

8-2015

A STUDY OF CHANGE FROM DRAFT TO ALL VOLUNTEER MILITARY: ANALYZING PATRIOTISM, SENSATION SEEKING, VALUE OF MONEY, USE OF FORCE AND INTENTION TO JOIN THE MILITARY

SELCUK SAMI

Clemson University, ssami@clemson.edu

Follow this and additional works at: https://tigerprints.clemson.edu/all_theses

 Part of the [Psychology Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

SAMI, SELCUK, "A STUDY OF CHANGE FROM DRAFT TO ALL VOLUNTEER MILITARY: ANALYZING PATRIOTISM, SENSATION SEEKING, VALUE OF MONEY, USE OF FORCE AND INTENTION TO JOIN THE MILITARY" (2015). *All Theses*. 2220.

https://tigerprints.clemson.edu/all_theses/2220

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by the Theses at TigerPrints. It has been accepted for inclusion in All Theses by an authorized administrator of TigerPrints. For more information, please contact kokeefe@clemson.edu.

A STUDY OF CHANGE FROM DRAFT TO ALL VOLUNTEER MILITARY:
ANALYZING PATRIOTISM, SENSATION SEEKING, VALUE OF MONEY, USE
OF FORCE AND INTENTION TO JOIN THE MILITARY

A Thesis
Presented to
the Graduate School of
Clemson University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science
Applied Psychology

by
Selcuk Sami
August 2015

Accepted by:
Dr. James A. McCubbin, Committee Chair
Dr. Thomas W. Britt
Dr. Patrick J. Rosopa

ABSTRACT

The current study has explored some incentives for young people to enlist in the military in the context of a national transformation into all-volunteer force from draft system. Specifically, in this study, I examined how strongly patriotism, sensation seeking, value of money for people, use of force in military interventions and intentions to join the military affect young people's behavior to enlist in the military. The Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) was used as a part of the model in this study. This study also looked for differences on intentions to enlist in the military among young people who already served or have not yet served. Understanding what most attracts young people will also help governments direct their recruitment campaigns toward young people in case of a transition from draft to all-volunteer military.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my wife, Songul and my daughter, Bahar who was born during my education in the United States. Without my wife's continuous support and unconditional love, it would be too difficult to overcome the hard work at the school.

Our daughter, Bahar, has brought spring to our life and her smiling face gave me encouragement and motivation to handle the workload at my studies. I am grateful to have such a loving family.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First and foremost, I want to thank my advisor Dr. James A. McCubbin, for honoring me by accepting as his student and opening the way for my education in the United States. I am truly grateful for his support and dedication he has constantly provided for me during this study and throughout my experience at Clemson University.

I would like to thank my committee members, Dr. Thomas W. Britt and Dr. Patrick J. Rosopa, for their technical guidance, encouragement and support during my course of study at Clemson. Dr. Britt's military knowledge and Dr. Rosopa's statistical expertise made this study easier for me to overcome.

I would also like to sincerely thank Psychology Department's faculty members and staff for their help. As an international student at Clemson, I never felt alone and my teachers always helped me to feel more comfortable and understand more in my classes.

Finally, I want to thank graduate students of Psychology Department. They never left me alone and accepted me as their friend. I am truly grateful of their friendship and hospitality.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
TITLE PAGE	i
ABSTRACT	ii
DEDICATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	iv
LIST OF TABLES	vii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	viii
 CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
Purpose of This Study	1
2. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	2
Patriotism	4
Sensation Seeking	7
Value of Money.....	9
Use of Force	10
Attitudes, Intentions and Behaviors	12
3. METHOD.....	18
Participants.....	18
Measures.....	18
Procedure.....	21

Table of Contents (Continued)

	Page
4. RESULTS.....	24
Correlational and Regression Analysis	24
Interaction Analyses.....	27
5. DISCUSSION	30
The Target Population.....	31
Patriotism, Value of Money and Sensation Seeking	33
Predictors of Intention to Enlist	35
Practical Recommendations	37
Limitations and Opportunities for Future Research.....	38
APPENDIX	40
REFERENCES.....	46
TABLES.....	49
FIGURES	54

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1: Means and Standard Deviations for Demographics	49
2: Means and Standard Deviations for Constructs	50
3: Correlations between Demographics and Constructs.....	51
4: Correlations among Constructs	52
5: Multiple Regression Analyses: Effects of Patriotism, Sensation Seeking and Compensation on Intentions to Join the Military.....	53

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1: Graph of the Full Model.....	54
2: Interaction of Patriotism and Intentions to Join the Military	55
3: Interaction of Sensation Seeking and Intentions to Join the Military	56
4: Interaction of Value of Money and Intentions to Join the Military.....	57

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

After the United States government decided to transition into all volunteer military from draft system in the 1970s, researchers conducted many studies about all-volunteer militaries. Especially, researchers have focused on the existing all-volunteer system. However, in this proposed study, I surveyed people who served in the draft system in Turkey. I examined their points of views, what they think about a professional army, and what can influence their intentions to join all-volunteer military (AVM).

Purpose of This Study

In this study, I investigated incentives to join the military in the context of a proposed transition from draft to AVM. Specifically, I looked for effects of patriotism, sensation seeking, value of money to young people, use of force in military interventions and young people's intentions in order to understand behaviors to motivate enlistment in all-volunteer militaries. First of all, I defined the constructs and discuss how these constructs are related. Then I analyzed how they may contribute to the behavior to enlist. This study was conducted in Turkey for specific application to that nation's strategic military planning and future directions.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Through all history, countries have had armies to protect their territories or invade other countries. For centuries, they formed armies in different ways, and in this century, we can basically talk about two forms of armed forces: Conscription and All-Volunteer Force (AVF). Many reasons can affect a country's decision to have all-volunteer forces or draft system. Economic and cultural considerations, countries' geographical positions, strategic goals of the governments are a few of the benchmarks in order to decide to have a form of armed forces.

After World War II, many countries decided that they did not need mass armies. A small, but technologically well-equipped army could often perform better than massive armies. Many European and other world countries switched from draft system to all-volunteer forces (AVF). Britain changed her system in 1960 and Italy, in 2004. USA armed forces started to transform from draft into a professional system in 1973. Since then, USA has been using AVM exclusively. In this system, all privates, enlisted men and Non-Commissioned Officers (NCOs) are contracted for a certain duration as specified in their contracts. In contrast, officers have to work for the armed forces at least 5 years for the expenses made for their education if they graduate from United States Military Academy, West Point (Akyurek, 2010). USA, Belgium, Britain, Bulgaria, France, Holland, Spain, Jordan and Portugal are some examples for all-volunteer armed forces (Akyurek, 2010).

In professional armies, citizens volunteer to serve for the armed forces and they are paid for their service. They are considered professionals, and citizens often pursue careers in the armed forces. This system reduces economic burden on government and the need for training new soldiers goes down (Ross, 1994). Highly motivated and always-ready soldiers are a valuable resource for every commander. It is important to mention that the purpose of the all-volunteer military is to maintain high standards for its soldiers in order to ensure a professional and competent force (Korb and Duggan, 2007).

On the other hand, in draft systems, citizens have to serve for the armed forces for a certain time period. Defense of the nation is equally distributed among the citizens of the country. There are many countries where draft system is still in use. Russia, Germany, Iran, Greece, Egypt, South Korea, Syria and Turkey are some countries using draft system (Akyurek, 2010).

In Turkey, the draft system is still in use. All 20-year old males have to serve for the country under the armed forces as an obligation of citizenship. This is every healthy male's duty as a citizen. The draft system has advantages as well as disadvantages. National defence is distributed equally. All young males contribute to the defence of the country. Thus, it creates cohesion and unity among young people of the country (Akyurek, 2010). This system is also a way of maturing young males into more confident citizens. On the other hand, this system creates an army of reluctant people. Each individual may not have the same motivational force to serve the country. This issue raises many problems among troops and officers. In Turkey, periodic recruitments every

3 months have negative effects on training efficiency and performance. Use of vehicles, materials and weapons by draftees decreases efficiency. Draft system negatively affects the degree of the armed forces' readiness for a war (Isikci, 2002).

When a country decides to transform from a draft system to an all-volunteer military, it has to take citizens' opinions and motivations into consideration. Economic and cultural factors, the current political situation in the home country and neighboring countries, and young people's attitudes toward military are all important aspects of the transformation. Additionally, young people's intentions to join military are not only economic considerations. Families, friends, and communities are also playing important roles. Several studies have noted that having a parent in the military is the strong effect on enlistment. Children of current or former military members are more likely to enlist and pursue a career in the military (Faris, 1981; Kilburn & Klerman, 1999; Segal & Segal, 2004).

Patriotism

Patriotism is "an important indicator of people's political attitudes and preferences" (Parker, 2009). DeLamater, Katz, and Kelman (1969) described patriotism as "the relationship of an individual to his/her country". Another explanation of patriotism says that it is the affection for the country, its way of life, its basic values, as well as with its national institutions and policies (Berns, 2001). Patriotism has been shown that it is a very effective means politics (Huddy & Khatib, 2007).

Although patriotism is explicitly defined as “the relationship of an individual to his/her country”, complexity of patriotism still needs to be clarified. The level of one’s affiliation to his/her country may change depending on individual factors. That’s why; patriotism is expressed in two ways: Symbolic and Blind Patriotism (Parker, 2009). In an empirical study conducted with undergraduate students, Schatz, Staub, and Lavine (1999) tried to distinguish these two definitions. They tested the reliability and construct validity of these two concepts of patriotism and concluded that these are indeed different concepts.

Symbolic patriotism is described as “relatively abstract, affective affiliation to the nation, its values and institutions through symbols such as national flag, anthem etc.” Blind patriotism, on the other hand, is more concrete, representing unwavering support for national policies and practices (Parker, 2009). Blind patriotism is related to a more ideological perception of the relationship between the person and the nation in which unconditional support for the nation, its institutions, and its national policy preferences represents the norm (Schatz, Staub & Lavine 1999; Schatz & Staub, 1997).

Symbolic attitudes are functioning as a means of expressing values. They meet the need for a person to define himself/herself through the expression of values and identification with groups they perceive as important (Herek, 1986; Katz, 1960; Maio & Olson 2000; Prentice, 1987). Blind patriotism is more likely a part of the instrumental side. It helps people as a tool of defense in what some people may perceive as a dangerous world where people have a desire for security. That is, when people feel

threatened by the prospect of layoffs or other economic instability; when people feel that they are threatened by social and political unrest; or, when people feel threatened by the uncertainties that accompany war or international conflict, they seek security and domestic stability (Duckitt & Fisher 2003; Sales, 1973; Stenner, 2005). Symbolic patriotism, however, is related with the domain managed by symbolic attitudes in which people express values through connection to political culture. Values are described as long-term beliefs that shape attitudes and behaviors (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992). For example, American political culture is comprised of such values as individualism, freedom, equality, and limited government (Kinder & Sanders, 1996; Lipset, 1996; McCloskey & Zaller, 1984).

Schatz, Staub, and Lavine (1999) differentiate between blind and constructive patriotism. They describe blind patriotism as a definite and adamant attachment to country, characterized by unquestioning positive evaluation. On the other hand, Schatz et al. define constructive patriotism as an attachment to country characterized by critical loyalty. These two concepts are indeed patriotic in the sense of positive national identification. However, blind patriots consider criticism of the state as disloyal, but constructive patriots may even criticize the state itself, if they feel that the state violates their ideology or if they believe the state is mistaken.

Considering symbolic patriotism, young people might have tendencies to be affected by symbols easily. This will encourage them to have intentions to serve their country in the military. Given the facts above, the first hypothesis follows as;

Hypothesis 1: Symbolic patriotism is positively correlated with the intentions to join the military.

Sensation Seeking

Sensation seeking is described as “the need for varied, novel, and complex sensations and experiences, and the willingness to take physical and social risks for the sake for such experiences” (Zuckerman, 1979). Sensation seeking has been applied in many areas such as dangerous driving practices, a variety of sexual experiences, alcohol use, drug use and minor criminality (Arnett, 1994). The biological side of sensation seeking has also been studied and it has been discovered that sensation seeking is related to higher testosterone levels as well (Daitzman, Zuckerman, Sammelwitz & Ganjam, 1978).

Sensation seeking is also related to risk taking. The greatest risk-takers are young males who are in adolescent years (Zuckerman, 2000). Military recruiters try to recruit young people who are inclined to take risks, and those young soldiers contribute more to solidarity and risk their lives in combat. The target audience for military is young people and their inclination to take risks is a good point to measure tendency to join the military.

In enlistment for all-volunteer forces, young people are the primary target of recruitment resources. Young people are more risk-taking and adventure seeking in comparison to other age groups. During adolescence years, people are more interested in looking for adventures. Adventure recreation includes outdoor activities where people

interact with nature and purposefully pursue challenge and stress (Ford & Blanchard, 1993).

Psychological studies point out that challenge is the outcome of stress appraisal. One study assessed the interaction of person and environment, utilizing one's resources, and embracing the potential for gain or growth (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The development of challenge is affected by situational demands and personal resources (Mendes, Blascovich, Major, & Seery, 2001). In the adventure context, challenge occurs when participants face a highly demanding situation but do not have sufficient resources to respond. In other words, challenge is the interaction between risk and competence, and adventure seekers use their competencies to avoid the inherent risks in the adventure (Priest, 1992). In military settings, young people will always face challenges and try to overcome these. This is also highly motivating for young people to face challenges, and they can experience many challenging events in the armed forces. Driving a tank, patrolling on a border with heavy bags and ammunition, engaging a firefight, and applying first-aid to fellow soldiers would be both a challenge and an adventure for young people who are already looking for such events.

In this study, the target population is young and militaries offer very adventurous opportunities for young people. They can satisfy their sensation seeking personalities by having chances such as engaging firefights or paratrooping.

Hypothesis 2: Sensation seeking people have positive intentions towards the military.

Value of Money

Money is an important factor in the lives of all people, including young adults (Wernimont & Fitzpatrick, 1972). Money is described as the instrument of commerce and the measure of value (Smith, 1776/1937). This theme has been a dominant issue which has been extensively studied in the field of industrial and organizational psychology (Lim, 2003). The effect of monetary rewards on human behavior has always been an interesting topic. Researchers have acknowledged that it is important to examine money as an individual difference feature. People's point of view towards money may change. This is like a personal approach. Some people may put money into the center of their lives, others may perceive it useless. Overall, monetary issues are important assets to influence motivation, job attitudes and actions (Mitchell & Mickel, 1999).

People's perceptions of work-related tasks, the reward systems, and their extrinsic and intrinsic motivational patterns may be influenced by their attitudes toward money (Furnham et al., 1994; Tang, 1993). Understanding attitudes toward money may contribute significantly in the designing of compensation packages for employees and may be of significant interest to researchers and practitioners in the field of industrial and organizational psychology.

Previous research on differences in attitudes toward money has produced some mixed findings. For example, McClure (1984) found that money attitudes are generally similar regardless of sex, education, occupation or religion. On the other hand, other researchers have shown that males and females generally attach different meanings to

their material possessions. Lynn (1993) studied sex differences in competitiveness and the valuation of money in twenty countries found that generally males scored higher than females on valuation of money and positive attitudes toward money, thus lending further evidence to gender differences in attitudes toward money.

Young people are interested in making money when they apply for jobs. Compensation often comes first compared to other important factors (e.g., location, job satisfaction). Saving money for college is one significant reason to enlist in the military. Armed forces offer health coverage both for soldiers and their families. Retirement plans after active duty are also appealing to many young people. Therefore, many young people enlist in the military for economic considerations.

Hypothesis 3: People who believe they will be paid more will be positively interested to join the military.

Use of Force

The famous German general, Carl von Clausewitz (1780-1831), claims that war is based upon a triangle in his famous book *On War*. This triangle is composed of;

- (a) “the violence and hatred among groups of people”
- (b) ”the possibilities of win and loss faced or generated by commanders and their armies”
- (c) “war's rational affiliation to the politics of the government” (Beyerchen, 1993).

The political situation is the context that shapes the system constituted by a given war. It must be considered carefully, Clausewitz (1832) argues, for the same political object can elicit differing reactions from different people, and even from the same people at different times. The emphasis on the changeable political context also contrasts sharply with the view held by many theorists that the parameters of war must be readily quantifiable military categories such as logistical factors, characteristics of weaponry, etc. Consideration of the political environment leads Clausewitz (1832) to generate his famous second definition of war as merely the continuation of policy by other means. He claims that war is never autonomous, since it is always an instrument of policy.

The rich history of war gives us evidence of its deteriorating results and of the wide variety of situations that lead to it. While there is much that we know about wars, there is still much to be learned about how the choice to go to war differs across countries and circumstances, and in particular how this relates to the interaction between economic circumstances and political regimes. Although religious and ethnic conflicts have played key roles in many wars, balance of power, territorial disputes, expansion of territory, and access to key resources or wealth are often either involved or the primary driving force behind wars.

As there have always been conflicts in the world, it seems they will continue to exist. As Clausewitz (1832) mentions, war is the continuation of policy. In conflicts and wars, countries may find it difficult to recruit young people. However, in peacetime,

countries will consider a professional army a better way since young people may find it easier to serve in the military as a professional.

In this study, political context was taken as people's opinion about interventions in other countries when there is a violation of human rights. Therefore, people ideas about interventions may contribute to their intentions to join the military.

Hypothesis 4a: Use of force will moderate the relationship between symbolic patriotism and a person's intention to join the military.

Hypothesis 4b: Use of force will moderate the relationship between sensation seeking and a person's intention to join the military.

Hypothesis 4c: Use of force will moderate the relationship between compensation and a person's intention to join the military.

Attitudes, Intentions and Behaviors

The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1991) has an influential explanatory model that can be used in many applied settings (Sheppard, Hartwick & Warshaw, 1988). According to the TPB, one's performance of a behavior is determined by the strength of one's intention to perform that behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Intention to perform a given behavior, in turn, is viewed as a function of three primary factors: one's attitude toward performing the behavior, one's subjective norm concerning the behavior, and one's belief in one's ability to successfully perform the behavior.

Attitudes are defined as a person's beliefs that performing a behavior will lead to estimated outcomes. Subjective norms relate to the perceived attitudes of others. Specifically, subjective norms are defined as the perception that important people in one's life will think that one should or should not perform the behavior in question. Finally, self-efficacy is the belief that one has the ability to successfully perform the behavior. This component recognizes that beyond an individual's knowledge of what he should do and what others would want him to do, a person must believe that he has the ability to perform the behavior.

The TPB, in its original form, proposes direct links from norms, attitudes, and efficacy to intention. However, there is substantial research evidence that the norms-intention link is weak and not significant in some contexts (Terry, Hogg, & White, 2000). In particular, Ajzen (2006) has noted that there is nothing in the theory to suggest that each predictor will always make a significant contribution to the prediction of intention. Further, Terry et al. (2000) have noted that because pleasing others is one expected outcome of performing a behavior, attitude and subjective norms often overlap. The expected outcome of gaining approval and acceptance from important individuals and social groups has been related to the social pressure to enlist or not enlist in military service.

Prior research suggests that there is a strong link between intention to perform a behavior and the behavior itself (Ajzen, 1991; Armitage & Conner, 1999). Specifically, there is a strong positive association between enlistment propensity and actual enlistment

(Bachman, Segal, Freedman-Doan, & O'Malley, 2000; Lawrence & Legree, 1995; Legree et al., 2000).

Leading indicators of retention among organizational members can be valuable tools for organizations as they seek to attract and retain competent and well-adjusted workers. In line with these interests, much of the research on retention has focused on factors that influence turnover after a worker has entered an organization (e.g., Lytell & Drasgow, 2009). Prospective workers hold attitudes about various organizations and careers before they make a job choice decision. When individuals are able to carry out their initial career intentions, they may become more satisfied and well-adjusted, and may choose to stay in those careers for a longer period of time. Therefore, some of the variability in employee turnover may be accounted for by attitudes that were initially held long before organizational entry (Gottfredson, 1981; Super, 1980).

There is ample evidence that not all organizational entrants, including military entrants, hold positive attitudes about their organizations when first encountering them. Meta-analytic evidence indicates that applicant attitudes, fit judgments, and intentions are some of the best available predictors of job choice (Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll, Piasentin, & Jones, 2005). However, even these factors have only modest predictive validity, suggesting that many individuals do not act out on their intentions or desires. A recent analysis of individuals entering the U.S. military whose attitudes were assessed during late adolescence or early adulthood found that of those who indicated they would definitely join the military, only 26% later joined (Ford, Griepentrog, Helland, & Marsh,

2009). Of those who joined the military, nearly half had initially indicated they had little or no intention of entering the military when they were surveyed during their youth. The rate at which youth with little or no military career intention join the military is very low, as would be expected, but because almost 90% of young adults surveyed reported that they had little or no intention of joining the military and they represent a sizable and important part of the military applicant pool. Individuals who initially hold negative views about the military and then later decide to join may be doing this for different reasons than those who hold favorable attitudes and intentions all along.

Behavioral intentions reflect the effort that somebody plans to put toward performance of a given behavior. Not surprisingly, intentions have been found to predict a wide variety of behaviors, as summarized in several reviews on the topic (Ajzen, 1991; Albarracin, Johnson, Fishbein, & Muellerleile, 2001; Cook & French, 2008; Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2009; Webb & Sheeran, 2006). Accordingly, intentions have been found in a recent meta-analysis to be the best known predictor of job choice (Chapman et al., 2005).

Attitudes toward a behavior, which refer to the favorability of the behavior, are, alongside subjective norms and self-efficacy, important factors in the formation of behavioral intentions (Ajzen, 1991). Attitudes toward a behavior are largely a reflection of one's behavioral outcome expectations and, according to TPB, form automatically and simultaneously with these behavioral outcome beliefs (Ajzen, 1991). In the career decision process, job seekers hold expectations about how entering an organization or

career will impact one's life and simultaneously form attitudes toward organizational entry.

Recruiting researchers explored these types of expectations by asking hypothetical applicants about whether they expected to be satisfied in a given organization or job. Expectations were then correlated with job choice and job choice intentions (Rynes & Lawler, 1983; Strand, Levine, & Montgomery, 1981). Research on expectations as predictors of applicant behavior draws theoretically from expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), which specifies that motivated behavior is a multiplicative function of one's perceived ability to perform the behavior, the perception that the behavior will lead to meaningful outcomes, and the value placed on those outcomes. Recruiting research from this perspective has found that pre-entry attitudes toward a job or organization predict jobs intentions and choice (Chapman et al., 2005; Johnson, 1983; Ryan, Sacco, McFarland, & Kriska, 2000).

Using this TPB framework, attitudes toward entry into the military, and the behavioral outcome expectations they are largely based on, are important determinants of intentions to join the military. These intentions, in turn, influence whether one chooses to join the military. This intention-mediated framework has received support in a past research linking job/organizational attraction and selection expectations to job choice through job choice intentions in military and other employment contexts (Chapman et al., 2005; Gibson, Griepentrog, & Marsh, 2007; Schreurs, Derous, van Hooft, Proost, & De Witte, 2009).

Consequently, in this study, I analyzed the relationships between a person's intention to join the military and patriotism, sensation seeking, value of money and the use of force in interventions. Use of force has served as a moderator in the model and intention as the dependent variable. Patriotism, sensation seeking and value of money are independent variables of the model (See Figure 1).

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

Participants

Ninety one people were willing to participate in the study. The age range is between 18 and 24. The mean age is 20.30 ($SD = 1.68$). All the participants are male. Fifty three of the participants already served for the armed forces and thirty eight of them have not served yet for various reasons such as age, education etc. Among the participants, there are eighteen people who reported that they had no income. The mean income is 1074.72 ($SD = 796.83$). Twenty seven of the participants are middle school graduates (29.7%) and fifty of them are high school graduates (54.9%). The mean education is 2.65, where 1 is elementary school graduation and 4 is college graduation ($SD = 0.73$). Only five people out of ninety one responded that they have a professional soldier in the Turkish Armed Forces (5.5%).

Measures

There are three independent variables (patriotism measured by items 2, 10, 14 and 20; sensation seeking measured by items 1, 5, 9, 15, and 19; value of money measured by items 3, 8, 13, 17 and 21), one moderator (use of force measured by items 4, 7, 12, 18 and 22) and one dependent variable (intention to join the army measured by items 6, 11, 16, 23 and 25) in the study. The survey consisted of 26 items. 24 of these items were used in the analyses whereas items 24 and 26 were essay questions for the participants. Five-

point Likert scale was used to have respondents' degree of agreement with each statement, where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.

Patriotism: The four-item scale developed by Kosterman and Feshbach (1989) was used to measure symbolic patriotism. A five-point response scale was used to indicate respondents' degree of agreement with each statement, where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. A sample item for this measure is "The Turkish flag is the best in the world." Kosterman and Feshbach (1989) collected data to determine reliability for each of the subscales. I used Smugness subscale (the items generally reflect the idea that Turkey, its symbols, and its people are simply the best) from their original scale and reliability for this subscale is 0.72. Although I had 4 items in the original scale, I deleted one item (Question 10 in the survey) and excluded in the analyses. This item reduced the reliability of the scale. Including item 10, the reliability is 0.61. Therefore I canceled the item and the reliability for this scale has been 0.72 in the analyses.

Sensation Seeking: The five-item scale developed by Zuckerman (1971) was used to measure sensation seeking. Sensation seeking scale was developed by Zuckerman (1969) to assess individual differences in optimal levels of stimulation or arousal. The scale was postulated that the need for change, variety, and intensity of stimulation would indicate itself in many dimensions of behavior, including sensory, social and sensation-seeking types of activity (Zuckerman, 1971). The sensation seeking scale is comprised of 4 sections: Thrill and Adventure Seeking Items, Experience Seeking Items, Disinhibition Items, and Boredom Susceptibility Items. In Thrill and Adventure Seeking Items section,

there are 14 items. Out of these 14 items, 4 items has been picked up due to the greatest factor loadings. A five-point response scale was used to indicate respondents' degree of agreement with each statement, where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. A sample item for this measure is "I would like to try parachute jumping." The reliability for this scale is found 0.78.

Value of Money: The five-item scale combined by Lim and Teo (1997) was used to measure compensation. Tim and Leo used this money scale which has eight different dimensions to understand the attitudes toward money. These eight dimensions are obsession, power, budget, achievement, evaluation, anxiety, retention and non-generous. In this study, the obsession dimension was used. In obsession dimension, there are 7 items. Out of these 7 items, 5 items has been picked up due to the greatest factor loadings. A five-point response scale was used to indicate respondents' degree of agreement with each statement, where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. A sample item for this measure is "I firmly believe that money can solve all my problems." The reliability for this scale is 0.69.

Use of Force: The five-item scale developed by Fetchenhauer and Bierhoff (2004) was used to measure political situation. Fetchenhauer and Bierhoff used this scale to measure attitudes toward the military enforcement of human rights. There are 10 items in the Attitude Toward Military Enforcement of Human Rights (ATMEHR). Out of these 10 items, 5 items were picked up based on item-total correlation. Political situation will moderate the relationship between independent variables. A five-point response scale will

be used to indicate respondents' degree of agreement with each statement, where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. A sample item for this measure is "I support military actions against violations of human rights in nondemocratic countries even if this leads to cuts in the social budget of my own country". The reliability for the scale is 0.53. Although I checked whether I could increase the reliability for the scale by deleting any item, I didn't succeed since there are no items that reducing the overall reliability in the scale.

Behaviors and Intention: This construct regulates the relationship between attitudes toward military and behaviors to join the military. Five items were used to measure the intention. One sample item for the dependent variable is "How likely is it that you will be serving in an all-volunteer force in the next few years if there is a transformation into AVF?". This one item is derived from Youth Attitude Tracking Study (YATS) which was annually conducted by the Department of Defense from 1995 through 1999. A five-point response scale were used to indicate respondents' degree of agreement with each statement, where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. The reliability for the scale is 0.91.

Procedure

The survey was conducted in two major cities of Turkey, Istanbul and Ankara. Random people on the streets were asked to complete the survey. People were given the surveys and they completed the questions about age, monthly income, educational level (1= Elementary school, 2 = Middle school, 3 = High school, 4 = College, 5 = Graduate

level), service status in the armed forces (1 = Not served, 2 = Already served) and if they had any professional military member in the family (1 = Officer, 2 = NCO, 3 = Contracted, 4 = None).

After the first section of the survey, participants were informed about the study and told the purpose of the survey. Then they completed the survey. Upon completion, the survey was controlled by surveyors. Participants were politely asked again if there were any unanswered questions on the survey. Thus, all the surveys were checked and there remained any unanswered items for the survey.

Surveyors emailed the pictures of original surveys. I printed them here in Clemson and entered the items into software program, SPSS version 22. Descriptive analyses for demographics (Table 1) and constructs (Table 2) were conducted. Correlational relations between constructs and demographics (Table 3), and also correlations among constructs (Table 4) were done. To justify, hypothesis 1, 2, and 3, simple regression was conducted. Additionally, multiple regression was run in SPSS to observe all the independent variables in the overall model (Table 5).

For Hypothesis 4a, 4b, and 4c, interaction analysis were run. Before interaction analyses, the items were mean-centered and new variables for each construct and interaction term were created. Simple interactions such as patriotism-political situation-intentions, sensation seeking-political situation-intentions, and compensation-political situation-intentions were conducted separately in order to learn whether hypotheses were

supported or not. Figures for each simple interaction analysis were presented (See List of Figures) as well as the figure of the overall model (Figure 1).

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Correlational and Regression Analysis

Table 1 illustrates the means and standard deviations of demographics. Age, income, education, service and family members' statistics are shown detailed in the table (See Table 1). The minimum age for participants is 18 (19 of the participants) and the maximum age is 24 (only 3 participants). Sample size is ninety one. The mean age for the population is 20.3 and standard deviation is 1.68.

Eighteen participants reported that they have no income. Maximum income is 4500 Turkish Lira (TL) which was reported only by one participant. The mean income is 1074.7 TL and standard deviation is 796.8.

Six people reported that they are elementary school graduates. Twenty seven people are middle school graduates, 50 people are high school graduates and 8 participants are college graduates.

58% of the participants (53 out of 91 people) had already served for the armed forces when they were surveyed. Thirty eight of them (42%) have not yet served for various reasons such as continuing education and health problems.

Eighty six of the participants said that they don't have any professional soldiers in their families. Two participants reported that there are officers in the family; one person

reported an NCO and two reported contracted sergeant in the family serving in the military as a professional soldier.

Table 2 illustrates the means and standard deviations for the constructs (patriotism, sensation seeking, value of money, use of force and intentions). Participants answered the questions on a Five-point Likert scale. For each construct, minimum answer is 1 (strongly disagree), and maximum answer is 5 (strongly agree). Mean patriotism is 3.95 and *SD* is 0.77. Mean sensation seeking is 3.7363 and *SD* is 1.02. Mean compensation is 2.07 and *SD* is 0.89. Mean political situation is 3.54 and *SD* is 0.80. Mean intentions is 3.74 and *SD* is 1.17 (See Table 2).

Table 3 illustrates the correlations between demographics and constructs. Patriotism is positively correlated with age, income, education and family member status, whereas it is negatively correlated with service status. Sensation seeking has negative correlations with age, income and service status, but it has positive correlations with education and family member status. Especially, correlations between value of money and age [$r(89) = .303, p < .01$]; value of money and service [$r(89) = .382, p < .01$] are significant. However, value of money has negative correlations with income, education and family member status. Dependent variable, intentions, is significantly correlated with age [$r(89) = -.281, p < .01$] and service status [$r(89) = -.303, p < .01$]. But the relationship is negative. On the other hand, intentions is positively correlated with income, education and family member status (See Table 3).

Table 4 indicates the correlational relations among independent variables, moderator and dependent variable (constructs). Hypothesis 1 states that symbolic patriotism is positively correlated with the intentions to join the military. Based on the information on Table 4, Hypothesis 1 is supported [$r(89) = .253, p < .05$]. Also simple regression was conducted between patriotism and intentions to join the military. The results on the regression shows that there is a main effect between patriotism and intentions [$F(1, 89) = 8.817, p = .004, \beta = .300, \text{ and } R^2 = .09$].

Hypothesis 2 states that sensation seeking people have positive intentions towards the military. Based on Table 4, Hypothesis 2 is supported [$r(89) = .328, p < .01$]. The results on the regression between sensation seeking and intentions show that there is a main effect between the constructs [$F(1, 89) = 10.705, p = .002, \beta = .328, \text{ and } R^2 = .107$].

Hypotheses 3 states that people who believe they will be paid more will be positively interested to join the military. This hypothesis is not supported since the correlation between value of money and intentions is negative [$r(89) = -.317, p < .05$]. However, there is a main effect between value of money and dependent variable [$F(1, 89) = 9.932, p = .002, \beta = -.317, t = -3.151, p = .002 \text{ and } R^2 = .100$].

In addition to simple regressions, multiple regression between independent variables and dependent variable was conducted. According to regression analyses, the predictors explain 21.5% of variance of the dependent variable ($F(3, 89) = 7.965, p < .001 \text{ and } R^2 = .215$). According to Table 5, relationship between patriotism and

intensions ($\beta = .150, t = 1.453, p = 0.150$) is not significant. However, relationship between sensation seeking and intensions ($\beta = .263, t = 2.611, p = .011$); and also relationship between value of money and intensions ($\beta = -.266, t = -2.720, p = .008$) are significant (See Table 5).

Consequently, considering correlational analyses, simple regressions and multiple regression, Hypotheses 1 and 2 are supported, however Hypothesis 3 is not supported since the correlation between the value of money and intentions is negative. But there is a main effect between two constructs. For hypothesis 3, a positive relation was anticipated but the results proved opposite.

Interaction Analyses

To test Hypotheses 4a, 4b and 4c, simple interaction analyses were conducted between each independent variable and dependent variable, taking moderator into analyses. Use of force was used as moderator while patriotism, sensation seeking and value of money were independent variables. For each independent variable, prior to analysis, mean-centering was conducted and interaction of new variable and moderator was used in the analysis.

Hypothesis 4a states that use of force will moderate the relationship between symbolic patriotism and a person's intention to join the military. For hypothesis 4a, patriotism was taken as independent variable, use of force as moderator and intensions to join the army as dependent variable. This hypothesis is not supported with the interaction results ($F(3, 87) = 5.384, p = .002$). The results for each new variable are as followed.

For mean-centered patriotism $\beta = .346$, $t = 2.321$ and $p = .023$. For mean-centered Use of force $\beta = .233$, $t = 2.066$ and $p = .042$. The interaction is not significant. For interaction of these new two variables $\beta = .226$, $t = 1.632$ and $p = .106$. The overall effect size of this interaction for the model is $R^2 = .157$ and R^2 change is $.026$. (See Figure 2)

Hypothesis 4b states that use of force will moderate the relationship between sensation seeking and a person's intention to join the military. For hypothesis 4b, sensation seeking was taken as independent variable, use of force as moderator and intentions to join the army as dependent variable. This hypothesis is supported with the interaction results ($F(3, 87) = 9.456$, $p < .001$). The results for each new variable are as followed. For mean-centered sensation seeking $\beta = .249$, $t = 2.621$ and $p = .01$. The interaction is significant. For mean-centered Use of force $\beta = .233$, $t = 2.306$ and $p = .024$. For interaction of these new two variables $\beta = -.260$, $t = -2.693$ and $p = .009$. The interaction is significant. The overall effect size of this interaction for the model is $R^2 = .246$ and R^2 change is $.063$. (See Figure 3)

Finally, hypothesis 4c states that use of force will moderate the relationship between value of money and a person's intention to join the military. For hypothesis 4c, value of money was taken as independent variable, use of force as moderator and intentions to join the army as dependent variable. This hypothesis is not supported with the interaction results ($F(3, 87) = 6.369$, $p = .001$). The results for each new variable are as followed. For mean-centered compensation $\beta = -.259$, $t = -2.603$ and $p = .011$. For mean-centered political situation $\beta = .270$, $t = 2.731$ and $p = .008$. For interaction of these

new two variables $\beta = .076$, $t = .771$ and $p = .443$. The interaction is not significant. The overall effect size of this interaction for the model is $R^2 = .180$ and R^2 change is .006.

(See Figure 4)

Considering the interaction analyses, Hypotheses 4b is supported but 4a and 4c are not supported. The figure for each interaction is presented at Figures section at the end of the study with detailed information about interactions.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

Militaries have always been important institutions and provided protection from outside threats. As the time passed, the structure of militaries began to change due to the technological advancements. They used to need massive armies to fight with others, however, as the new technologies were invented, the need for manpower began to decrease. Nowadays, militaries are trying to create technologically-based forces and focusing heavily on personnel with technical expertise.

After World War II, countries began to transform their structure of the armies. It was realized that a small, but technologically well-equipped army could often perform better than massive armies. Many European and other world countries switched from draft system to all-volunteer forces (AVF). Britain adopted professional army in 1960 and Italy, in 2004. USA started to transform from draft into a professional system in 1973. USA, Belgium, Britain, Bulgaria, France, Holland, Spain, Jordan and Portugal are some examples of all-volunteer armed forces (Akyurek, 2010).

Currently in Turkey, the military system requires all 20-year old healthy males to serve in the armed forces for a certain time span, one year for high school and lower level school graduates and six months for college graduates. However, it is inevitable that there will be a consideration of transition from draft to all-volunteer force. Years later, with systematic changes in the military, recruiting young people will be a priority for the government. In order to encourage people to enlist in the armed forces, recruitment

campaigns will have importance. It will be important to know what facilitators and incentives are important for young people that will form the target population for the military.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate some incentives to join the military in the context of a proposed transition from draft to AVM. Specifically, I looked for effects of patriotism, sensation seeking, value of money, use of force and young people's intentions in order to understand motives for enlistment in all-volunteer militaries. I looked for the contributions of each construct to the intention of joining the military. By discovering these relationships, the military can guide and organize its recruitment campaigns to be more effective in reaching the target population for recruitment. Thus, these results may give some useful guidance to reduce uncertainty about how best to recruit young people to enlist in a professional military.

The Target Population

The survey targeted young people between the ages of 18 and 24. Therefore, these results provide some potential explanations for young people's intentions to join the military. Since the target audience is young, these findings may differ among older people. Nevertheless, the present results may be most valid for the population of young men who are most likely to consider a military career.

The average income of the participants is 1074 TL monthly. According to the Turkish Institute of Statistics (TUIK), Youth in Statistics 2014 Report, the average income for young people (15-24 ages) is 6955 TL yearly. Therefore, the monthly income

for the target population is 579.5 TL. The results show 22 participants are below the average income and 18 of them reported no income. This is because some participants are still students and unemployed. 75% of the participants (69 out of 91 people) reported incomes higher than the average which is 6955 TL yearly. Thus, 25% of the participants belong to the low income group in the society.

Only 8.7% of the participants (8 out of 91 people) stated that they are college graduates. The respondents are mostly high school (55%; 50 out of 91) and middle and elementary school graduates (36%; 33 out of 91). Based on the Turkish Institute of Statistics (TUIK), Youth in Statistics 2014 Report, the typical educational distribution of young people in Turkey (aged 15-24) is 13% college graduates, 33% high school graduates and 46% primary school graduates. The target population in this study is predominantly high school graduates. Considering the average educational level in Turkey, it can be concluded that the current sample is representative of Turkish society. This population is the target audience since many people with low and moderate education will have intentions to enlist in the military if there is a transition into professional army. College graduates will not likely show interest in the change because their military career track would most likely be through office training schools and programs.

Fifty three of the participants already served in the military while 38 of them have not served yet. The bias toward joining the military among already served participants

will affect the overall direction of the analyses. Also, 5 people out of 91 reported that they have professional soldiers in the family.

Patriotism, Value of Money and Sensation Seeking

Although participants scored high on levels of patriotism, looking at the regression analyses, patriotism explains only 9% of the variance. Padilla and Laner (2002) indicate that patriotism was the most prominent factor in Cold War era recruitment campaigns when compared to adventure/challenge, social status and travel. These findings show that certain factors are more important at different periods of history. Since there is not a Cold War atmosphere currently in Turkey, participants find other factors more appealing than patriotism.

Value of money has the lowest overall mean level and analyses show that value of money has negative relationship with intentions. As people value money more, they get less interested in enlisting. This finding is contradictory to the fact that was noted by Cable and Judge (1994). Based on the findings provided by them, they suggested that organizations have to consider that the amount of money offered to employees can be a very important “signaling device” in the recruitment process. However, there is a clear difference between this study and their study. This study aims to recruit to the military which may influence participants’ cognitive processes. They suggested the amount of money is instrumental for non-military recruitment campaigns. In another study by Lim (2002), he acknowledged that non-financial incentives play an important role in processes of recruitment and retention. But, on the other hand, the role of financial benefits in these

processes cannot be completely ignored. Also, Lim (2002) stated that organizations may want to make it sure that they have a competitive pay system compared to industry standards in order to lose of talents who may want to switch to another more lucrative job offer from other competitors. Therefore, it can be said that government should offer a good salary which should be competitive with civilian jobs in order to recruit and retain volunteer force soldiers for a military career.

In this study, sensation seeking scale (SSS) was not used as a whole in the survey. SSS includes 4 different subscales and in the study, I picked up items from Thrill and Adventure Seeking subscale. Therefore, considering analyses based on SSS, the study does not necessarily have implications for the whole SSS, but only the relevant subscale, Thrill and Adventure Seeking.

Sensation seeking has a negative relationship with age, income and service. This shows that as people get older, they value money more, and get less interested in thrilling activities. Also, people who already served are less interested in joining such adventurous activities. Zuckerman (1969) also found out that the sensation seeking scale predicts a negative relationship between sensation seeking and age. This relationship was also demonstrated in three other studies (Blackburn, 1969; Brownfield, 1966 and Kish and Busse, 1968).

Additionally, correlations show that value of money has positive relations with age and service. As people get older, they get more oriented in how much they make. Our participants also show that they value money more as they age.

Bachman, Segal and O'Malley (2000) reported in their study that there is a variety of reasons for young people to consider enlisting in the army. They mentioned racial differences, impacts of family, geographic differences, number of parents in the home, place of residence, parents' educational level, high school grades and college plans, attitudes about the military as an institution and attitudes toward working in the military as the factors to give a decision about joining the military. In their study, they used data from American high school students. However, in this study, I have a Turkish population whose age range is between 18 and 24. This study found out that intentions has negative relations with age. This finding proved true my anticipations before the analyses about the age. As people get older, they get less interested in having intentions to enlist in the military.

Predictors of Intention to Enlist

When correlational and regression analyses were conducted, the results revealed that patriotism and sensation seeking are positively related to intentions to enlist. More patriotic and sensation seeking people are more likely to state an intention to join the military. However, value of money reveals a negative relationship. The more people value money, the less they become interested in joining in the military. This result was not anticipated, and may reflect the low wages typical in the current conscription system. A professional military will need to offer salaries appropriate for career professionals. Therefore, our current participants see the military as a place where they can demonstrate their patriotism and fulfill their adventurous interests. The military is not currently

viewed as a place for just making money. The significant results support hypotheses 1 and 2, suggesting important relationships between a person's intention to enlist and their patriotic views and sensation seeking personality. Regarding hypothesis 3, results yielded opposite of what was predicted. Actually, Moskos (1977) warned that it would be dangerous to just offer financial incentives for recruitment because it would threaten to transform a patriotic duty into a high-paid regular job. In this regard, the results for hypothesis 3 showed that participants perceive military jobs not as a source of making a lot of money, but they have other feelings and incentives to enlist.

Surprisingly, patriotism proved to be insignificant in multiple regression analyses. Sensation seeking has stronger effects than patriotism in the overall model. When they are analyzed together, sensation seeking emerges as a significant independent predictor, while the relationship of patriotism is reduced. Since participants are between 18-24 years old, sensation seeking is more important for them when it is compared to patriotism. Additionally, results in this study show that there is a negative correlation between age and sensation seeking. People are more adventurous when are young and they get more stable as they age.

The effects of patriotism on intent to enlist may vary significantly with different world security situations such as those seen during the Cold War era.

Taking interactions into consideration, use of force moderates the relationship between intentions and patriotism. A person's opinions on using military assets during chaos in a country is dependent on their patriotic values. These conclusions are also valid

for sensation and value of money. However, use of force moderates this relation negatively. The use of force affects people's intentions to join the military highly when people value money less. The interaction shows that valuing money a lot means that people will not likely join only to make money.

Practical Recommendations

This study clearly showed that sensation seeking is important to motivate young people for enlistment in Turkey today, even more important than patriotism among the young. Money proved to be less important for people to enlist. Young people disagree that joining military is a way of making their financial fortune, at least with the current pay levels as their reference point. As people get older, they get less interested in joining the military. Therefore, a recruitment campaign for young people should focus on adventurism, challenge and sensation seeking. This conclusion is partly supported by the study of Padilla and Laner (2002). They did a study of recruitment themes from early Cold War period (1954-64) to late Cold War period (1981-90). In that study, they reviewed the army's recruitment campaign ads and found out that advertisements on Job/Career/Education were the most used (total 151) and Adventure/Challenge advertisements followed them by a number of 72.

Recruitment campaigns should focus on adventure and sensation seeking personalities. The results showed that young people would like to join the military to satisfy their adventure-seeking characteristics.

Money does not have the impact on young people as it was predicted before the analyses. However, for maintaining personnel in the military, a satisfying salary must be paid to soldiers.

Given the interaction analyses, patriotism and value of money don't moderate the relationship between a young person's intentions to enlist and how he thinks about use of force to a different country. However, sensation seeking moderates that relationship. There is a significant bond between a young person's adventure seeking personality and his willingness to intervene in other countries in terms of human rights violations.

All of these current findings should be viewed in the current political climate, and the relationships could change significantly in different national and international contexts.

Limitations and Opportunities for Future Research

This study was conducted among people who live in Istanbul and Ankara. These are two biggest cities in Turkey. People living in these cities vary in monthly income and educational level. Therefore, data used in this study yield results based on opinions of people who live in big cities about the military. Given the fact that people living in big cities are generally more liberal, the results could be different if it was conducted in small cities. Geographical differences are important in decisions to join the military (Bachman et al, 2000).

The constructs used in the study explained 21.5 % of variance. This clearly indicates that there are other factors influencing people's intentions to join the army. Further research can investigate what other constructs such as educational opportunities and benefits can else be used to understand intentions and people's motivations to enlist.

APPENDIX

The purpose of this survey is to investigate some incentives to join the military if there is a transition from draft system into all volunteer military. The participation is completely voluntary and the survey takes approximately 10 minutes. The participants can cease to answer the questions if they don't feel comfortable with any question. This survey does not require any sensitive information about the participants and the results are going to be used for a graduate student master's thesis.

Age:

Monthly Income:

Service Status:

Education:

Any professional soldier in armed forces:

Instructions: This survey aims to understand what factors affect young people to enlist in the army. Please rate your answers and put your checks in the blanks.

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Moderately Disagree

3 = Neutral

4 = Moderately Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

Age, socio-economic status and participants service status is included in the survey.

1	I would like to go scuba diving.
2	I think the Turkish people are the finest in the world.
3	I believe that time not spent on making money is time wasted.
4	It is a sign of a humanitarian attitude to use military means to stop violations of human rights.
5	I would like to try surfboard riding.
6	My joining the military in the professional army would be ...
7	The idea of securing peace without war is unrealistic. In some regions of the world, it is simply necessary to use military means to enforce human rights.
8	Money is the most important goal in my life.
9	I would like to take up the sport of water-skiing.
10	I would never settle in another country.
11	Most people who are important to me would approve of my joining the professional army.
12	It is better to go to war for several months than to accept violations of human rights for an indefinite period of time.
13	I firmly believe that money can solve all my problems.
14	The Turkish flag is the best in the world.
15	I would like to learn to fly an airplane.
16	I am confident that I could join the military if it were a professional army.
17	I feel that money is the only thing that I can really count on.
18	I support military actions against violations of human rights in non-democratic countries even if this leads to cuts in the social budget of my own country.
19	I would like to try parachute jumping.
20	Turkey is the best country in the world.
21	Money can buy everything.
22	I wish NATO would intervene in all countries in which human rights are violated.
23	How likely is it that you will be serving in an all-volunteer force in the next few years if there is a transformation into AVF?

Bu çalışmanın amacı, zorunlu askerlik sisteminden profesyonel orduya geçiş olması durumunda, silahlı kuvvetlere katılım için hangi faktörlerin etkili olduğunu araştırmaktır. Ankete katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır ve yaklaşık 10 dakika sürmektedir. Katılımcılar, herhangi bir sorudan rahatsız olduklarında anketi doldurmayı bırakabilirler. Bu anket hiçbir kişisel bilgi gerektirmemektedir ve sonuçlar yüksek lisans tezi için kullanılacaktır.

Yaş:

Aylık Gelir:

Askerlik Durumu:

Eğitim Seviyesi:

Ailede muvazzaf asker durumu:

Talimatlar: Bu anket, genç insanların profesyonel asker olmaları için hangi faktörlerin etkili olduğunu anlamayı amaçlamaktadır. Lütfen cevaplarınızı derecelendirin ve kutuları işaretleyin.

1 = Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum

4 = Kısmen Katılıyorum

2 = Kısmen Katılmıyorum

5 = Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

3 = Kararsızım

Yaş, sosyo-ekonomik durum ve katılımcılar askerlik durumu ankete dahil edilmiştir.

1	Dalgıçlık yapmak isterdim.
2	Bence Türkiye'de yaşayan insanlar, dünyanın en iyi insanlarıdır.
3	Para kazanmamak için harcanan zaman, boşa geçirilmiş zamandır.
4	İnsan hakları ihlallerini durdurmak için askeri yöntemler kullanmak, insani müdahalenin bir işaretidir.
5	Denizde sörf yapmak isterdim.
6	Profesyonel orduya katılma ihtimalim...
7	Barışı savaşız sağlama fikri gerçekçi değildir. Dünyanın bazı yerlerinde, insan haklarını temin etmek için askeri yöntemler kullanmak gereklidir.
8	Para kazanmak hayatımdaki en önemli önceliklerdir.
9	Su kayağı dersleri almak isterdim.
10	Başka bir ülkeye kesinlikle yerleşmem.
11	Önem verdiğim insanların çoğu, profesyonel orduya katılma fikrimi destekler.
12	Birkaç ay savaşa gitmek, insan haklarının süresiz ihlal edilmesini kabul etmekten daha iyidir.
13	Para kesinlikle her türlü problemi çözer.
14	Türkiye bayrağı, dünyadaki en iyi bayraktır.
15	Uçak kullanmayı öğrenmek isterdim.
16	Profesyonel ordu olursa katılacağımdan eminim.
17	Paranın, gerçekten güvenebileceğim tek şey olduğunu hissediyorum.
18	Demokratik olmayan ülkelerdeki insan hakları ihlallerine karşı, ülkemizin bütçesine yük olsa da askeri müdahaleyi destekliyorum.
19	Paraşütle atlamak isterdim.
20	Türkiye, dünyadaki en iyi ülkedir.
21	Para her şeyi satın alabilir.
22	Keşke NATO, insan hakları ihlallerinin olduğu bütün ülkelere müdahale etse.
23	Eğer profesyonel orduya geçiş olursa, önümüzdeki yıllarda orduya katılma ihtimalim...

24	Profesyonel orduya erbaş olarak katılırsam, aylık alacağım tahmini ücret şu olmalıdır: a. 2000 TL ve daha az b. 2500 TL-3000 TL c. 2000-2500 TL d. 3000 TL ve daha fazla
25	Profesyonel orduya geçiş olursa, orduya katılmaya niyetliyim.
26	Profesyonel orduya geçiş olursa, şu sebeplerden dolayı orduya katıldım: (Cevabınızı aşağıya yazınız)

Vatanseverlik: Madde 2, 10, 14 ve 20

Maceraperestlik: Madde 1, 5, 9, 15 ve 19

Para: Madde 3, 8, 13, 17 ve 21

Politik Durum: Madde 4, 7, 12, 18 ve 22

Katılım Niyeti: Madde 6, 11, 16, 23 ve 25

Yardıminız için teşekkür ederim.

REFERENCES

- Akyurek, S. (2010). Zorunlu Askerlik ve Profesyonel Ordu. BILGESAM, 2010, Rapor No:24.
- Achatz, M., & Ruiz, M. (2001). Attitudes on enlistment: Interviews with new recruits. *Arlington, VA: Defense Manpower Data Center*
- Arnett, J. J. (1996). Sensation seeking, aggressiveness, and adolescent reckless behavior. *Personality and individual differences, 20*(6), 693-702.
- Bachman, G.J., Segal, R.D., Doan, F.P., & O'Malley, M.P. (2000). Who Chooses Military Service? Correlates of Propensity and Enlistment in the U.S. Armed Forces. *Military Psychology, 12*(1), 1-30.
- Bachman, G.J., Sigelman, L., & Diamond, G. (1987). Self-Selection, Socialization, And Distinctive Military Values: Attitudes of High School Seniors. *Armed Forces & Society, Vol.13 No.2*, 169-187.
- Bartling, C.A., & Eisenman, R. (1992). Attitudes of American Youth concerning military and civilian jobs. *Adolescence, 27*(106), 407-412.
- Caldwell, L. L., Smith, E. A., & Weissinger, E. (1992). The relationship of leisure activities and perceived health of college students. *Loisir et Société/Society and Leisure, 15*(2), 545-556.
- Davidov, E. (2009). Measurement Equivalence of .nationalism and Constructive Patriotism in the ISSP: 34 Countries in a Comparative Perspective. *Political Analysis, 17*:64-82.
- DeLamater, J., & Katz, D. Kelman. HC (1969). On the nature of national involvement: A preliminary study. *Journal of Conflict Resolution, 13*, 320-357.
- Duckitt, J., & Fisher, K. (2003). The impact of social threat on worldview and ideological attitudes. *Political Psychology, 24*(1), 199-222.
- Elder, C. D., & Cobb, R. W. (1983). *The political uses of symbols* (pp. 18-20). New York: Longman.
- Fetchenhauer, D., & Bierhoff, H. W. (2004). Attitudes toward a military enforcement of human rights. *Social Justice Research, 17*(1), 75-92.
- Ford, P., & Blanchard, J. (1993). *Leadership and administration of outdoor pursuits* (No. Ed. 2). Venture Publishing Inc.

- Ford, M. T., Gibson, J. L., DeCesare, A. L., Marsh, S. M., & Griepentrog, B. K. (2013). Pre-entry expectations, attitudes, and intentions to join predict military tenure. *Military Psychology, 25*(1), 36.
- Franke, C.V. (1997). Warriors for Peace: The Next Generation of U.S. Military Leaders. *Armed Forces & Society, Vol.24, No.1, 33-57.*
- Grube, J. W., Mayton, D. M., & Ball-Rokeach, S. J. (1994). Inducing Change in Values, Attitudes, and Behaviors: Belief System Theory and the Method of Value Self-Confrontation. *Journal of Social Issues, 50*(4), 153-173.
- Herek, G. M. (1986). The instrumentality of attitudes: Toward a neo-functional theory. *Journal of Social Issues, 42*(2), 99-114.
- Huddy, L., & Khatib, N. (2007). American patriotism, national identity, and political involvement. *American Journal of Political Science, 51*(1), 63-77.
- Isıkci, E. (2002). Professional Army System: A Diagnosis of the Perceptions (*Doctoral dissertation, Bilkent University*).
- Kilburn, M. R., & Klerman, J. A. (1999). Enlistment Decisions in the 1990s. *Rand Corporation*.
- Kosterman, R., & Feshbach, S. (1989). Toward a Measure of Patriotic and Nationalistic Attitudes. *Political Psychology, Vol.10, No.2*
- Lajewski, M.W., Liman, P.J., Swan, G.K., & Staton, M.S. (1997). Don't know, Don't Care: Medical Students' Knowledge of and Attitudes toward Military Medical Career Opportunities and Medical Educational Cost Reimbursements. *Military Medicine, 162, 12:812.*
- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress. Appraisal and Coping, New York.*
- Lim, V. K., & Teo, T. S. (1997). Sex, money and financial hardship: An empirical study of attitudes towards money among undergraduates in Singapore. *journal of Economic Psychology, 18*(4), 369-386.
- Maijo, G. R., & Olson, J. M. (2000). Emergent themes and potential approaches to attitude function: The function-structure model of attitudes. *Why we evaluate: Functions of attitudes, 417-442.*
- Mendes, W. B., Blascovich, J., Major, B., & Seery, M. (2001). Challenge and threat responses during downward and upward social comparisons. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 31*(5), 477-497.

- Parker, S.C. (2009). Symbolic versus Blind Patriotism, Distinction without difference? *Political Research Quarterly*, 10.1177/106591290827228
- Prentice, R. C., Witt, S. F., & Hamer, C. (1998). Tourism as experience: The case of heritage parks. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(1), 1-24.
- Ross, T. W. (1994). Raising an army: A positive theory of military recruitment. *JL & Econ.*, 37, 109.
- Sanders, L. M. (1997). Against deliberation. *Political theory*, 347-376.
- Schatz, R. T., Staub, E., & Lavine, H. (1999). On the varieties of national attachment: Blind versus constructive patriotism. *Political Psychology*, 20(1), 151-174.
- Schatz, R. T., & Staub, E. (1997). Manifestations of blind and constructive patriotism: Personality correlates and individual–group relations.
- Sullivan, J. L., Fried, A., & Dietz, M. G. (1992). Patriotism, politics, and the presidential election of 1988. *American Journal of Political Science*, 200-234.
- Zuckerman, M. (1971). Dimensions of Sensation Seeking. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, Vol.36, No.1, 45-52.
- Zuckerman, M. (1979). *Sensation seeking*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc..

Table 1. Means and Standard Deviations for Demographics

	<i>Variable</i>	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Max.</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1	Age	18	24	20.3	1.68
2	Income	0	4500	1074.7	796.8
3	Education	1.0	4.0	2.65	.73
4	Service	1.0	2.0	1.58	.49
5	Family Member	1.0	4.0	3.89	.50

Note: Sample size (N) = 91; *Education* coded as 1: Elementary school graduation, 2: Middle school graduation, 3: High school graduation, 4: College graduation, 5: Graduate school; *Family member* coded as 1: Officer, 2: Non-commissioned officer, 3: Contracted sergeant, 4: None; *Service* coded as 1: Not served in the military yet, 2: Already served in the military

Table 2. Means and Standard Deviations for Constructs

	<i>Variable</i>	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Max.</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1	Patriotism	1.25	5.0	3.95	.77
2	Sensation Seeking	1.0	5.0	3.7363	1.02
3	Compensation	1.0	4.80	2.07	.89
4	Political Situation	1.0	5.0	3.54	.80
5	Intentions	1.0	5.0	3.74	1.17

Table 3. Correlations between Demographics and Constructs

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Income</i>	<i>Education</i>	<i>Service</i>	<i>Family Member</i>
Patriotism	.015	.004	.146	-.074	.002
Sensation Seeking	-.085	-.108	.184	-.154	.133
Compensation	.303**	-.08	-.022	.382**	-.169
Political Situation	-.004	.064	.152	-.002	-.042
Intentions	-.281**	.015	.065	-.330**	.103

** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Note: Sample size (N) = 91; *Education* coded as 1: Elementary school graduation, 2: Middle school graduation, 3: High school graduation, 4: College graduation, 5: Graduate school; *Family member* coded as 1: Officer, 2: Non-commissioned officer, 3: Contracted sergeant, 4: None; *Service* coded as 1: Not served in the military yet, 2: Already served in the military.

Table 4. Correlations among Constructs

	<i>Variable</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
1	Patriotism	1	.328**	-.159	.406**	.253*
2	Sensation Seeking	-	1	-.058	.155	.328**
3	Compensation	-	-	1	-.172	-.317**
4	Political Situation	-	-	-	1	.328**
5	Intentions	-	-	-	-	1

* $p < .05$ (two-tailed). ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Sample size (N) = 91

Table 5. Multiple Regression Analyses: Effects of Patriotism, Sensation Seeking and Compensation on Intentions to Join the Military

<i>Variable</i>	<i>B (β)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>sig.</i>
Patriotism	.150	1.453	.150
Sensation Seeking	.263	2.611	.011
Compensation	-.266	-2.720	.008

$R^2 = .215$; Adjusted $R^2 = .188$ ($N = 91$)

Figure 1. Graph of the Full Model. In this model, patriotism, sensation seeking and value of money are used as independent variables. Use of force is the moderator of the model and Intentions is taken as the dependent variable of the model. Results display that independent variables explain 21.5% ($R^2 = .215$) of the dependent variable and use of force moderates the relationship between sensation seeking and intention.

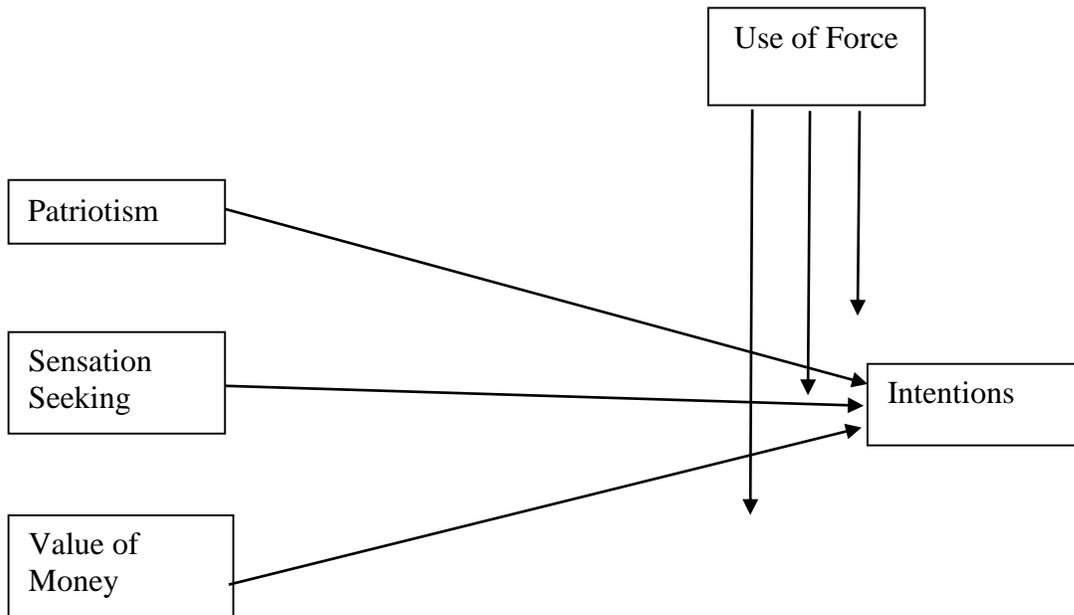


Figure 2. Interaction of Patriotism and Intentions to Join the Military. This figure illustrates the relationship between patriotism and intentions to join the military depending on political situation. The results show that use of force does not moderate the relationship between patriotism and intentions [$F(3, 87) = 5.384, R^2 = .157, R^2 \text{ Change} = .026, p = .002$].

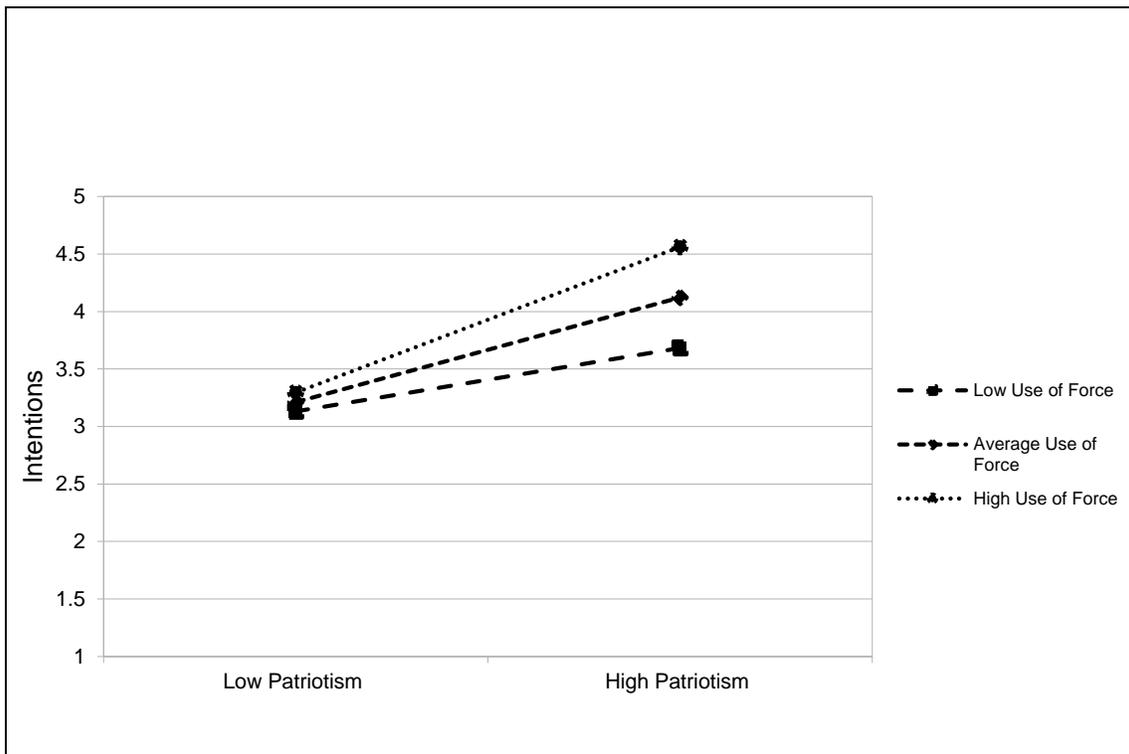


Figure 3. Interaction of Sensation Seeking and Intentions to Join the Military. This figure illustrates the relationship between sensation seeking and intentions to join the military depending on political situation. The results show that use of force moderates the relationship between sensation seeking and intentions significantly [$F(3, 87) = 9.456$, $R^2 = .246$, R^2 Change = .063, $p < .001$].

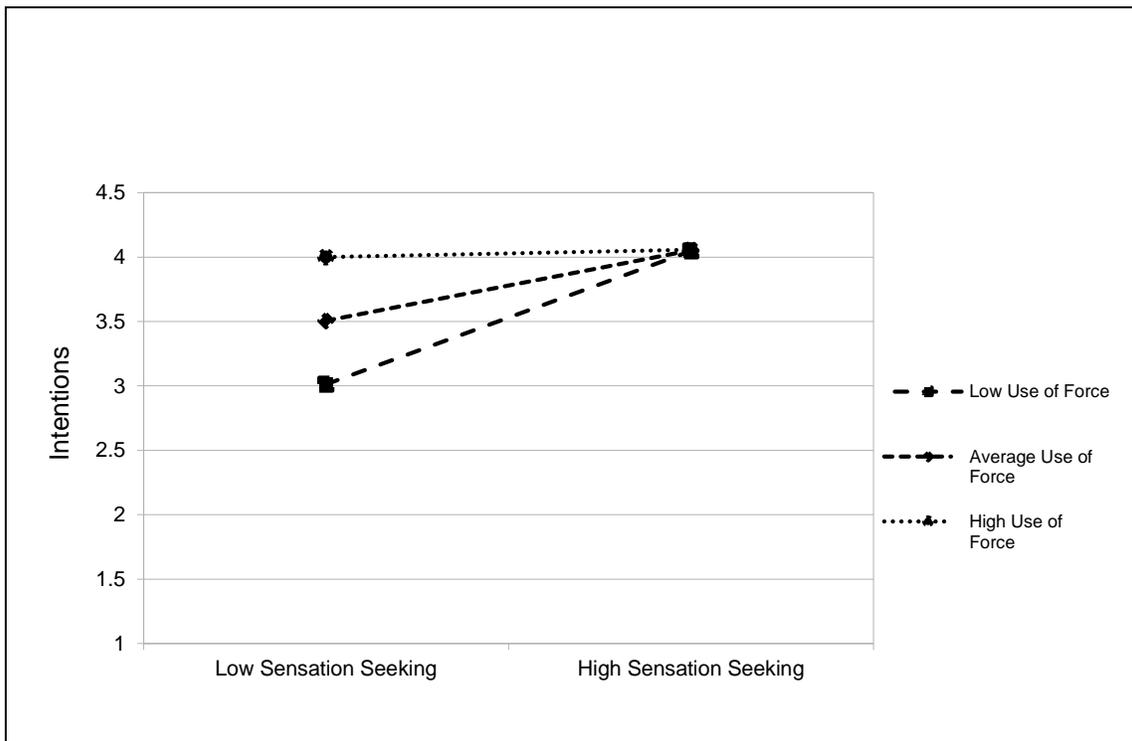


Figure 4. Interaction of Compensation and Intentions to Join the Military. This figure illustrates the relationship between compensation and intentions to join the military depending on political situation. The results show that use of force does not moderate the relationship between compensation and intentions [$F(3, 87) = 6.369, R^2 = .180, R^2 \text{ Change} = .006, p = .001$].

