

Szent István University

Doctoral School of Management and Business Administration

TURKISH HIGHER EDUCATION STUDENTS' CAREER ASPIRATIONS IN LIGHT OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCH IN HUNGARY

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DEDICATION

To my family

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ABBREVIATIONS

DMS: Devlet Memurluğu Sınavı (Government Public Servants' Exam)

DPB: Devlet Personel Başkanlığı (State Personnel Presidency)

EC: European Comission

EU: European Union

KMS: Kurumlar İçi Merkezi Eleme Sınavı (Central Exam of Public Organizations)

KSH (HCSO): Központi Statisztikai Hivatal (Hungarian Central Statistical Office)

KPSS: Kamu Personel Seçme Sınavı (Public Personal Selection Exam)

OECD: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

ÖSYM: Ölçme, Seçme ve Yerleştirme Başkanlığı (Measurement, Selection and Placement

Directorate)

TÜİK: Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu (Turkish Statistical Institute)

YÖK (CoHE): Yükseköğretim Kurulu (Council of Higher Education)

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background and problem of the research

The choice of job and career is obviously one of the most important decisions that people will make during their life and it is very important that the choice of profession is done consciously, in terms of individuals, society and future of the country. One of the most important problems in the developing countries is the increasingly prevalent problems in the occupational preferences of young people. Turkey is a developing country and it has a young population. In order to use this young population effectively, it is necessary for the students to know the factors that affect future career/career orientations and offer solutions.

Career choices are affected by social and economic factors. One of the factors is unemployment, for the issue of employability puts pressure on students' career preferences. SEVER and İĞDELİ (2018) said that one of the reasons for youth unemployment is *the implementation mistakes or inadequacies in education* (p.78) in Turkey because there is not a link between labor market and higher education system. Therefore, graduate students, when they try to enter the labor market, face many obstacles (ÇONDUR & BÖLÜKBAŞ, 2014; DEMİR & TAŞKIRAN, 2018; GÜNEY, 2009; YÖK, 2007).

In Turkey, the number of university and graduates is increasing (It is going to be explained in *Literature Review* in detail), hence it is natural that college graduates are concerned about their careers or future. Some studies were conducted in Turkey that various university youths are carrying "future anxiety" (ÇOBAN & KARAMAN, 2013; DURSUN & AYTAÇ, 2009; KULA &SARAÇ, 2016). It can be said that a very high level of the competitive environment is waiting for university students.

On the other hand, the issue of employability and competition is inevitable. In the labor market different qualifications are expected from the students who are competitors to each other. Some studies show that students who are studying abroad have different outcomes compared to those who are not. (BENHKE, SEO, & MILLER, 2014; MCKEOWN, 2009; MILLS, DEVINEY, & BALL, 2010; MOHAJERI NORRIS & GILLESPIE, 2009; WYNEEN, KYLE, & TARRANT, 2012).

McKeown (2009) starts his book with a question: "What are the benefits of studying abroad?"(p.1). According to Bakalis & Joiner (2004), studying abroad has multiple advantages, including personal development, maturity, and self-confidence, networking, employment opportunities, etc.. Study abroad also provides job diversity after graduation (AKKUTAY, 2017). Consequently, the importance of comparing the students studying abroad to those who are not studying abroad is great.

While a great number of Turkish students are engaged in higher education in Hungary, it is important to be able to indicate their educational, academic, language and cultural development and explore the differences in the effects on their careers compared to those studying in Turkey.

1.2. Scope and objectives of research

This research aims to show the impact of studying abroad to Turkish students and the effects of how it affects their career aspirations during their university studies in Hungary. In the research to make the results more significant, Turkish students, in higher education in Turkey and Hungary will be compared. In recent years, education abroad has become a phenomenal importance. For instance, due to the Erasmus program, in Turkey, Turkish students in higher education may have a chance at least 3 months' abroad (EC, 2019).

On the one hand, many Turkish students have enrolled as a full-time student in the higher education of various countries worldwide. One of these countries is Hungary. Many reasons can be found for the choice of Hungary by the Turks. They opt for Hungary as it is physically close to Turkey or at least closer than Austria or Germany where there are even larger Turkish speaking student populations. On the other hand, another argument usually quoted by Turkish student in Hungary is also linked to closeness, but this time they do not mean it physically but socially and culturally. The financial background of studying abroad is clearly important. Most Turks cannot afford a several years' long study in the West. Therefore, the Turkish students studying in Hungary value the program called Stipendium Hungaricum proposed by the Hungarian government. This program has influenced the increasing number of Turkish students in Hungary (TPF, 2018).

By years, the number of Turkish students has increased in Hungary. With the increase the career development and preferences of these students have gained importance. Therefore, this research may have a significant sign to evaluate the change of Turkish students during their studies in abroad and inland.

1.3. Research questions

These research questions mainly are based on literature reviews. And, increasing the number of Turkish graduated students and incoming freshmen in Turkey over the years, there are various questions about how they perceive their studies and future career and how they are employed in the future. These challenges are questioned by the government and people in Turkey. In literature, it will be referred to the increase in the number of university graduates in Turkey. Hence, it makes a problem in the labor market for students. Many Turks study abroad as well. Therefore, studying abroad and domestically should be compared. The research questions are as follows.

- 1. Are Turkish students who have been studying abroad more career-oriented than their counterparts who have done their studies at home?
- 2. Are Turkish students who have taken classes in another country more interculturally sensitive / global-minded than their fellows who have remained in Turkey?
- 3. Are Turkish young people who have attended an academic course outland have developed their foreign language competences to a greater extent than the ones who have had not the chance to go to a foreign country to do so?
- 4. Have the Turkish youth who have gone to university outside Turkey made more educational /academic development than their colleagues who have not?
- 5. Are there career aspiration differences between the Turkish students who have been taking education in a third country and their mates who have continued their studies in Turkey?

1.4. Research hypotheses

H1: Turkish students who have been studying in Hungary are more career-oriented than the Turkish students who have been doing their studies in their native country.

H2: Turkish young people who have been going to university in Hungary are more interculturally sensitive / global-minded than their fellows who have remained home.

H3: Turkish students who have been taking a BA, MA or PhD course in Hungary have made more foreign language development than the ones who opted for carrying on their studies in Turkey.

H4: Turkish youth who have enrolled in an academic course in Hungary have made more education /academic development than those who have not.

H5a: Turkish students who have been admitted to a university training in Hungary are more sufficient to work abroad than Turkish citizens graduated from a higher educational institution in Turkey.

H5b: There is an occupational difference between the Turkish students who have been studying in Hungary and those who have been studying in Turkey.

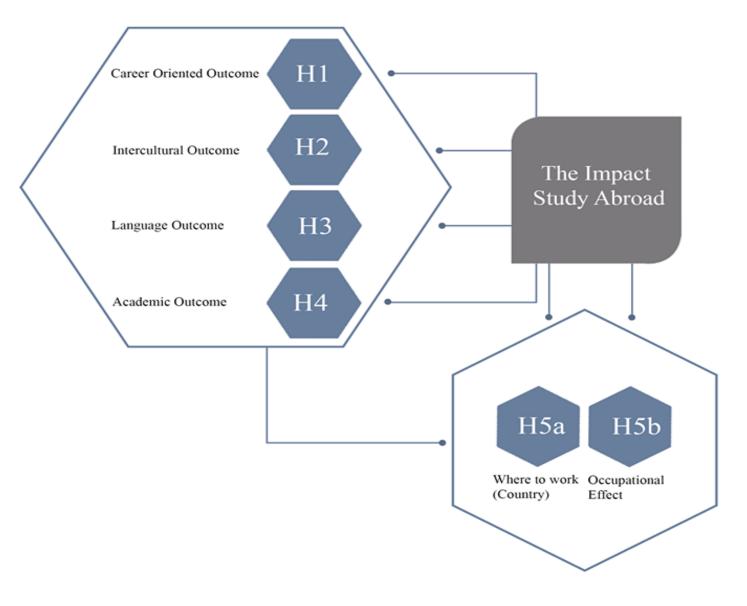


Figure 1. Research model

Source: author's own editing, 2018

1.5. Research design

This research is expressed in different phases.

Phase 1. This phase represents the background and problem of research, scope and objectives of the research, research questions and hypothesis.

Phase 2. Literature review consists of career concept, socio-economic factors, academic outcome, previous research study abroad and number of Turk who study abroad and in Hungary.

Phase 3. In this chapter, the method, limitations and analysis of the study are indicated.

Phase 4: In this part of the study, the findings are revealed, and hypotheses were tested.

Phase 5: In this chapter, conclusions and recommendations are indicated.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Concept of career

Career is a term of Latin and French origin, and it designates a way or an itinerary; it might also mean the quick movement of human beings, horses, falcons or heavenly creatures or the field where this motion takes place. The present-day meanings of the word started to develop around the beginning of the 19th century; it referred to the specific characteristics of Western societies. Nowadays, we use it in different fields, from different perspectives and different manners (GREENHAUS & CALLANAN, 2006).

Human beings differ in many ways. Therefore, personality traits are crucial in understanding powerful individual differences shaping human behavior (GREENHAUS & CALLANAN, 2006; TRICE & MCCLELLAN, 1993). The topic of career remains one of the most debated issues in the sphere of academic life. The reason for this is that career is closely related to the questions of the relationship between the human being and his or her job, as well as his or her performance. The scientific literature gives many explanations to the word of career. These definitions underline that career is not only the professional life or the choice of a line of work (ERYILMAZ & MUTLU, 2017). Career according to the literature Super (1980): A career is defined as the combination and sequence of roles played by a person during the course of a lifetime (p.282) and Greenhaus (2010) the pattern of work-related experiences that span the course of a person's life (p.10) has a very wide meaning. The rest of the literature accepts these definitions in general. Most experts describe career as a lifelong process (AUGER, BLACKHURST, & WAHL, 2005; TRICE & MCCLELLAN, 1993).

2.2. Career choice and progress

Planning a career is very difficult, every development in time has effects on individual career trends. The individual in his or her choice of a career takes into account various factors of his or her environment. The two main factors as far as University students are concerned are as follows: the socio-economic and the academic factors that would be presented under two different titles.

2.2.1. Socio-economic factors

University students are influenced by a number of factors while making decisions about their future. One can say that the social and economic structure of the country also intervenes. Of the general economic questions, the issue of unemployment, family and that of the working conditions have the most important impact.

2.2.1.1. Unemployment

Hall defined unemployment as follows. "A person is unemployed if he offers his labor at its market price but is unable to find a buyer" (Hall, 1970:371).

Ertürk presents the effects of unemployment on the unemployed as follows: (2004) "What is more difficult to realize? The fact that the value of your money is decreasing or the fact that you do not have money at all? The first situation is that of inflation, the second unemployment. Inflation means that you partially lose your capability of buying different items, unemployment means that you cannot buy anything" (p.331).

The most important reason for the existence of high unemployment in Turkey is the number of the economic crisis. Due to a special demographic situation in Turkey the unemployment rate among young people is high. The number of unemployed youths increases in every crisis.

Unemployment is a pressing issue also because many of the ones without a permanent job have to look after relatives (children, wife, parents) and have certain responsibilities within the frame of a traditional family, which lead them to a deep unease (ERTÜRK, 2004).

Table 1. Unemployment rate

	•••	••••	• • • • •	••••	•			•			
GEO/TIME	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Australia	4.38	4.23	5.56	5.21	5.08	5.22	5.66	6.08	6.06	5.71	5.60
Belgium	7.46	6.97	7.91	8.29	7.14	7.54	8.43	8.52	8.48	7.83	7.09
Canada	6.05	6.14	8.35	8.06	7.53	7.29	7.08	6.91	6.91	6.99	6.34
France	7.66	7.06	8.74	8.87	8.81	9.40	9.92	10.29	10.36	10.06	9.40
Germany	8.66	7.53	7.74	6.97	5.83	5.38	5.23	4.98	4.62	4.12	3.75
Greece	8.40	7.76	9.62	12.72	17.87	24.44	27.47	26.49	24.90	23.54	21.49
Israel	7.32	6.10	7.54	6.64	5.60	6.85	6.21	5.91	5.24	4.81	4.22
Hungary	7.41	7.82	10.03	11.17	11.03	11.01	10.19	7.73	6.82	5.12	4.16
Japan	3.84	3.99	5.07	5.05	4.58	4.35	4.03	3.59	3.38	3.12	2.81
Korea	3.26	3.17	3.63	3.71	3.41	3.23	3.10	3.49	3.59	3.67	3.68
New Zealand	3.58	4.03	5.83	6.15	5.95	6.40	5.75	5.38	5.35	5.10	4.70
Spain	8.23	11.2	17.86	19.86	21.39	24.79	26.09	24.44	22.06	19.63	17.22
Switzerland	-	-	-	4.81	4.41	4.48	4.75	4.83	4.80	4.92	4.80
Turkey	8.89	9.73	12.58	10.68	8.81	8.17	8.74	9.88	10.24	10.84	10.83

United Kingdom	5.26	5.61	7.54	7.79	8.04	7.89	7.53	6.11	5.30	4.81	4.34
United States	4.62	5.78	9.27	9.62	8.95	8.07	7.38	6.17	5.29	4.87	4.35
EU (28)	7.12	6.96	8.87	9.53	9.61	10.4	10.8	10.2	9.39	8.54	7.62

Source: OECD, 2018

In every country, unemployment is one of the most important problems in the economy (Table 1). It is foreseeable that it would also remain to be one of them. Even though it would stay, the workers develop different strategies to fight it back in their personal lives.

Youth unemployment is a crucial issue worldwide. Young people aged 15-24 constitute an important part of the labor market. As shown in Table 2, this age group mainly has employment difficulties in the qualified labor category (ÇONDUR & BÖLÜKBAŞ, 2014).

Table 2. Unemployment in the 15-24 age group related to the level of education (%)

Year	illiterate	Literate but no formal education	Primary school, first 4 classes	Primary school, 8 classes or matching the vocation al school	General secondar y school	Vocational secondary school	College or university	
2000	5	11	8,3	13,7	20,6	20,8	28,3	10,3
2001	8,7	14,6	10,6	17,7	24	25,5	30,7	9,6
2002	11,5	15,7	12,4	20,7	26,8	28	38,3	10,7
2003	18,1	30,2	15,3	19,7	25,9	23,8	38,8	11,4
2004	9,6	13	13,4	19,6	26,6	29,3	39,8	13,3
2005	11,3	16,3	14,1	19,2	25,3	25,6	30,5	14,5
2006	12,5	15,3	14,7	17,9	25,2	21,1	27,2	15,2
2007	16,7	17,3	14,7	19,3	23,5	22,6	28,5	16,8
2008	11	19,8	14,3	18,7	25	20,8	29,8	17,9
2009	19,5	23	17,9	21,6	30,6	27,6	33,2	22,4
2010	16,4	18,4	14,9	10,9	27,2	23,1	32,5	18,4
2011	11,2	15,1	11,2	14,1	22,4	21,2	30	14,5
2012	9	14,8	2,5	0	19,8	19,1	28,5	14,1
2013	10,3	15,5	10,9	15,1	21,9	18,6	29,2	15,5
2014	12,1	15	16	13,1	20,4	19,3	28,3	14,8
2015	7,9	14,1	16,3	14	22,2	18,1	29,5	15,6
2016	13,4	15	16,5	14,1	22,8	21	30,8	15,8

2017 12,1 16,1 14,1 13,8 24,4	21,8 34,4 16,2
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Source: TUIK, 2018b

In a study conducted on university students (MAZUMDAR et al., 2012), the study shows that future concerns proved to be the main source of stress for students. In Turkey, many students choose a study area for reducing unemployment risk because they are afraid of the challenges of finding proper jobs later (SARIKAYA & KHORSID, 2009). Therefore, it may be concluded that students are concerned about unemployment even before they commence their university education.

The highest unemployment rate between the years 2000 and 2017 are among those who have had a university education (see Table 2). According to previous studies (ŞAHIN & FIRAT, 2009; TURGUT, GÖKYÜREK, & YENEL, 2015) many university students experience fear of unemployment, however, according to the research of DURSUN and AYTAÇ (2009) and Mallinckrodt *et al.* (1989) the fear of unemployment is greater in female university students than in male university students. In a recent survey, KULA and SARAÇ (2016) indicated that female students are more fearful concerning the future than male students. The data of the Turkish Bureau of Statistics (TUIK) on youth unemployment also support this idea, unemployment among female professionals being 41.2% compared to 25.4% among males (see Table 3).

Table 3. Unemployment in the 15-24 age group and tertiary educational attainment related to Gender (%)

		2014	23,2
		2015	21,5
Unemployment	(15-24) Men	2016	25,2
Rate (%)		2017	25,4
		2014	33,1
		2015	35,9
	(15-24) Women	2016	35,4
		2017	41,2

Source: TUIK, 2018a

Although the admittance process between the European Union and Turkey seems to be drawn out, neither of the parties has given up on membership issues yet. In recent years, Turkey with its developing economy has always shown higher unemployment rates than that of the EU, as seen in Figure 2, which constitutes a negative situation for the country.

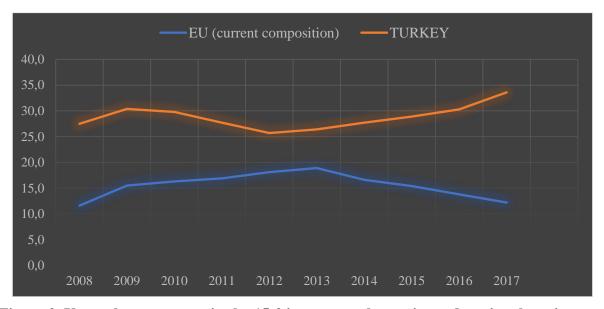


Figure 2. Unemployment rates in the 15-24 age group by tertiary educational attainment,

Turkey-European union by years

Source: EUROSTAT, 2018b

2.2.1.2. Working conditions

What is the importance of work? LOSCOCCO and SPITZE (1990) said that 'work is a major life role with the potential to affect fundamental aspects personality' (p.313). With the development of technology, the physical weight of the work has decreased. Therefore, the importance of psychological factors of work has raised (LOSCOCCO & SPITZE, 1990). In Turkey on many occasions, companies do not care about the health of their workers. A good example of that is the events that happened in the Tuzla Shipyard in 2008 that lead to the loss of human lives. It is interesting to examine how the irresponsible behavior of the management can be blamed for the accident (ARSLAN & DURUKANOĞLU, 2009). The head of the Naval Trade Chamber (Deniz Ticaret Odası, DTO) said "we are not producing iron, we are not producing textile, we produce ships. The workers have to bear in mind that they can die while working." as if death was a natural thing.

It does not comply with the legal regulations on working time in Turkey. Overworking in Turkey, which is taking place in the current labor market is one of the problems (KUZGUN & AYDIN, 2009).

Table 4. Average usual weekly hours worked on the main job

GEO/TIME	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Switzerland	42,3	42,4	42,3	42,2	42,1	42,0	41,9	41,8	41,7	41,6	41,6	41,5
Turkey	<u>55,1</u>	<u>53,9</u>	<u>53,5</u>	<u>53,2</u>	<u>53,2</u>	<u>52,9</u>	<u>52,4</u>	<u>52,0</u>	<u>51,2</u>	<u>50,7</u>	<u>49,8</u>	<u>49,4</u>
<u>Hungary</u>	<u>41,0</u>	<u>40,9</u>	<u>40,8</u>	<u>40,7</u>	<u>40,6</u>	<u>40,6</u>	<u>40,5</u>	<u>40,6</u>	<u>40,7</u>	<u>40,8</u>	<u>40,6</u>	<u>40,6</u>
United Kingdom	42,9	42,9	42,8	42,6	42,6	42,6	42,6	42,7	42,7	42,7	42,6	42,4
OECD countries	42,2	42,0	41,9	41,8	41,8	41,8	41,8	41,6	41,6	41,6	41,5	41,2
European Union 22	41,8	41,7	41,6	41,5	41,5	41,4	41,4	41,3	41,3	41,2	41,1	41,0
European Union 16	41,6	41,5	41,5	41,4	41,4	41,3	41,3	41,2	41,2	41,1	41,0	40,9
European Union 28	41,7	41,7	41,6	41,5	41,5	41,4	41,4	41,3	41,3	41,2	41,1	41,0
Europe	43,1	42,9	42,8	42,7	42,7	42,7	42,7	42,6	42,5	42,4	42,2	41,7
G7 countries	39,1	39,0	39,0	38,8	38,7	38,7	38,7	38,6	38,7	38,6	38,6	38,6

Source: OECD, 2018a

In the 4rd table, one can see that Turkey is one among the 36 OECD ¹ member states where the working hours are the longest in the 2006-2017 period. On the other hand, labor laws are not properly applied to the labor market in Turkey. In fact, workers are forced to accept all the conditions imposed by their bosses in order to keep their job. OECD better life index result shows that Turkey is the worst country when it comes to work-life balance topics. This report also indicates that *34% of employees work very long hours in Turkey*. This is the highest rate in the OECD (OECD, 2018c).

There is a positive relationship between happiness and income (CLARK, FRIJTERS, & SHIEDELS, 2008). Therefore, the wage is an essential factor in ensuring job satisfaction. In addition, the results of the studies are meaningful when the wages of the employees are compared with the other people

¹ On 14 December 1960, 20 countries originally signed the Convention on the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). Since then, 16 countries have become members of the Organisation (OECD, 2018b)

(AŞAN & ERENELER, 2008). It is illustrated in Table 5 that Turkey, compared with other European countries after Bulgaria, has second the lowest minimum wages in 2018S2.

Table 5. Monthly minimum wages

GEO/TIME	2015S1	2015S2	2016S1	2016S2	2017S1	2017S2	2018S1	2018S2
Belgium	1.501,82	1.501,82	1.501,82	1.531,93	1.531,93	1.562,59	1.562,59	1.562,59
<u>Bulgaria</u>	<u>184,07</u>	<u>194,29</u>	<u>214,75</u>	<u>214,75</u>	<u>235,20</u>	235,20	<u> 260,76</u>	<u> 260,76</u>
Czech R.	331,71	340,35	366,35	364,90	407,09	419,90	477,78	468,87
Germany	1.440,00	1.440,00	1.440,00	1.440,00	1.498,00	1.498,00	1.498,00	1.498,00
Estonia	390,00	390,00	430,00	430,00	470,00	470,00	500,00	500,00
Ireland	1.461,85	1.461,85	1.546,35	1.546,35	1.563,25	1.563,25	1.613,95	1.613,95
Greece	683,76	683,76	683,76	683,76	683,76	683,76	683,76	683,76
Spain	756,70	756,70	764,40	764,40	825,65	825,65	858,55	858,55
France	1.457,52	1.457,52	1.466,62	1.466,62	1.480,27	1.480,27	1.498,47	1.498,47
Croatia	395,61	399,05	408,48	414,45	433,35	442,09	462,34	465,72
Latvia	360,00	360,00	370,00	370,00	380,00	380,00	430,00	430,00
Lithuania	300,00	325,00	350,00	380,00	380,00	380,00	400,00	400,00
Luxembourg	1.922,96	1.922,96	1.922,96	1.922,96	1.998,59	1.998,59	1.998,59	1.998,59
Hungary	332,76	340,58	351,29	350,09	411,52	412,66	444,69	418,47
Malta	720,46	720,46	728,04	728,04	735,63	735,63	747,54	747,54
Netherlands	1.501,80	1.507,80	1.524,60	1.537,20	1.551,60	1.565,40	1.578,00	1.594,20
Poland	409,53	422,35	433,88	417,02	453,48	473,27	502,75	480,20
Portugal	589,17	589,17	618,33	618,33	649,83	649,83	676,67	676,67
Romania	217,50	238,38	232,10	276,34	275,39	318,52	407,86	407,45
Slovenia	790,73	790,73	790,73	790,73	804,96	804,96	842,79	842,79
Slovakia	380,00	380,00	405,00	405,00	435,00	435,00	480,00	480,00
United Kingdom	1.378,87	1.525,35	1.512,36	1.443,44	1.393,40	1.413,58	1.400,99	1.463,80
Turkey	<u>424,26</u>	417,75	<u>518,50</u>	513,72	479,47	442,89	<u>446,40</u>	380,16
United States	1.035,06	1.145,86	1.154,28	1.131,93	1.192,17	1.101,18	1.047,83	1.077,94

Source: EUROSTAT, 2018a

2.2.1.3. Family

Providing the environment that shapes behavior and personal qualities form a young age, family plays an important part in everyone's relation to events emerging throughout their lives. The basic social factors influencing career choice are one's social environment, relationship with parents, the social and economic order of the family and the individual's place in it. The appreciation of occupations is different in each society. Some professions may be respected in a certain society but looked down on in others. Therefore, individuals are directed to opt for a profession which is accepted and appreciated in the social environment they live in. One of the important factors of career selection is the family (ÖZEN, 2011).

One of the most important decisions in life is to choose a profession that is accepted and appreciated in our society. According to studies, the most important factors influencing a young individual's career choice are existing knowledge, interest in the potential profession, individual values and the level of satisfaction originating from it. On the other side, along with the socio-economic state of young individuals, the influence of family and other factors, and the differences between certain countries and cultures may also influence carrier choices with young individuals (ŞENTÜRK & BURAN, 2015).

A study conducted by IŞIK (2013) among university students showed that approximately 19% of students thought that they could not opt for the profession they really desired due to the disagreement of their family, spouse, and environment, or economic difficulties.

The influence of the family on a career choice is manifested even before university education. In their study, BATUR and ADIGÜZEL (2014) pointed out that for most students at secondary schools specializing in sciences, career choice was influenced by their family.

There are also studies surveying students of different faculties in Turkey. ÖZDER (2014) in his survey made among prospective geography teachers draws attention to the influence of "the family factor" on these students' career choices. As for students of administrative faculties, YAYLA and CENGİZ (2005) found that in the choice of accounting studies, "the family factor" also had an important role. DURNA (2006) in a study carried out among undergraduate and graduate students found that the economic situation of graduate students was better than that of undergraduate students, and the stress level of the latter was also higher. Family income has also proven to be an important stress factor.

2.2.2. Academic life- increasing number of professionals

Education is a significant point in students' lives (VOSS & GRUBBER, 2006). Therefore, higher education plays an important role in the development of a country. They play an important role in the development of a qualified workforce and in general in improving the quality of life of a country (DEMİRTAŞ & ÇOBAN, 2014).

Investment of higher education increased in Turkey, during the period of the Justice and Development Party (AK Party) government. By the investments, the government established a university in every city of the country. Currently, every province of Turkey has one university at least. It can be seen the rise of higher education students in Figure 3. From 2000 to 2018 the number of higher education students rose continually. In 2000 almost 1.6 million students were enrolled the higher education in Turkey, while this number in 2018 is close to 7.6 million.

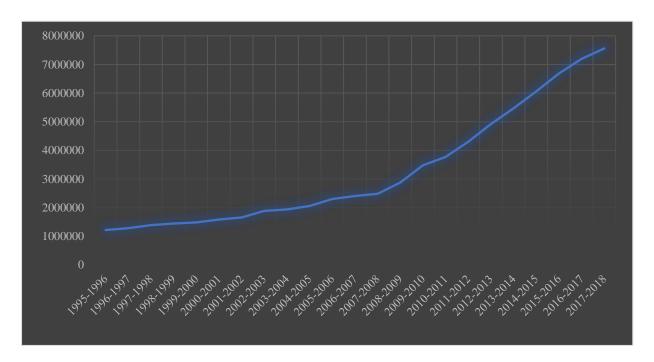


Figure 3. Number of university students in Turkey by years (1995-2018)

Source: YÖK, 2018b, Higher Education Data

In Turkey, it was taken a decision radically on 29th of August 2012 by the Council of Ministers. With this decision higher education has been free of charge at state universities (Official Newspaper, 2012). From this date, the increasing of higher education students has accelerated.

In Turkey, many studies carried out on effects of the pressure of a finding a job on higher education students (ÇELİKEL & ERKORKMAZ, 2008; TEKİN & FİLİZ, 2008; ÜSTÜN et al., 2014). A study showing the increasing number of students (IŞIK, 2013), has demonstrated that this increase undermines the future expectation of students. There are plenty of professionals; it affects people finding the right job. Hence, many students consider university as a waste of time.

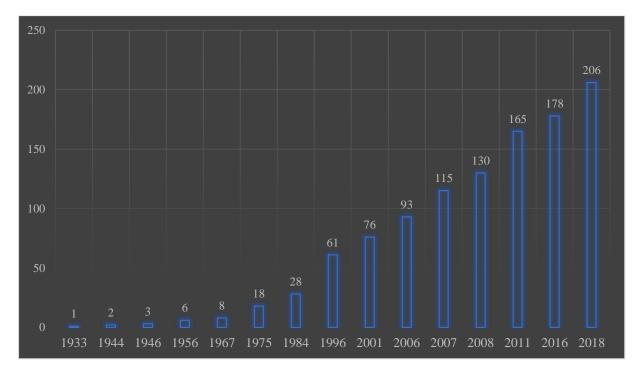


Figure 4. Number of universities in Turkey

Source: YÖK, 2018a, Higher Education Data

Figure 4 demonstrates the number of universities in Turkey. Since the establishment of the first University of Turkey in 1933, there has been a steady increase. By the end of 2018, the number of universities in Turkey increased to 206. In the era of the AK Party government in addition to state universities, the establishment of private universities is also supported. Since the establishment of the first foundation university, İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent Üniversitesi in 1984, by 2001 the number of foundation universities rose to 23. After the AK Party coming to government in 2002, the number of private universities increased, and by the end of 2018, it rose to 77.

Table 6. Students in tertiary education as % of total population (2013-2016)

GEO/TIME	2013	2014	2015	2016
Austria	4,93	4,93	4,93	4,93
Belgium	4,38	4,42	4,48	4,49
Bulgaria	3,91	3,92	3,89	3,74
France	3,55	3,61	3,64	3,71
Germany	3,45	3,60	3,65	3,70
Greece	6,01	6,22	6,38	6,58
Hungary	3,63	3,34	3,13	3,01
Iceland	5,90	6,08	-	5,54
Ireland	4,31	4,38	4,56	4,59

Italy	3,11	3,05	3,01	3,00
Netherlands	-	-	4,97	4,91
Slovenia	4,74	4,50	4,15	3,91
Spain	4,22	4,26	4,23	4,24
Sweden	4,55	4,43	4,37	4,29
Switzerland	3,46	3,54	3,56	3,52
<u>Turkey</u>	<u>6,53</u>	<u>7,09</u>	<u>7,75</u>	<u>8,44</u>
United Kingdom	3,72	3,64	3,58	3,64

Source: Author calculation, Eurostat, 2018

The ratio of the students to the total population of Turkey, EU, and other European countries is seen in Table 6. This table shows us that Turkey has a higher university students rate as of the total population compared to other EU or European countries. At first glance, it may be seen as a positive outcome as many countries desire higher educated people. On the other hand, with the increase of university graduates, it is made difficult for students to find a job in the labor market.

Regarding the changes in the educational system in Turkey, it can be established that there is a serious problem concerning the careers of university students. Therefore, steps must be taken to address the expectations of students after graduation. Investment in education has a lot of positive sides in Turkey. However, some unfavorable situations have also emerged. For instance, research carried out by (YÖK, 2007) has shown that the capacity of higher education exceeds the expectations of the labor market contributing to the high level of unemployment among professionals. Higher education institutes should re-evaluate their programs based on the requirements of the labor market.

2.3. The era of desire to be employed in the public sector

The economic changes taking place in the world and in Turkey, have led to changes in people's employment demand. Before 2000 government jobs were considerably less attractive in Turkey. after 2000, when the economic crisis occurred in Turkey public employment demands started to increase. One of the reasons for this is that the growing number of people have started to face the unemployment situation which made the formerly less desired public employment more alluring. In addition to employment security, there have also been reasons for the Turkish people choosing to work for the government. This part shows how the employment demand of Turkish people is changing. Some light will be shed on the reasons behind the related new labor market tendencies.

The economic fluctuations in the world and especially in Turkey have dramatically changed the demand regarding the workforce. Once it was not so popular to work in the public sector, the reason for this was the lower incomes and the stabilized average salaries in terms of earning money in the public fields. Therefore, employees were mostly willing to work in the private sector to earn more money.

Employees found themselves in a situation in which they intentionally retreated not to lose their current job because of the competition, the diminishing number of companies, stabilization of salaries, shrinking of the fields of demand and the economic crisis. There are several triggering reasons why people are willing to work in the public sector today.

The Turkish legislation clearly shows in the 49th amendment of the constitution that the employees are supported by the government itself in order to prevent a high unemployment rate, to protect the workers and to improve the living standard of the people (D.49) According to the law, the government is under the obligation of providing a job to its citizens (TOKOL, 2001). The Turkish law explicitly says that the government has a responsibility to employ its citizens as much as it can in leading industrial and socio-political enterprises.

It is said that humans do their best when the attitude is defined in terms of the capacity of people. This means that there are desires and opportunities. Desires always define the best thing for a person. On the other hand, opportunities are the methods and choices of people which are genuinely made by them (ELSTER, 2007). Nowadays, one can say that one of the best work options is a post in the public sector. The significance of this is already depicted in the applications for the KPSS civil servant exams. As can be seen in Table 7, the number of people willing to pass this exam has increased showing a growing interest.

There are a dozen good reasons why people in Turkey really want to work in the public sector. Some of them are as follows; lower chance to get a job in the private sector due to the augmentation of the competition, lower salary positions, the ambiguity of working conditions in the private sector, growing unemployment rates caused by the crisis. It will be explained in detail below what the main reasons are that people are indeed willing to work in the public sector.

The process of hiring employees

The main reason of running a business lies in making profit by it. The highest is the profit if the production costs are low and the quality of the product is superior to the average (AKAT, 2009). Moreover, public organizations are launched in order to serve a larger community. Those institutions

are unified by the government that aims at a principle of social pragmatism and serving to community (SABUNCUOĞLU, 2010)

In the process of hiring workers in the private sector, personal details of applicants, his or her CV, field experiences are the most important as much as the successes once has done in order to accelerate the process (BARUTÇUGİL, 2004). On the other hand, the main principle of hiring workers in a public business is to provide the equality for the applicants (BULUTOĞLU, 2004)

The government of Turkey, during the first years of the republic, has installed a new workforce hiring system based on the amendments of the 1924 law system. Yet it was implemented in 1926. In the law system of 1926, according to the announcement of 93rd notification; the qualification, rights, duties, promotions and the salaries of the clerks are considered according to the regulations. In 1926, a new amendment was announced which is considered to care about the clerk rights (GÜLER, 2005)

Clerks are selected by the public organizations according to the 788 civil servants' law. The law also details the qualities a future employee must possess. That means that a clerk is supposed to have completed his or her secondary education. If there is not a convenient person from among the ones holding a secondary school diploma, it is permitted to hire someone without a proper degree. This system was fully implemented solely in 1939. In 1939, a new law came out on "Civil servants and their monthly incomes" which has regulated the organization of exams (ADAL, 1968). For many years, in Turkey, a system of institutional exams was used, but for the first time in history, in 1965, according to law 657 a mixed system was introduced. This law was modified in 1984.

The new exam system was proposed by the newly formed State Personal Directorate. This new system was a forerunner of the coming centralized system which came into existence in 1999 only (GÜLER, 2005).

To make it moresimple to be a public servant in 1999 DMS or Devlet Memurluğu Sınavı (Government Public Servants' Exam) has been launched. This centralized exam was renamed later on, the appellation Central Exam of Public Organizations or Kurumlar İçi Merkezi Eleme Sınavı (KMS) was used in 2001 and the Public Personal Selection Exam or Kamu Personel Seçme Sınavı (KPSS) since 2002.

Table 7. Applicants trying the KPSS according to their degrees 2004-2018

Years	High School	Associate Degree	Undergraduate	Total
2004	1.092.479	246.434	392.846	1.731.759
2006	1.379.211	283.554	456.804	2.119.569
2008	1.483.767	373.922	550.690	2.408.379
2010	1.812.103	606.663	835.320	3.254.086
2012	1.877.684	695.175	931.307	3.504.166
2014	1.683.696	779.314	1.128.032	3.591.042
2016	3.294.958	1.280.111	1.231.479	5.806.548
2018	1.024.001	749.396	1.175.027	2.948.424

Source: DPB, 2019

Guaranteed workplace - Continuous earnings

A guaranteed workplace means that the employee can be sure of being employed in a long run (GÖK, 2006).

A civil servant has to be punished or commit a serious crime in order to lose his or her post. If this does not happen, he or she has a guaranteed place until the day of his or her retirement from work. There is not a way to fire someone because of him or her being judged incapable (AYGUN, 2010).

This cannot be said about a private company. In the private sector, it is a must for an employee to progress and the person concerned can lose his or her job for various reasons.

The legal basis regarding the civil servants' law 657 drafted in 1965 empowers the employees in five ways. These are the protections against the changing nature of the government, the status, of the employee, the permanence of the job and workplace and the fact that the civil servant is protected by the law in case of a legal procedure by a third party (GÜLER, 2005).

Nowadays, the number of employee losing their job is increasing. This means that the fear of losing his or her job is increasing, too. In many sectors, there is a clear uncertainty concerning the continuous nature of the workplaces (SEÇER, 2009).

A civil servant can lose his or her job only in the cases defined by the law (KAYAR, 2011). In reality, those working in the public sector lose their job if they commit a serious crime. This also means that their position is maintained even at the times of economic crises in the country. We can find this motive

in the answers given by those opting for the public sphere: "I am afraid of losing my job" or "I fear that I might be fired" (SEÇER, 2009).

The examples shown above clearly demonstrate that the public sector is not only attractive for the unemployed, but also for those working somewhere else.

The big economic changes might make the work force restless, this is why everywhere in the world people fear to lose their job, especially in times of crises whereas a permanent income is necessary for a decent life.

Unemployment and Working conditions

Explained above (see 2.2.1.1 and 2.2.1.2)

Social status

Social status is understood as the rights and responsibilities of a group of people as well as their position or rank according to other groups (DODGE, 1983; STRODTBECK, JAMES, & HAWKINS, 1957)

Everyone has a certain social status. Everyone has a certain situation within the society he lives in as societies are not composed in a random manner. Societies are organized on the basis of the elements constituting it (FICHTER, 2009).

Social status explains the prestige and the values of the individual for the rest of his or her society. If his or her role to be played within the frame of the given society is important, he or she holds there a high social status (DODGE, 1983; STRODTBECK, JAMES, & HAWKINS, 1957; YOZGAT, 1997).

In general, the position of a civil servant is considered as a high social status. Societies show respect towards the ones working in the public sector as they think that such a job is pleasant and fits the desires of a worker.

Leave

There is a certain difference between the number of the days of leave and vacations in the public and the private sectors. According to the law n. 657 the government guarantees the following amount of days to the civil servants: during the first ten years of work 20 days, after that 30 days. A maximum of 2 days can be added to this for those commuting between their workplaces and homes. According to the law n. 4857 those working in the private sector have the right to 14 days during the first five years, five and fifteen years of experience let you to spend 20 days away of your office, at least 15 years

spent working entitles you to get 26 days of leave. Considering this information, the civil servants have more vacations.

The civil servants can use their leaves easier than the ones working in the private sector. In the private sector, many companies force their employees to take unpaid leaves. This would be impossible in the public sector.

As a Career

Someone's career cannot be influenced by laws in the private sector. Every private enterprise has its own career scheme. The career of the civil servants is regulated by laws. In Turkey the Law on Civil Servants or Devlet Memurlari Kanunu (DMK) describes precisely what kind of degrees and deeds are necessary to advance in one's career, and this gives always the chance to the civil servant to improve and climb the corporate ladder (657 DMK,m.3).

In the present Turkish civil servant career system advancement is made step by step, meaning that the person has to serve a given time period (one year), to get the necessary stamps, this advancement can be called a gradual advancement. A civil servant can progress as well in a vertical way in the system, this also spells more responsibilities and work to do. According to the law n. 657 and its paragraph n. 68. a civil servant has to serve at least three years and to have all the necessary qualifications to be able to reach a high position (third level) (\$AYLAN, 2000)

This promotion is not open to everybody working in the public sector, only the civil servants and some similar subgroups have access to it. So, ordinary workers and those working on the basis of a contract cannot progress in the above-described manner (GÜLER, 2005).

2.4. Career choices made by university students studying abroad

2.4.1. Career development outcomes

Human beings in general and university students, in particular, make decisions concerning their future and career according to the conditions surrounding them. This process is termed as career management in the scientific literature and the elements composing the reality around the person deciding can be considered to be the facilitators of the procedure. If the question of choosing the right path is recognized as a personal problem, these factors are acknowledged as the solution selected during a mechanism comprised of data gathering, awareness of the environment, setting of goals and developing strategies (MULHALL, 2014). This process of making a choice is present throughout the entire life of an employee. As occupations vary in time and space, one should consider and reconsider the emerging opportunities several times during their studies and work. The early experts on the issue in

the 1950s believed that career development was proceeding that normally takes place during the first years of adulthood. This theory was later revised, and career development was recognized to be a lifelong activity of an employee (PATTON & MCMAHON, 2014).

Two different approaches can be used while examining the role of the factors mentioned above in the distinct moments of life. First, one should focus on the choices made by a student who did not yet enter the job market. Second, the individual who is already working at a given company and is seeking a certain evolution at that workplace.

As far as university students are concerned, career development means emphasizing three major fields, namely elements of knowledge, skills, and capabilities that should be fostered in order to plan a career based on informed choices. This model can be applied to both students studying abroad or in their respective home countries.

The above-mentioned approach composed of three major fields refers to a well-defined learning process proposed by the schools themselves and supervised by professors who are experts of the field. In some cases, this process is not restricted to the campus but is also supported by outside agents such as tertiary institutions, public providers, private education and work settings, and community organizations (RICE et al., 2015). Though the number of organizations advising students over their career development process might be high, the whole procedure cannot be effective unless there is personal support for the individual student that takes into account the amount of knowledge a student has, as well as his or her skills and capabilities. Not only career development experts have to understand this, but they are demanded to develop a profound self-awareness of the students concerning those information, skills and capabilities. Moreover, they should teach students how to assess the circumstances surrounding their choices (GETACHEW & DANIEL, 2016).

It is evident that skills and the capabilities of a university student can be developed, but certain factors of his or her environment remain the same. To propose a successful career development scheme to such a young person, the experts and the students themselves should tackle the questions of these given components such as the family that can support or oppose an idea, the learning and the technological environments as students at diverse points on Earth can access different information and in a different level of security (OZLEN & ARNAUT, 2013)

Problems in the environment of university students can be looked at as barriers that might stop them from pursuing the required career development scheme. The best way to overcome these difficulties is the right motivation of these young people. The necessary learning motivation required extra efforts in accordance with the degree of choices available. An effort in itself is not enough, it has to be

completed by a high level of commitment of achieving certain points from the point of view of the individual career. According to the scientific literature adults like university students can be motivated in six different ways. First, by putting them in a frame of social interactions in which they learn and socialize, or they learn through social relations. Second, appealing to the authority that requires students to make some efforts. Third, by making students understand the importance of studying in order to attain a certain degree of social welfare that cannot be reached unless being motivated. Fourth, by emphasizing professional advancement, proving that working and advancing is better than laying down and being lazy. Fifth, by confirming that education and career is an efficient mode of escaping boredom. Sixth, by making the learning process itself tempting to raise cognitive interest (CHU et al., 2007).

Studying abroad is a special learning experience that contains both instrumental or direct and associative or observational elements. For planning future careers, this first-hand observational learning experience is extremely preponderant as it might give a positive outlook concerning global systems of production and services (ORAHOOD, KRUSE, & PEARSON, 2004).

While examining the career development and career planning activities of university students, special attention should be paid to the ones studying abroad. For them, time is a relevant factor as their international mobility comes at a relatively early age and they only have a limited amount of time to be utilized in the best way to get the most outcome on the levels of academic, language and intercultural skills. Due to the fact that most students studying abroad are very young, this is the period to learn independence from the family, the friends and the supportive native environment and interdependence with an international scene of fellow students and professors (SHIMMI & OUCHI, 2013).

It is also important for students studying abroad to become international in the broader sense of the term. To fully utilize an international student mobility program, both higher education institutions and students are advised to propose and to participate in so-called unpacking programs. This can be a perfect tool to shape a career development plan and to learn how to network. Such a course can also be a good occasion for studying international business etiquette. Students should be accompanied to reflect on their situation and future in order to gain as much out of the study experience as possible (WEST, 2014).

Studying abroad can even considerably change previous career plans due to intensive human interaction with locals and the observation of the local methods and ways related to work and certain branches of the economy. One important thing that is often taught to students during an international exchange program is flexibility. Flexibility empowers and enables them to modify their ideas and direct

them toward a better career. Studies abroad also frequently push students to further continue their studies whether abroad or in their home country and persuade them not to take a job after graduation but to carry on with a scientific problem they were studying in a foreign country (SHIMMI & OUCHI, 2013).

It might also happen that students re-examine their original career plans after discovering different societal norms due to intercultural exchange with locals. One of the current forms of doing so is getting involved in volunteering and social entrepreneurship, especially in cases if a student moves from a country where this is unusual (SHIMMI & OUCHI, 2013).

As far as employees are concerned, and university students will be employees soon after their graduation and their university- level studies must prepare them for it, career development has a completely different meaning. These individuals are looking for a clearly set advancement scheme inside the enterprise where they work. Therefore, their options and opportunities have to be defined and well communicated by their employers. Employers are also required to propose adequate training, emphasize a harmonious employee-employer relationship, let a permanent evaluation process to accompany the whole development procedure and take into consideration the non-work demands of the employees (HEDGE & RINEER, 2017).

2.4.2. Academic outcome

The academic outcome of a study program -whether at home or in another country-depends on various factors and is mainly connected to the issue of the attachment of the student to the world of academia, the professors, the researchers, the faculties and the love for the research activities in general. The more a student is in comfort in the academic environment, the more the outcome is probable.

Closeness to a university program can be physical and emotional. If a student is housed during his or her studies abroad in a facility close to the campus and can establish a good relationship with the members of the faculty, he or she can more easily develop a preference toward that sphere and would like to remain in that environment. If the faculty provides extra services like field trips to examine a given scientific problem, the students can be further attached to the faculty and the scientific research (KEESE & O'BRIEN, 2011).

Closeness to university and academia in an ideal case produces an efficient social network. The students involved in social networking with fellow students, teachers and researchers are more stimulated by academic challenges than many other ordinary students of higher education.

Moreover, one should bear in mind that this networking also contributes to supporting self-development and intercultural awareness (FORSEY et al., 2012). By networking while studying abroad, students become more acquainted with the knowledge of different education systems including that of the country where their school is located and that of the respective nations represented by fellow students. Not only they start to know better the systems, but they also meet new learning styles and strategies. By seeing how others study and research, they start to better value the importance of the proper ways of academic work and its rigor (FORSEY et al., 2012)

Student mobility changes the nature of the research itself. During the last two decades, academic work –partially due to student mobility- evolved from a simple problem-solving activity to a more sophisticated multi-disciplinary and team-based form in which networks formed by former university mates have a key role to play. International groups of authors can do this way better tackle the real questions of a global world. This new form of co-operation means a collaborative advantage for the ones who participate and the general academia (BLUMENFIELD & NERAD, 2012).

Having said so, it is to be underlined that the rigor and the success in the field of academic research is a result of studying abroad and not a precondition to participating in such programs. Studies prove that students do to opt for such possibilities because they want to widen their knowledge on how to research but because they are already more open-minded, less ethnocentric and have less prejudice (DALY, 2011).

2.4.3. Language outcome

Language learning can be a target and a result at the same time of a study program abroad as certain students aim at learning a foreign idiom, others focus on interiorizing knowledge on a foreign language they already master.

As ignoring foreign languages can be an obstacle to the international mobility of the students of higher education, it can also become a barrier for a decent career in the future. Therefore, learning a second language is one of the main aspects of motivation for students to enroll in study programs abroad (DALY, 2011).

The need for employees having excellent language skills was generated in recent times by both private companies, government agencies, and non-profit organizations. The academic sphere responded to this demand by increasing the number of students sent to study abroad. There is through a basic contradiction between the demand and the supply as the workplaces require more and more people fluent in languages such as Chinese, Arabic or Russian that hardly study abroad as most students prefer to deepen their knowledge and skills in the popular Western idioms (CURRAN, 2007).

It is worth noting that a study experience in a non-Western country having a less popular language can provide a student with the capacity to build and strengthen the above skills and competencies. If the student in question has enough out-of-classroom experience in that country, this study program can give him or her a considerable comparative advantage on the labor market (TILLMAN, 2011).

For language acquisition, the most fruitful method is to move to the country where the second language is naturally spoken. Language courses are frequently combined with upgrading cultural knowledge and supporting intercultural learning. The obtained skills are necessary for marketing, therefore contribute to the future career of the student (KEESE & O'BRIEN, 2011).

Studies conducted among Japanese students studying in the United States of America show that a considerable amount of young people changed their approach toward their second language, in this case, English. The pointed out that learning English at a university language center in an English-speaking country is much more difficult than to do a similar course back home. Due to this stricter curriculum, they gain more confidence while communicating with native speakers and they improve their academic language skills in English that is crucial both for researching and writing. Despite all the difficulties, international students can be encouraged and get motivated by their native classmates. Before departure, they have considered English as a tool to enroll an international mobility program, whereas after their return to Japan reportedly they said that they would make a career related to that idiom (SHIMMI & OUCHI, 2013).

In a study that compared business students having and having not the experience of studying abroad, two important points were made by the experts. First, those students who participated in international mobility programs see their foreign language skills more critically as they have encountered various situations of communication and related difficulties in the country where the given language is spoken by natives. Most students who remained in the country believe that they are fluent incomprehension for foreign language skill, but none of the other group said so. Second, fluency facilitates job search and makes students attractive for enterprises (ORAHOOD et al., 2004).

2.4.4. Interpersonal and intercultural impact

Studying abroad puts the whole issue of education, career development and learning motivation in a global context. Studies show that university students studying in another country raise different concerns opposed to their counterparts pursuing their studies in their home countries, therefore, can be and must be motivated in other ways. Students studying abroad can be described as individuals more attached to global engagement including volunteering in various aspects of life, sharing wealth and knowledge, philanthropy and social entrepreneurship. They also understand better global issues as

they are exposed to a different learning environment. This the reason why they are more favorable toward intercultural learning that might support their career in the broader frame of globalization. Intercultural communication skills help students to better integrate into a diverse society and it also improves their self-image (HAYNES, 2011).

International mobility programs not only promote social engagement in general but also realize new forms competencies that can be called global competencies. Study abroad activities let the students involved to better understand the very process of globalization as their course is by definition a form of it (STEBLETON et al., 2013).

In general, it can be said that those students who could study abroad are more tolerant than their peers who remained their country of origin throughout their education. In real life, this phenomenon is translated by a higher level of open-mindedness and a greater capability of flexibility compared to the students who never participated in student exchange programs. These young people can also adapt more easily to the requirements of an employer and the changing conditions of the business. They are quicker in learning from their own mistakes and adopting new ways of problem resolution (DALY, 2011).

It is interesting to note that female students profit more from the programs of studying abroad as they seem to be more eager to learn intercultural and language skills during their stay in another country. This is also true for students from ethnic minorities, especially the ones that belong to underrepresented communities. The same can be said about students with low-income or working-class backgrounds. Students of all these minority groups consider studying abroad an incredible chance to change their lives (STEBLETON et al., 2013).

To gain a deep understanding of global issues and intercultural communication, students should change their mind regarding the intercultural outcome of their study experience abroad. Most times, intercultural skills are not inherent in the learning process, it is only a by-product. If approached as it should be tackled, the cultural experience would not become secondary to the study abroad experience; it will be central and co-equal. It is also clear that students having solid international skills after returning from another country can compete more successfully than their peers in today's global workforce (ADLER, 2005).

Intercultural skills should be practiced after returning from a study abroad program as what was learned must be articulated in order to gain more skills and strengthen skills acquired during the stay in the other country. It is also a good idea to discuss experiences with other foreign students or students having more or less the same international mobility experience (TILLMAN, 2011).

Studying abroad supports one's chance for a better career after graduation but is also a considerable way of having fun especially by meeting people from various cultural backgrounds. The world opens up to them, it does so through a chain of experience of human interactions (KEESE & O'BRIEN, 2011).

2.5. Background of Turkish higher education students in Hungary

The present chapter reviews the attitudes and motivations, push and pull factors of this second wave of Turkish students in Hungary as opposed to the members of the first one. We would base our academic work of both statistics obtained on a special request for our current study from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office (KSH) and confessions of Turkish student we have been encountered during our stay in Hungary. So, our method is a combination of data, authentic documents of the relevant authorities and empirical experience with the ones who constitute the very subject of our study.

According to UNESCO data, imany Turkish students are studying abroad. As shown in Figure 5. In 2017, 44.471 Turkish students in higher education study abroad.

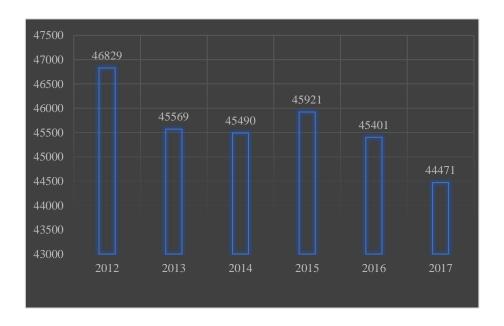


Figure 5. Total outbound internationally mobile tertiary students studying abroad

Source: UNESCO, 2019

Though Hungary and Turkey have long historical and cultural ties and an increasingly flourishing diplomatic and economic relationship, the presence of Turkish students at Hungarian higher educational institutions was not visible until very recent years. Turkish youth started to pop up around the beginning of the 1990s, the time when the social, political and economic reality of Hungary was changing from a more closed society to a rather open one, from socialism to democracy, and from a communist economic system based on central clarification to a free market economy.

The same period in Turkey can be characterized as a time of social, political and economic turmoil, the starting point of a decade-long decline and crisis. After the 1982 military coup, the Middle Eastern nation has been pacified and a stabilized, but the ever-shifting political coalition seemed to be unable to coop with the marginalization of certain social strata, the growing inflation and unemployment rate and the returning wish of the military to intervene in the political scene. This era was also difficult for a number of people graduating from a certain type of secondary schools, namely the *imam-hatip*. These religious-oriented vocational schools were training both females and males for Islamic religious services, the ones finishing them were discriminated against as they have got lesser points and lower chances to get to Turkish universities. Girls wearing the Islamic headgear known as hijab were also banned from these higher educational institutes and –if they wanted to pursue their studies- were forced to study abroad. Most of them went to Western Europe, but some of them ended up with help religious communities and their scholarships in Hungary.

The attitude of the Turkish government towards imam-hatips and the religious youth has been modified as in 2002 the Islamist-rooted Justice and Development Party (AKP) took power. As the purpose of this important human capital flight was not valid anymore, this category started to disappear from the Hungarian universities. The new generation of Turkish students made its entry around the end of the 2000's and the beginning of the 2010's as they became eligible for Erasmus and Erasmus+ programs and with the introduction of the scholarships offered by the Hungarian government.

In all historical situations factors are determining the choices of future students abroad. "These include push factors such as political instability and pull factors such as a higher income level abroad and a more ordered and organized life in the host country. Among the pull factors, family considerations, followed by high-income levels in the host country and a more ordered lifestyle abroad, in order of importance, al tend to weaken return intentions" (GÜNGÖR & TANSEL, 2007).

Historical Background

As it has already been mentioned above, historically speaking we can deal with two distinct waves of Turkish students pursuing their studies in Hungary. The first group of individuals started to appear at universities mainly in the cities of Budapest and Szeged around the first half of the 1990's and during the coming decade. Most of these young people have finished the so called imam-hatip vocational secondary schools. Imam is an Islamic prayer leader, whereas hatip is the person who gives Islamic religious sermons. The first schools of this sort have been established during the last years of the Ottoman Empire in 1913 under the name Medresetul Eimmti vel Hutaba (ÇAKIR, BOZAN & TALU, 2004). The first modern imam-hatips came into existence in 1924 in 29 different larger urban centers, soon after the proclamation of the republic by Mustafa Kemal Ataturk (ÇAKIR et al., 2004). These institutions were

recognized as ones having similar rights to ordinary secondary schools known as *lise* in Turkey in 1973. The influx of former imam-hatip students shows an increase after 1997 when following a military intervention into Turkish politics often termed as a postmodern coup, imam-hatips were not allowed any more to continue their studies at the university level. In Turkey, a student willing to study at a selected university has to have a certain number of points. Former imam-hatips saw at that time their points reduced by 60% due to the new regulation of the relevant governmental authorities of YÖK and ÖSYM (ÇELİKDÖNMEZ, n.d.). This discrimination has been lifted much later, in 2012 (CNNTURK, 2012).

The vast majority of these young people opted for Western Europe as there were already well established Turkish-speaking communities. In the Austrian capital, Vienna, former imam-hatips have even realized an interesting community center called Wonder, a facility in which one can find a student hostel, a cultural and educational center, a community radio and a busy tea shop where Turks—not necessarily all of them are former imam-hatips—living in Vienna used to gather and socialize (CAĞLAR, 2015). As they are trained for taking care of the spiritual needs of the practicing Muslims, former imam-hatip students tend to be an active community member and contribute to the establishment of local civil society organizations.

Though even after the formation of the first AKP governments, former imam-hatips still had a hard time to enroll Turkish universities, they ceased to come to Hungary. The end of the 2000's and the beginning of the 2010's meant the arrival of the second wave of Turkish students to Hungary. This time their prime target was not only the prestigious universities of Budapest and Szeged as in the past, but they also appeared among the students in Miskolc, Debrecen, Gödöllő and Pécs. Two categories of them could be differentiated. On the one hand, there were the ones who came on short term programs such as Erasmus or Erasmus+, they formed the majority of the students, on the other –especially after 2014- more dedicated Turkish students started to profit of the offer of the Hungarian government. The turning point was probably the academic year of 2006/2007 when the total number of Turkish youths studying in Hungary almost doubled from 50 persons to 95 according to the statistics given by the Hungarian Central Statistical Office (KSH). After that year, an evident increase is visible. Today, almost twelve times as much Turkish students' study in Hungary as ten years ago. According to the numbers provided by KSH, 1113² Turkish students were registered different higher education programs in the country during the academic year of 2017/2018. Figure 6 summarizes the number of Turkish students in Hungary by academic year.

 $^{^2}$ It was updated number of foreign students by country on HCSO website (access 20.10.2019). The number of Turkish higher education student is 1138 in Hungary. On the other hand, Number of foreign students by country is 35.472 in 2018 (see Appendix V.).

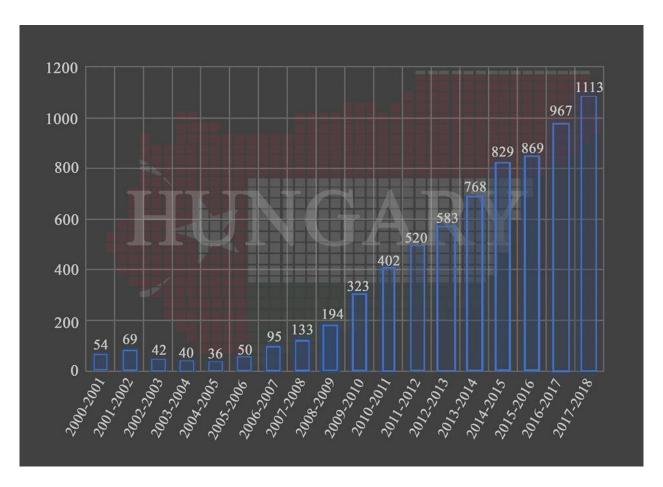


Figure 6. Number of Turkish student in tertiary education in Hungary

Source: HCSO, 2019

Attitudes and Motivations

Before comparing the attitudes and motivations of the above described two generations of Turkish students studying in Hungary, we have to stress that with the increase in the number of the persons concerned, the attitudes and motivations tend to vary. We have also to add that whereas the first wave was constituted of some kind of "refugees" of a discriminatory system, they rather fled from a place, the members of the second wave were are not "persecuted" in their own country, they want to have an intriguing academic experience abroad and they intentionally choose Hungary.

To understand the simple motivation of the first generation, it is sufficient to refer to the above-quoted interview with Mr. Bariscil. Mr. Bariscil finished his studies in 1999 at the imam-ha tip school of Gemlik, a small port town on the Marmara Sea in Western Turkey famed for its olive oil. The year after, in 2000 he has decided to run for a private scholarship to study communication offered especially for former imam-hatip students. His decision was mainly motivated by one of his friend already fixed in Hungary telling wonders of the Central European country. This explanation clearly shows how personal contacts

and a personal description of a foreign place could influence a young Turk at that time. There was no national propaganda to promote Hungary or an agency in Turkey to orientate former imam-hatips. Though Hungary was a solution for the problems of the discrimination-hit young student, he confesses to move to Hungary with a certain unease as he originally wanted to stay in his home country and never planned to study in another place. Mr. Bariscil tells his interviewer that after arriving in Hungary he understood that his studies in communication can be a good tool to serve local people (YAZICILAR, 2006). This means that he has changed his mind, his motivation, after spending a few years in Hungary, he could not be considered a shipwrecked of an unjust system, but a young and motivated intellectual turned to his environment.

To understand the attitudes and the motivations of the first generation, we used an interview published in Turkish language. It describes an individual struggle but can be said to be typical for the very limited group of people who arrived in Hungary around 2000. The second wave of students is more numerous and diverse, therefore we do not base ourselves on a single source, but we will try to present the multifarious nature of their demeanor.

After getting in contact with actual Turkish students studying in Hungary, we came to the conclusion that there are six main reasons behind their choice. The first element here is related to the Turkish educational system itself. Though the Turkish educational system is constantly reformed, State universities in Turkey have been free since 2012 and there are at least one university in every province of Turkey (YAVUZASLAN, BARIŞÇIL, & FARKAS, 2016). However, it is still competitive, there is no more discrimination as far as the entrance requirements are concerned, but one still has to wait for the total democratization of the Turkish higher education. Foreign countries and studying abroad gives a chance to a Turk to learn what he or she wants. Another aspect of the same issue is that in Turkey there still are entrance exams to the universities as they were normal in Hungary prior to 2005. These dog-eat-dog style examinations deter a segment of the Turkish students from remaining home and they prefer to go abroad very entry conditions are different.

The above-mentioned first motivation explains why some of the Turks leave Turkey, but cannot be used as an argument for Hungary. The second point is more specific. Turks opt for Hungary as it is physically close to Turkey or at least closer than Austria or Germany where there even larger Turkish speaking student populations. Budapest can be reached by airplane in two hours from Istanbul, plane tickets are not expensive and even if somebody drives, can arrive in Budapest within a day or so. The physical closeness gives also the impression that if the "adventure" turns bad, the student can easily get back to Turkey. Turkish student studying in Hungary often invite their friends and relatives, due to the distance and the related prices, this can be done on a budget.

The third argument usually quoted by Turkish students in Hungary is also linked to closeness, but this time they do not mean it physically but socially and culturally. Turks, in general, do believe that the origins of both the Turks and the Hungarians lay somewhere in Central Asia, they both speak a variant of the old Turkic tongue and share a rich and eventful history. Though some Hungarian academics would disagree with these assessments, this is an important and genuine motivation for many Turks to visit Hungary. This element of the motivation is crucial as it might contribute to the better integration of a Turk into the Hungarian society as he or she will always feel something in common with the local population. The fact that indeed many Hungarians feel the same way constitutes a social frame providing a certain security for the young Turks. We would say that generally a Turk trusts more a Hungarian than an average other European.

The second and the third arguments were related to the country of Hungary in general, but the fourth one is more connected to the system of education. According to Turkish students, Hungary offers a wide variety of careers and subject in various foreign languages. It is also possible to have special introductory courses into the idiom of the subject on the given foreign language. This is an issue as in Turkey, the level of the education of foreign languages is unfortunately very low, over-crowded classes are thought by incompetent teachers themselves lacking the relevant skills. One of the main reasons of the failure of Turkish students abroad is indeed their retard in terms of knowledge of foreign languages. The Turkish government is aware of this lamentable situation, therefore sends Turkish students abroad in masse to language courses. If we take those who profit from Turkish government scholarships abroad in 2012, the sole purpose of 18.9% of them is to perfection their language skills (GÜMÜŞ & GÖKBELI, 2012).

According to the Turkish students –and this is their fifth argument- Hungary gives a perfect and affordable possibility to get to know Europe and the European Union, and more specifically the higher education on that continent. The students who underline the importance of this argument also confess that they have further plans with Europe. The majority of them wishes to carry on with postgraduate trainings or wish to work in Europe, few times in Hungary. This means that of their part Hungary was a well-premeditated choice with ong- term target ahead. Related to this point, it is also good to know that contemporary studies show that after having a European experience, the returning students in Turkey are more useful for their personal and academic environment than the ones who remained in the country (AKBALI, KARADUMAN, ORAL, & OZDOĞAN, 2003). On the other hand, In the globalized world, employees will be asked to communicate better with people from different backgrounds and cultures (RACICOT & FERRY, 2016). In this context, higher education of Turkish students in Hungary may provide a positive transformation in terms of their careers.

The fifth argument is already partially based on a material issue. The financial background of studying abroad is clearly important. Most Turks on their own cannot afford a several year-long study in the West. This is why the Turkish students studying in Hungary value the program called Stipendium Hungaricum proposed by the Hungarian government. In Stipendium Hungaricum, Turkish students are eligible for both full – time and partial study programs. The latter one is a great privilege as only 18 different nations are included. Turkish students are offered a total of 150 scholarships (TEMPUS PUBLIC FOUNDATION, 2017). This contingent includes 50 undergraduates, 50 postgraduate, 30 doctoral and 20 partial study students. To our best knowledge, some of these places are vacant even though these scholarships cover all expenditures like tuition fee, accommodation, and social security, and gives the students a monthly 40-140.000 HUF pocket money according to the level of education (T.C. MİLLÎ EĞİTİM BAKANLIĞI, 2017).

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Sample

The research sample was chosen randomly from Turkish students who have been studying in Hungary and Turkey. There are 355 participants for this research, % 58.6 (n=208) participant from Turkish Universities, rest of the % 41.4 (n =147) from Hungarian Universities. The student's education level consists of Ba/BSc, Master and PhD. The highest participation rate was from Ba/BSc students % 73 (n=259), the rests (MA and PhD) were measured as % 18 and % 9 respectively. Education fields was determined such as Business and Economics, Engineering Science, Medical Science, Law and Administration, Agriculture, Humanities, Natural Science, Theology, Sport Science, Teacher and Training and Other.

3.2. Instrument

The main goal of this research of is the comparison of Turkish students who has been studying in Hungary and Turkey. Hence It is used the survey instrument which is a part of quantitative method. While surveys questions were determined, researches had been examined in literature. Eventually, the questions for survey was derived from DEARDORFF (2006); MOHAJERI NORRIS & GILLESPIE, 2009. These questions were re-interpreted to the research goal. After the survey was prepared, the questionnaire was distributed to the participants as online and hard copy. The survey was anonymous. In that way, it was aimed to get a response from the participants comfortably.

The impact of study abroad questions was consisted of 15 items on a 5-point Likert-type scale. Items 9 and 10 was excluded from the survey as it had a negative effect on internal consistency. Participants demonstrated how agree each statement was for them on a scale ranging from Strongly disagree (1) to very Strongly agree (5). To determine the factors for survey was made reliability test. The overall reliability the items value was $\alpha = ,890$. The KMO value was found 0.791 and the Barlett value was found 0.00. Thus, it was proper for conducting factor analysis. Factor analysis revealed 4 factors with a total variance of 76.597 %.

The reliability of factors was then examined by Cronbach's alpha. Then, the alpha or Factor 1 was $\alpha =$,801, for Factor 2 was $\alpha =$,831 and for Factor 3 $\alpha =$,819, for Factor 4 $\alpha =$,890. It is observed that this survey is reliable (GLIEM & GLIEM, 2003).

3.3. Data analysis

Once the survey data had been fully collected, the data was arranged in the excel file. The results of the survey were analyzed by SPSS 21 Statistical Package. Firstly, demographics analysis was made for questionnaire such as how many students participated, where hey are studying, the level of education, age, and the field of education. After that the overall reliability and factor analysis of the questionnaire were conducted. The normality test of the factors was performed before the hypothesis testing when the factors were normally distributed. Then, for factors, hypothesis tests (H₁ H₂, H₃, H₄) were conducted by parametric method. For other hypotheses tests (H_{5a}, H_{5b}) were made for categorical variables by Chi Square.

3.4. Limitations

In this research, some limitations were appeared. On the of them; literature. Although there are many Turkish students who have been studying abroad, there is not enough research for those issues in Turkey, and most of the studies have been conducted on a short-term program called Erasmus. The limitation was tried to be solved by other countries' research papers. Another one, the research had made in Turkey and Hungary at same time. There is a distance between Turkey and Hungary. Therefore, there were many difficulties in reaching the participants. Consequently, this problem caused the study to take a long time. The last issue is sample size. As mentioned in the literature review, many Turkish have enrolled different higher education program in Turkey and worldwide. In that case, the sample size may not indicate to give a general opinion of Turkish students.

4. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Demographic variables

The demographic findings obtained from the research will be shown as the country of study, education area, gender, age, financing of study.

Table 8. Country of study

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Turkey	208	58,6	58,6	58,6
Hungary	147	41,4	41,4	100,0
Total	355	100,0	100,0	

Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

It is seen in Table 8 that 58.6 % of respondents have been studying in Turkey. The remaining 41 % consists of Turkish students who have been studying in Hungary. Therefore, a significant portion of the sample constitutes students who have been studying in Turkey.

Table 9. Gender

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	245	69,0	69,0	69,0
Female	110	31,0	31,0	100,0
Total	355	100,0	100,0	

Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

Table 9 shows the gender of the participants of the survey. The majority of the survey participants is male (69%). Women participants constitute only 31%, hence, an important part of the sample consists of men.

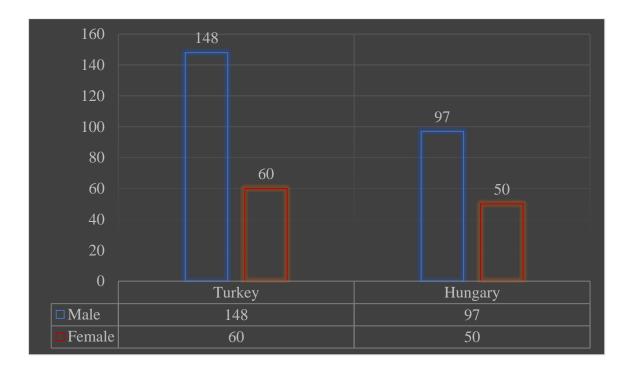


Figure 7. Distribution of gender by countries of studying

Figure 7 shows the gender distribution by the countries of study. Most of the participants are male in Turkey (n=148). The number of male participants in the survey are 97 from Hungary. On the other hand, the distribution of the women participating in the survey is 60 and 50 in Turkey and Hungary, respectively.

Table 10. Age

	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative Percent
			Percent	
18-22	159	44,8	44,8	44,8
23-27	108	30,4	30,4	75,2
28-32	57	16,1	16,1	91,3
33-37	28	7,9	7,9	99,2
38+	3	,8	,8	100,0
Total	355	100,0	100,0	

Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

As it can be seen in Table 10, the 18-22 age group of is the highest of the participants that represent 44 % among the age groups (n=159). The second highest age group (23-27) rate is 30.4 % in the group (n=108). The other participants' age group rate is 7.9 % and 0.8 %, respectively.

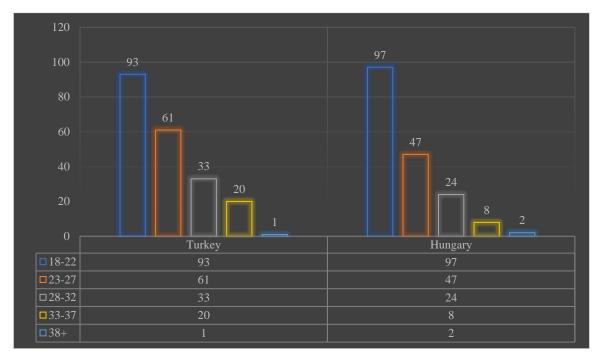


Figure 8. Distribution of age by countries of study

As it can be seen in Figure 8, the age distribution of the participants is indicated according to the countries where they were studying. The highest participation rate was between 18-22 years of age (n = 97) from Hungary. The group of those between 18-22 included 93 people from Turkey. The second-highest number of participants is between the ages of 23-27 from both countries.

Table 11. Marital status

	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative Percent
			Percent	
Single	323	91,0	91,0	91,0
Married	29	8,2	8,2	99,2
Divorced	3	,8	,8	100,0
Total	355	100,0	100,0	

Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

91% of the participants stated that were single (n=323). 29 respondents were married. Just 3 participants were married.

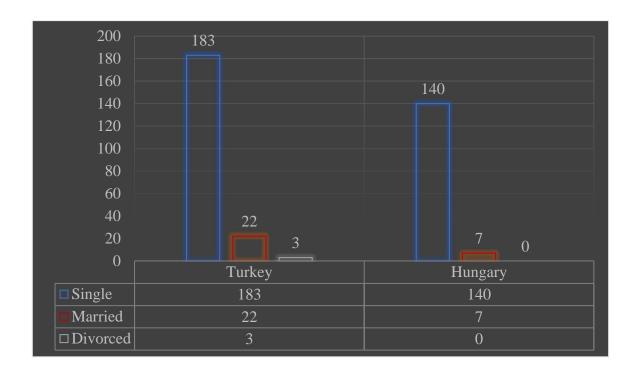


Figure 9. Distribution of marital status by countries of study

The marital status of the participants is shown in Figure 9. The majority of the students who participated in the survey were single.

Table 12. Educational level

	Frequency	Percent Valid		Cumulative Percent
			Percent	
BA/BSc	260	73,2	73,2	73,2
Master	74	20,8	91,1	94,1
PhD	21	5,9	5,9	100,0
Total	355	100,0	100,0	

Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

As it can be seen in Table 12 the education levels of the participants are indicated. The majority of the students who participated in the survey were BA / BSc students. BA / BSc students constitute 73.2% of the total students (n = 260). The second place is for MA students with 2018 %. The lowest level of participation is from the PhD students.

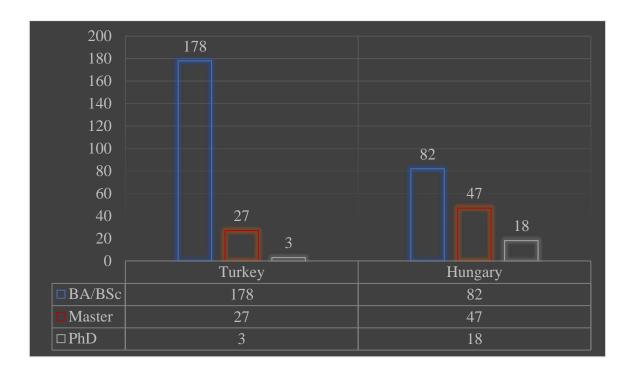


Figure 10. Distribution of education level by countries of study

The education level of the students, the countries where they participated in the survey are shown in Figure 10. The students who participated in the survey in Turkey are mainly BA / BSc students (n =178). 27 students are master students, and the remaining 3 are PhD students. When examining the data in Hungary, similar results are observed. The majority of the participants are BA / BSc students, i.e. 82 participants.

Table 13. Educational field

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Business and Economics	96	27,0	27,0	27,0
Engineering Science	93	26,2	26,2	53,2
Medical Science	11	3,1	3,1	56,3
Law and Administration	47	13,2	13,2	69,6
Agriculture	4	1,1	1,1	70,7
Humanities	27	7,6	7,6	78,3
Natural Science	9	2,5	2,5	80,8
Theology	14	3,9	3,9	84,8
Sport Science	4	1,1	1,1	85,9
Teacher Training	11	3,1	3,1	89,0

Other	39	11,0	11,0	100,0
Total	355	100,0	100,0	

Table 13 indicates education areas that the students are specialized. It is observed that the students participated in the survey have different education areas. Most of the students participating in the survey are in Business Economics (n = 96) and Engineering Science (n = 93).

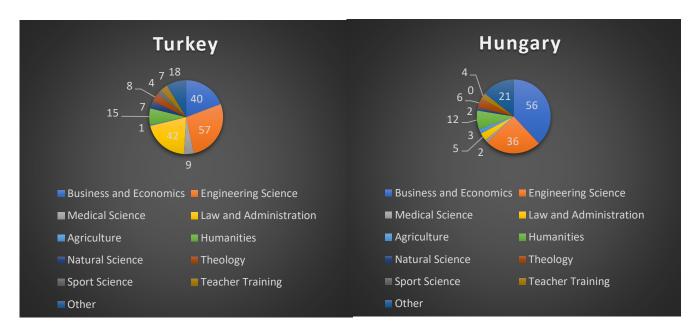


Figure 11. Distribution of education field by countries of study

Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

In Figure 11, the education area where the students are engaged in is presented by countries. Most of the students in the survey are studying Business and Economics and Engineering Science. It has the highest number of participation in Engineering Science in Turkey (n = 57). The highest participation is Business and Economics in Hungary (n = 56).

Table 14. Semester

	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
1	28	7,9	7,9	7,9
2	69	19,4	19,4	27,3
3	81	22,8	22,8	50,1
4	21	5,9	5,9	56,1
5	48	13,5	13,5	69,6

6	17	4,8	4,8	74,4
7	9	2,5	2,5	76,9
8	32	9,0	9,0	85,9
Other	50	14,1	14,1	100,0
Total	355	100,0	100,0	

Table 14 shows which education semester the students were in. The students with the highest rate of participation are in their second semesters.

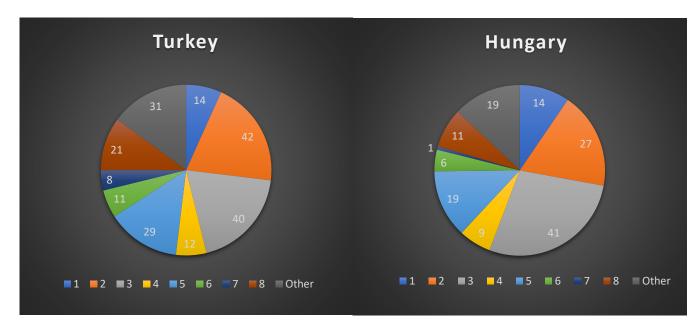


Figure 12. Distribution of semester by countries of study

Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

Figure 12 shows the semesters of the students according to the countries they study. In both groups, the majority of the students are students studying in their 1st and 2nd semesters.

Table 15. Finance of study

	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
Self-Financed	118	33,2	33,2	33,2
Scholarship Holders	102	28,7	28,7	62,0
Erasmus	12	3,4	3,4	65,4
Free of Charge	123	34,6	34,6	100,0
Total	355	100,0	100,0	

Table 15 shows the financial status of the students. Most of the students participating in the survey are self-financed and free of charge.



Figure 13. Distribution of financing the study by countries of study

Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

Figure 13 shows the education level of students by the country of education. Most of the students from Turkey are in the "free of charge" category. Most of the students from Hungary are in the "Scholarship Holders" category.

Table 16. Predicted countries of making a career

	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
			Percent	Percent
Turkey	187	52,7	52,7	52,7
Abroad	168	47,3	47,3	100,0
Total	355	100,0	100,0	

Table 16 indicates whether the students taking part in the survey plan to continue their careers in Turkey or abroad. 52.7 % of the 355 students surveyed plan to continue their careers in Turkey, the remaining 47.3% plan to continue abroad.

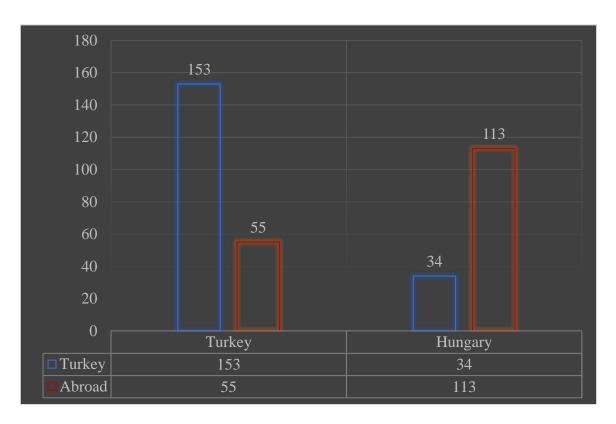


Figure 14. Distribution of countries where students are likely to work after graduation

Source: author's own research based on SPSS,2019

Figure 14 shows the country of education and graduation compared to the location where students plan to continue their careers. Most of the students in higher education in Turkey plan to continue their careers inland (n=153). Most of those in higher education in Hungary plan their further careers abroad.

Table 17. General overview of student's numbers

	Country of Study						
	Tu	rkey		Hungary			
	Educa	tional Lev	el	Ed	ucational	Level	
Educational field	BA/BSc	Master	PhD	BA/BSc	Master	PhD	
Business and Economics	35	5	0	35	15	6	
Engineering Science	43	14	0	13	20	3	
Medical Science	8	1	0	1	0	1	
Law and Administration	41	1	0	3	1	1	
Agriculture	0	0	1	2	0	1	
Humanities	14	0	1	6	3	3	
Natural Science	1	6	0	1	0	1	
Theology	8	0	0	5	1	0	
Sport Science	3	0	1	0	0	0	
Teacher Training	7	0	0	3	1	0	
Other	18	0	0	13	6	2	

Table 17 indicates education areas that the students are specialized by countries. It is observed that the students participated in the survey have different education areas in Turkey and Hungary . Most of the students participants from Turkey in the survey are in Engineering Science (n = 57). Participant from Hungary in Business and Economics areas (n = 56).

4.2. Descriptive statistics

All answers to the survey questions are presented in this section. As it can be seen from Table 18. 355 Turkish students participated in this survey. A high rated answer with 3.91 was *Developed my general openness toward intercultural learning and to people from other culture*.

Table 18. Descriptive statistics for two groups

	N	Mean	Std.
Items			Deviation
Developed my academic and research skill.	355	3,51	1,015
Influenced my decision to expand/change academic majors.	355	3,47	1,028
The academic education affected my career path.	355	3,53	1,242
Reinforced commitment to foreign language study	355	3,83	1,177
Use a language other than Native regularly	355	3,77	1,252
Enhanced my ability to speak a language other than Turkish that I may	355	2.40	1 226
use in a workplace	333	3,49	1,326
Influenced me to continue studying after graduation.	355	3,60	1,192
Ignites my interest in a career direction.	355	3,72	1,114
Enhanced me the ability to adapt to different intercultural communication	255	2.72	1 262
and learning styles.	355	3,73	1,263
Developed my general openness toward intercultural learning and to	255	2.01	1 146
people from other culture.	355	3,91	1,146
Provided me behaving appropriately and effectively in intercultural	255	2.70	1 120
situations based on one's knowledge, skills, and motivation	355	3,72	1,130
Opened up an interest/passion for another language and/or culture	355	3,80	1,047
Influenced me to explore other cultures.	355	3,88	1,082
Valid N (listwise)	355		

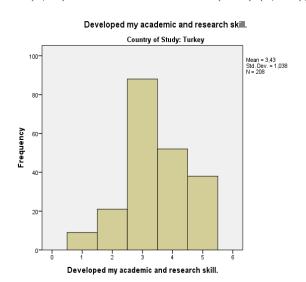
Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

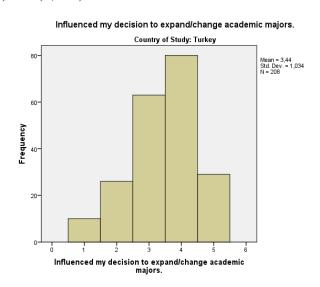
When we continue to study Table 18, the lowest average answer with 3.47 was *Influenced my decision to expand/change academic majors*.

Table 19. Frequency and descriptive statistics of academic outcome respondents who study in Turkey.

	1		2		3		4		5		Mean	S. D
Items	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Q1	9	4,3	21	10,1	88	42,3	52	25	38	18,3	3,43	1,038
Q2	10	4,8	26	12,5	63	30,3	80	38,5	29	13,9	3,44	1,034
Q3	14	6,7	10	4,8	71	34,1	79	38	34	16,3	3,52	1,040

Table 19 show that conformity in the answers of the respondents who study in Turkey in terms of the academic outcome Q1, Q2, and Q3 which tend to agree and with the mean (3,43), (3,44) and (3,52) and standard deviation (S.D.) (1,038), (1,034) and (1,040).





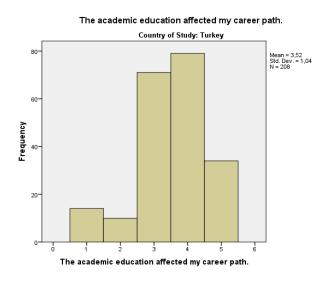
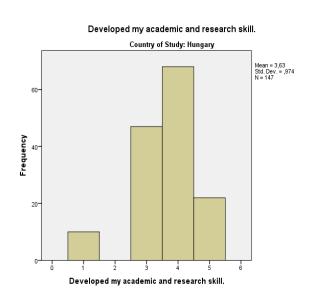
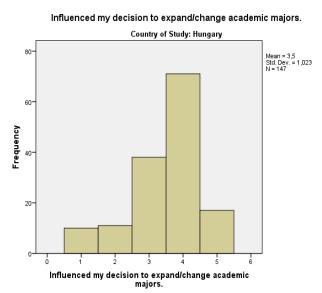


Table 20. Frequency and descriptive statistics of academic outcome respondents who study in Hungary

	1		2		3		4		5		Mean	S. D
Items	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Q1	10	6,8			47	32	68	46,3	22	15	3,63	,974
Q2	10	6,8	11	7,5	38	25,9	71	48,3	17	11,6	3,50	1,023
Q3	28	19	10	6,8	12	8,2	48	32,7	49	33,3	3,54	1,486

Table 20 show that conformity in the answers of the respondents who study in Hungary in terms of the academic outcome Q1, Q2, and Q3 which tend to agree and with the mean (3,63), (3,50) and (3,54) and standard deviation (S.D.) (,974), (1,023) and (1,486).





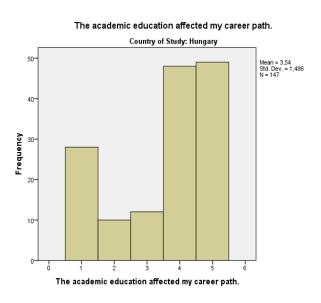
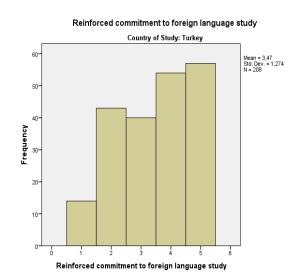
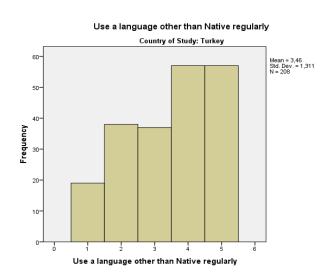


Table 21. Frequency and descriptive statistics of language outcome respondents who study in Turkey

	1		2		3		4		5		Mean	S. D
Items	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Q4	14	6,7	43	20,7	40	19,2	54	26	57	27,4	3,47	1,274
Q5	19	9,1	38	18,3	37	17,8	57	27,4	57	27,4	3,46	1,311
Q6	36	17,3	38	18,3	55	26,4	36	17,3	43	20,7	3,06	1,371

Table 21 show that conformity in the answers of the respondents who study in Turkey in questions of language outcome Q4, Q5, and Q6 which tend to agree and with the mean (3,47), (3,46) and (3,06) and standard deviation (S.D.) (1,274), (1,311) and (1,371).





Enhanced my ability to speak a language other than Turkish that I may use in a workplace

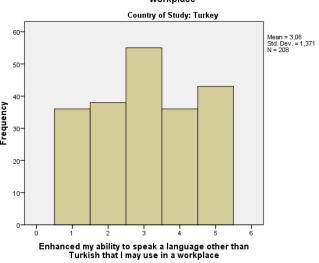
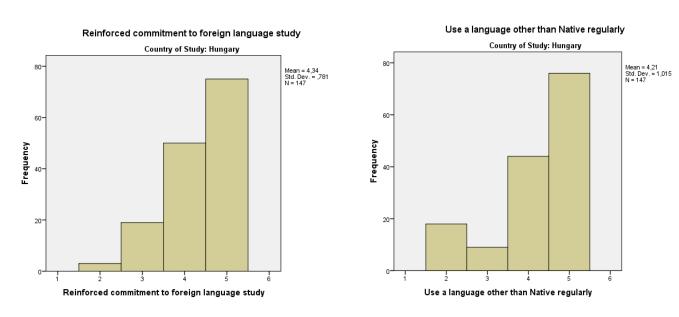


Table 22. Frequency and descriptive statistics of language outcome respondents who study in Hungary

	1		2		3		4		5		Mean	S. D
Items	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Q4			3	2	19	12,9	50	34	75	54	4,34	,781
Q5			18	12,2	9	6,1	44	29,9	76	51,7	4,21	1,015
Q6	5	3,4	2	1,4	27	18,4	52	35,4	61	41,5	4,10	,977

Table 22 shows that conformity in the answers of the respondents who study in Turkey in terms of the language outcome Q4, Q5, and Q6 which tend to agree and with the mean (4,34), (4,21) and (4,10) and standard deviation (S.D.) (,781), (1,015) and (,977).



Enhanced my ability to speak a language other than Turkish that I may use in a workplace

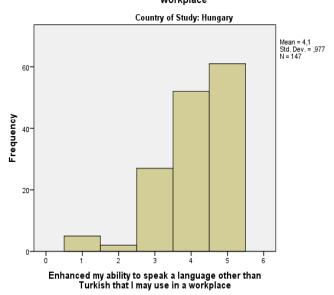
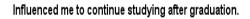
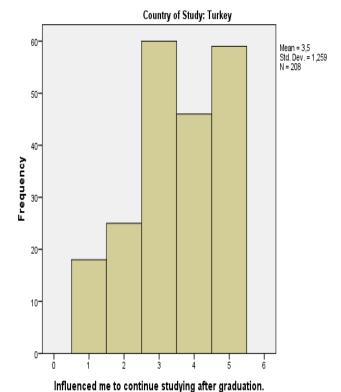


Table 23. Frequency and descriptive statistics of career-oriented outcome respondents who study in Turkey

	1		2		3		4		5		Mean	S. D
Items	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Q7	18	8,7	25	12	60	28,8	46	22,1	59	28,4	3,50	1,259
Q8	12	5,8	27	13	44	21,2	72	34,6	53	25,5	3,61	1,166

Table 23 shows that conformity in the answers of the respondents who study in Turkey in terms of the career-oriented outcome Q7 and Q8 which tend to agree and with the mean (3,50) and (3,61) and standard deviation (S.D.), (1,259) and (1,166).





Ignites my interest in a career direction.

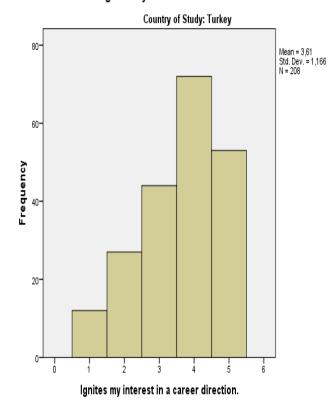


Table 24. Frequency and descriptive statistics of career-oriented outcome respondents who study in Hungary

	1		2		3		4		5		Mean	S. D
Items	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Q7	2	1,4	16	10,9	47	32,0	33	22,4	49	33,3	3,76	1,076
Q8	7	4,8	1	,7	41	27,9	52	35,4	46	31,3	3,88	1,020

Table 24 show that conformity in the answers of the respondents who study in Hungary in questions of career oriented outcome Q7 and Q8 which tend to agree and with the mean (3,76) and (3,88) and standard deviation (S.D.), (1,076) and (1,020).

Influenced me to continue studying after graduation.

Country of Study: Hungary Mean = 3,76 Std. Dev. = 1,076 N = 147

Influenced me to continue studying after graduation.

Ignites my interest in a career direction.

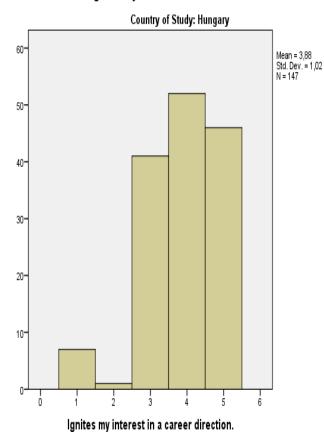
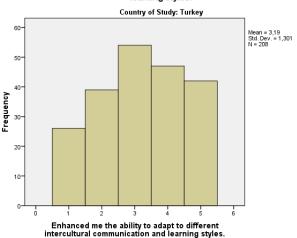


Table 25. Frequency and descriptive statistics of interculturally sensitive / global-minded outcome respondents who study in Turkey

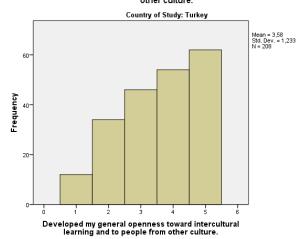
	1		2		3		4		5		Mean	S. D
Items	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Q11	26	12,5	39	18	54	26	47	22,6	42	20,2	3,19	1,301
Q12	12	5,8	34	16,3	46	22,1	54	26	62	29,8	3,58	1,233
Q13	6	2,9	29	13,9	63	30,3	66	31,7	44	21,2	3,54	1,062
Q14	4	1,9	34	16,3	58	27,9	66	31,7	46	22,1	3,56	1,066
Q15	7	3,4	33	15,9	71	34,1	49	23,6	48	23,1	3,47	1,112

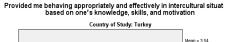
Table 25 shows that conformity in the answers of the respondents who study in Turkey in terms of the language outcome Q11, Q12, Q13, Q14 and Q15 which tend to agree and with the mean (3,19), (3,58), (3,54), (3,56) and (3,47) standard deviation (S.D.) (1,301), (1,23), (1,062), (1,066) and (1,112).

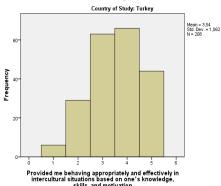
Enhanced me the ability to adapt to different intercultural communication and learning styles.

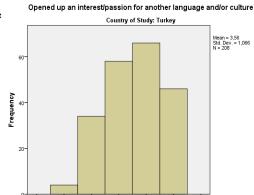


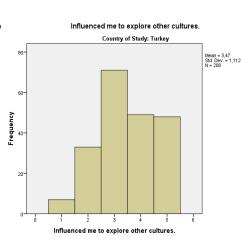
Developed my general openness toward intercultural learning and to people from other culture.











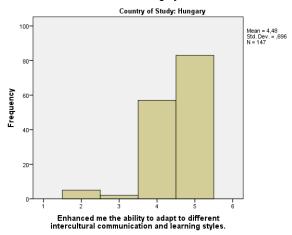
Opened up an interest/passion for another language and/or culture

Table 26. Frequency and descriptive statistics of interculturally sensitive / global-minded outcome respondents who study in Hungary

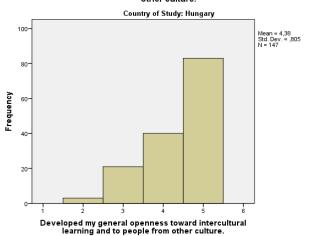
	1		2		3		4		5		Mean	S. D
Items	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Q11			5	3,4	2	1,4	57	38,8	83	56,5	4,48	,696
Q12			3	2	21	14,3	40	27,2	83	56,5	4,38	,805
Q13	1	13			26	17,7	48	32,7	60	40,8	3,97	1,179
Q14			9	6,1	25	17	48	32,7	65	44,2	4,15	,917
Q15					18	12,2	42	28,6	87	59,2	4,47	,705

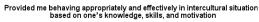
Table 26 shows that conformity in the answers of the respondents who study in Hungary in terms of the language outcome Q11, Q12, Q13, Q14 and Q15 which tend to agree and with the mean (4,48), (4,38), (3,97), (4,15) and (4,47) standard deviation (S.D.) (,696), (,805), (1,179), (,917) and (,705).

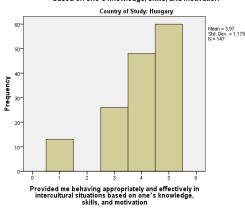
Enhanced me the ability to adapt to different intercultural communication and learning styles.



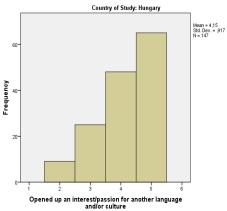
Developed my general openness toward intercultural learning and to people from other culture.



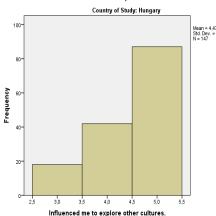




Opened up an interest/passion for another language and/or culture



Influenced me to explore other cultures.



4.3. Reliability and factor analysis

While updating the samples taken from the survey, a study on their reliability was carried out. Reliability was judged on the bases of the assessed variables. The variables and the period of assessment must be identical in order to receive reliable results from the process. Reliability may be calculated with a range of methods.

In a reliability analysis, based on the values of " α ", the credibility level of the test may be determined as follows:

- $0.00 < \alpha < 0.40 =$ the scale is not reliable.
- $0.40 < \alpha < 0.60 =$ the scale is of low reliability.
- $0.60 < \alpha < 0.80 =$ the scale is of satisfactory reliability.
- $0.80 < \alpha < 1.00 =$ the scale is of high reliability.

Reliability is the measure of the determined variable. The measurement is the same as the measurement process, the same criteria are used, and the results are the same. It is that we got rid of the random error. Reliability is calculated by different methods. To determine the factors for the survey a reliability test was conducted. The overall reliability and validity of the value of the items were $\alpha = ,890$. The KMO value was found 0.791 and the Barletta value was found under 0.05. Thus, it was proper for conducting a factor analysis. The factor analysis revealed 4 factors with a total variance of 76.597 %.

Table 27. Factor analysis of the impact of studying abroad outcomes

Item					
Factor 1.	Academic outcome (α =,801)	F1	F2	F3	F4
Q1		,934			
Q2		,817			
Q3		,672			
Factor 2.	Language outcome ($\alpha = .831$)				
Q4			,928		
Q5			,886		
Q6			,611		
Factor 3.	Career-oriented out. ($\alpha = .819$)				
Q7			,	-,861	
Q8				-,863	
Factor 4.	Intercultural outcome ($\alpha = ,890$)				

Q11	,851
Q12	,911
Q13	,684
Q14	,637
Q15	,809

The number of items for each scale was as follows: 3 items for Academic outcome (Factor 1), 3 items for Language outcome (Factor 2), 2 items for Career-oriented (Factor 3), and 5 items for Intercultural outcome (Factor 4). The results demonstrated an acceptable internal consistency among all scale with Cronbach's over $\alpha > 0.70$. The reliability of factors alpha for Factor 1 was $\alpha = .801$, for Factor 2 was $\alpha = .831$ and for Factor 3 $\alpha = .819$, for Factor 4 $\alpha = .890$. It is observed that this survey is reliable (GEORGE & MALLERY, 2010; GLIEM & GLIEM, 2003).

4.4. Test of normality

The normality test is a measurement to prove if the data conform to normal distribution. In the scope of the study, skewness and kurtosis values were taken into consideration in the normality test of the data obtained by the surveys. As a result of this test, it is indicated which of the parametric or non- parametric tests should be applied.

Table 28. Descriptive statistics

	N	Skev	wness	Kurtosis			
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error		
Academic Outcome	355	-,661	,129	,318	,258		
Language Outcome	355	-,615	,129	-,478	,258		
Career Oriented	355	-,551	,129	-,307	,258		
Intercultural Outcome	355	-,560	,129	-,309	,258		
Valid N (listwise)	355						

Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

Skewness and kurtosis were made use of testing normality of each scale. As it can be seen from Table 28, all scales used in the study represented skewness and kurtosis values between \pm 2. The results show that each variable was normally distributed (GEORGE & MALLERY, 2010). All the skewness and kurtosis values as countries variables were in this range in Table 29 as well, so it was accepted that the data were distributed normally. Hence, it was decided to apply parametric tests.

Table 29. Descriptive statistics for Turkey and Hungary groups

_		N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Statistic	Std.	Statistic	Std.
Country of Study				Error		Error
	Academic Outcome	208	-,238	,169	,237	,336
Turkey	Language Outcome	208	-,146	,169	-,842	,336
	Career Oriented	208	-,531	,169	-,360	,336
	Intercultural Outcome	208	-,203	,169	-,545	,336
	Valid N (listwise)	208				
	Academic Outcome	147	-1,074	,200	,474	,397
	Language Outcome	147	-1,184	,200	1,605	,397
Hungary	Career Oriented	147	-,484	,200	-,509	,397
	Intercultural Outcome	147	-,510	,200	-1,142	,397
	Valid N (listwise)	147				

4.5. Correlation analysis

In this part of the research, the correlation of the scales with each other will be revealed. Firstly, correlation analysis is performed according to the countries where the respondents participate in the survey. Lastly, the scales are performed for all the respondents for correlation analysis.

Table 30. Correlations analysis between the scales participant from Turkey

		Academic	Language	Career	Intercultural
		Outcome	Outcome	Oriented	Outcome
	Pearson	1	,276**	,611**	,501**
Academic Outcome	Correlation				
Academic Outcome	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,000	,000
	N	208	208	208	208
	Pearson	,276**	1	,138*	,535**
Languaga Outaama	Correlation				
Language Outcome	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,047	,000
	N	208	208	208	208
	Pearson	,611**	,138*	1	,306**
Career Oriented	Correlation				,300
Career Offented	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,047		,000
	N	208	208	208	208
		70			

	Pearson	,501**	,535**	,306**	1
Intercultural	Correlation	,301	,333	,300	1
Outcome	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	
	N	208	208	208	208

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The SPSS 21.0 output demonstrates that the correlations between participants in Turkey, the scales are given in Table 30. As it can be seen from Table 30, all scales have positive correlations with each other. When it is examined in detail, academic outcome and career orientation have the highest positive relationship of 71.7 % when it is compared to the other scales correlation. But the language outcome and career orientation have the lowest positive relationship of 13.8%.

Table 31. Correlations analysis between the scales participant from Hungary

		Academic Outcome	Language Outcome	Career Oriented	Intercultural Outcome
A 1 : 0 :	Pearson Correlation	1	,487**	,273**	,483**
Academic Outcome	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,001	,000
	N	147	147	147	147
	Pearson Correlation	,487**	1	,355**	,530**
Language Outcome	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,000	,000
	N	147	147	147	147
Career Oriented	Pearson Correlation	,273**	,355**	1	,450**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,001	,000		,000
	N	147	147	147	147
Intercultural	Pearson Correlation	,483**	,530**	,450**	1
Outcome	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	
	N	147	147	147	147

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

The SPSS 21.0 output demonstrates that the correlations between participants in Hungary, the scales is given in Table 31. As it can be seen from Table 31, all scales have a positive correlation with each other. When examined in detail, intercultural outcome and language outcome have the highest positive relationship of 53

^{*.} Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

^{*.} Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

% when compared to the other scales correlation. But the academic outcome and career orientation have the lowest positive relationship of 27.3 %.

Table 32. Correlations analysis between the scales for all participant

		Academic Outcome	Language Outcome	Career Oriented	Intercultural Outcome
Academic	Pearson Correlation	1	,326**	,466**	,451**
Outcome	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,000	,000
	N	355	355	355	355
Language	Pearson Correlation	,326**	1	,229**	,615**
Outcome	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,000	,000
	N	355	355	355	355
	Pearson Correlation	,466**	,229**	1	,361**
Career Oriented	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000		,000
	N	355	355	355	355
Intercultural	Pearson Correlation	,451**	,615**	,361**	1
Outcome	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	
	N	355	355	355	355

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

The SPSS 21.0 output demonstrates that the correlations between participants in Hungary and Turkey, the scales is given in Table 32. As it can be seen from Table 32, all scales are positively correlated .When examined in detail, intercultural outcome and language outcome have the highest positive relationship of 61.5 % when compared to the other scales correlation. But academic outcome and language outcome have the lowest positive relationship of 32.6 %.

4.6. Hypothesis testing

To test the hypothesis according to the country of study, the t-test for independent groups (Independent t-Test) was used in order to test whether the participants' development in university education and the outcomes of this development differed significantly in terms of their academic, career, language and cultural outputs.

1) Are Turkish students who have been studying abroad more career-oriented than their counterparts who have done their studies at home?

H1: Turkish students who have been studying in Hungary are more career-oriented than the Turkish students who have been doing their studies in their native country.

Table 33 presents the independent sample t-test results to determine whether there is a differentiation between the participants by country in the attitudes of the students who are observed to have a normal distribution in relation to the career-oriented outcome.

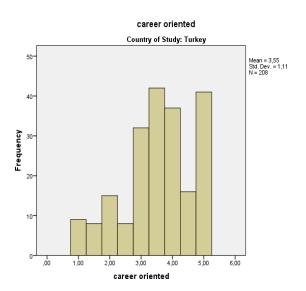
Table 33. Independent samples t-test for Hypothesis 1 (impact of studying abroad or domestic to career-oriented)

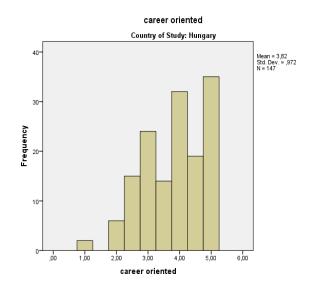
Country of study	N	M	Sd	df	t	p
Turkey	208	3,5529	1,10972	353	-2,317	0,021
Hungary	147	3,8163	,97236			

^{*}P<0,05

Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

As it can be seen from Table 33, a total of 335 students participated in the survey. Regarding participant distribution by country, 208 responses came from Turkey, and 147 from Hungary, respectively. Independent samples t-test shows that there is a significant difference (p= 0.021) between the two countries regarding the *career-oriented outcome*. The average scores of participants from Turkey are 3.55 and in Hungary 3.82. As a result, students who attend the survey from Turkey are more career-oriented than the participants from Hungary.





2) Are Turkish students who have taken classes in another country more interculturally sensitive / global-minded than their fellows who have remained in Turkey?

H2: Turkish young people who have been going to university in Hungary are more interculturally sensitive / global-minded than their fellows who have remained home.

Table 34 presents the independent sample t-test results to determine whether there is a differentiation between the participants by country in the attitudes of the students who are observed to have a normal distribution in relation to the interculturally sensitive / global-minded outcome.

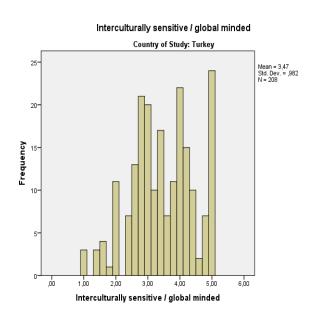
Table 34. Independent samples t-test for Hypothesis 2 (impact of study abroad or domestic to interculturally sensitive / global-minded)

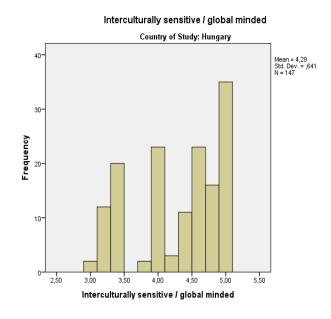
Country of study	N	M	Sd	df	t	p
Turkey	208	3,4683	,98164	353	-8,893	0,000
Hungary	147	4,2898	,64114			

^{*}P<0.05

Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

As it can be seen from Table 34, a total of 335 students participated in the survey. Regarding the participant distribution by country, 208 responses came from Turkey and 147 from Hungary, respectively. Independent samples t-test shows that there is a significant difference (p= 0,000) between the two countries regarding *interculturally sensitive* / *global-minded aspects*. The average scores of participants from Turkey are 3.4683 and from Hungary 4.2898. As a result, students who attend the survey from Turkey are more career-oriented than the participants from Hungary.





3) Are Turkish young people who have attended an academic course outland have developed their foreign language competences to a greater extent than the ones who have had not the chance to go to a foreign country to do so?

H3: Turkish students who have been taking a BA, MA or PhD course in Hungary have made more foreign language development than the ones who opted for carrying on their studies in Turkey.

Table 35 presents the independent sample t-test results to determine whether there is a differentiation between the participants by country in the attitudes of the students who are observed to have a normal distribution in relation to their foreign language development.

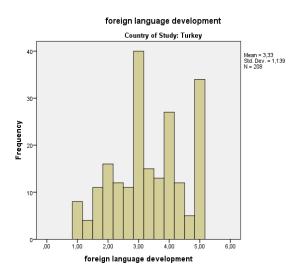
Table 35. Independent samples t-test for Hypothesis 3 (impact of study abroad or domestic to foreign language development)

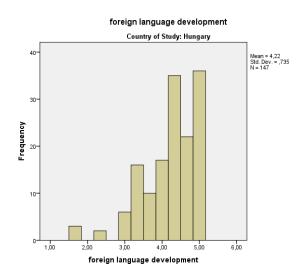
Country of study	N	M	Sd	df	t	p
Turkey	208	3,3269	1,13924	353	-8,332	0,000
Hungary	147	4,2177	,73472			

^{*}P<0.05

Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

As can be seen from Table 35, a total of 335 students participated in the survey. Regarding participant distribution by country, 208 responses came from Turkey and 147 from Hungary, respectively. Independent samples t-test shows that there is a significant difference (p= 0,000) between the two countries according to *foreign language development*. The average scores of participants from Turkey are 3.3269 and from Hungary 4.2177. As a result, students who attend the survey from Turkey have made more foreign language development than the participant from Hungary.





4) Have the Turkish youth who have gone to university outside Turkey made more educational /academic development than their colleagues who have not?

H4: Turkish youth who have enrolled in an academic course in Hungary have made more education /academic development than those who have not.

Table 36 presents the independent sample t-test results to determine whether there is a differentiation between the participants by country in the attitudes of the students who are observed to have a normal distribution in relation to the educational /academic development.

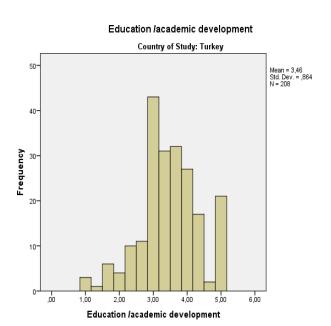
Table 36. Independent samples t-test for Hypothesis 4 (impact of studying abroad or domestic to the education /academic development)

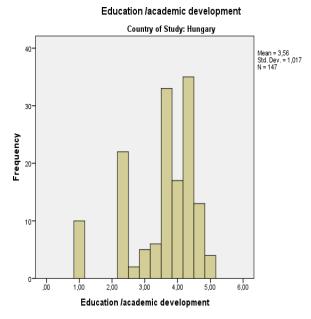
Country of study	N	M	Sd	df	t	p
Turkey	208	3,4647	,86430	353	-,928	0,354
Hungary	147	3,5578	1,01673			

^{*}P<0.05

Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

As can be seen from Table 36, a total of 335 students participated in the survey. Regarding participants distribution by country, 208 responses came from Turkey and 147 from Hungary, respectively. Independent samples t-test shows that there is no significant difference (p= 0.354) between the two countries regarding *educational /academic development*. The average scores of participants from Turkey is 3.4647 and from Hungary 3.5578.





5) Are there career aspiration differences between the Turkish students who have been taking education in a third country and their mates who have continued their studies in Turkey?

H5a: Turkish students who have been admitted to a university training in Hungary are more sufficient to work abroad than Turkish citizens graduated from a higher educational institution in Turkey.

In this study, students were asked to answer this question objectively. Table 37 presents Chi-square results to determine whether there is a differentiation between the participants who are likely to work in their country.

Table 37. Crosstabulation of the planned country for career

Country of S	Study	Turkey	Abroad	Total
	Count	153	55	208
Turkey	% within Country of	73,6%	26,4%	100,0%
,	Study Adjusted Residual	9,4	-9,4	,
Hungary	Count	34	113	147
	% within Country of Study	23,1%	76,9%	100,0%
	Adjusted Residual	-9,4	9,4	
	Count	187	168	355
Total	% within Country of Study	52,7%	47,3%	100,0%

^{*}P < 0.01

Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

According to Table 37 (Pearson Chi-Square = 87.864, Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) = 0.000), a significant relationship was found between studying abroad and the country of employment. 73.6% of the students in higher education in Turkey plan to continue their careers inland, while the remaining 26.4% plan a career abroad. 76.9% of the students in higher education in Hungary plan to continue their career in a foreign country while the remaining 23.1% plan a career in Hungary It is possible to say that the results of this study are in parallel with the results of the T test. As a result of these, Hypothesis 5a was accepted.

5) Are there career aspiration differences between the Turkish students who have been taking education in a third country and their mates who have continued their studies in Turkey?

H5b: There is an occupational difference between the Turkish graduate and undergraduate students pursuing their studies in Hungary and their compatriots staying in Turkey.

Table 38. Country of study * occupational effects crosstabulation

			Occ	cupational Effec	ets		Total
		A paid employee	A paid employee		Educator/	Non- Profit	
		in a private	in a public	Entrepreneur	Academician		
Country of	Study	industry	industry			tion	
	Count	76	75	30	24	3	208
Turkey	% within Country of Study	36,5%	36,1%	14,4%	11,5%	1,4%	100,0
	Adjusted Residual	,2	5,2	-3,1	-2,9	-,4	
	Count	52	17	41	34	3	147
Hungary	% within Country of Study	35,4%	11,6%	27,9%	23,1%	2,0%	100,0 %
	Adjusted Residual	-,2	-5,2	3,1	2,9	,4	
	Count	128	92	71	58	6	355
Total	% within Country of Study	36,1%	25,9%	20,0%	16,3%	1,7%	100,0

^{*}P < 0.01

Source: author's own research based on SPSS, 2019

According to Table 38 (Pearson Chi-Square = 35.047, Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) = 0.000), a significant relationship was found between occupational effects and the country of study. The findings show that the plans regarding working in the private sector are very close among the students pursuing higher education in Turkey and Hungary. From those studying in Turkey, 36.1% plan to continue their careers in the government sector after graduation while from those studying in Hungary 11.6 % plan to do so. As for the preference towards entrepreneurship, from those studying in Hungary, 27.9% plan to become entrepreneurs after graduation, while from those studying in Turkey 14.4% plan to do so. When examining the preference of becoming an academician/educator, the results are quite different: 11.5%

of those studying in Turkey plan to become an academician/educator while 23.1% of those studying in Hungary plan so after graduation. As a result of these, Hypothesis 5b was accepted.

4.7. New and novel scientific achievements

Numerous Turkish students pursued and continue to pursue higher education abroad. In this dissertation, I compare the development of the careers of students studying in Hungary vs. Turkey based on their academic, cultural and personal development/changes. The results of my research are as follows:

- One of the general findings of this study is that higher education has numerous effects
 on the future of the participants. The study reveals the differences in the careers of
 Turkish students that studied in Turkey vs. Hungary. Those who pursued higher education
 in Hungary proved to be more career-oriented than those who did it in Turkey.
- 2) Generally speaking, being open-minded is an important factor among students, but those who pursued higher education in Hungary proved to be more open-minded than those who did it in Turkey.
- 3) This study also reveals that numerous students studying in Turkey have problems with speaking languages. I have discovered that pursuing higher education in Hungary has had a strong positive effect on language skills.
- 4) There was also a difference in the countries where students tend to work after graduation. Those who studied in Turkey thought to continue their careers in Turkey after graduation while the Turkish students who studied in Hungary thought to continue their careers in a foreign country.
- 5) When examining the selection of a profession after graduation, I found the differences between students who studied in Hungary and those in Turkey.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Selecting an occupation is one of the most important decisions that influence and individual's life. Every individual hopes to select a profession that they can continue with inspiration and enthusiasm throughout their lives. Career selection is influenced by a number of factors and is directed by career planning. Among these factors, the effects of the family and the environment also have an important place. Apart from this, the chronic problem of unemployment and work conditions may also exert pressure on young people still pursuing an education in Turkey or worldwide. Also, the effect of globalization and technology brought about new occupational areas and groups. Along with the increase in "educated" population, employers tend to a more particular employee selection on the labor market. In this environment, students still in their educational years have become more competitive and attach more importance to development.

The emergence of new occupational groups and the changes in lifestyle compel global trendsetters to take the requirements of employers / the labor market into account even in the educational system. At first sight, this may seem like a possible solution. However, in this age of increasing globalization, numerous factors of the quality of education should be examined. One of these factors is the difference between pursuing education inland and abroad. As it can be seen from this study, Turkish students studying abroad show a more significant development academically, culturally and in language skills, and this development has a significant effect on their careers.

In the light of the foregoing, unemployment is a chronic problem in every country. Therefore, having alternative choices is an important factor for students to be able to find acceptable employment. Those who studied in Hungary have a greater preference to continue their careers abroad. In this regard, students have various choices regarding the country where they plan to continue their careers.

We can see that numerous students completing their studies in Turkey hope to work in the government sector after graduation. The reason is that those working in the government sector are less influenced by the unfavorable developments of economy and labor market than those in private sector. As this dissertation reveals, students pursuing higher education in Turkey still see the government sector as a gateway to employment. However, fewer students from those who pursue education in Hungary think in the same way.

Table 39. Overview of empirical research

H1: Turkish students who have been studying in Hungary are more career-oriented than the Turkish students who have been doing their studies in their native country.	Approved
H2: Turkish young people who have been going to university in Hungary are more interculturally sensitive / global-minded than their fellows who have remained home.	Approved
H3: Turkish students who have been taking a BA, MA or PhD course in Hungary have made more foreign language development than the ones who opted for carrying on their studies in Turkey.	Approved
H4: Turkish youth who have enrolled in an academic course in Hungary have made more education /academic development than those who have not.	Rejected
H5a: Turkish students who have been admitted to a university training in Hungary are more sufficient to work abroad than Turkish citizens graduated from a higher educational institution in Turkey.	Approved
H5b: There is an occupational difference between the Turkish graduate and undergraduate students pursuing their studies in Hungary and their compatriots staying in Turkey.	Approved

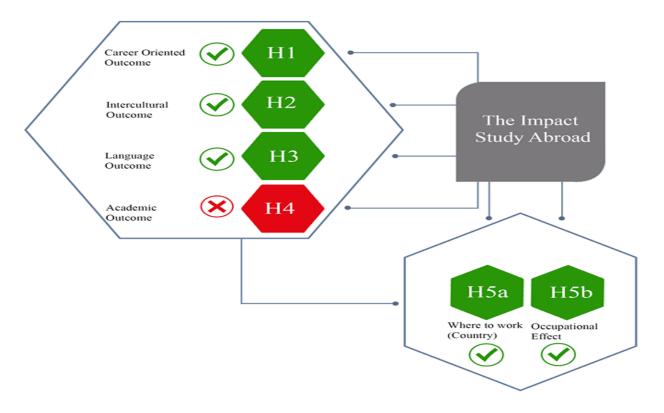


Figure 15. Overview of hypotheses

Source: author's own editing, 2018

Recommendations

The consequences of the differences between students pursuing higher education inland vs. abroad are obvious. This difference is recognized by the Turkish state and the Ministry of National Education as well, and numerous Turkish students are sent abroad for higher education with scholarships in LYSL programs (MEB, 2019). Also, the number of universities and students has increased in Turkey recently. However, there is a lot of debate going on about the quality of higher education. That is why the revision of Turkish higher education programs is inevitable.

With the constant changes in the Turkish education system, students have considerable difficulties to design their careers. For this reason, after their graduation, steps are to be taken in order to fulfil their expectations. Most investments into the Turkish higher education was, indeed, positive but some of them had negative impacts. For example, a study conducted by the Turkish Council of Higher Education or YÖK (2007) shows that the high capacity of the universities contributes to the high level of unemployment among the professionals with university degree. First, the higher

educational curricula have to be revised taking into account the needs of the workforce market. The same way, to introduce a solid scheme of "career management" and "educational management", policy-makers have to pay special attention to make the young people enter the "labour market" in a much smoother manner.

It is also important to carry out studies among students studying in both Hungary and Turkey regarding the differences between the education system of the two countries. Revealing these differences will help to highlight the deficiencies of Turkish higher education.

The years to come will probably become more difficult for students in higher education. Therefore, different solutions should be provided for students studying both in Turkey and abroad. In the opinion of the Hungarian academician LAZANYI (2012), in order to achieve long-term success, the requirements of employers / labor market should also be taken into account in the educational system. One of solution, entrepreneurship should be encouraged for higher education students (ILLES, DUNAY, & JELONEK, 2015).

According to AKTAN (2007), the most prevalent university model in future higher education will be the "entrepreneurship university model". Therefore, in order to avoid making students see higher education as a "waste of time," scholars and decision-makers should closely follow worldwide trends and developments and keep education systems up to date. With appropriate studies and education, students may also be better equipped to overcome the discouraging factors that constitute obstacles in the way of successful entrepreneurship.

On the other hand, the Turkish-Hungarian educational relationship should be developed. Therefore, I think that there are solid arguments to support the opinion that it is worth studying in Hungary, but the two respective governments must better advertise this option.

The cooperation in the field of education between Turkey and Hungary goes back to a contract signed in Ankara on the 5th June 1989 (MFA.GOV.HU, n.d.). This agreement has been reviewed and renewed several times since that date. The latest diplomatic document underlining the importance of friendship and cooperation in the Turkish-Hungarian relationships was decreed by the Hungarian government on the 9th April,2015 (JOGTAR.HU, 2015). Article 12 of this accord states that the two governments encourage the cooperation between the higher education institutions and the research centers of the two countries and the establishment of common research programs based on European principles.

Having said so, one cannot deny that these wonderful ideas must be put into practice. My opinion that an action plan-oriented common work group designated by the respective governments can put together a special brochure and a web page to draw the attention of possible candidates to the scholarship program of Stipendium Hungaricum. I m fully convinced that the Hungarian infrastructure is ready to deal with more Turkish students and in Anatolia, there is willingness to come to study in Hungary.

I think that in the future, deeper investigation should be done on the university students. I would especially study the needs of the workforce market in relation to the career planning. I would also do a research to compare the level of satisfaction among students studying abroad and at home.

6. SUMMARY

In the dissertation, I aimed at pointing out the effects of studies pursued in Hungary vs. Turkey on the careers of Turkish students. I have concluded that students having studied in Hungary have more career alternatives than those completing their studies in Turkey. Students completing their studies in Turkey also tend to have numerous shortcomings in their language skills while those having studied in Hungary demonstrate much stronger foreign language skills. Universities are also important in developing students' views of different cultures in a positive way. One of the important findings of this research is that students having studied in Hungary are definitely more open-minded.

Along with the increasing number of university graduates, the number of graduates on the labor market is rising. The career expectations of Turkish students completing their studies in Turkey proved to be different from those of their peers having studied in Hungary. Most of the students completing their studies in Turkey plan their careers in the government sector. Most of those having studied in Hungary plan to continue their careers as private sector employees or entrepreneurs.

There is also a difference between the country of choice for post-graduate employment. Most of the Turkish students completing their studies in Turkey plan to continue their careers in Turkey, those having studied in Hungary have plans to continue their careers abroad.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I. Survey form (English)

DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

1. Age?

a) 18-22 b) 23-27 c) 28-32 d) 33-37 d) 38+					
2. Gender?					
a) Male b) Female					
3) Marital Status					
a) Single b) Married c) Divorced d) Widow					
4) Education form?					
a) BA/BSc b) MA/MSc c) PhD/Dla					
5) Education field.					
a) Business and Economics					
b) Engineering Science					
c) Medical Science					
e) Law and Administration					
f) Agriculture g) Humanities					
h) Natural Science					
i) Theology					
j) Sport Science					
k) Teacher Training					
l) Other					
6) In which semester do you study?					
a) 1 b) 2 c) 3 d) 4 e) 5 f) 6 g) 7 h) 8 i) 9+					
7) What form of finance did you use to study on this programme at this institution?					
a) Self-Financed b) Scholarship c) Erasmus d) Free of Charge					
8) Which country do you study?					
a) Turkey b) Hungary					
Please read each statement and indicate the extent you disagree or agree with it					
06					

1	2	3	4	5					
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree					
1) Developed m	y academic and resea	arch skill.							
1	2	3	4	5					
2) Influenced m	y decision to expand	l/change academic ma	iors						
1	2	3	4	5					
3) The academi	c education affected	my career path.							
1	2	3	4	5					
4) Reinforced co	ommitment to foreign	n language study							
1	2	3	4	5					
5) Use a languag	ge other than Native	regularly							
1	2	3	4	5					
6) Enhanced my	ability to speak a lar	nguage other than Tur	kish that I may use i	n a workplace					
1	2	3	4	5					
7) Influenced me	e to continue studyin	g after graduation.							
1	2	3	4	5					
8) Ignites my in	terest in a career dire	ction.							
1	2	3	4	5					
9) Established re	elationships that beca	nme professional conta	acts						
1	2	3	4	5					
10) Changed my	career perspective.								
1	2	3	4	5					
11) Enhanced me	the ability to adapt t	o different intercultur	al communication a	nd learning styles.					
1	2	3	4	5					

12) Developed my general openness toward intercultural learning and to people from other culture.						
	1	2	3	4	5	
			effectively in intercultura	al situations based	l on one's	
]	knowledge, skills, aı	nd motivation				
	1	2	3	4	5	
14)	Opened up an intere	st/passion for another	language and/or culture			
	1	2	3	4	5	
1.5	T Cl 1	1 1 1				
15)		xplore other cultures.	2	4	~	
	1	2	3	4	5	
E4	of work life.					
ruture	of work life.					
Whon	zou finish the unive	rsity in which count	ry do you think you wi	ll work?		
	Turkey b) Abroa		iy do you tililik you wi	ii wuik;		
a)	Turkey 0) Auto	iu				
When v	you finish your uni	versity education w	hat position do you th	ink von will wor	k in the labor	
market		versity education, w	nat position do you in	iiik you wiii woi	K III the labor	
market	•					
a) A	A paid employee in	a private industry				
	A paid employee in	-				
c) Entrepreneur						
	Educator/ Academic	ian				
,	Non-Profit Organiza					
,	C					

Appendix II. Survey form (Turkish)

DEMOGRAFIK DEĞİŞKENLER
1. Yaş?
a) 18-22 b) 23-27 c) 28-32 d) 33-37 d) 38+
2. Cinsiyet?
a) Erkek b) Bayan
3) Evlilik Durumu
a) Bekar b) Evli c) Boşanmış d) Dul
4) Eğitim formu?
a) BA/BSc b) MA/MSc c) PhD/Dla
5) Eğitim alanı.
a) İşletme ve Ekonomi
b) Mühendislik Bilimleri
c) Tip
e) Hukuk ve Idari Bilimler
f) Tarım
g) Beşeri Bilimler
h) Doğal Bilimler
i) İlahiyat

j) Spor Bilimleri								
k) Eğitim Bilimleri								
l) Diğer	l) Diğer							
6) Eğitim görüle dö	nem?							
a) 1 b) 2 c) 3	d) 4 e) 5	f)6 g) 7 h)8	i) 9+					
7) Eğitim finansal o	durumu?							
a) Ücretli b) Burs	c) Erasmus d) Ücrets	iz						
8) Eğitim görülen ü	lke?							
a) Türkiye b) Ma	carista							
Lütfen her bir ifade	eyi okuyun ve kabul	ettiğiniz ölçüde değ	erlendirin.					
1	2	3	4	5				
Tamamen	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne	Katılıyorum	Tamamen				
Katılmıyorum		de Katılmıyorum		Katılıyorum				
1) Akademil	k araştırma becerileri	mi geliştirdim.						
1	2	3	4	5				

02) Akademik il	gi alanlarimin çeşitlenr	mesinde/değişmesinde to	ercihlerimi etkiledi.		
1	2	3	4	5	
03) Akademik e	ğitim kariyer yolumu e	tkiledi.			
1	2	3	4	5	
04) Anadilim dı	şında başka bir dili kul	lanma isteğimi etkiledi.			
1	2	3	4	5	
05) Yabancı dil	çalışmalarına karşı ber	ni tetikledi.			
1	2	3	4	5	
06) Bir işyerinde	e kullabileceğim Türkç	e dışında bir dil konuşal	oilme yeteneğimi ge	liştirdim.	
1	2	3	4	5	
07 Eğitim sonras	ında, daha üst seviye e	ğitim alma arzumu tetik	ledi.		
1	2	3	4	5	
08) Kariyer yolu	ımu etkileyecek bir eği	im almamı sağladı.			
1	2	3	4	5	
09) Kariyer şeki	llendirecek birçok prof	esyonel kontak sağladın	n.		
1	2	3	4	5	
10) Kariyer plan	larımı değiştirdi.				
1	2	3	4	5	
11) Farklı kültürl	erarası iletişim ve öğre	nme stillerine uyum sağ	glama yeteneği gelit	irdi.	
1	2	3	4	5	
12) Farklı ülke	ler/kültürel öğrenmeye	ve diğer kültürlerden i	nsanlara karşı daha	açık fikirli olma	ımı
sağladı .					
1	2	3	4	5	
13) Bilgi, beceri	ve motivasyona dayal	ı olarak kültürlerarası d	urumlarda uygun v	e etkili davranma	ımı
sağladı.					
1	2	3	4	5	

14) Başka bir dil ve	veya kültür için b	ir bir öğrenme arzusu oluşt	urdu.	
1	2	3	4	5
15) Diğer kültürler	i keşfetmem için b	eni etkiledi.		
1	2	3	4	5
Gelecek iş hayatı				
Mezun olduktan hang	ülkede çalışacağ	ınızı düşünüyorsunuz?		
a)Turkiye	b) Yurtdışı			
Üniversite eğitiminiz	i bitirdiğinizde,	, işgücü piyasasında	hangi pozisyon	da çalışacağınızı
düşünüyorsunuz?				
 f) Özel sektörde üd g) Kamu sektörü üd h) Girişimci i) Akademisyen j) Kar Amacı Gütr 		on		

Appendix III. Average usual weekly hours worked on the main job(OECD)

Time	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Country												
Australia	43,3	43,3	43,3	43,0	43,0	42,9	42,9	42,8	42,6	42,6	42,4	42,3
Austria	43,5	43,4	43,1	42,8	42,7	42,6	42,4	42,1	41,9	41,8	41,7	41,6
Belgium	40,7	40,9	40,5	40,5	40,7	40,8	40,8	41,1	40,9	40,9	40,7	40,9
Chile	46,4	46,3	46,5	46,5	48,3	48,2	48,0	47,8	47,5	47,1	46,9	46,5
<u>Colombia</u>		<u>53,0</u>	<u>52,2</u>	<u>51,9</u>	<u>52,2</u>	<u>51,9</u>	<u>52,0</u>	<u>51,7</u>	<u>50,9</u>	<u>50,6</u>	<u>50,2</u>	<u>49,9</u>
Czech Republic	42,5	42,5	42,5	42,3	42,2	42,0	41,9	41,7	41,5	41,5	41,4	41,4
Denmark	39,8	38,4	38,3	38,2	38,2	38,3	38,3	38,3	38,3	38,5	38,3	38,2
<u>Estonia</u>	41,2	41,1	40,8	40,6	40,7	40,7	40,7	40,7	40,7	40,6	40,4	40,3
Finland	40,9	40,3	40,3	40,2	40,2	40,2	40,2	40,0	40,0	40,1	40,1	40,1
France	40,9	40,9	40,9	40,9	41,0	41,0	40,9	40,5	40,3	40,3	40,3	40,3
Germany	41,2	41,1	41,1	41,2	41,2	41,2	41,2	41,0	40,8	40,7	40,6	40,5
Greece	44,5	44,3	44,3	44,5	44,4	44,3	44,4	44,7	44,8	45,0	45,1	44,8
Hungary	41,0	40,9	40,8	40,7	40,6	40,6	40,5	40,6	40,7	40,8	40,6	40,6
Iceland	46,3	46,3	45,5	44,2	44,1	44,4	44,3	44,5	44,4	44,6	44,3	44,1
Ireland	40,9	40,8	40,7	40,4	40,4	40,5	40,5	40,7	40,8	41,1	41,0	41,2
<u>Israel</u>	45,6	45,8	45,4	44,9	44,9	44,8	45,5	45,0	44,7	44,8	44,8	44,8

Italy	41,8	41,8	41,7	41,4	41,3	41,1	40,8	40,9	41,0	41,1	41,1	41,2
Korea	51,5	50,7	49,6	49,8	49,2	48,7	48,5	47,0	47,7	47,6	46,9	46,8
Latvia	42,7	42,0	41,4	41,0	40,5	40,6	40,5	40,5	40,5	40,6	40,3	40,2
Lithuania	40,0	40,1	40,2	40,0	39,9	39,9	39,9	39,9	39,9	40,0	40,0	40,0
Luxembourg	39,9	39,4	39,5	40,9	40,7	40,5	40,6	40,5	40,8	40,8	40,6	40,5
Mexico	49,2	49,1	49,2	49,2	49,1	49,1	49,1	49,1	48,9	49,1	49,0	48,8
Netherlands	39,3	39,3	39,2	39,2	39,3	39,2	39,1	39,0	39,1	39,1	39,0	38,9
New Zealand	44,0	43,9	43,9	43,6	43,5	43,5	43,4	43,4	43,3	43,3	43,6	43,5
Norway	39,0	38,9	38,8	38,8	38,6	38,6	38,7	38,6	38,8	38,7	38,7	
Poland	43,6	43,5	43,2	42,8	42,7	42,5	42,6	42,6	42,4	42,2	42,1	41,9
Portugal	41,3	41,4	41,4	41,3	41,2	42,3	42,5	42,7	42,7	42,3	42,0	41,9
Slovak Republic	41,5	41,5	41,5	41,4	41,4	41,5	41,6	41,7	41,6	41,5	41,4	41,2
Slovenia	42,4	42,4	42,4	41,9	41,8	41,6	41,8	41,7	41,7	41,5	41,3	41,3
Spain	42,0	41,8	41,7	41,6	41,6	41,4	41,4	41,6	41,4	41,2	41,0	40,8
Sweden	39,8	39,8	39,7	39,7	39,7	39,7	39,7	39,7	39,7	39,7	39,7	39,7
Switzerland	42,3	42,4	42,3	42,2	42,1	42,0	41,9	41,8	41,7	41,6	41,6	41,5
<u>Turkey</u>	<u>55,1</u>	<u>53,9</u>	<u>53,5</u>	<u>53,2</u>	<u>53,2</u>	<u>52,9</u>	<u>52,4</u>	<u>52,0</u>	<u>51,2</u>	<u>50,7</u>	<u>49,8</u>	<u>49,4</u>
United Kingdom	42,9	42,9	42,8	42,6	42,6	42,6	42,6	42,7	42,7	42,7	42,6	42,4
United States												

OECD countries	42,2	42,0	41,9	41,8	41,8	41,8	41,8	41,6	41,6	41,6	41,5	41,2
Costa Rica					50,4	49,3	49,0	49,2	49,5	49,6	49,4	49,0
European Union 22	41,8	41,7	41,6	41,5	41,5	41,4	41,4	41,3	41,3	41,2	41,1	41,0
European Union 16	41,6	41,5	41,5	41,4	41,4	41,3	41,3	41,2	41,2	41,1	41,0	40,9
European Union 28	41,7	41,7	41,6	41,5	41,5	41,4	41,4	41,3	41,3	41,2	41,1	41,0
Europe	43,1	42,9	42,8	42,7	42,7	42,7	42,7	42,6	42,5	42,4	42,2	41,7
G7 countries	39,1	39,0	39,0	38,8	38,7	38,7	38,7	38,6	38,7	38,6	38,6	38,6
Brazil	45,2	45,0	44,7	44,5		44,2	44,0	43,8	43,5	43,1	••	
Bulgaria	41,8	41,9	42,0	41,7	41,6	41,2	41,1	41,2	41,2	41,2	41,2	41,1
Croatia	41,8	42,0	41,9	41,9	41,7	41,5	41,2	40,9	41,1	40,9	40,5	40,6
Cyprus	41,8	41,6	41,8	42,0	42,0	41,8	41,9	42,2	42,1	42,0	41,9	41,7
FYR of Macedonia	45,0	45,1	45,2	44,8	44,3	43,9	43,5	43,1	43,0	42,6	42,5	43,2
Malta	41,1	41,2	41,0	41,0	41,3	41,3	41,3	41,0	41,0	41,0	41,0	40,9
Romania	41,4	41,3	41,3	41,2	41,1	41,0	41,0	40,9	40,7	40,6	40,6	40,5
South Africa			47,8	47,0	46,7	46,6	46,4	46,3	46,1	46,2	46,1	46,0

Source: OECD, 2018a

Appendix IV. Students in tertiary education as % of total population (2013-2016)

GEO/TIME	2013	2014	2015	2016
Austria	4,93	4,93	4,93	4,93
Belgium	4,38	4,42	4,48	4,49
Bulgaria	3,91	3,92	3,89	3,74
Croatia	3,87	3,92	3,85	3,88
Cyprus	3,71	3,95	4,38	4,74
Czechia	4,07	3,98	3,75	3,52
Denmark	5,19	5,34	5,52	5,50
Estonia	4,92	4,56	4,20	3,88
Finland	5,68	5,60	5,52	5,41
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	2,94	2,93	3,07	3,05
France	3,55	3,61	3,64	3,71
Germany	3,45	3,60	3,65	3,70
Greece	6,01	6,22	6,38	6,58
Hungary	3,63	3,34	3,13	3,01
Iceland	5,90	6,08	-	5,54
Ireland	4,31	4,38	4,56	4,59
Italy	3,11	3,05	3,01	3,00

Latvia	4,69	4,50	4,34	4,30
Liechtenstein	2,28	2,23	2,00	2,05
Lithuania	5,40	5,06	4,84	4,66
Luxembourg	-	1,22	1,21	1,19
Malta	2,95	2,90	2,97	3,02
Netherlands	-	-	4,97	4,91
Norway	5,03	5,14	5,17	5,30
Poland	5,00	4,64	4,38	4,21
Portugal	3,45	3,48	3,26	3,32
Romania	3,09	2,91	2,73	2,72
Serbia	3,34	3,41	3,40	3,56
Slovakia	3,87	3,65	3,40	3,08
Slovenia	4,74	4,50	4,15	3,91
Spain	4,22	4,26	4,23	4,24
Sweden	4,55	4,43	4,37	4,29
Switzerland	3,46	3,54	3,56	3,52
<u>Turkey</u>	<u>6,53</u>	<u>7,09</u>	<u>7,75</u>	8,44
United Kingdom	3,72	3,64	3,58	3,64

Appendix V. Number of foreign students by country

	Accounts
Country	Number of students in tertiary education (capita)
Total Country	35472
Afghanistan	37
Aland Islands	
Albania	35
Algeria	162
United States	609
American Samoa	
Virgin Islands, U.S. Andorra	
Angola	61
Anguilla	01
Antarctica	
Antigua and Barbuda	1
Argentina	22
Aruba	
Australia	34
Austria	139
Azerbaijan	565
Bahamas	
Bahrain	4
Bangladesh	123
Barbados	
Belarus	27
Belgium	108
Belize Benin	2
Bermuda	2
Bhutan	4
Guinea-Bissau	7
Bolivia, Plurinational State of	3
Bosnia and Herzegovina	42
Botswana	1
Bouvet Island	
Brazil	332
British Antarctic Territory	
British Indian Ocean Territory	
Virgin Islands, British	
Brunei Darussalam	
Bulgaria	34
Burkina Faso	5
Burma Burundi	
Canton and Enderbury Islands	
Chile	6
Onlic	6

Cyprus	104
Comoros	
Cook Islands	
Costa Rica	2
Chad	1
Czech Republic	66
Czechoslovakia	00
Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands	
1010111110	
Dahomey	
Denmark	29
South Africa	165
South Georgia and the South	
Sandwich Islands	1
Korea, Republic of	625
South Sudan	2
Democratic Yemen	
Dominica	
Dominican Republic	
Dronning Maud Land	
Djibouti	
Ecuador	105
Equatorial Guinea	1
United Arab Emirates	·
	9
United Kingdom	369
Egypt	410
Côte d`Ivoire	5
Eritrea	8
Northern Mariana Islands	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
Korea, Democratic People's	
Korea, Democratic People`s Republic of	
Korea, Democratic People`s Republic of Estonia	22
Korea, Democratic People`s Republic of Estonia Ethiopia	
Korea, Democratic People`s Republic of Estonia	22
Korea, Democratic People`s Republic of Estonia Ethiopia	22 75
Korea, Democratic People`s Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas)	22 75
Korea, Democratic People`s Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands	22 75
Korea, Democratic People`s Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta	22 75 2
Korea, Democratic People`s Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands Fiji Finland	22 75 2
Korea, Democratic People`s Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands Fiji	22 75 2
Korea, Democratic People`s Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands Fiji Finland French Southern and Antarctic Territories	22 75 2
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands Fiji Finland French Southern and Antarctic Territories French Southern Territories	22 75 2
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands Fiji Finland French Southern and Antarctic Territories French Guiana	22 75 2
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands Fiji Finland French Southern and Antarctic Territories French Guiana French Polynesia	22 75 2
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands Fiji Finland French Southern and Antarctic Territories French Southern Territories French Guiana French Polynesia France	22 75 2 1 91
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands Fiji Finland French Southern and Antarctic Territories French Guiana French Polynesia France Philippines	22 75 2 1 91
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands Fiji Finland French Southern and Antarctic Territories French Guiana French Polynesia France Philippines Gabon	22 75 2 1 91 660 38 2
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands Fiji Finland French Southern and Antarctic Territories French Guiana French Polynesia France Philippines Gabon Gambia	22 75 2 1 91 660 38 2
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands Fiji Finland French Southern and Antarctic Territories French Southern Territories French Guiana French Polynesia France Philippines Gabon Gambia Ghana	22 75 2 1 91 660 38 2
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands Fiji Finland French Southern and Antarctic Territories French Guiana French Polynesia France Philippines Gabon Gambia Ghana Gibraltar	22 75 2 1 91 660 38 2
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands Fiji Finland French Southern and Antarctic Territories French Guiana French Polynesia France Philippines Gabon Gambia Ghana Gibraltar Gilbert and Ellice Islands	22 75 2 1 91 660 38 2
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands Fiji Finland French Southern and Antarctic Territories French Southern Territories French Guiana French Polynesia France Philippines Gabon Gambia Ghana Gibraltar Gilbert and Ellice Islands Greece	22 75 2 1 91 660 38 2
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands Fiji Finland French Southern and Antarctic Territories French Guiana French Polynesia France Philippines Gabon Gambia Ghana Gibraltar Gilbert and Ellice Islands	22 75 2 1 91 660 38 2 2 2
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands Fiji Finland French Southern and Antarctic Territories French Southern Territories French Guiana French Polynesia France Philippines Gabon Gambia Ghana Gibraltar Gilbert and Ellice Islands Greece	22 75 2 1 91 660 38 2 2 2
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of Estonia Ethiopia Falkland Islands (Malvinas) Upper Volta Faroe Islands Fiji Finland French Southern and Antarctic Territories French Guiana French Polynesia France Philippines Gabon Gambia Ghana Gibraltar Gilbert and Ellice Islands Greece Grenada	22 75 2 1 91 660 38 2 2 2

Guadeloupe	1
Guam	
Guatemala	2
Guernsey	
Guinea	21
Guyana	1
Haiti	3
Heard Island and McDonald	Ŭ i
Islands	
Netherlands Antilles	
Netherlands	194
Honduras	1
Hong Kong	4
Croatia	87
India	727
Indonesia	108
Iraq	230
Iran, Islamic Republic of	2169
Ireland	293
Iceland	82
Israel	531
Jamaica	2
Japan	503
Yemen	112
Jersey	
Johnston Island	
Jordan	791
Yugoslavia	
Cayman Islands	
Cambodia	29
Cameroon	79
Canada	174
Christmas Island	
Qatar	8
Kazakhstan	463
Timor-Leste	
Kenya	184
China	2377
Kyrgyzstan	71
Kiribati	
Cocos (Keeling) Islands	
Colombia	62
Congo, the Democratic	
Republic of the	6
Congo	11
Korea	
Kosovo	123
Central African Republic	2
Cuba	
Kuwait	7
Lao People`s Democratic	
Republic	88
Poland	190
Lesotho	

Latvia	17
Lebanon	125
Liberia	1
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	34
Liechtenstein	
Lithuania	29
Luxembourg	18
Macedonia, the former	10
Yugoslav Republic of	53
Madagascar	4
Hungary	4
Macao	
Malaysia	20
Malawi	20
Maldives	2
	1
Mali	2
Malta	44
Isle of Man	
Morocco	223
Marshall Islands	
Martinique	
Mauritania	1
Mauritius	30
Mayotte	
Mexico	107
Myanmar	23
Midway Islands	
Micronesia, Federated States of	
Moldova, Republic of	60
Monaco	
Mongolia	451
Montenegro	28
Montserrat	
Mozambique	5
Namibia	20
Nauru	
German Democratic Republic	
Germany, Federal Republic of	
Germany	3430
Nepal	29
Nicaragua	1
Niger	2
Nigeria	970
Niue	
Norfolk Island	
Norway	906
Western Sahara	
Italy	563
Oman	1
Russian Federation	492
Armenia	25
Pakistan	715
	715
Palau	

Palestinian Territory, Occupied	
(2)	163
Panama	
Panama Canal Zone	
Papua New Guinea	
Paraguay	2
Peru	17
Pitcairn	
Portugal	229
Puerto Rico	
Réunion	
Rhodesia	
Romania	2216
Rwanda	10
Saint Barthélemy	
Saint Kitts and Nevis	
Saint Lucia	1
Saint Martin, French Part	
Saint Vincent and the	
Grenadines	1
Saint Pierre and Miquelon	
Solomon Islands	
El Salvador	3
San Marino	
Sao Tomé and Príncipe	
Neutral Zone	
Seychelles	7
Sierra Leone	1
Spain	577
Sri Lanka	17
Suriname	
Switzerland	79
Svalbard and Jan Mayen	
Sweden	184
Samoa	
Saudi Arabia	124
Senegal	9
Saint Helena	
Serbia	1944
Serbia and Montenegro	
Sikkim	
Singapore	12
Syrian Arab Republic	619
Slovakia	1750
Slovenia	43
Somalia	2
French Territory of the Afars	
and the Issas	
U.S.S.R.	
Sudan	65
Swaziland	
Tajikistan	4
Taiwan	132
Tanzania, United Republic of	26

Thailand	53
Togo	3
Tokelau	
Tonga	
Turkey	1138
Trinidad and Tobago	
Tunisia	318
Turks and Caicos Islands	
Tuvalu	
Turkmenistan	22
Uganda	49
New Hebrides	
New Caledonia	
New Zealand	14
Ukraine	1202
Uruguay	3
U.S. Miscellaneous Pacific	
Islands	
United States Minor Outlying	
Islands	
Uzbekistan	26
Vanuatu	
Holy See (Vatican City State)	
Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic	
of	18
Viet Nam	
Democratic Republic of Viet	
Nam	543
Wake Island	
Wallis and Futuna	
Zaire	
Zambia	5
Zimbabwe	57
Cape Verde	7
Stateless or unknown	2

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