definitions are encountered in the literature about the social skills which are handled as acquired behaviors. Kelly (1982) considers social skill as being acquired behaviors used in the situations of interpersonal relationships which provide or sustains positive reinforcement from the environment. Marlowe (1986), in case, defines social skills as the ability of the individual to understand the feelings, thoughts and behaviors of people,

including herself, and to act according to this understanding in the situations of interpersonal relationships. Hargie et. al. (1994) consider social skill as “behaviors that are target oriented, specific to the case, acquirable and under the control of the individual”. Yüksel (1997) defines social skill as observable and non-observable acquirable behaviors which includes cognitive and emotional items, bring positive reactions or prevent incoming of negative reactions from the others, are acceptable socially, effects the environment, are

target oriented and changeable with respect to the social content.

Some kind of skills are necessary for the individual to establish mutual and healthy relationships with the other people. Therefore, social skills are among the most important skills of human which is a social being. People live together thanks to these skills. Social order runs by courtesy of social skills of people. Leave aside the social order, social skills are important for the mental health of the individuals since an individual's mental health is dependent on having good relationships with the others. Social skills are the ones which enable setting of successful interactions with the others. Social skills appear in the form of behavior; have an interpersonal character, they are behaviors appreciated by the people around; they tend to sustain communication and interaction; they are repeatable and detectable. The skills of commencing, sustaining and terminating interpersonal relationships can be considered within the content of social skills (Bacanlı, 2001).

Social skills are behaviors which enable successful relationships with the others. In interpersonal situations, the individual obtains reinforcement from the environment or sustains the existing reinforcement by exhibiting those behaviors. Social skills have an interpersonal character, they tend to sustain communication and interaction, they are repeatable and detectable. The skills of commencing, sustaining and terminating interpersonal relationships are considered within the content of social skills (Bacanlı 1999).

Several structures forming the social skills are mentioned. Riggio (1986, 1989) states that there is an infrastructure forming the social skills. In the Social Skills Inventory developed by Riggio, social skills and the structures forming the social skills are handled as follows: named as being 1. Emotional expressivity, 2. Emotional sensitivity, 3 Emotional control, 4. Social expressivity, 5.social sensitivity and 6. Social control.

When the definitions given above are analyzed, it is seen that social skill is understood to be gathering, decoding and understanding the social information in the interpersonal relationships and besides that, it is understood as showing appropriate reactions and as both observable and non-observable behaviors including cognitive and emotional items intended for the target and changeable with respect to the social context.

Possession of communication skills by the individuals working in every kind of occupation will render the process of communication in the human relationships more healthy. But, in the occupation groups in which the human relationships are intense, the requirement of knowledge about these skills is unavoidable. Possession of these skills by the physical education teachers, trainers and sport managers working in the physical education and sport organizations is important from this point of view. Furthermore, shaping of human ability to move by good physical education programs and sport organizations can enable healthy and continuous interpersonal relationships for

the human who has motion and communicating by motion in its nature (Tepeköylü, 2007).

In the adolescence period, the personality development of the individual is closely related with her participation in some activities and this participation will be effective in having the individual acquire personality characters. Therefore sport, with its many type of activities and properties, is in a situation of being an important tool for answering the needs of different groups of people which require to handle this need with spare time activities (Kayıkçı, 2007).

The aim of this research is to compare the social skills of high school students doing sports and not doing sports at the high schools of province of Kars and to determine whether they differentiate or not, according to gender, type of school, department and class variables.

## METHOD OF RESEARCH

Model of the research: This research is a survey model study.

Sample group: The sample group consists of totally 476 students (242 males, 234 females) doing sports as being licensed or not in seven different high school in Kars province. All students doing sports with license from the schools included in the research are accessed and Social Skills Inventory was also applied to same number of students not doing sports.

Data collecting: The study was conducted in the Fall Semester of 2009-2010 Education-Teaching year. The necessary legal permis-

sions were obtained from National Education Directorate and Governorship before commencing the research. The class lists were taken from the school and enough number of assessment tools were copied. The Social Skills Inventory and personal information form were applied only at the physical education lessons by talking to the physical education teachers at the targeted schools. After doing the necessary explanations the inventory was distributed at the beginning of the lesson and collected at the end of the lessons. The incompletely filled inventories were not taken into consideration. High Schools that the Inventory was applied: Alpaslan High School, Cumhuriyet High School, Kars Anadolu İmam Hatip High School, Gazi Ahmet Muhtar Paşa High School, Kars Fen High School, Atatürk Kız Teknik ve Meslek High School, Merkez Ticaret Meslek High School.

Social Skills Inventory: Social Skills Inventory (SSI) is an assessment tool developed by Riggio in 1986 and revised in 1989 to take its contemporary structure. Social Skills Inventory is a self-report kind of tool of 90 items designed for assessing basic social skills. The sub-assessors of the assessment are 1.Emotional expressivity, 2. Emotional sensitivity, 3.Emotional control, 4.Social expressivity, 5.Social sensitivity and 6.Social control. Every sub-assessor consists of 15 items. An answer key of 5 stage likert type was prepared. The lowest point is 1 (Not like me at all), and the highest point is 5 (Just like me) (Yüksel 2004). The Social Skills Inventory is an assessor intended for adults and its lowest bound is determined to be 15 years old.

*Analysis of Data:* Descriptive statistics were used in the analysis of data. Correlation Analysis, T-test, One way Anova Test were used for parametric data showing normal distribution and Tukey test was used for determining the differences between the groups. In all the statistical analysis in this study the 0.05 meaningfulness level was taken as basis.

## FINDINGS

**Tablo 1. Students' Personal Characteristics**

	Variables	N	%
Gender	Male	242	50,8
	Female	234	49,2
Class	9 <sup>th</sup> class	74	15,5
	10 <sup>th</sup> class	237	49,8
	11 <sup>th</sup> class	121	25,4
	12 <sup>th</sup> class	44	9,2
School type	General	277	58,2
	Vocational	199	41,8
Department	Verbal	93	19,5
	Numerical	195	41,0
	Equally Balanced	163	34,2
	Foreign Language	25	5,3
Age	20 years	4	,8
	19 years	13	2,7
	18 years	79	16,6
	17 years	136	28,6
	16 years	165	34,7
	15 years	66	13,9
	14 years	13	2,7

Father's level of education	Not literate	10	2,1
	Primary school	170	35,7
	Elementary school	127	26,7
	High school	130	27,3
	University	39	8,2
Mother's level of education	Not literate	78	16,4
	Primary school	256	53,8
	Elementary school	78	16,4
	High school	39	13,4

Students in the research group, 50,8% were male, 49,2% were female, 15,5% was at 9<sup>th</sup> class, 49,8% was at 10<sup>th</sup> class, 25,4% was at 11<sup>th</sup> class, 58,2 % was at general high school, 41,8% was at vocational high school. 19,5% study at verbal department, 41% at numerical department, 34,2% study at equally balanced department and 5,2% study at foreign languages department. 0,8% are 20 years old, 2,7% were 19 years old, 16,6% were 28 years old, 28,6% were 17 years old, 13,9% was 15 years old and 2,7% were 14 years old. The father education level of the students included in the research were: 2,1% not literate, 35,7% primary school, 26,7% elementary school, 27,3% high school, 8,2% university. The mother education level included in the research were: 16,4% not literate, 53,8% primary school, 16,4% elementary school, 13,4% high school.

**Table 2. Gender distribution of the students.**

Gender	Doing sports	Not doing sports	Total
Male	158	84	242
Female	74	160	234

A total of 476 students were included in the research. 242 of those were male and 234 of them were female.

**Table 3. The t-test results of the social skill levels of the students doing sports and not doing sports.**

Sub-dimensions		N	$\bar{x}$	S	sd	t	P
Emotional expressivity	Doing sports	232	46,3578	6,4651	474	1,669	,096
	Not doing	244	45,4016	6,0303			
Emotional sensitivity	Doing sports	232	38,8966	9,2600	474	1,491	,137
	Not doing	244	37,6762	8,5950			
Emotional control	Doing sports	232	45,9181	7,0094	474	1,906	,057
	Not doing	244	44,7131	6,7817			
Social expressivity	Doing sports	232	42,1810	9,0469	474	2,740	,006*
	Not doing	244	39,9180	8,9678			
Social sensitivity	Doing sports	244	39,9180	8,9678	474	-1,158	,247
	Not doing	232	38,0345	7,4763			
Social control	Doing sports	232	38,0345	7,4763	474	1,840	,066
	Not doing	244	38,8361	7,6118			
Social skills total points	Doing sports	232	253,2672	25,6744	474	2,686	,007*
	Not doing	244	246,9303	25,7877			

\*  $p < 0,05$

When the Table 3 analyzed, a meaningful difference between the social expressivity sub-dimensions was seen [t value = 2,740  $P = 0,006 < 0,05$ ]. As a result of this difference,

the average of the social expressivity sub-dimension of the students doing sports was ( $\bar{X} = 42,1810$ ) while the average of the social expressivity sub-dimension of the students not doing sports was ( $\bar{X} = 39,9180$ ).

**Table 4. The social skill level t-test results of the students doing sports with respect to gender.**

		N	$\bar{x}$	S	sd	t	P
Emotional expressivity	Male	158	46,5316	6,6483	230	,598	,551
	Female	74	45,9865	6,0827			
Emotional sensitivity	Male	158	37,8354	9,6946	230	-2,785	,006 *
	Female	74	41,1622	7,8462			
Emotional control	Male	158	45,4937	7,2091	230	-1,350	,178
	Female	74	46,8243	6,5173			
Social expressivity	Male	158	41,7595	9,6956	230	-1,139	,301
	Female	74	43,0811	7,4572			
Social sensitivity	Male	158	37,3418	7,2391	230	-2,077	,039 *
	Female	74	39,5135	7,8045			
Social control	Male	158	41,1772	9,5986	230	-1,732	,085
	Female	74	43,3784	7,6386			
Social skills total points	Male	158	250,1392	26,6598	230	-2,750	,006 *
	Female	74	259,9459	22,1563			

$p < 0,05$

According to Table 4, a meaningful difference between emotional sensitivity total points [t value = -2,785 P=0,006<.05], a meaning-

ful difference between social sensitivity sub-dimension total points [t value = -2,077 P=0,039<.05] and a meaningful difference between social skills total points [t değeri = -2,750 P=0,006<.05] are seen.

**Tablo 5. The social skill level t-test results of the students doing sports with respect to school type.**

		N	$\bar{x}$	S	sd	t	P
Emotional expressivity	General	131	46,2824	6,9396	230	-,202	,840
	Vocational	101	46,4554	5,8250			
Emotional sensitivity	General	131	39,2290	9,2317	230	,622	,535
	Vocational	101	38,4653	9,3248			
Emotional control	General	101	38,4653	9,3248	230	-,439	,661
	Vocational	131	45,7405	6,5158			

Social expressivity	General	131	41,9847	9,3224	230	-,376	,707
	Vocational	101	42,4356	8,7160			
Social sensitivity	General	131	38,8855	7,9427	230	1,987	,048*
	Vocational	101	36,9307	6,7026			
Social control	General	131	41,7176	8,7603	230	-,309	,758
	Vocational	101	42,0891	9,4785			
Social skills total points	General	131	253,8397	25,6542	230	,386	,700
	Vocational	101	252,5248	25,8095			

\*  $p < 0,05$

When Table 5 is analyzed, a meaningful difference between the social sensitivity sub-dimension total points is seen [ t value = 1,987 P=0,048<.05]. As a result of this dif-

ference, the average of the social sensitivity sub-dimension of the students in general high school was ( $\bar{X}$ =38,8855), while the average of the social sensitivity sub-dimension of the students in vocational high school was ( $\bar{X}$ =36,9307).

**Table 6. One way anova test results of the students doing sports with respect to the department variable**

		N	$\bar{X}$	Ss	F	p
Emotional expressivity	Verbal	47	46,0426	5,3036	,690	,559
	Numerical	88	45,9432	6,3379		
	Equally Balanced	86	47,1163	7,2816		
	Foreign Language	11	45,0909	5,2241		
Emotional sensitivity	Verbal	47	40,5532	9,2708	1,553	,202
	Numerical	88	39,6477	9,0529		
	Equally Balanced	86	37,3372	9,6377		
	Foreign Language	11	38,0000	6,5727		

Emotional control	Verbal	47	45,9362	6,0735	1,016	,386
	Numerical	88	46,8182	6,6843		
	Equally Balanced	86	44,9651	7,6304		
	Foreign Language	11	46,0909	8,1665		
Social expressivity	Verbal	47	43,0426	8,5541	,257	,856
	Numerical	88	41,9318	8,2529		
	Equally Balanced	86	42,1512	9,7553		
	Foreign Language	11	40,7273	12,0921		
Social sensitivity	Verbal	47	39,7660	8,0466	2,041	,109
	Numerical	88	38,5341	8,0358		
	Equally Balanced	86	36,8721	6,5920		
	Foreign Language	11	35,7273	5,3309		
Social control	Verbal	47	41,6383	7,0570	,481	,696
	Numerical	88	42,4205	8,8626		
	Equally Balanced	86	41,1860	9,6996		
	Foreign Language	11	44,0000	13,1453		
Social skills total points	Verbal	47	256,9787	24,9909	1,162	,325
	Numerical	88	255,2955	23,2780		
	Equally Balanced	86	249,6279	28,2456		
	Foreign Language	11	249,6364	25,0810		

\*  $p < 0,05$

When the one way anova tests of social skill levels of the high school students doing sports

on Table 6 is analyzed, no meaningful differences between the sub-dimensions were seen.

**Table 7. Results of one way anova test of students doing sports with respect to class variable**

		N	$\bar{X}$	Ss	F	p
Emotional expressivity	9 <sup>th</sup> class	33	48,8788	8,5065	3,766	,011 *
	10 <sup>th</sup> class	121	45,1405	5,6735		
	11 <sup>th</sup> class	56	47,4464	6,3157		
	12 <sup>th</sup> class	22	46,5000	6,2773		
Emotional sensitivity	9 <sup>th</sup> class	33	38,2121	7,6761	,816	,486
	10 <sup>th</sup> class	121	38,6281	9,6593		
	11 <sup>th</sup> class	56	40,4643	10,1980		
	12 <sup>th</sup> class	22	37,4091	6,1540		
Emotional control	9 <sup>th</sup> class	33	44,3636	7,8015	2,384	,070
	10 <sup>th</sup> class	121	45,2727	5,9231		
	11 <sup>th</sup> class	56	47,6250	8,0647		
	12 <sup>th</sup> class	22	47,4545	7,7750		
Social expressivity	9 <sup>th</sup> class	33	40,8788	11,5968	,422	,738
	10 <sup>th</sup> class	121	42,0496	8,1023		
	11 <sup>th</sup> class	56	42,8393	9,4922		
	12 <sup>th</sup> class	22	43,1818	8,9050		
Social sensitivity	9 <sup>th</sup> class	33	37,4848	6,4329	,599	,616
	10 <sup>th</sup> class	121	38,3388	7,7056		
	11 <sup>th</sup> class	56	38,4107	7,5625		
	12 <sup>th</sup> class	22	36,2273	7,6091		
Social control	9 <sup>th</sup> class	33	41,2121	8,9469	,098	,961
	10 <sup>th</sup> class	121	41,8595	8,5443		
	11 <sup>th</sup> class	56	42,0893	10,2448		
	12 <sup>th</sup> class	22	42,4545	9,3845		
Social skills total points	9 <sup>th</sup> class	33	251,0303	25,4577	1,217	,304
	10 <sup>th</sup> class	121	251,2893	24,3374		
	11 <sup>th</sup> class	56	258,8750	29,0749		
	12 <sup>th</sup> class	22	253,2273	23,4621		

p<0,05

On Table 7, a meaningful difference between the emotional expressivity total points with respect to class variable is seen [F value = 3,766 P=0,011<.05]. As a result of this differ-

ence, the expressivity levels of the 9<sup>th</sup> class students higher than 10<sup>th</sup> class students. There is no meaningful difference between the other sub-dimensions.

**Table 8. Correlation analysis between social skill levels and doing sports or not doing sports**

	Emotional expressivity	Emotional sensitivity	Emotional control	Social expressivity	Social sensitivity	Social control	Social skills total points
<b>r</b>	,076	,068	,087	,125	,053	-,084	,122
<b>p</b>	,096	,137	,057	,006	,247	,066	,007 *
<b>N</b>	476	476	476	476	476	476	476

\* p<0,05

As it can be seen from table 8, a positive direction meaningful relationship is determined between students' doing sport or not doing sport and social skill levels. (r=0,122 p<0,05).

## DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

With the analysis of findings in this study named as "Comparison of Social Skill Levels of High School Students Doing Sports and Not Doing Sports ( example of Kars)" the following results are arrived:

1. The results belonging to the high school students doing or not doing sports;

- The social expressivity level of students doing sports ( $\bar{X}$ =42,1810), is higher than the social expressivity level of students not doing sports ( $\bar{X}$ =39,9180).
- No meaningful differences between the students doing sports and not doing sport were seen in sub-dimensions other than the social expressivity.

- The social skill level of students doing sports is higher than ( $\bar{X}$ =253,2672) students not doing sports is ( $\bar{X}$ =246,9303), is reached.

2. The results belonging to gender variable;

- It was seen that the male students average sensitivity sub-dimension ( $\bar{X}$ =37,8354) is less than female students which is ( $\bar{X}$ =41,1622).
- The average of the social sensitivity sub-dimension of the male students is ( $\bar{X}$ =37,3418), the average of the social sensitivity sub-dimension of the female students is ( $\bar{X}$ =39,5135).
- While the average of the social skill total points of the male students was ( $\bar{X}$ =250,1392), the average of female was ( $\bar{X}$ =259,9459).

3. The results belonging to school type variable;

- The average of the social sensitivity sub-dimension of students at general high school ( $\bar{X}=38,8855$ ), is higher than the average of the social sensitivity sub-dimension of students at vocational high school ( $\bar{X}=36,9307$ ).
4. The results belonging to the department variable;
    - According to the results belonging to the social skill levels of students doing sports with respect to the department variable, no meaningful differences were found in any of the sub-dimensions of the social skill and in the total social skill points.
  5. The results belonging to the class variable;
    - The emotional expressivity levels of students at 9<sup>th</sup> class appeared to be higher than the students at 10<sup>th</sup> class.
  6. The comparison of skill levels between students doing sports and not doing sports.
    - A positive direction meaningful relationship is determined between students' doing sports or not doing sports and social skill levels. ( $r=0,122$   $p<0,05$ ).

Yüksel (1997), in the study he performed for analyzing the effects of the social skill level training given to the university students on their social skill levels; found that the social skills training affected their social skill levels positively.

Şahin (1999), in his study performed for analyzing the social skill levels of Anadolu High

School students; reached to the conclusion that social skill levels shows a high trend in terms of total points of social skill sub-dimensions, as a result of the inventory used.

Avşar (2004), in his study performed about the social skill levels of the physical education teachers, obtained the result that the total point of 283,36 does not differentiate with respect to gender.

In the study performed by Kara in the year (2003) about the factors effecting the social skill perceptions of teachers, the result that there was no meaningful difference between gender variable and social skill perception.

According to the study performed by Avşar and Kuter (2007), with respect to the department studied at the high school variable, the students graduating from numerical department were found to get higher points in the emotional sensitivity sub-dimension than the students graduating from sports department or verbal department. Social skill is one of the important characteristics that an individual must have. Great importance should be attached to teaching of social skills especially at schools.

Hollander et. al. (2003) emphasized that the social skills should be integrated with the health programs organized at schools.

Freman et. al. (2003), in their study performed on 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> class students, determined that the creative dramatization method has positive effect on their social skills.

Seven and Yoldaş (2007), in their study named “Analysis of Social Skill Levels”, determined that males have higher social skills than females when average points are considered. Similarly, Jamyang-Tshering (2004) determined that females exhibit more social skills than the males.

In his research, Erdoğan (2002), analyzed whether social skill levels of 12-14 year old children differentiate or not with variables such as gender, socioeconomic level and age. He reported that positive social behaviors differentiate with respect to age, gender and socioeconomic level.

As a result of the comparison between high school students doing or not doing sports and social skill levels; a positive direction meaningful relation was determined between students’ doing sport or not and their social skill levels.

#### Suggestions

- The students having low social skill levels can be reinforced.
- Similar research can be conducted with different age groups.
- This study can be adopted to larger groups and different variables
- A different study can be conducted on private schools and compared to the general high school.
- Social skill level and sports relationship study can be performed on university student as a different study.

- The social skill levels of students can be researched with respect to their branches.
- Social Skill Training Programs can be developed with the aim of improving their social skill levels.

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## SPOR YAPAN VE YAPMAYAN ORTAÖĞRETİM ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN SOSYAL BECERİ DÜZEYLERİNİN KARŞILAŞTIRILMASI (KARS İLİ ÖRNEĞİ)

**Özet** Bu çalışmanın amacı; spor yapan ve spor yapmayan ortaöğretim öğrencilerinin sosyal beceri düzeylerinin çeşitli değişken açısından (cinsiyet, sınıf, bölüm, okul türü) karşılaştırmasını yapmaktır. Sosyal beceri, kişiler arası ilişkilerde sosyal bilgiyi alma, çözümleme ve anlamının yanı sıra uygun tepkilerde bulunma, hedefe yönelik ve sosyal bağlama göre değişen, hem gözlenebilir hem de gözlenemeyen bilişsel ve duyuşsal öğeleri içeren ve öğrenilebilir davranışlar olarak anlaşılmaktadır. Her tür meslekte çalışan bireylerin iletişim becerilerine sahip olması, insan ilişkilerindeki iletişim sürecini daha sağlıklı kılacaktır. Fakat insan ilişkilerinin yoğun olduğu meslek gruplarında bu becerilerin bilinmesi gerekliliği kaçınılmazdır. Beden eğitimi ve spor organizasyonlarında görev yapan beden eğitimi öğretmenleri, antrenörler ve spor yöneticilerinin bu becerilere sahip olması bu bakımdan önemlidir. Bu araştırma tarama modeli bir çalışmadır. Araştırmada ilişkisel tarama yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın evrenini Kars il merkezinde bulunan ortaöğretim öğrencileri, örneklemini ise yedi farklı ortaöğretim kurumunda lisanslı olarak spor yapan ve spor yapmayan 476 (234 bayan, 242 erkek) ortaöğretim öğrencisi oluşturmaktadır. Veri toplama aracı olarak Riggio (1989) tarafından geliştirilen ve Yüksel (1997) tarafından Türkçeye uyarlanan sosyal beceri envanteri öğrencilere uygulandı. Ayrıca, Kişisel Bilgi Formu kullanıldı. Sosyal Beceri Envanteri (SBE) (Social Skills Inventory- SSI), 1986 yılında Riggio tarafından geliştirilmiş ve 1989 yılında yeniden revize edilerek bugünkü şeklini almış bir ölçme aracıdır. 90 maddelik kendini tanımlama (self-report) türünden bir araçtır. Ölçeğin alt ölçekleri; 1. Duyuşsal anlatımcılık (emotional expressivity), 2. Duyuşsal duyarlık (emotional sensitivity), 3. Duyuşsal kontrol (emotional control), 4. Sosyal anlatımcılık (social expressivity), 5. Sosyal duyarlık (social sensitivity), 6. Sosyal kontrol (social control) olarak 6 alt boyuttan oluşmaktadır. Çalışma 2009-2010 Eğitim Öğretim Yılı Güz Döneminde yapıldı. Araştırmaya başlamadan önce Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü ve Valilik Makamından gerekli yasal izinler alındı. Okullardan sınıfların listeleri alınarak, yeterli sayıda ölçme aracı çoğaltıldı. Sosyal Beceri Envanteri ve araştırmacı tarafından hazırlanan kişisel bilgi formu, yapılması planlanan okullardaki beden eğitimi öğretmenleriyle konuşularak, sadece Beden Eğitimi derslerinde uygulandı. Gerekli açıklamalar yapıldıktan sonra ders başlangıcında envanter dağıtılarak, ders sonunda toplandı. Eksik doldurulan envanterler değerlendirmeye alınmadı. Verilerin analizinde tanımlayıcı istatistikler, Korelasyon Analizi, T-testi, One Way Anova Testi (tek yönlü varyans analizi) ve gruplar arası farkı belirlemek için Tukey testi uygulandı. Verilerin değerlendirilmesinde ve hesaplanmış değerlerin bulunmasında SPSS 15 (Statistical package for social Sciences) paket programı kullanıldı ve tüm istatistiksel analizlerde anlamlılık düzeyi (p) 0.05 alındı. Araştırma sonucunda; spor yapan öğrencilerin sosyal beceri düzeylerinin spor yapmayan öğrencilerden yüksek olduğu, cinsiyete göre spor yapan kız öğrencilerin duyuşsal duyarlık, sosyal duyarlık ve sosyal beceri düzeylerinin erkek öğrencilerden yüksek olduğu, okul türüne göre düz liselerdeki spor yapan öğrencilerin sosyal duyarlık düzeyinin meslek lisesine göre yüksek olduğu, sınıf değişkenine göre 9.sınıfta spor yapan öğrencilerin 10. sınıfta öğrenim görenlere göre duyuşsal anlatımcılık düzeylerinin anlamlı şekilde yüksek olduğu görülmüştür. Orta öğretim kurumlarında öğrenim gören öğrencilerin spor yapıp yapmamaları ile sosyal beceri düzeyleri arasındaki karşılaştırma sonucu; öğrencilerin spor yapıp yapmamaları ile sosyal beceri düzeyleri arasında pozitif yönlü, anlamlı bir ilişkinin olduğu saptanmıştır.

**Anahtar kelimeler:** ortaöğretim, sosyal beceri, spor

## DEATH IN THE CYBERSPACE: THE THEME OF DEATH IN WILLIAM GIBSON AND BRUCE STERLING'S WORKS

*Özlem ŞAHİN SOY*

*Atılım University Faculty of Arts and Sciences Department of Translation and Interpretation*

**Abstract:** This article discusses how the theme of death is employed in the Cyberpunk novels of William Gibson and Bruce Sterling. The writers of cyberpunk novels present a dark world in which the human being has lost his place in the centre of chain of being and under the threat of extinction not only in the concrete world but also in the abstract, cyberworld. Human-machine combinations replace man in the cyberpunk world and it is no more possible to view the theme of death in its classical sense, since it also changes by the influence of technological evolvement. This study presents how this theme is handled in the works of aforementioned writers.

**Key Words:** Cyberspace, cyberpunk, the theme of death, virtual world, William Gibson, Bruce Sterling

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### INTRODUCTION

This paper aims to discuss the theme of death and its ramifications as they appear in context of popular cyberpunk novels of William Gibson and Bruce Sterling. The word “death” implies the material end of something, in other words, “to die” means to turn into something that does not exist. Michael Benedict, who is a well-known critic of science fiction area describes Cyberspace also as something that “does not exist” in his article “Cyberspace: First Steps” (1992). Therefore, the title “Death in the Cyberspace” is quite ironic in its essence.

All of the civilizations in the world contain stories that deal with endless life and inevita-

bility of death throughout the history. However, the wave of industrial and technological rise that start through the end of eighteenth century and reached the peak through the end of the twentieth century changed the content of such stories as well. Bruce Sterling puts forward that science fiction has been dealing with the influences of technology on human life; however what distinguishes Cyberpunk from the previous science fiction is that, it regards technology as not just “a phenomenon that has a strong influence on human beings but as something very close to man, even under his skin, in his brain, as a part that is completing him, or even sometimes controlling him” (Sterling, 1986:xiii). The social perception of the phenomena like birth, life, and death are no more regarded as something

that might not be controlled, and the man is no more just a subservient servant of fate but he is able to control the world as he has never done before. The material life in the world which is lived by the body is no more the only option for existence, since it is possible to lead a bodyless life in the virtual world away from the restraints of the concrete body.

The works of Gibson and Sterling can be taken as the examples to present how the technological changes affected the notion of death in the late twentieth century. The word Cyberspace, that define the virtual world, was coined by William Gibson during the 1980s, reflecting the influence of advanced technology and it can be regarded as a place where the body “dies” but the spirit (or the mind) “survives”. In the work of Gibson, and Sterling the phenomenon of death has been treated in an untraditional way presenting how people leave their body behind and prefer the endless opportunities in the virtual world or “matrix” as Gibson calls it. They describe the body as “meat” or “flesh,” or as Case refers to in the *Neuromancer* “the prison of the soul”. In the cyberpunk works, the body is presented only as a temporary shelter for different identities and death is not a kind of end as it is comprehended in the classical sense.

This paper aims to present how this subject matter is handled in the works of Gibson and Sterling who wrote their novels during the 1980s.

## DEATH IN THE CYBERWORLD

First of all, the sub-genre of Cyberpunk

should be investigated in order to comprehend the change of of perception of the theme of death in the works of aforementioned authors. Although Cyberpunk appears to be a recent movement *in* science fiction, it is possible to see its roots are deeply sunk in traditional popular science fiction. The critics of Cyberpunk regard this movement as risen from within the science fiction genre –against the tradition-, and it is not as an invasion but a modern reform (Sterling, 1986: xv). Therefore, its effect within the genre became rapid and powerful.

Cyberpunk is defined as a new “New Wave”, responding to the changing icons of the time, and appealed, or aimed to appeal to a new generation of science fiction readers. The first part of the word “cyber” comes from “cybernetics”, the study of systems in machines and animals, and “punk” from 1970’s rock terminology, meaning young, aggressive, alienated, and anti-Establishment. The writers of Cyberpunk dealt with themes such as body invasion: prosthetic limbs, implanted circuitry, cosmetic surgery, genetic alteration and mind invasion: brain-computer interfaces, artificial intelligence, neuchemistry – using the techniques radically redefining the nature of humanity and the nature of the self. What separates Cyberpunk from other types of science fiction is that, generally, Cyberpunk occurs in the not-so-distant-future and the events generally takes place on Earth, in a time where technology is prominent. The characters are generally “average Johnny Mnemonics”, an anti-hero’s name that became a prototype to refer to the same type of character created by

Gibson at the beginning of his writing career. Such characters do not present too much virtue and are not after a holy mission like saving a country, protecting a society, fighting for religious ideals or freedom; but just try to save the day and survive through the help of high technology in a ruined world. Cyberpunk delights in the combination of high-tech low-lives, so it is possible to see lots of crime and backstreet stories, in which there are data pirates, drugs, back-stabbing, misdemeanours and so on.

The emphasis on the potential interconnection between the human and the technological is the central characteristic of Cyberpunk. Critics such as Baudrillard and Haraway underline that the human and technology are no longer so dichotomous in the era called the “postmodern”.

Larry Mccaffery claims that “Cyberpunk seems to be the only art systematically dealing with the most crucial political, philosophical, moral, and cultural issues of our day” (qtd. in Olsen, 1992:16) for the period in which cyberpunk has occurred.

In his *The Perfect Crime*, Baudrillard comments on the extermination of “the Other” in the era of the Virtual that is defined as the era of liquidation of the Real and the Referential. For Baudrillard the era of Virtual witnesses:

The otherness of death – staved off by unremitting medical intervention. Of the face and the body – run to earth by plastic surgery. Of the world – dispelled by Virtual Reality... If information is the site of the perfect crime

against otherness. No more other: communication. No more enemy: negotiation... No more death: the immortality of the clone. No more otherness: identity and difference. No more illusion: hyperreality, Virtual reality. No more destiny. The perfect crime (Baudrillard, 1996: 109-110).

The Cyberpunk world is thus, an output of the “perfect crime”. Baudrillard defines the unconditional realization of the world by the actualization of all data, and the transformation of all our acts and all events into pure information (in short what we see in Gibson and Sterling’s works) as the perfect crime. To him, the history of the world is completed in real time by the workings of virtual technology (Baurillard, 1996: 25). That is to say, the deeds that mankind devoted itself to do are done by computers or machines in very short times, and that makes human beings feel inactive. People are living their lives not in real time, but living and suffering directly on screen or in front of screen – in a virtual reality- having their thoughts encoded by the computers. “Make your revolution in *real* time – not in the street, but in a recording studio. Live out your amorous passions in *real* time - the whole thing on video from start to finish” (Baurillard, 1996: 26). Thus, death is also experienced not in the real time but in virtual world, as a part of a game that can be replayed.

Gibson, the popular writer of the “Cyberpunk” movement, who is famous for having coined the word “cyberspace”, has become one of the central points of reference for Cyberpunk

science fiction, having dealt with subjects such as the Internet or Virtual Reality much before either existed during the 1980s. Virtual reality, that Gibson focuses on, is a computer-generated visual, audible and tactile multimedia experience which aims to surround the human body with an artificial sensorium of sight, sound and touch for Featherstone and Burrows (Featherstone and Burrows, 1995).

All of the phenomenon like birth, life and death are experienced in a global computer network, “the matrix” which is entered by the users through “jacking in” via plugs into “cyberspace decks” as Case does in the *Neuromancer* by Gibson. Then, “death” is in a sense not being connected to these plugs. The users can move in the matrix from one three dimensional system of data to another, which appear as cities of data. This is presented as only way of existing in Cyberpunk works. In Gibsonian “cyberspace”, there are other intelligent entities which do not have relations with the outside world but can become more and more powerful in the matrix by uniting. Artificial Intelligences (AIs), like the Wintermute or the Neuromancer in the *Neuromancer* are such powers as referred in the novel: “Wintermute is the recognition code for an AI...Artificial intelligence.” (*Neuromancer*; 73) or “Wintermute was a simple cube of white light, that very simplicity suggesting extreme complexity” (*Neuromancer*; 150). However, it is seen that these entities are depicted as more human-like beings than the human beings, and the act of living is much more attributed to these entities than people.

The novels in the Sprawl Trilogy are all set in a fictional near future world where, characteristic of the Cyberpunk world, the nation state has withered away and power lies in multinational corporations, in which electronic information technology has come to not only dominate forms of life recognizable to the generations of the twentieth century, but to create new and increasingly unrecognizable forms of life as well.

The Trilogy envisions the future in the Cyberpunk framework as a place where humans and machines increasingly interact and technology invades the human body in the form of grafts, implants, cloning and carbon sockets which allow machines direct access to the body. The theme of combination of man and machines, in the form of cyborgs, which became central to most of the cyberpunk works, is realized through the idea of software that can be inserted directly into the body like computer disks, making the body in essence a programmable machine. Conversely, in the Trilogy, machines become more human as well. Technology provides the option of creating artificial “constructs” that create a person’s intellect, image and personality so that the person can “live” even after his/her death.

The characters presented in the Trilogy spend much of their time in the “matrix” for work or other purposes. Thus the nature of sense of reality changes in the work of Gibson. Humanbeings “live” when they are plugged into the “matrix”, but feel dead when they are in the real world. A common addiction for Sprawl inhabitants are “simstim” (*simulated stimu-*

li), a form of **virtual reality** that allows people to experience a television program, typically **soap operas**, from the point of view of a fictitious media personality. Therefore, being away from their real selves brings them “life”.

Gibson’s *Neuromancer* is actually based on the theme of death, birth and re-union. Case the protagonist, feels dead away from the cyber world, since he is under a ban to enter it. In the cyberspace of Gibson, death turns out to be a challenge that the talented ones can overcome, “Well, if we can get the flatline, we’re home free. He was the best. You know he died braindeath three times?” (*Neuromancer*, 50).

Death, described as “the daughter of Night and the sister of sleep” (Chevalier et al., 1996, 277) is also endowed with powers of regeneration and it is the impermanent and perishable aspect of living, like the “Net” or “Matrix” of Gibson’s virtual world.

Cyberspace is a kind of “harbinger of revelation” (Chevalier et al., 1996, 277) for characters like Case or Bobby as death, and it is considered to be the beginning of a new life like death is considered to be in most of the religious beliefs and classical mythologies. However, death is still mystical because of the unknown nature of it. It is a cover as Earth and it has negative connotations although it is regarded as liberating the ascensional powers of the spirit, since it is uncontrollable. The cyberspace on the other hand, is to be controlled by talented hackers, crackers or the owners of power and wealth that control them.

In the trilogy death, likewise, is presented

as something controllable by the owners of power. The ones who control the technology due to their economic and politic power also control death.

Biz here was a constant subliminal hum, and death the accepted punishment for laziness, carelessness, lack of grace, the failure to heed the demands of an intricate protocol. (*Neuromancer*; 6)

Life is also controlled by some hands as death and speed marks lives of people in the “real” world:

Night City was like a deranged experiment in social Darwinism,

designed by a bored researcher who kept one thumb permanently on the fast-forward button. Stop hustling and you sank without a trace, but move a little too swiftly and you’d break the fragile surface tension of the black market; either way, you were gone, with nothing left of you but some vague memory in the mind of a fixture like Ratz, though heart or lungs or kidneys might survive in the service of some stranger with New Yen for the clinic tanks (*Neuromancer*;7).

Thus, cyberspace, in a way, equates death and life as marking both of them to be controllable.

Michael Bruce Sterling wrote *The Artificial Kid* (1980), *Schismatrix* (1985) and *Islands in the Net* (1988) in the same decade in which Gibson has written The Sprawl Trilogy. He points out that, for the Cyberpunks, “technology is not the bottled genie of remote Big

Science boffins; it is pervasive, utterly intimate, inside our minds” (Sterling, 1986: xiii). Thus, he clarifies that the Cyberpunk authors deal with 1980’s street culture combined with technology that is in every day use. Sterling’s works present a similar environment based on technological power, which is not different from the world presented in Gibson’s work in that, united corporations and mega-cartels serve as the controlling power in the *Schismatrix*, *The Artificial Kid*, and *Islands in the Net*. He describes a world marked by terror and anxiety, caused by or tried to be solved through high technology as is seen in the work of Gibson.

*Schismatrix* is Sterling’s only novel-length treatment of the “Shaper/Mechanist universe” that he had dealt with in his five short stories in which he employed various Cyberpunk themes which he published between 1982 and 1984. Sterling stresses anti-human technologies in the work by depicting a mid-future solar system around the 2200s (though it continues to 26<sup>th</sup> century) where the people on Earth and people in space agreed never to have any contact with one-another.

Human life becomes longer and easier for some people in the universe of *Schismatrix*, but on the other hand it is limited and over-controlled for some others who want to survive away from their own world. For example, strict rules are defined for the ones who want to pass to Zaibatsu’s side.

The Zaibatsu recognizes one civil right: the right to death. You may claim your right at any time, under any circumstances...If you

claim your right you will be immediately and painlessly terminated...Termination is also enforced for certain other behaviours... If you physically threaten the habitat, you will be killed. If you interfere with our monitoring devices, you will be killed. If you cross the sterilized zone, you will be killed. You will also be killed for crimes against humanity (*Schismatrix*, 10).

In *Schismatrix*, Sterling deals with one of the greatest fears of man, to become defeated by machines or biological weapons, which is also felt in the previous Cyberpunk examples, in a more prominent way. How Sterling defines death in his work “Life was the issue. And death would be the proof” (*Schismatrix*, 5) in fact presents the idea of death in the cyberspace. Contantine says that “Mankind is a dead issue, now cousin. There are no more souls. Only states of mind” (*Schismatrix*, 59) to Lindsay as he is presenting a Shaper experiment on a virus for immortality. Thus, it is clear that man is also regarded as a kind computer whose brain is the only important part, and this can also be modified or open to process. Another familiar topic to the reader of the end of the twentieth century was the length of human life, which is still one of the most frequently debated concerns of media. In *Artificial Kid* and *Schismatrix*, this concern of human beings for a longer life span is referred to in many different parts of the novel. Second Justice in *Schismatrix*, for example, is depicted as an older woman “maybe close to a century...her constant abuse of hormone treatments had made her metabolism a patchwork of anomalies” (*Schismatrix*, 52). Ster-

ling continues to bring up his discussions on life expectancy and life standards which he had started to bring up in his earlier works to *Schismatrix*. The influence of science and technology on the lifespan of human beings is vaticinated in various cases in which the ages of people are referred to. Alexandrina, for instance, is fifty year older than Lindsay but she still looks very young and beautiful. Therefore, inborn or natural elements lose their importance in such a world. Beauty and intelligence become obtainable features if one can afford them: “The Shaper woman floated closer. Lindsay saw that she was beautiful. It meant very little. Beauty was cheap among Shapers” (*Schismatrix*, 70). The Mechanists as opposed to the Shapers use different ways for longer lives. They keep their elders in a matrix of life-support tubes, eyes wired to a video input, in a sterile suite flooded with oxygen at nights.

## CONCLUSION

Consequently, the writers of Cyberpunk handle death in an avant-garde way by considering the technological and social changes in the world. The experiments for a longer life or immortality and development in the various fields such as genetic engineering and computer engineering reshape the imagery they employ in their works. Virtual life provides new opportunities to the characters depicted by cyberpunk authors, in that new stereotypes are created in this framework as it is mentioned above. As a result, Gibson and Sterling employ the theme of death in cyberspace in a quite unfamiliar way by playing with the

boundaries of life and death and reality and virtual world.

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## SİBERUZAY’DA ÖLÜM: WILLIAM GIBSON VE BRUCE STERLING’İN SİBERPUNK ESERLERİNDE ÖLÜM TEMASI

**Özet:** Bu makalede 1980’lerin başından sonuna kadar oldukça popüler olan bilim-kurgu yazarları William Gibson ve Bruce Sterling’in siberpunk türündeki romanlarında ölüm temasının nasıl ele alındığı romanlardan örnekler verilerek tartışılmaktadır. William Gibson ve Bruce Sterling 20. yüzyılın sonunda Neuromancer, Mona Lisa Overdrive, Count Zero, The Artificial Kid, Schismatrix ve The Difference Engine gibi eserleriyle bilim-kurgu edebi türü ve bu türe kısmen karşı çıkarak gelişmiş olan “Yeni Dalga” akımının ikinci kuşağı olarak anılan “Yeni Yeni Dalga” akımına dahil yazarlardır. Eserleri “siberpunk” edebi akımının örnekleri olarak görülen yazarlar temel olarak bireyin geleceğin teknolojisiyle yaşadığı sorunları, mücadeleyi konu etmektedirler. Geçmişte görülen bilim-kurgu eserlerinde genellikle teknoloji toplumla iç içe ve onun hizmetindeyken, Gibson’ ve Sterling’in eserlerinde teknoloji, karakterlerin hem bütünleştiği bir durum, hem de içine düştükleri olumsuz durumların temel kaynağı ve hatta problemin kendisidir. Bu nedenle Gibson ve Sterling gibi “siberpunk” yazarları daha çok teknolojinin getirdiği olumsuzluklar ve sorunlar üzerinde duran kişiler olarak görülmektedirler. Örneğin, Gibson Neuromancer’da sinir sistemi tahrip edilerek şantaj yapılan ana karakter Case’in yapay zekâlarla mücadelesini işlemektedir. Sterling’in Schismatrix isimli eserinde ise 23. yüzyılda genetik ve psikolojiyle uğraşan “Shapers” ve bilgisayar ve protez uzuvlarla uğraşan “Mechanists” olarak iki gruba ayrılan insanlar parlak bir diplomat olan Abelard Lindsay’in bakış açısından anlatılmakta ve anlatım sırasında tarih defalarca yeniden şekillendirilmektedir. Benzer şekilde Mona Lisa Overdrive, ve Count Zero, The Artificial Kid, ve The Difference Engine’de de bilim ve teknolojinin gelişimiyle ortaya çıkan genetik mühendislikteki gelişmeler, organ nakli ve insan vücudunun protezler vasıtasıyla makinelerle birleşimi, bilgisayar ağları ve bu ağlar aracılığıyla mümkün olan bilginin ve daha da önemlisi bunun getirdiği gücün kontrolüne sahip olma, kimyasal silahlar yüzünden türlerin yok olduğu bir dünya, terörizm, “hacker” tabiriyle anılan bilgisayar korsanları, siber uzay, yapay zekâ, ve sibernetik (güdümbilim) gibi konular ele alınmaktadır. Onsekizinci yüzyıl sonlarında başlayıp, yirminci yüzyılın sonunda doruk noktasına ulaşan teknolojik gelişmelerin insanların algısında yaratmış olduğu değişiklikler doğum, hayat ve ölüm gibi olguların algılanış biçiminde de değişikliklere neden olmuştur. Çağlar boyunca kaderine itaat etmekten başka seçeneği olmadığını düşünen insanoğlu, teknolojinin gelişimiyle varoluş ve yokluğunu da kontrol altına alabileceği günlerin yakın olduğunu düşünmeye başlamıştır. Ancak diğer yandan, insanoğlunun geliştirdiği makineler insanlığı tehdit eder boyuta ulaşmaya başlamış ve pek çok alanda insanların yerini makineler almaya başlamıştır. Bu düşünceden yola çıkan Siberpunk roman yazarları insanoğlunun varoluş zincirinin merkezindeki yerini kaybettiği ve sadece somut değil aynı zamanda soyut dünyada da yok olma tehlikesiyle karşı karşıya kaldığı karanlık bir dünya çizmektedirler. Bu dünyada artık ölüm temasının klasik şekliyle ele alınmasının mümkün olmadığı görülmektedir. Zira, teknolojinin gelmiş olduğu nokta bu tür kavramlarda da karmaşaya yol açacak bir düzeydir. Gibson ve Sterling romanlarında insanların kendi bedenlerinden kurtulmaya çalıştıkları ve siber-uzaydaki yaşamı somut dünyadaki yaşama tercih ettikleri bir dünya çizmektedirler. Teknolojinin “şişedeki cin” olmaktan çıkıp insanların parmak ucundan içlerine sızdıkları bu dünyada anahtar kelime kontroldür, ve ölüm de insanların kontrolü altındadır artık. Bu çalışmanın amacı bahsi geçen yazarların eserlerinde ölüm temasının işleniş biçimini örneklerle tartışmaktır.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Siberuzay, Siberpunk roman, Ölüm teması, Sanal Dünya, William Gibson, Bruce Sterling

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