PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION OF METROPOLITAN

TURKISH JOURNALISTS: A COMMUNICATOR ANALYSIS

by

Oguz B. Nayman

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DEDICATION

To my wife, Robbie, for her never-ending
confidence in me which made the completion
of this task possible.

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I believe one of the happy and stimulating aspects of
conducting research is the experience which one gains in
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

Table   Page

Table   Page

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In the wake of rapid technological changes, the pro-
fessionalization of occupations is becoming more than a
status symbol for the people around the world. The trend
towards a more professional outlook in almost every occupa-
tion today reflects both the characteristics and the
necessities of modern society. It has been said that an
industrializing society is a professionalizing society.[1]

Some of the virtues of professional behavior, such as
altruism, independence, rationality, and demonstration of
a highly intellectual competence, make such behavior a
desirable goal for many occupations. In traditional
society--where behavior is governed by custom rather than
law--the social structure is hierarchical and the individual's
position in the society is normally inherited rather than
achieved.[2] In contrast to traditional society, members of
modern society are differentiated not by their ancestry,
religion or political affiliations, but rather by their
achieved status and by their occupational identification.[3]

In short, the modern society is achievement-oriented rather than ascriptive. Thus, a person's occupational position becomes an important asset in modern society as a means of gaining individual prestige and social privilege. Perhaps this is one of the reasons why we have "sanitary engineers" instead of garbage collectors, or "mortuary scientists" instead of undertakers. Although labeling of one's work reflects the formal, complex and unattached structure of urban life in modern society, it does not add to the real nature of one's occupation. For any occupation to become a full-scale profession, which is valued by its members and the public alike, a series of standards must be met.

It may be true that industrialization and its accompanying need for specialization in modern society have influenced the emergence of better trained and more competent men in many occupations. It may also be true that these well trained and more competent men are as sober, dutiful, and dedicated in their work as any other professional. Nevertheless, professionalization of all occupations, no matter how ambitiously their members aspire to recognition as "professionals," is far from being realized.

The fact remains that in the last several decades the

basic criteria of professionalism, which once were mono-
polized by the classic professions such as medicine and
law, are shared more by the emerging occupations. Socio-
logists today, instead of dichotomizing the occupations
into such categories as professional and non-professional,
are placing them on a continuum in accordance with their
possession of the basic criteria of professionalism.[4]
This approach enables us to investigate professional or-
ientation among the members of emerging occupations such
as journalism.

In the following study, an attempt was made to assess
the professional orientations of the members of Turkey's
national daily press within the framework of a sample
survey.

Purpose of the study

In accordance with their policy of defensive moderni-
zation, the Ottoman rulers reluctantly permitted the first
Turkish private newspaper Tercuman-i Ahval (Interpreter of
Events) to be established in 1860, in Istanbul, albeit
with strict controls.[5] Thus, journalism became one of
the peculiar occupations in the Ottoman society and was
looked upon with awe if not with pity. The ordinary

citizen, writes Karpat, looked upon newspapermen as a queer
congregation of martyrs (and also of libertines who congre-
gated in a few well-known drinking places in the European
section of Istanbul) and would not associate with them--
especially since the government's dislike of the press was
more than obvious. Badly paid and without protection,
newsmen would often succumb to the generous bribes offered
by the government in the form of government position or
money.[6]

Reminiscing about early years in his career, Ahmed E.
Yalman, a noted Turkish journalist, contends that nobody
at the turn of the century thought of making a living in
journalism. Every journalist had a secondary occupation
to help pad his income.[7] Therefore, the establishment of
the press as an institution, and journalism as an occupa-
tion in the Turkish society, was indeed an arduous task:
its accomplishment could even be subject to debate in some
quarters of the Turkish public today.

For the past century however, the Turkish press has
been able to perform a pace-setting role in the political
and societal changes which took place in Turkey, despite
severe government pressure and adverse economic conditions.

The pioneer journalists--some of them also belonged to a politically oriented group called Young Ottomans-- embraced their role as political and social reformers right from the start. Sinasi Efendi, chief editorial writer of the first newspaper Tercuman-i Ahval, in his first article wrote:

> The people living in a social body . . . being charged with so.many obligations . . . have (also) the right to express opinion as part of their vested rights . . . If this statement needs proof it suffices to point to the political newspapers of nations whose minds have been en- lightened by the forces of education.[8]

Editorials of Sinasi Efendi and the editorials of other newspapers consisted of topics such as reform in the edu- cational system, industrialization, trade expansion, modernization of agriculture, in which the authors demanded changes in these fields. Thus started a long debate on modernization in the columns of the Turkish newspapers.

As men of letters--quite a few of them wrote novels, plays and poetry--the early journalists of Turkey were cosmopolite in their background.[9] Most of them came from the upper classes of the bureaucratic Ottoman elite.[10] Some of them had been in Europe and were able to speak foreign languages.[11] However, the nature of the press in

its early years in Turkey could be described, at best, as

by the elite and for the elite.

Toward the end of the 19th century, the Young Turk move-
ment opened a new era in the Turkish press. As graduates
of Western style military and civilian schools, the Young
Turks were middle class, strictly modern in thought, and
revolutionary in their political aims.[12] The Ottoman
government reacted with repressive measures to the indoc-
trination and agitation activities of the Young Turks.
Many of them were exiled, but they continued their acti-
vities from abroad, and published more than a hundred
newspapers in European countries and mailed them back to
Turkey by different means.[13]

In this interim period of the modernization process
in Turkey, the press--in alliance with the middle-class,
professional, modernist intelligentsia--acted as a change
agent in inducing thoughts and programs of forthcoming
political changes in Turkey.[14]

The foundation of the Turkish Republic by Ataturk and
his associates in 1923 marked the victory of the modernists
in the long-lasting political struggle between the

conservatives and Western-oriented modernizers in Turkey.

During the one-party regime, the desire to create a

supporting, like-minded press was strong. Thus, newspapers

under the Kemalist regime, at times, were instrumental in

initiating the policies of the government. As Karpat

states:

> The features of the press and mass media in
> general during the Republic were determined by
> the modernist-secularist purposes of the regime
> and by the authoritarian policy of the govern-
> ment, supposedly necessary to enforce these
> reforms . . . The press was still owned by
> private individuals, as were the printing
> presses, but all ended by supporting the
> government's modernist secularist policy.[15]

Some journalists worked in high government positions.

Some of them were members of the National Assembly.[16] In

short, the one-party press may have served as a status

conferral factor for the modernizing programs of the

government.[17]

However, the Kemalist government's broad and vague

concept of "destructive criticism" intimidated the press

and made it only a supporter of the state's policies. A

member of the General Directorate of Press and Information

which was founded during the Ataturk regime, reflects the

government's feelings in his writings very well. He wrote

about the press:

> Like in other fields of Kemalism, the cooperation
> between the press and the government is a neces-
> sary principal. Therefore the destructive
> criticism should be replaced with positive and
> constructive criticism in order to achieve the
> goal of national unity.[18]

Despite the desire of the one-party regime to create

a supporting and like-minded press, criticisms of the new

ruling elite and some aspects of the newly initiated social

and economic programs continued to appear in the columns of

newspapers. Thus in order to prevent "the press (from)

abusing its freedom, undermining the society's 'moral'

and social foundations, and harming the prestige of in-

dividual persons," a new press bill was passed in 1931, and,

as amended in 1932, 1933, 1934, 1938 and 1940, it became

one of the most undemocratic laws in the republic.[19]

The press was instrumental in the transition from a

one-party to the multi-party system in Turkey in 1946. By

directly educating, informing, and urging the citizenry

about the necessities and rules of the democratic process,

the press prepared public for the multi-party system.[20]

The Democratic Party came to power in 1950 and the

relations between the press and the government were

friendly. However, the initial good relations between

the Menderes' regime and the press ended abruptly when the
press began severely criticizing the economic policies of
the government. As Karpat observes:

> The Democratic Party government passed a liberal
> press law (No. 5568 of July 15, 1950) in gratitude
> for press support received during the years in
> opposition. But the regime of freedom did not
> last long. The Democrats' economic policy, abuses
> in handling public funds, favoritism in giving
> contracts, and other derelictions began to be
> criticized in 1953, whereupon the government
> adopted a series of amendments abridging freedom
> of the press and leaving journalists at the
> mercy of authorities . . . During the following
> years, in 1955-1960, the Democrats tried to subdue
> the press by a diversity of means and ended by
> jailing journalists and closing newspapers.[21]

These measures taken by the Menderes' regime proved to
be fruitless and the press continued its criticism despite
severe pressures extended by the government. Thus failing
to achieve full control of the press through repressive
actions, the Democrats formed, in April of 1960, an inquiry
committee with absolute powers to investigate, suppress
any publications, and to arrest journalists deemed danger-
ous to the national security of the country. But the
oppressive methods of the committee cause the wrath and
anger of the youth and the military with a "coup" in May 27,
1960 the Democratic Party was ousted.[22]

The real "communication revolution" started in Turkey

with the acceptance of the multi-party system.[23]

There are numerous social and economic factors which helped to accelerate the expansion of the media during the multi-party era. Among these socio-economic factors were the building of new highways and village roads; easier transportation possibilities for the peasant to travel to the small towns and cities; internal migration and swelling up of the population in the metropolitan areas; an increase in number of transistor radio receivers; an increase in the number of the daily and weekly newspapers in rural Turkey; an increase in the circulation of the newspapers; easy and available credit opportunities to the farmers; introduction of machine farming into Turkish agriculture; a substantial increase in the number of industrial workers; and formation of labor unions and federations.[24] All these factors directly and indirectly affected the expansion and the penetration of the media to the once remote and isolated villages of Turkey.[25]

The socio-economic developments noted above increased the capacity of the lower socio-economic classes and peasantry of Turkey for vicarious participation in the nation's affairs.[26]

In Turkey today, schools of journalism have been opened, professional press associations have been founded, the press enjoys a freedom with moderate controls, working conditions of journalists have been improved by laws, and self-control of the press in terms of a code of ethics is being practiced.[27] Nevertheless, there are still some obstacles which remain in the way of total independence of the Turkish press from control by the government.

For example, the main source of revenue for some of the Turkish newspapers comes from a preponderance of government advertising thus making the press somewhat dependent on the government for its survival.[28]

Newspapers in Turkey are still not allowed to import or buy their newsprint, equipment and machinery directly. The government determines the quotas of these for newspapers and thus has options for indirect control of the press.[29]

Despite considerable changes in the Constitution of Turkey and in the press laws within the last decade, freedom of the press is still under the threat of some regulations which remain in existence.[30]

Finally and quite relevant to the subject of this study, there is the problem of professionalization and adequate

performance of the press according to professional standards. From time to time the Turkish press draws criticism from within or without concerning its performance and professional standing.

Kemal Karpat, in his discussion of the mass media in Turkey, draws his conclusions about the professional standing of the Turkish press from special historical-political circumstances and states:

> The government introduced the modern media in order to enhance its own authority but opposed all attempts to utilize them for divergent purposes. The ensuing struggle to assure freedom of communication became a part of the fight for democracy generally and left the media little leisure to develop high professional standards.[31]

Recruiting procedures and low salaries were also attributed to inadequate performance of the press in general. At the joint request of the Turkish Newspapermen's Trade Union and the Turkish government in 1963, Oscar Pollak and Olivier Reverdin, two members of the International Press Institute, visited Turkey and investigated the Turkish press. In their report the investigators contended that the professional training of journalists was not satisfactory and that some youths with inadequate backgrounds were being employed at low salaries. This situation, according to the investigators, was hindering the professional quality of the Turkish press.[32]

Some members of the press in Turkey are also expressing

dissatisfaction with its performance. For example, Cetin

Altan, a long-time member of the Turkish press, while dis-

cussing the professional standards of journalism, points to

these weaknesses: (a) a lack of self-confidence, (b) a

lack of comprehensive and rational reporting skills, (c)

a scarcity of trained journalists, (d) a lack of objectivity,

and (e) a limited knowledge of world affairs resulting in

a narrow outlook.[33]

According to the observers quoted above, factors af-

fecting the professional standards of the journalism in

Turkey are: (a) pressures from the government, (b) low

salaries, (c) hasty recruiting practices, (d) lack of

training, (e) lack of research, and (f) lack of self-

confidence. In other words, a series of political, socio-

economic and personality factors are working together to

prevent the achievement of higher professional standards

among the Turkish journalists.

The importance of these factors mentioned by the

critics of the Turkish press is undeniable. Altogether

they may constitute a serious handicap for journalists in

performing their job according to professional standards.

However, it would be logically consistent under the
theoretical assumptions of the sociology of occupations to
have a baseline for the purposes of comparisons--a set of
basic criteria of professionalization. Without such a base-
line, how do we measure and evaluate the professional stand-
ing of a group of journalists? Without such a measurement
device and empirical data in support of its claims, the
evaluations made and the criticisms directed to a group of
journalists in regard to professionalization may be con-
sidered mainly speculation.

In his study of Chilean journalists, Menanteau-Horta
states that: "If a lack of studies concerning the profes-
sional communicator is felt in countries which hold a
tradition in research . . . the absence of information
about journalists is more critical in countries where
sociological interest is only beginning."[34] For the last
century of its existence, the Turkish press played an un-
deniably important role in the socio-political development
of Turkey. However, studies concerning the historical
development of the press in Turkey and of the occupational
characteristics of its members are almost non-existent.
The purpose of this study, then, was to investigate and

analyze the socio-economic backgrounds and the professional

orientations of a representative sample of the members of

the Turkish national daily press by utilizing the tools of

social sciences.

Rationale of the study

In the process of modernization, the transition from

an oral to a mass communications system makes the communica-

tor's task a difficult one. This difficulty stems from

the close relation between communication systems and social

systems. In transitional societies, oral communication and

the mass media generally exist side by side. This means

that the majority of people, out of necessity, still utilize

the oral system of communication more than the mass media

for information-seeking and decision making. On the social

level, while traditional beliefs, values and norms dominate

a good portion of a transitional society, a minority at-

tempts to adhere to the standards of modernization. The

dilemma which communicators in a transitional society face

is the result of this duality. On the one hand a good

part of his audience may expect him to perform within the

frame of reference of the traditional society. On the

other hand, the job of the communicator may require him to

communicate messages originated within or outside of the system which might be contradictory to the beliefs, values and norms held by the traditional segment of the society. Thus the conflict which arises from the contradictory nature of transitional societies may cause a considerable frustration for communicators in developing countries.

Furthermore, as was briefly described in the case of the Turkish press above, government pressures and severe economic troubles also curtail the activities of communicators in transitional societies.

To overcome these difficulties, it may be functional for the communicator in developing countries to adhere to professional standards. To the question of "Can a journalist Be a 'Professional' in a Developing Country?" Sydney Head replies:

> The newsman is a newsman insofar as he conceives himself as employed by the public to serve the public. To the extent that this conception is impossible, to that extent he is not a newsman but an apologist or a public relations man . . . there is no situation in which he does not have some degree of freedom to develop this point of view, and the more he develops it the more likely he is to win further degrees of freedom to achieve true professional status.[35]

Pye claims that in a fundamental sense modernization involves the emergence of a special class of communicators.[36]

Indeed, the emergence of a group of professionally-oriented communicators who are dedicated to public service may help close the gap between the two different segments of transitional society.

A considerable number of studies have been conducted to measure the effects of the media in developing countries.[37] For example, Frey conducted a study with a sample of 6,436 in 458 villages of Turkey on the media use and changing peasant attitudes. Basically the research question posed by Frey in his large-scale survey was:

> (In Turkey) . . . along with the schools, the media carried the pollen of modernization throughout the intellectual sector of society and made an essential contribution to the flowering of political and social development that occurred in the first third of the 20th century. Can they play the same apparent role in rural development?[38]

Frey's findings showed that the peasants' exposure to media was significantly correlated, among other things, with their political knowledge, political empathy, general knowledge about the world, uses of social services, tolerance for deviance, communal cooperativeness and cognitive flexibility. Frey found that, of the three major media, the cinema seemed to have the most influence on changes in the cognitive structures of the peasants. On the other hand,

Frey claimed that the newspapers had a significant effect even on the semi-literate peasants if they managed to be exposed to them.[39]

However, research which makes the communicator the focus of its investigation is neglected in both developed and developing societies. Especially in developing countries such as Turkey, where the media men have been among the elites and where they still play an important role in the process of modernization, the "who" of communications is a significant research topic. Therefore it was deemed necessary and useful to conduct a study basically dealing with communicator analysis in Turkey.

It was thought that such research could be helpful to determine: (a) the perception of the communicator himself as a "professional," (b) the communicator's evaluation of journalism as a "profession," and (c) the needs which communicator feels should be met in order to achieve professionalism. It was also believed that the results of such a study may inspire and guide further research in the area of professionalization of journalism in developing countries. This study may also serve educators in the schools of journalism in developing countries, and primarily in Turkey,

as they formulate their plans for the future. The members of the working press and professional bodies in the mass media of Turkey may also benefit from the results of an objective assessment of the status of communicators as professionals by their own account.

Summary

For the past century of its existence the Turkish press has been able to perform a pace-setting role in the political and societal changes which took place in Turkey. The press, like several other European oriented innovations and reforms, was introduced to Turkish society as a defensive measure but in a short time became an effective channel of information for the educated elite of the country about European societal development.

Towards the end of the Ottoman Empire the press became an effective instrument in the hands of the middle-class, modernizing bureaucratic elite to help induce the modern European political philosophy and to indoctrinate the public.

Under the Ataturk regime, the press was a reinforcing agent for the modernization programs. The press reinforced these activities by conferring status on the government's social, economic and political programs.

The large-scale dissemination of the media started in Turkey during the multi-party era and for the first time the press and the other media began penetrating into rural Turkey.

Despite several existing studies of the effects of the media in the process of national development and modernization, it was thought that communicator analysis is neglected both in developing and developed countries. However, in the light of historical and empirical evidence of the role of the press and the other media in the modernization process in Turkey, a systematic assessment of communicators' self perception of their professional orientation was thought to be timely and also necessary. Therefore, a study to investigate the professional orientation and socio-economic backgrounds of a representative sample of the members of the Turkish national daily press in Ankara and Istanbul was conducted according to the basic criteria of professionalization.

FOOTNOTES OF CHAPTER I

[1]William J. Goode, "Encroachment, Charlatanism, and Emerging Profession: Psychology, Sociology and Medicine," American Sociological Review 25 (1960) pp. 901-915.

[2]Everett E. Hagen, On the Theory of Social Change: How Economic Growth Begins (Illinois: The Dorsey Press, Inc., 1962) p. 56.

[3]Dankwart A. Rustow and Robert E. Ward, "Introduction," in Robert E. Ward and Dankwart A. Rustow, (eds.) Political Modernization in Japan and Turkey (Princeton, N.J.:University Press, 1964), p. 4.

[4]Ernest Greenwood, "Elements of Professionalization," in Howard M. Vollmer and Donald L. Mills (eds.) Professionalization (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966) p. 11.

[5]The first Turkish newspaper was published in 1831 by the Ottoman Government. The Takvim-i Vekayi (Calendar of Events) was a kind of official bulletin consisting of government announcements and notices. For a detailed discussion of the beginning of the press in Turkey see Server Iskit's Turkiyede Matbuat Rejimleri (The Press Regimes in Turkey) (Istanbul: Ulku Matbaasi, 1939).

[6]Kemel H. Karpat, "The Mass Media: Turkey," in Ward and Rustow, op'. cit., pp. 255-282. Also by Karpat, "Mass Media and Political Modernization in Turkey," a paper prepared for the Seminar on the Political Modernization of Japan and Turkey, Gould House, Dobbs Ferry, New York, September 10-14, 1962. The Seminar paper is a longer and more detailed version of the article which appeared in Ward and Rustow's reader. These two articles are the only systematic historical analyses written on the role of the media in political and socio-economic development of Turkey to date. Permission to quote from the Seminar paper was granted by the author.

[7]Ahmed E. Yalman, Turkey in My Time (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1956), p. 20.

[8]Karpat, in Ward and Rustow, op. cit., p. 268.

[9]Fuat Sureyya Oral, Turk Basin Tarihi: Osmanli Imparatorlugu donemi, 1728-1922; 1831-1922 (History of Turkish Press: The Ottoman Empire Period, 1728-1922; 1831-1922) (Ankara: Yeni Adim Matbaasi, n.d.) pp. 254-272. This rather sketchily written history of the Turkish press during the Ottoman Empire includes a section with short biographies of the journalists of the pioneer era. The information about the literary works, and socio-economic backgrounds of the early journalists was gathered from these short biographies of the pioneer newspapermen. Also on the literary activities of the early journalists see Karpat, Seminar, op. cit., p 24.

[10]Ibid., pp. 254-272.

[11]Ibid.

[12]Karpat, Seminar, op. cit., p. 29.

[13]Ibid., p. 28.

[14]Ibid., p. 29.

[15]Ibid., p. 37.

[16]Frederick W. Frey, The Turkish Political Elite (Cambridge: M.I.T. Press, 1965), p. 85.

[17]Paul F. Lazarsfeld and Robert K. Merton, "Mass Communication, Popular Taste and Organized Action," in Wilbur Schramm (ed.) Mass Communications (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1960) pp. 402-512. Lazarsfeld and Merton discuss two functions and one dysfunction of the media. The two functions are (1) the status conferral function and (2) enforcement of social norms. According to the authors the "dysfunction" of the media is to create intellectual apathy in the audiences through passive participation.

[18]Server, Iskit, Turkiyede Matbuat Idareleri ve Politikalari (The Press Administrations and Their Policies in Turkey), (Istanbul: Tan Basimevi, 1943) p. 362.

[19]Karpat, in Ward and Rostow, op. cit., pp. 272-273.

[20]Ibid., p. 278.

[21]Ibid., p. 280.

[22]Ibid., p. 281.

[23]Frederick W. Frey, The Mass Media and Rural Development in Turkey (Cambridge: Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1966) Report No.3, Rural Development Research Project, Center for International Studies, pp. 20-21.

[24]Haluk A. Ulkuman and Frank Tachau, "Turkey's Politics: The Attempt to Reconcile Rapid Modernization with Democracy," The Middle East Journal 19:2 (Spring, 1956) pp. 153-168. And also see Frederick W. Frey, "Political Development, Power and Communications in Turkey," in Lucian W. Pye (ed.) Communications and Political Development (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1963) pp. 318-321.

[25]Frey, The Mass Media, op. cit., pp. 22-101.

[26]Daniel Lerner, The Passing of Traditional Society: Modernizing the Middle East (New York: Free Press, 1958) p. 53.

[27]See articles on different aspects of the Turkish press in a special issue of Gazette X:1 (1964). For example, Hasan Refik Ertug, "The Training of Journalists in Turkey," pp. 73-77; Burhan Felek, "The Press Associations in Turkey," pp. 49-58; Abdi Ipekci, "Self-regulation of the Turkish Press," pp. 59-62 and other articles. For the freedom of the press see Freedom of Information Center Report No.181, p. 5. "World Press Freedom, 1966," University of Missouri, 1967.

[28]Ilhami Soysal, "Su Bizim Basin," (Our Press), Aksam, March 2-7, 1968.

[29]Oscar Pollak and Olivier Reverdin, Turk Basini Hakkinda Rapor (A Report on the Turkish Press), (Istanbul: Istanbul Matbaasi, 1963) p. 7.

[30]Ankara Gazeteciler Cemiyeti, Rapor (Ankara: Ulusal Basimevi, 1969) p. 30. (The annual report of the Executive Board of the Association of Newspapermen in Ankara).

[31]Karpat, in Ward and Rustow, op. cit., p. 282.

[32]Pollak and Reverdin, op. cit., p. 9.

[33]Cetin Altan, "Genel Olarak Basinimiz," (Our Press in General) Milliyet, January 20, 1964.

[34]Dario Menanteau-Horta, "Professionalism of Journalists in Santiago de Chile," Journalism Quarterly 44 (Winter, 1967) pp. 715-724.

[35]Sydney W. Head, "Can a Journalist Be a 'Professional' in a Developing Country?," Journalism Quarterly 40 (Fall, 1963) pp. 594-598.

[36]Pye, op. cit., p. 78.

[37]For example, studies such as Lerner, op. cit.; Wilbur Schramm, Mass Media and National Development (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1964); Lucian W. Pye, op. cit.; John T. McNelly, "Mass Communication and Climate for Modernization in Latin America," Journal of Inter-American Studies VIII (July, 1966) pp. 345-357; Everett M. Rogers, "Mass Media Exposure and Modernization Among Colombian Peasants," Public Opinion Quarterly XXIX (Spring, 1965) pp. 614-625.

[38]Frey, The Mass Media, op. cit., p. 11.

[39]Ibid., p. 190.

CHAPTER II

JOURNALISM AS AN OCCUPATION IN TURKEY

An historical analysis of the development of the

journalistic occupation in Turkey was not among the research

objectives of this study. From an historical perspective,

the development of journalism as an occupation within the

Turkish society is itself a research problem and should

be treated as a separate study. However, accounts of the

sociological aspects of the journalistic occupation within

the society at large; and recent occupational developments

within the Turkish press will be touched upon to provide a

context for the data collected in this survey. Thus, in

the first section of this chapter, the place of the journal-

istic occupation in the Turkish society will be discussed.

In the second section, a summary of recent professional

developments that have occurred in the Turkish press will

be presented.

Journalism as an occupation in Turkish society

In transitional societies--where traditional norms

and values are still very much a part of the national

heritage--the establishment of an occupation such as

journalism and its recognition by the public seems to be a trying process.

At the time of the introduction of the press into Ottoman society, a high illiteracy rate, a limited communication infrastructure within the country, and an almost total dependence by the public on oral communication, were the obstacles journalism had to overcome in order to survive as an occupation.

Language was another important obstacle which stood in the path of occupational development of journalism within the Ottoman society. Prior to the introduction of newspapers, two different languages--one being the simple, spoken Turkish which belonged to the masses and the other being a "refined" prose which belonged to the higher echelons of the society--existed side by side without too much mutual contact.[1]

The pioneer journalists, realizing the importance of language as a tool of their trade, at once involved themselves in a struggle to simplify the written language in order to reach wider and more representative audience.[2] They finally succeeded in establishing as a standard of written language a form of Turkish quite close in its

essentials to spoken Turkish.[3]

Discussing the function of the press in developing countries, Herbert Passin asserts that each nation that enters the cycle of modernization must at some point break through in three fields: political-social reform, language, and journalism.[4] Indeed the rise of journalism as one of the modern occupations in Turkey is intertwined with political-social reforms and simplification of the Turkish language.

The end of eighteenth and the beginning of nineteenth centuries marks the introduction of social and educational reforms in Turkey.[5] Alarmed by the increasing expansionism by the Western powers, the rulers of the Empire unwillingly launched, among other reforms, a program to train its military and civilian personnel according to Western standards.[6] New schools were opened and the introduction of the secular military and civilian training split the educated elite in Turkey into two parts: "modernists intellectuals," and medrese-trained conservatives.[7] This split within the educated could be considered the start of the social diversification of the elite in terms of occupational status. It is interesting to note that among the new elements in

the educated elite four were of special importance--offi-

cers, civil servants, lawyers and journalists. Men who be-

longed to these four occupations played a role out of all

proportion to their numbers in the national development and

process of modernization.[8]

The graduates of secular military and civilian schools

encountered no difficulty in finding their niche in the

social hierarchy of Ottoman society. Military and Civil Ser-

vice had both precedent and tradition in the history of the

Empire, and their members could enter the social hierarchy

with considerable ease. Being readily absorbed by the

bureaucratic machine of the Empire, military and civil ser-

vants became quite powerful and were instrumental in carry-

ing on the socio-political changes throughout the end of

the Empire and the beginning of the Republic.[9]

In contrast, journalism and law were new professions

in Turkey without precedent, and thus without social tra-

dition.

In the case of law, the change from religious to sec-

ular law towards the end of the Empire and at the begin-

ning of the Republic, and introduction of new, secular

tribunals to administer them, created a demand for new

secular lawyers--an occupation which previously did not

exist in the Islamic world.[10] However, the opening of new

schools of law, establishment of bar associations, and the

passing of a law in 1938 that recognized the autonomy of

the occupation, helped the professional development of law

in Turkey.[11]

The organization of journalism by its members, with

the protection of specific laws, and the recognition of the

social rights of journalists as an occupational group,

took longer to achieve as a new occupation in comparison

to law.

Recognition of journalism as an occupation was also

hindered by its easy accessibility to the members of other

occupations, who could assume it as a second and additional

career. As Lewis states:

> The first journalists . . . had been part-time
> amateurs, men of letters, officials, or poli-
> ticians, dabbling with a new medium the full
> potentialities of which they failed to appre-
> ciate.[12]

Even during the foundation of the Republic, many

journalists augmented their income with government appoint-

ments, teaching and other professions.[13]

Despite the important role of the press in the process

of modernization, journalism as an occupation and

journalists as an occupational group were subordinate to

the two elements of the new elite--the civil servants

and the military officers.[14]

Frey's study of the political elite of Turkey between

1920-1957 shows that out of total 2,210 deputies elected

during this period, 315 (or fourteen per cent) of them

were civil servants, 223 (or ten per cent) were military

officers and 75 (or three per cent) were journalists.[15] On

the other hand, in a predominantly agricultural society

where nearly two out of every three male Turks were en-

gaged in agriculture during the period between 1920 and

1957, the deputies representing agricultural occupations

amounted to only ten per cent of the total. Likewise,

the "trade, industry and commerce," category which included

an average of about sixteen per cent of the Turkish male

population throughout the period and had roughly thirteen

per cent representation in the National Assembly.[16]

As indicated by the data above, bureaucratic occu-

pations were overrepresented in the Turkish National Assem-

bly--where the real political power and the social pres-

tige of the Republican Turkey were concentrated--during the

first three decades of the Republic in comparison to

other occupational groups.

On the rather high representation of journalists in

the National Assembly Frey comments:

> The . . . official occupations had higher
> election rates than all other occupations
> with the single exception of journalism.
> This exception is, itself, rather interesting.
> Perusals of the individual dossiers of the
> journalistic group suggests strongly that
> these individuals were the quasi-official
> propagandists and publicists of the regime--a
> coterie of prestigious and favorable journal-
> ists--who could usually be counted on to
> spread the doctrines of the regime. Also a-
> mong the journalists and writers was a smaller
> group of liberati . . . who were present as
> impressive, tolerable 'independents.'[17]

Thus, from the historical evidence available, it

appears that the prestige which the journalistic occu-

pation enjoyed during the early years of the Republic was

not totally related to the actual power and status of the

occupation in the society, but rather was bestowed upon it

by the powerful political elite of the times.

Empirical information about the prestige ranking of

occupations among the Turkish populace is quite limited,

comprising only a few studies. One such study was con-

ducted by George Helling in 1955 with a non-random sample

of 310 Turkish high school students in Ankara, Izmir
and Kayseri with regard to prestige rankings of 63 occu-
pations.[18] Helling's study revealed rather interesting
information about the place of the journalistic occu-
pation in comparison to other occupations. It showed that
"journalist" is placed, in prestige ranking, somewhat a-
bove the "skilled" and "non-skilled" labor and quite below
the members of classic occupations such as "medicine,"
"law," and "college teaching." "Civil servants," and
"military" also ranked high in Helling's data.[19] However,
though based on a non-random sample, the Turkish data have
some resemblance to the data collected by the National O-
pinion Research Center in a nation-wide, cross-section sur-
vey in the United States. In the NORC data also, "the re-
porter of a daily newspaper," ranked higher than a "car-
penter" or "tenant farmer" but was placed below the "elec-
trician" or "public school teacher" with respect to occu-
pational prestige.[20]

In both the Turkish and American data, occupations
requiring a high degree of skill, long training, and mental
rather than physical effort were placed higher in the rank
than were low income, manual jobs.

In another study, conducted by Andreas M. Kazamias, with a nation-wide, stratified random sample of 5,500 high school students in Turkey, respondents were first given a list of eleven occupational categories ranging from "free professional" to "skilled laborer" and "farm owner."[21] Then they were asked to rank them (1 to 11) according to the prestige and respect which, in their opinion, "people in Turkey" accorded them. Table 1 adopted from this study shows how the respondents, ranging in age from 15 to 17, ranked as <u>number</u> <u>one</u> the various occupational clusters.

TABLE 1

Percentage of Lycee Students Ranking Each Occupation As
Being Highest in Public Esteem.[22]

	All students %	Boys %
Free profession	43	47
Diplomat	27	24
Education	6.6	7
Business man ('Big')	6	7
Military officer	5	7
Religion	2	3
National Government official	2	2
Farm owner	1	less than 1
Business executive or official	1	less than 1
Skilled labor	0	0
In the "Free Profession" Category	%	%
Scientist	31	32

	All students	Boys
	%	%
Engineer	29	33
Medical doctor	22	19.5
Lawyer	7	7
Pharmacist	3	2.4
Religious leader	2	2.5
Journalist	1.8	2
Dentist	1	1

As indicated in the Table 1 above, "journalist" within the "free profession" category, was placed second to the last in eight occupations. However, as also indicated in the table, "free professions" as an occupational cluster were ranked the highest among the eleven categories. Thus being arbitrarily placed in the "free profession" category by the investigator, journalism ranks higher than governmental and manual job categories. In this respect, Kazamias' data somewhat differ from Helling's by indicating that journalism ranks quite high in the prestige rating of occupations. But differences in the methods of presenting the lists of occupations to their respondents might have influenced the results of the two studies. For example, Helling utilized the National Opinion Research Center's occupational listing with some adoptations to the Turkish society. On the other

hand, Kazamias' list was arbitrarily grouped into eleven categories. Therefore being put within the "free professions" category beforehand, journalism was consequently ranked higher than some other occupations.

Finally, a third study conducted in Turkey in 1954 by A.T.J. Matthews with a sample of 362 Turkish administrators reveals further information about the prestige ranking of journalism as an occupation.[23] In Matthews' study, a homogeneous group of respondents--senior and junior administrators in the Turkish government--was asked to rank occupational positions as they thought the general public would judge them. Table 2 , taken from Matthews' report, shows the prestige ranking of selected occupational positions by 362 Turkish administrators.

TABLE 2

Prestige Rank of Selected Occupational
Positions.[24]

Rank Order	Positions (*)
1	Provincial Governor
2	National Legislator
3	Engineer
4	General
5	Doctor
6	Judge
7	Diplomat

Rank Order	Positions (*)
8	Professor
9	Big Businessman
10	Chief Department Administrator
11	Lawyer

(*) Positions of journalist and artist were omitted
    from this table because their weighted scores
    fell significantly below the others.

The data, collected with a homogeneous sample of administrators, clearly show the bias towards administrative jobs. However, journalism, as indicated by Matthews in the footnote of his table, ranked quite low in the judgment of the administrators and could not be included in the table.

The same study reveals another piece of significant information: the attitudes of administrators toward job preferences. When the administrators were asked their preferences as to the type of job with respect to security versus salary, 76 per cent indicated that they would prefer maximum security and low salary against little security and high salary. About 14 per cent said they would choose moderate security with moderate salary. And only seven per cent indicated a preference for high salary with a little

security.[25]

Matthews states that the result may be partly influenced by the occupational positions of the respondents but he does add that the data available also suggest that this is a rather consistent value preference for the whole Turkish society.[26]

McClelland theorizes that people in traditional societies have a low desire for risk-taking in terms of occupational and economic achievement.[27] In transitional Turkish society, one could still expect the existence of a certain amount of traditionalism among the large segments of the populace. Therefore, it could be assumed that the nature of journalism, with its political and economical risk-taking aspects, and its lack of precedent and tradition in the society, might be among the factors which influence its prestige and social status in Turkey.

The recent occupational developments in Turkish press

Before an occupation develops into a full-scale, autonomous profession, it is necessary--according to occupational sociologists--for its members to organize around a professional body, set up high standards for the recruitment of new members, attempt to raise the quality of

occupational training, and finally devise and implement a code of ethics in the practice of their occupation.[28]

Within the last decade, a considerable rise in circulation and advertising revenues created a demand for the services of full-time, qualified journalists, and also brought changes in the occupational characteristics of journalism in Turkey.[29] Indeed, members of the press became more concerned with the effectiveness of the professional organizations; involved themselves in the opening of journalism schools for the formal training of journalists; influenced the passage of a law which provided job security and economical stability; and attemped to set up a self-regulating body to control the ethical aspects of the occupation. The four areas which will be discussed in connection with the occupational development of journalism in Turkey will include: (a) organizational activities; (b) professional training; (c) job security and economic stability; and (d) journalism ethics.

a) Organizational activities

The first Turkish press organization, the Ottoman Press Society, was founded by a small group of newspapermen in Istanbul in 1917. The major purpose of the

journalists who founded the Society was to have a representative body in order to achieve unity among the working press and to voice their grievances. However, the Society lasted only a few years and then disintegrated because of the lack of interest and rather troublesome atmosphere of the times.[30]

During the one-party regime, the Turkish Press Union was established under the auspices of the government in 1938. Indirectly controlled by the Press Directorate, the Press Union was organized to serve the interests of the regime rather than journalists. As a matter of fact, the government abolished the Union in 1946 when it could no longer serve that purpose.[31]

At the time the government abolished the Turkish Press Union, an independent, professional body was founded in Istanbul under the name of the Association of Newspapermen. Devoted to the well-being of journalists and betterment of the occupation, associations of newspapermen were also organized in Ankara, Izmir, and other provincial centers of Turkey. The President of the Association of Newspapermen in Istanbul, Burhan Felek, claims that the organization, with more than two thousand members throughout the

country, is accepted as a spokesman and leader on all private and general matters connected with the press.[32]

The newspapermen associations in Turkey are not organized into a federation but operate as independent bodies with more or less similar programs and aims. The associations, depending on size and financial capabilities, assist their members in matters such as welfare, training, legal advice, and journalism ethics. They also participate in lobbying activities in behalf of the press.[33]

Newspapermen's Trade Union was founded in 1952 in order to regulate the labor relations between publishers and working journalists. The Trade Union has its headquarters in Istanbul and branches in almost every city where a newspaper is published. With a heavy emphasis on labor problems, the Trade Union also serves as a professional body, helping its members in their occupational needs.[34]

b) Professional training

There are two official and two private institutions for the formal training of journalists in Turkey.

The Institute of Journalism, which is a part of the University of Istanbul, was founded in 1950 with a suggestion from the Association of Newspapermen in Istanbul. Since

then the Institute has become a three-year school and has
graduated 350 students.[35]

The other official teaching institution, the Press
and Broadcasting School, was established as a part of the
Faculty of Political Science in Ankara in 1964.

The idea of such a school in Ankara was first sug-
gested by the Association of Newspapermen and the Newspaper-
men's Trade Union in Ankara.[36] After the initial suggestion
from these professional bodies, the Turkish National Com-
mission of UNESCO, the University of Ankara, and the Depart-
ment of Press and Broadcasting collaborated with the Assoc-
iation of Newspapermen and the Newspapermen's Trade Union in
setting up the funds for operation, course schedules and a
time-table for the beginning of instruction in the school.[37]
The final report, submitted to the Senate of the University of
Ankara, included suggestions from an advisory board made up
of representatives of the Department of Press and Broadcast-
ing, the Directorate of Radio of Ankara, Anatolian News
Agency, the National Commission of UNESCO, the Association
of Newspapermen and the Newspapermen's Trade Union.[38]

The School of Press and Broadcasting offers a four-
year course of study in general and professional subjects

in the areas of journalism, broadcasting, adult education
and public relations.[39] The school produced its first
graduates in the academic year of 1968-1969.

One of the two private schools of journalism is lo-
cated in Ankara and the other one in Istanbul.

According to information gathered through informal
interviews conducted by this writer with journalists in Tur-
key, a genuine interest in formal training of communicators
exists in the schools of journalism. However, it is a com-
mon belief that a better staff in professional courses and
more practical experiences are necessary in order to train
better journalists. A noted journalist put the problem
.this way:

> The teaching staff at the Institute of Journ-
> alism in Istanbul is mostly made up of senior
> or retired journalists. Despite their long
> experience in the profession they are not aware
> of the methods of teaching and lack technical
> knowledge. Thus when they faced the task of
> teaching the only thing they could do was to
> tell their memoirs. This is not the way to
> train a new breed of young journalists.[40]

The reactions of the publishers in hiring the gradu-
ates of the Institute of Journalism in Istanbul could not
be termed as enthusiastic. Only fifty of 350 graduates
of the Institute to date have been hired by the newspapers.

Lamenting on this problem, the Director of the Institute, Professor Haluk Cillov, said that the lack of interest in formally trained graduates by the publishers and editors shows the persistence of an old belief among certain segments of the press that journalists should be trained on the job but not in schools.[41]

On the other hand, some journalists point to the fact that formal education of journalists, long-time neglected, is now being overdone and in the near future there will be an excess of journalism graduates without employment possibilities. Abdi Ipekci, Editor-in-Chief of Milliyet (Nationality), an Istanbul daily, contends that four schools of journalism may soon graduate more than a thousand students each year and thus the country will have to cope with the problem of unemployed graduates with journalism degrees.[42]

Despite the adjustment problem it is evident from the criticism made and interest shown that the working press is seriously concerned about the formal education of the future members of their occupation in Turkey. This, of course, is in sharp contrast with the situation almost a decade ago when only a handful of journalists with formal training in their profession existed in Turkey.[43]

c) <u>Job security and economic stability</u>

A law passed by the National Assembly in 1952 pro-
vided measures for the securing of working conditions and
employment relations of journalists with their employers.[44]
This was an important step in the direction of making
journalism one of the respected occupations because, since
the introduction of the press in 1860, journalism has been
one of the lowest paid, least secure, and most exploited
occupations in Turkey.

In 1961, in recognition of the role of the press in
the struggle towards political and societal development,
the military regime amended the 1952 law by providing the
trade union of journalists with the right to strike in case
of labor disputes with the management. The publishers of
nine Istanbul dailies, resenting the new clause attached to
the labor law, closed their papers. In protest, journalists
went on strike and published a paper, <u>Basin</u> (Press), and re-
sisted the pressure from the management in unison.[45]

According to the new labor law, journalists were able
to sign collective contracts with the management through the
representation of their trade unions. The new contracts in-
cluded clauses relating to the protection of professional

and social rights of journalists.[46]

After 1960, a base salary scale also was formulated
and a minimum wage clause added to payment regulations.

Journalists also are eligible to utilize the social
insurance privileges as white-collar labor and thus are pro-
vided medical care by the social security hospitals.

These measures, taken within the last decade, helped to
make journalism a relatively secure occupation.

d) Journalism ethics

Following the 1960 military "coup," a new Constitution
was formulated and changes were made in the press laws
which brought a considerable amount of freedom to the Turk-
ish press. In the sudden burst of freedom, some publi-
cations began to misuse and abuse it.[47] Alarmed, profession-
al bodies and leading journalists took steps in establishing
a system of self-control and thus avoided government inter-
vention on the press.[48] A code of ethics, modeled after
the Swedish code, was formulated with a court of honor which
presided over its applications. The new code of ethics had
the support of all major dailies and periodicals.[49]

The code of ethics consisted of eleven items which
attempted to prohibit the misuse of the profession and

powers of the press. The code also charged the press with
certain ethical obligations such as investigating the
truth of doubtful items before publication, respecting the
confidence of sources of news and secrets entrusted to
newsmen, obeying the embargoes, qualifying the advertise-
ments as to their truthfulness and publishing the justified
answers and protests to any misstatements in the shortest
possible time and in such a way as to dispel any effects of
the misstatement.[50]

A press honor board was set up with members elected
from the press and outside occupations. The Board had the
power to impose sanctions on the violators of the code after
sufficient investigation.[51]

From its initiation until 1967, the Board handled 148
cases. However, the number of cases taken up to the Board
diminished every year, finally amounting to only one case in
1967. Some of the publications which originally pledged to
honor the code withdrew their pledges after a few years.[52]

It became clear to the members of the Board, press or-
ganizations, and the journalists who were involved with
initiating the code that the self-control system had failed
to achieve its purpose.[53] Determined to have an effective

system of self-control, the professional bodies held a seminar in May 1968 in Istanbul and analyzed the failure of the existing system and attempted to find ways to make it workable.

The suggestions for alternatives to the present system ranged from a statutory organization to a board established on a voluntary basis.[54] At the end, a compromise was reached, based on the idea that the organization should not merely be disciplinary but also should serve and protect the press, assist in general formation of a code of ethics and act as the authoritative spokesman of the press.[55] The final decision has not yet been made.

The importance and necessity of an effective self-control system was very clearly expressed in a paper given by Abdi Ipekoi at "Self Control of the Press Seminar," in Istanbul:

> The chief objective of establishing the self-control system in 1960 was to put a stop to the abuse of freedom, thus not to give excuse for legal measures for limiting freedom. Failure in realizing this objective will bring the press vis-a-vis the dreaded result. Therefore, we have to stop those who abuse this freedom. Otherwise, we shall have been creating a fresh motive every day for those who call for restraining measures.[56]

Summary

Occupational development of journalism in Turkey, from its introduction until recent years, can be analyzed in three stages which are also closely related to the course of the societal developments in the country.

During the initial stage, a group of upper-class Ottomans took up journalism as amateurs or part-timers to disseminate their impressions about West and Western civilization among the Turkish elite. In a sense, journalism was another outlet for these "renaissance men," who were also involved in other forms of writing such as novels, playwriting, and poetry. Thus, newspapering was the domain of the literati and considered by ordinary citizens as an adventurous and troublesome occupation.

The second stage of the development of the journalistic occupation coincides with the end of the Empire and the foundation of the Turkish Republic. At this stage, journalism seems to have been utilized as a vehicle by the political elite to propagate the modernizing programs of the one-party regime. Influential as long as they followed the prescribed line of the regime, journalists seemed to have been dependent on the powerful political elite of the

country with respect to occupational status and prestige.

The beginning of the multi-party regime, which could be called the third stage, marks also the beginning of occupational developments in the Turkish press. The socio-economical changes which took place within the last two decades in Turkey made possible, for the first time, the real penetration of the media into the Turkish villages. Improvements in the infra-structure and a steady decline in illiteracy helped to increase circulation, and thus advertising revenues. Within the last ten years a demand for qualified, full-time journalists in Turkey has also affected the occupational development of journalism.

As discussed elsewhere in this chapter, during the last two decades, basic elements of professionalization--expertise, autonomy, commitment, and responsibility--began emerging within the Turkish press as exemplified by the opening of journalism schools, the establishing of more secure and stable working conditions, the organizing of independent professional bodies and the formulation of a code of ethics.

In the next two chapters theoretical and methodological aspects of the study will be discussed.

FOOTNOTES OF CHAPTER II

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[30]Server Iskit, op. cit., pp. 295-301.

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<u>IPI Report</u> 17:5 (September, 1968) p. 9.

[55]<u>Ibid</u>.

[56]Ipekci, Self-control, <u>op</u>. <u>cit</u>., p. 13.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND CONCEPTUALIZATION

Identification of members of a society by their occu-

pation is clearly a modern phenomenon which dates back to

the industrial revolution in the Western countries. The

decline of traditional values, norms, and beliefs in a

society may also include a change from an ascriptive con-

cept of social status to a modern concept of achievement-

oriented occupational identification. As Salz states:

> In modern society, with its characteristic
> division of labor, specialization of func-
> tions, exchange and prevailing idealogy,
> the overwhelming majority of the people en-
> gage in a specific, relatively continuous
> activity in order to earn their livelihood
> and maintain a definite social status. This
> activity in the literature of the social sci-
> ences is designated as occupation. One need
> not go as far as Simmel, who believed that
> the concept of occupation is fundamental to
> the true society, to perceive that modern
> society, at least for the time being, is or-
> ganized on an occupational basis.(*) 1

The modernization process generally precipitates motion

in the economic, political, and social structure of a soc-

iety where new status and power relationship between social

units are created.

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(*) Italics are mine.

The introduction of changes in economic, political, and societal arenas necessitates the creation of new skills and occupations and a demand for the services of these occupations. Thus, in the face of these structural changes, the traditional order can no longer be effectively utilized to interpret and describe the relationships between the members of a modern society.

It can be said that the creation of new occupations and an attempt to professionalize the members of these occupations are part of the process of modernization.

According to the "structuralist school" in sociology, industrialization affects the change of value patterns in a society in such a way that the traditional cultural value patterns gradually become obsolete. The "structuralists" argue that the traditional ranking system in time have to be subsumed under, or integrated into, the industrial system, thus paving the way to occupational identifications of the members in a society.[2] In contrast, the "culturalist school," contends that, despite the rise of industrialization in a society, the well established cultural values of its members would still make them adhere to the traditional value patterns. In a study of six nations,

Inkeles and Rossi, tested the assumptions of both "struc-

turalists," and "culturalists," in terms of traditional

versus modern value patterns in the prestige ranking of

occupations. The data supports the "structuralist" view

of changing patterns in the value and prestige judgment of

occupations in connection with industrialization.

Inkeles and Rossi conclude that:

> . . . it would appear from this examination
> of international discrepancies that a great
> deal of weight must be given to the cross-
> national similarities in social structure
> which arise from the industrial system and
> from other common structural features, such
> as the national state. The greatest incidence
> of discrepancies occurs for occupations which
> are hardest to fit into either the one or the
> other structure. To this extent the structural-
> ist position . . . seems to be more heavily
> born out in these data.[3]

Therefore, as one moves from traditional to modern

societies, the impact of professionalization of occu-

pations becomes more a matter of achievement and social

prestige in the lives of the members of modern society. As

sociologist Everett C. Hughes observed:

> (In modern society) professions are more numerous
> than ever before. Professional people are a
> larger proportion of the labor force. The pro-
> fessional attitude, or mood, is likewise more wide-
> spread; professional status, more sought after.

These are components of the professional
trend, a phenomenon of all the highly in-
dustrial and urban societies; a trend
that apparently accompanies industrial-
ization and urbanization irrespective of
political ideologies and systems.[4]

As discussed in the second chapter of this study, the

gradual move from a traditional to a transitional society

in Turkey also brought changes in the social structure by

shifting the emphasis from an ascriptive to an occupation-

al identification of social status of its members. And

journalism, as a new and aspiring occupation in Turkey, was

provided an opportunity to begin its own occupational de-

velopment only after the country began making headway in

terms of industrial and socio-political developments.

Professional orientations of the members of the na-

tional daily press in Turkey is the focal variable of this

study. In the remaining part of this chapter, a selective

literature review and a theoretical analysis of this in-

vestigation will be presented.

A selective literature review

As has been noted, in modern and technologically ori-

ented societies there is a constant striving for the pro-

fessionalization of occupations. An increasing amount of

professionalism takes place within occupations as their members aspire to claim privileges bestowed upon the professions. Such aspiration may account for the present tendency of social scientists to conceptualize professionalism as a continuum, thus recognizing the existence of emerging professions in modern society instead of dichotomizing the occupations as professions and non-professions.[5] Emerging occupations such as accounting, nursing, social work, and journalism may possess some attributes of professions and their members may comply with the attitudinal and behavioral pattern of professionalism. Under these circumstances the approach to assessing the professional orientations of the members of emerging occupations must take a different direction. Taken from this point of view, the literature of professionalization in journalism could be discussed in three parts: a) speculative arguments, b) descriptive studies, and c) behaviorally-oriented studies.

a) Speculative arguments

Some authors, e.g., Gerald, argue that the control structure of the self-sufficient, closely disciplined newsroom cripples the newsman's ability to become a full-scale

professional. Therefore, as a group, journalists lack

an image of themselves as persons of importance, able to

negotiate with the community from the strength of a set of

assumptions that guarantee their security.[6]

The observations of the Hutchins Commission also coin-

cide with Gerald's view about the status of journalism as

a profession. The Commission contends that because of

the salaried position of journalists "the effective organ-

ization of writers on professional lines is . . . almost

impossible."[7]

Schramm also admits the difficulties of journalism be-

coming a profession but nevertheless expects "professional

standards, attitudes and behavior from it." In his opinion,

"an occupation which is organized, as mass communication is,

around a very high concept of public service is necessarily

a profession and its members must be professionals."[8]

Two working journalists, the Alsop brothers, state their

view on the status of journalism as a profession in the

following terms:

> Newspaper reporting is not a profession,
> despite the complacent belief of a good
> many reporters who have achieved the up-
> per brackets . . . It is a trade, of
> course, that has its own well-defined re-
> quirements.[9]

Another working journalist, Lippmann, thinks differ-

ently:

> A few generations ago, journalism was
> a minor craft which could be learned by
> serving an apprenticeship to a prac-
> ticing newspaper editor. Journalism is
> still far behind established professions
> like medicine and law in that there does
> not exist an organized body of knowledge
> and a discipline which must be learned
> and absorbed before the young journalist
> can practice.
>
> There are, moreover, only the first be-
> ginnings of the equivalent of bar assoc-
> iations and medical societies which set
> intellectual and ethical standards for
> the practice of the profession.
>
> Just as the profession of journalism is the
> consequence of the organic need for it in a
> great society, so a direct consequence
> follows from this professionalization. The
> journalist is becoming subject to the com-
> pulsion to respect and observe the in-
> tellectual disciplines and the organized
> body of knowledge which the specialist in
> any field possesses.
>
> The growing professionalism is, I believe,
> the most radical innovation since the
> press became free of government control
> and censorship. For it introduces into the
> conscience of the working journalist a com-
> mitment to seek the truth which is inde-
> pendent of and superior to all his other
> commitments.[10]

Thus Lippmann concludes that as the function of the

free press in a modern society becomes increasingly

demanding, journalists are moving toward professional-
ization.

Speculative arguments about the professional charac-
teristics of the journalistic occupation generally em-
phasize the peculiar aspects of the occupation. Because
arguments of this kind do not provide empirical evidence,
they cannot be substantiated. Therefore, these arguments
can only be considered as speculatory opinions.

b) Descriptive studies

Through the years, several descriptive studies have
been conducted in the United States among newspapermen to
determine their socio-economic background, media pref-
erences, political leanings, and in some respect profes-
sional orientations.

Rosten, in one of the earliest studies conducted among
newspapermen, attempted to present an objective description
of Washington correspondents.[11] Rivers replicated the
Rosten study after a twenty-five year interval, and found
that the Washington correspondents were better educated,
more free from the influence of their home offices, and
considered journalism as a profession--not a "game," as
most of the respondents in Rosten's sample liked to call it.[12]

Cohen also studied a special group, reporters of foreign and foreign policy news. He contended that professionalism indeed was an important factor in these newspapermen's performance.[13]

Breed studied the organizational structure of newspapers and internal pressures in the newsroom. He found that professionals, despite the pressures in the newsroom, performed more independently than did the less professionally oriented newspapermen.[14]

Stark conducted a participant -observer study in a large West Coast daily newspaper. He divided his sample into professionals and non-professionals according to their cosmopolitan and local backgrounds and found that professionally oriented newspapermen had more liberal attitudes and, therefore, were in disagreement with the publisher's conservative policies. Professionals did not have a high evaluation of the newspaper for which they worked, and considered themselves part of a professional fraternity whose membership cuts horizontally across the boundaries of specific newspapers. Non-professionals in Stark's study had a narrow outlook and thought of themselves as employees of that particular newspaper.[15]

—

Common to all descriptive studies was the absence of
a conceptual definition of professionalism. Thus failing
to base their assumptions on a comparable set of criteria,
the investigators of descriptive studies were only able
to provide us with information about their unique sam-
ples and a few suggestions on professionalism among news-
papermen. As a matter of fact, the findings of des-
criptive studies suggest that the professionally oriented
newsman tends to behave differently and has self-images
which set him apart from the rest of the staff.

c) Behaviorally-oriented studies

A list of behaviorally-oriented studies to be dis-
cussed includes: McLeod and Hawley's investigation of the
staff and employees of Journal and Sentinel in Milwaukee
with a sample size of 208 and professional orientation as
focal variable;[16] a replication of the Milwaukee study with
minor changes by McLeod and Rush in Quito, Ecuador with 60
Latin American journalists;[17] Menanteau-Horta's study of
Chilean journalists with a sample of 235 and professionalism
of journalistic occupation and socio-economic character-
istics of newspapermen as basic variables;[18] and finally
J. Laurence Day's survey of 94 journalists in Argentina,

Bolivia, and Mexico with job satisfaction and demographic characteristics as main variables.[19]

The McLeod and Hawley study consisted of 115 editorial employees of Milwaukee Journal and Milwaukee Sentinel, ranging from executive editors to reporters and desk men, with an addition of 93 non-editorial employees of the Journal Company as a control group.[20] The focal variable of this study, professional orientation of newspapermen in the sample, was derived from the basic criteria of professionalization, which will be discussed in detail in the conceptualization section of this chapter, were operationalized by McLeod and Hawley with a 24-item index that consisted of 12 professionally oriented and 12 non-professionally-oriented questions. A factor analysis of the responses of 115 editorial employees to the 24 items showed that five of the seven factors obtained were "pure" factors discriminating the attitudes of the respondents in the predicted direction.[21] Another check on the predictive power of the professional orientation index was made by correlating each item against the total professional orientation index minus the score of that item as part of the whole index. It was found that most of the 24 items correlated in

the predicted direction.[22]

In addition to the professional orientation index,
McLeod and Hawley utilized (as part of their professional
orientation measure) a Semantic Differential scale of
three basic concepts (Ideal Newspaper; Milwaukee _Journal_;
and Milwaukee _Sentinel_) and a control concept (Newspaper
Advertising). The respondents then were asked to pass judg-
ments on 18 Semantic Differential scales consisting of
paired adjectival antonyms. The factor-analyzed results of
the Semantic Differential scales were also consistent with
the division of respondents on the professional orientation
index.[23]

Two additional measures in the McLeod and Hawley study
were a set of 13 questions with a seven-point scale on pro-
fessional implementation and an 11-item index dealing with
evaluation of content of two Milwaukee dailies studied. The
results of the professional implementation items showed that
professionally oriented journalists were in favor of certain
enhancements in journalism but did not specifically know
what kinds of implementations were necessary in terms of pro-
fessional organization. On the 11-item index dealing with
content, professionals suggested more changes than did the

control group thus showing a more critical attitude toward
their respective papers.

The demographic variables in the McLeod and Hawley
study did not account for great variance in the profes-
sional orientations of 115 editorial employees in the sample.
For example, education as an independent variable seemed to
be predicting somewhat poorly the professional orientations
of the respondents. One explanation for this, provided by
the investigators, was that the respondents did not differ
greatly in characteristics such as education.[24]

On the whole, McLeod and Hawley concluded:

It does seem useful to speak of a 'profes-
sional orientation' among journalists, then,
in that those having such an outlook tend to
exhibit distinctive patterns of cognitive
judgment and differing specific attitudes.[25]

McLeod and Hawley made two significant contributions to
the study of professionalization in journalistic occupation.

One of their contributions was theoretical. Instead of
emphasizing the uniqueness of the journalistic occupation,
as was done in previous studies or speculative arguments,
McLeod and Hawley substituted an alternative by considering
journalism as an emerging profession in which its members
possess some of the attributes of professionalism. Thus, the

members of an occupation rather than the occupation it-
self became the unit of analysis. In doing this the in-
vestigators decided to utilize the basic criteria of pro-
fessionalization in defining their conceptual scheme.

On the methodological aspect of their research, McLeod
and Hawley were able to operationalize the basic criteria
of professionalization into a 24-item index which was
utilized to measure the attitudes of the respondents in re-
spect to the theoretical dimensions of the study.

McLeod administered a modified version of the measuring
instrument applied in the Milwaukee study to 60 Latin Ameri-
can journalists (46 journalists and 14 journalism students)
attending an advanced journalism program at CIESPAL (Centro
Internacional de Estudios Superiores de Peredismo para
Americana Latina). In this cross-cultural replication of
the McLeod and Hawley study, the variables were also similar,
professional orientation being the focal one.[26]

In their comparative analysis of the results of the
CIESPAL and Milwaukee studies, McLeod and Rush found that
the reactions of Latin American journalists to the profes-
sional orientation index were, to a great extent, similar
to those of the editorial employees in the Milwaukee

sample. There was a +.73 Spearman rank-order correlation coeficient between the two groups of journalists in the evaluation of job characteristics.[27] The differences between the two samples were found in the areas of job satisfaction. The Latin American journalists seemed to be least satisfied in the non-professional job areas such as salary and job security. In contrast, American journalists in the Milwaukee sample expressed their greater dissatisfaction in the professional areas such as opportunity for learning, getting ahead in the professional career and making full use of their training.[28]

The factor analysis applied to the 22-item professional orientation index from the Latin American data produced only one two-item "pure" factor.[29] In this respect it might be said that the professional orientation index needs further testing within a single culture and in cross-cultural situations in order to be considered as a powerful instrument.

The demographic variables in the Latin American sample such as education, age, sex, and position on the newspaper, had more discriminatory power than did the same antecedent variables in the Milwaukee sample.[30] McLeod and Rush found that the professionals in the Quito sample were somewhat

younger, more often male, and tended to have reporting or editing jobs rather than managerial positions. However, education as an antecedent variable seemed to have a reverse effect on the professional orientation. In the CIESPAL study, the percentage of journalists who had university education was greater for the semi-professionals than for the professionals. However, only five out of 46 journalists in the sample did not have university education and four of these five persons were classified as professionals.

Despite the limited nature of the CIESPAL study and its "elite" group of 46 journalists, it supported the assumption that a comparative approach of measuring professional orientations of communicators produces meaningful results, even in cross-cultural situations.

A criticism that can be made about the two studies discussed above is a methodological one. In both of these studies, the approach of dichotomizing the respondents into professionals and semi-professionals was taken. By cutting the respondents at the clustering points according to their responses to the 24-item professional orientation index, the investigators of these studies treated professionalization somewhat as a discrete variable. However, it seems from the

theoretical assumptions of these studies that professional

orientation should be considered as a continuous rather

than a discrete variable. Therefore, by utilizing a tri-

chotomy, the distribution could be arranged in such cate-

gories as high, medium, and low professional orientation.

While such a scheme does not provide for a full continuum,

it does represent a refinement in categorization.

In addition to the variables discussed above, es-

pecially in cross-cultural situations, individual modernity

as a control variable could be included in professional

orientation studies. As mentioned elsewhere in this study,

individual modernity could be utilized as a control variable

for professional behavior. In studies that may include com-

municators from rural and urban backgrounds in developing

countries, the data obtained on professional orientation and

individual modernity measures may yield especially interest-

ing results. With this thought in mind, individual modernity

as a second focal variable was included in the design of this

study.

The Menanteau-Horta study was sociologically oriented,

and included a sample of 235 Chilean communicators--128 news-

papermen; 15 electronic journalists; 27 magazine journalists;

-72-

24 persons from informative agencies; 33 public relations

men; and 8 international correspondents.[31] The investi-

gator employed the basic criteria of professionalization

utilized by McLeod and Hawley but applied these criteria to

the journalistic occupation in Chile rather than to commun-

icators in his sample. Therefore, his findings were ex-

plained more with antecedent variables than with consequent

variables such as professional orientation. For example,

Menanteau reported that 78 per cent of Chilean journalists

were in favor of journalism education and 22 per cent were

less favorable. However, this distribution of journalists'

attitudes toward journalism education was only cross-tabu-

lated against age, which is an antecedent variable. Simi-

larly, the 62 per cent of respondents who would choose

journalism if they had to do it over again, or the 39 per

cent who would advise their children to enter journalism,

were not categorized by the investigator with an external

measure of professionalization independent of their re-

sponses to those specific questions.[32]

According to this investigation, the principal charac-

teristics of Chilean journalists were the following:

The majority are men, natives of Chile,
relatively young, with median education

equivalent to that of the U.S. high
school. They generally work long hours
and receive insufficient salaries,
which require them to have other occu-
pations simultaneously . . . majority
have a favorable attitude toward journal-
ism schools, are active in professional
organizations, have high vocational moti-
vation to enter into informational activ-
ities, and show clear professional identi-
fication.[33]

A study with similar characteristics to that of

Menanteau's was conducted by J. Laurence Day in three Latin

American countries--Argentina, Bolivia and Mexico--with a

purposive sample of 94.[34] The antecedent variables were al-

so dominant in Day's investigation but he did, with some

modifications, employ variables such as job satisfaction

and professional orientation. However, Day, like Menanteau-

Horta, failed to utilize attitudinal data in order to cate-

gorize his respondents on their professional orientations.

Theoretical considerations

The few communicator studies discussed above demon-

strate the existence of a kind of newspaperman who thinks

and behaves differently in comparison with his colleagues.

This particular newsman likes to express himself freely, has

differences of opinion with the policy of his paper, empha-

sizes the service ideal, and would like to see changes in

the journalistic occupation. In a sense, the findings of these studies suggest the existence of a kind of newsman whom one could refer to as professionally oriented.

Derived from the literature in occupational sociology generally, and from McLeod and Hawley's study of Milwaukee newsmen in particular, this study was based on three assumptions: a) It is more realistic and useful to study the professional orientation of communicators than to investigate the professional characteristics of journalistic occupations; b) In doing this, one should apply standard measures to obtain comparative and cumulative data about professional orientation of journalists; and c) As was found in studies in the United States and some Latin American countries, professionally oriented newspapermen show differences which distinguish them in their behavior and attitudes from their less professionally oriented colleagues. Thus it is also plausible that professionally oriented Turkish journalists may possess some distinctive behavioral and attitudinal characteristics that may differentiate them from their less professionally oriented colleagues.

The first assumption made was based on the fact that

in emerging occupations such as journalism it is more

practical and productive to scrutinize the behaviors of

the members of an occupation instead of subjecting the

characteristics of the occupation itself to a test. As

discussed in the literature review of this study, the work

of some writers and investigators, who attempted to test

the peculiar characteristics of the journalistic occupation,

resulted in a stalemate. On the other hand, the alter-

native approach applied by McLeod and Hawley and others

produced some comparative and revealing data about the pro-

fessionalism of newsmen in Milwaukee and in some Latin

American countries.

Thus the underlying assumption of this study is that,

to obtain a comparative and cumulative body of knowledge

about the professional orientation of journalists, standard

measures should be applied in studies within a culture of

in cross-cultural situations. This approach would be

logically consistent with the theoretical notions of the

sociology of occupations. For example, to assess the

degree of professionalism among architects, social workers,

or nurses in cross-cultural studies we would apply the

basic criteria of professionalism. Likewise in communicator

studies within a culture, or across cultures, the same theoretical notions should apply. Therefore it was decided to replicate the McLeod and Hawley study and include additional measures as a cross-cultural test in Turkey.

Regarding the third assumption, a sample survey was conducted to investigate the professional orientations, individual modernity, and attitudinal and socio-economic differences of the members of the Turkish national daily press.

At this point it is appropriate to discuss the main concept which is the focal variable of this study: professional orientation.

Conceptualization

Being closely related to the aspirations that human beings strive to achieve and to a conglomeration of complex social relations between occupations and society at large, the term "profession" does not easily lend itself to a clear-cut definition.

In a general sense, a profession is recognized as an occupation which deals, in an ethical way, with matters which are especially important to a client or to society. In some respects, the professions also are considered as

altruistic occupations from which their members should not

primarily expect pecuniary benefits. However, the emphasis

among occupations for professional status and recognition

as a full-fledged profession by the public also includes a

desire for better material conditions in terms of fees or

salaries. In discussing this dilemma, Marshall writes:

> The professions, in other words, are respectable
> because they do not strive for money, but they
> can only remain respectable if they succeed, in
> spite of this pecuniary indifference, in making
> quite a lot of money, enough for the needs of
> a gentlemanly life. Money must flow in as an
> almost unsolicited recognition of their inestimable
> services.[35]

Besides possessing an ethical and altruistic concern,

a profession also has the characteristic of being the

practical application of scientific principles and general

knowledge to the vital affairs of men. Pointing to the

hard-to-define characteristic of the concept "profession,"

Kleingartner states:

> Few concepts in the literature of occupational
> studies have such varied meanings as have the
> related conceptions of profession, professional,
> and professionalization . . . Students of oc-
> cupations are trying desperately to make these
> terms analytically useful formulations, but to
> the lay public and to many people and occupations
> that claim the labels, they remain terms of in-
> vidious comparison.[36]

Dictionaries go at length into the historical and current meanings of the term "profession."

For example, The New English Dictionary records an early use in the sense of the vow of consecration made by one entering a religious order. In more recent usage, it means: "The occupation which one professes to be skilled in and to follow. a) A vocation in which a professed knowledge of some department of learning or science is used in its application to the affairs of others or in the practice of an art founded upon it."

In The Dictionary of Education, long and specialized training obtained through higher education and a code of ethics are stressed as the basic characteristics of a profession.

Nevertheless, there is some consensus about certain general areas which are included in almost all definitions. Discussing the three-fold composite of social values that make up the concept profession, Merton states:

> These are first, the value placed upon systematic knowledge and the intellect: knowing. Second, the value placed upon technical skill and trained capacity: doing. And third, the value placed upon putting this conjoint knowledge and skill to work in the service of others: helping.[37]

It was thought that for the purposes of this study it would be useful to employ the definitions that exist in the literature of occupational sociology for the conceptualization of profession, professionalism, and professionalization.

As it is used in occupational sociology, the term profession refers to the possession of a set of specific characteristics by an occupation which distinguishes it from other occupations. On the other hand, professionalism is used to describe particular attitudes of the members of an occupation which may or may not possess the full characteristics of a profession. (This concept of professionalism is a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for professionalization of an occupation.) Finally, professionalization is a term that refers to a process through which members of an occupation attempt to achieve the specific characteristics of established professions for their occupations.

According to the classical definition, in order for an occupation to achieve the status of a profession, it should be based upon specialized intellectual study and training, the purpose of which is to supply skilled service or advice to others for a definite fee or salary. In fact,

for some time, the only true professions were considered
to be the ones in which the practitioners were freelance
workers and therefore were remunerated by fee. However, the
advance of technology has changed this situation by the
employment of an increasing number of professionals in
corporate organizations where they are part of an organiza-
tional structure and are paid in terms of fixed salaries.[38]

Generally, for an occupation to be considered as a
profession, three basic characteristics are required:
(1) the possession of a specialized technique supported
by a body of theory; (2) the possession of a career sup-
ported by an association of colleagues; and (3) the
possession of a status supported by community recognition.[39]

On the other hand, professionalism which constitutes
the attitudinal and behavioral characteristics of the
members of an occupation could be defined as: (1) a high
degree of generalized and systematic knowledge; (2) a pri-
mary orientation to the community interest rather than to
individual, self-interest; (3) a high degree of self-control
of behavior through codes of ethics internalized in the
process of work socialization and through voluntary
associations organized and operated by the work specialists

themselves and (4) a desire for a system of rewards (monetary and honorary) that is primarily a set of symbols of work achievement and thus ends in themselves, not means to some end of individual self-interest.[40]

Finally, a brief definition of the professionalization process may include: (1) a demand for full-time services of the members of the occupation in the society; (2) establishment of formal training institutions for the new recruits; (3) organization of professional bodies and involvement in activities in behalf of the occupation; (4) formulation of a code of ethics for the self-regulation of the occupation; and (5) an attempt to obtain the monopoly of the skill.[41]

The basic components of profession, professionalism, and professionalization as they are utilized in the terminology of occupational sociology suggests that esoteric knowledge, which requires a prolonged training, is created and enhanced by the efforts of the occupational community. On the other hand, the occupational community stresses the adherence to the norms of the profession by the formulation and application of a code of ethics. A demand for the services and good conduct by the members of the

occupation may provide a gain in social status and prestige. Armed with esoteric knowledge and supported by social status and prestige, the members of an occupation may finally claim monopoly and autonomy for their occupation. Thus, in terms of sociology and social psychology, the process of occupational development involves the relations of the individual with the occupational community and through the occupational group with the society at large. In other words, by creating their sub-culture within the occupational community, the members of an occupational group interact among themselves and with members of other occupations and the members of society according to a set of prescribed rules and regulations.[42]

Four attributes emerge from the literature of occupational sociology that are essential to the development of an occupation into a profession and behavioral and attidunal patterns of its members with respect to professionalism. These four abstract attributes are: expertise, autonomy, commitment, and responsibility.

Kornhauser explicates these four attributes thusly:

Professional expertise is based on the belief
that the performance of a vital function in
society requires specialized knowledge and skill,

which must be acquired through prolonged educa-
tion and experience. Professional autonomy is
based on the belief that the qualified practi-
tioners are best able to determine how the function
ought to be performed, and that each practitioner
must be free to exercise his own judgment in the
specific case. Professional commitment is based
on the belief that the development and exercise of
expertise is worthy of devotion of a lifetime and
carries its own reward. Professional responsi-
bility is based on the belief that the power
conferred by expertise entails a fiduciary re-
lationship to society. [43]

In terms of professionalism these four concepts may

be further explicated as follows:

I. Expertise:

1) performance of a unique
and essential service

2) emphasis on intellectual
technique

3) long period of specialized
training in order to acquire
a systematic body of know-
ledge based on research

II. Autonomy:

4) freedom to exercise own
judgment

5) development of comprehensive
self governing organization

6) ability to meet obligations
or to act without superior
authority or guidance

III. Commitment:

7) emphasis on altruistic aspects
of the job rather than on pri-
vate economic gain

IV. Responsibility:

8) creation and application of a
code of ethics [44]

The operational definitions of these eight basic
criteria of professionalism were adopted from McLeod and
Hawley's 24-item professionalization index.[45] In addition
to the McLeod and Hawley items, some questions were added
to measure the professional orientations of the respondents.

McLeod and Hawley's 24-item professionalization index
included twelve professionally oriented and twelve non-
professionally oriented questions. To stimulate the re-
spondent to react to the 24 items this question was asked:
"Desired characteristics which could make an occupation
satisfactory might change from person to person. Now I
will read to you certain characteristics. First by checking
the green card, please determine the importance of these
characteristics, according to your opinion of any occupation."
On the green card it was typewritten in bold letters: "To
any occupation this characteristic is: (1) Extremely im-
portant; (2) Quite important; (3) Somewhat important; (4)
Not important."

Additional items to measure the professional orienta-
tion were designed as seven-scale questions, ranging from
strongly agree to strongly disagree, and as open ended
questions. The 24-item index, however, was used as the

basic measure of professional orientation.

The eight basic criteria of professionalism were oper-
ationalized as follows (These and all further operational-
izations may be found in Appendix A in the order presented
in the original questionnaire):

I. Expertise:

   (1) Performance of a unique and essential service

       Q. "A job that makes the organization different
          in some respect because I work for it."
          (24-item index)

   (2) Emphasis on intellectual technique

       Q. "Opportunity to learn new skills and know-
          ledge." (24-item index)

          "Specialization of journalists is necessary
          in order to do research and thus to conduct
          their informing duty diligently in fields
          such as agriculture, economics, national de-
          velopment and urban affairs." (seven scale
          item)

   (3) Long period of specialized training in order to
       acquire a systematic body of knowledge based on
       research

       Q. "Journalism is a profession which requires a
          long and specialized training." (seven scale
          item

II. Autonomy:

   (4) Freedom to exercise own judgment

       Q. "Opportunity for originality and initiative."
          (24-item index)

(5) Development of comprehensive self governing organizations

Q. "In your opinion what should be the most important activities of professional associations with respect to journalism?"

"In your opinion what should be the most important activities of professional unions with respect to journalism?"

(6) Ability to meet obligations or to act without superior authority or guidance

Q. "Freedom from continual close supervision over your work." (24-item index)

III. Commitment:

(7) Emphasis on altruistic aspects of the job rather than on private economic gain

Q. "Would you leave journalism for a non-journalistic job? (If yes) Under what conditions would you leave journalism?"

Q. "In Turkey the profit-making motive of the press overshadows the ideal of serving the societal development." (seven scale item)

IV. Responsibility:

(8) Creation and application of a code of ethics

Q. "There is no need for the self-control of the press in a free society." (seven scale item)

Q. "Journalists should be willing to go to jail if necessary (e.g. to protect the identity of their news sources)" (seven scale item)

Q. "Journalists should be tolerated to go

occasionally on junkets organized by govern-
ment or by big companies or to attend din-
ners given by them or to accept presents
offered by them." (seven scale item)

In addition to questions directly relevant to the ele-
ments of professionalism, the respondents were also ques-
tioned on their personal definitions of the professional as-
pects of journalism: "Do you think journalism is a profes-
sion? (If no): In your opinion what are the characteristics
that prevent journalism from becoming a profession?"

Furthermore, the respondents were asked to discriminate
between a profession and an occupation with the following
question: "In your opinion what are the two characteristics
which distinguish a profession from other occupations?"

Including the measures of focal variables which were
discussed above, the questionnaire administered in this study
comprised of 'seven different sections: (1) professional ori-
entation; (2) individual modernity; (3) occupational mo-
bility; (4) professional implementation; (5) self-conceived
images of newspapers; (6) evaluation of content; and (7)
socio-economic characteristics. The six remaining sections
of the measuring instrument will be discussed in the method-
ology chapter of this study.

Research goals

Basically, there is a two-fold interest underlying this study: (1) Are there identifiable attitudinal and behavioral patterns of professionalism among members of the journalistic occupation which could be related to the basic criteria of professionalization? (2) If such characteristics of professionalism exist among newspapermen do they transcend cultural boundaries?

The empirical evidence obtained from a few behaviorally-oriented communicator studies suggest the existence of similarities in some areas of professionalism among the members of the journalistic occupation. However, these studies are too few in number and limited in their scope to support a body of theory based on empirical data. Therefore, there is still a need to accumulate more comparable data in order to arrive at sounder and more reliable conclusions about the trends of professionalism within the journalistic occupation.

As it was discussed in the literature review of this chapter, there have been attempts to assess the professional developments within the journalistic occupation. For example, some investigators took the approach of specifying the obstacles to professionalization.[46] Others investigated the

structural aspects of the journalistic occupation and attempted to assess the consistency of the professional self-image and to find out what the implications were from holding such an image.[47]   Still others through indirect means tried to evaluate the degree of public acceptance of the journalist as a professional.[48]

However, until recently, relatively little attention was paid to investigating the implications of the cultural differences which might be involved in the process of professionalization within the journalistic occupation. A few such studies were conducted recently in some of the developing countries.[49]

The present investigation, utilizing the basic criteria of professionalization, involves the assessment of self-perceived professional attitudes and behaviors of a group of journalists working for different newspapers in a developing country.

Based on the theoretical notions of occupational sociology, and utilizing the methodological characteristics of the McLeod and Hawley study, this investigation was conducted to explore the following research questions:

a. Does the professionally oriented Turkish journalist

have differing conceptions of his occupation than his less professionally oriented colleagues?

b. Does the professionally oriented Turkish journalist have a different conception of job satisfaction than his less professionally oriented colleagues?

c. Are the professionally oriented Turkish journalists more modern in their attitudes than the less professionals?

d. Are there differences between professionally oriented journalists and those less professionally oriented in regard to their desires for professional improvements?

e. Does a homogeneity of cognitive judgment exist among the professionally oriented Turkish journalists?

f. What are the differences between professionally oriented Turkish journalists and those less professionally oriented in their criticism of the adequacy of the news content in the papers for which they work?

g. Does the professionally oriented Turkish newspaperman have differing attitudes toward professional

organizations than his less professionally ori-

ented colleagues?

h. What are the differences in job characteristics

and socio-economic backgrounds between the profes-

sionally oriented journalists and those less pro-

fessionally oriented in the Turkish press?

In the next chapter the methodological characteristics of

this study will be explained.

Summary

Few communicator studies discussed in the literature

review of this section demonstrated the existence of a

kind of newspaperman who thinks and behaves differently in

comparison with his colleagues. This particular newsman

likes to express himself freely, has differences of opinion

with the policy of his paper, emphasizes the service ideal,

and would like to see changes in the journalistic occu-

pation. In a sense, findings of these studies suggest the

existence of a kind of newsman to whom one could refer as

professionally oriented.

Thus, derived from the literature in occupational soci-

ology generally and from the McLeod and Hawley study of

Milwaukee newsmen in particular, this study was based on

three assumptions: (a) it is more realistic and useful to study the professional orientation of communicators than to fit journalism into a professional framework; (b) in doing this, one should apply standard measures in order to obtain comparative and cumulative data about the professional orientation of journalists; and (c) professionally oriented newspapermen show certain differences which distinguish them in their behaviors and attitudes from their less professionally oriented colleagues. Thus it is also plausible that professionally oriented Turkish journalists may possess some distinctive behavioral and attitudinal characteristics that may differentiate them from their less professionally oriented colleagues.

The conceptualization of professionalization produced four distinct elements: autonomy, commitment, expertise and responsibility, which were operationalized in a 24-item index adopted from the McLeod and Hawley study.

FOOTNOTES OF CHAPTER III

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CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

In this study, the population to be investigated in-
cludes only those newsmen employed by the nationally
circulated, morning daily newspapers of Turkey (evening
dailies in Turkey do not have national circulation). Of
402 daily newspapers published in Turkey in 1968, four
morning dailies in Ankara and eleven morning dailies in
Instanbul, met the sampling requirements of this study.[1]
All fifteen newspapers were included in the sampling
design of the present investigation. The newspapers studied
are listed below according to their geographical location
and circulation:[2]

Ankara Newspapers:	Name	Circulation
	Adalet (Justice)	19,801
	Ulus (Nation)	17,779
	Zafer (Victory)	9,374
	Tasvir (Description)	5,138

Istanbul Newspapers:	Name	Circulation
	Hurriyet (Freedom)	678,339
	Tercuman (Interpreter)	238,035
	Milliyet (Nationality)	221,330
	Cumhuriyet (Republic)	143,179

Istanbul Newspapers:	Name:	Circulation
	Yeni Istanbul (New Istanbul)	126,978
	Aksam (Evening)	118,026
	Bugun (Today)	56,200
	Son Havadis (Last News)	42,166
	Dunya (Globe)	13,134
	Yeni Gazete (New Gazette)	11,424
	Babialide Sabah (Morning in Babiali)	11,000

Time and budget limitations were primarily influential in the decision to exclude the regional and local evening newspapers from the population of this study. However, in order to obtain a complete picture of the characteristics of the journalistic occupation and the professional orientation of its members in Turkey, the regional and local press should be studied in the future as second and third stages of this project.

In addition to time and budget constraints, other considerations warranted the selection of the national dailies as the first part of a possible three-stage investigation. These factors could be explained as follows:

1. The national dailies are situated in Ankara and Istanbul where an established tradition of journalism exists. In Istanbul, the birthplace of the Turkish press about a century ago, this

tradition is epitomized by the name of its news-
paper district, the Babiali Basini (the Sublime
Porte Press) where most of the newspaper offices
are concentrated, as they are on Fleet Street of
London.

2. Due to the existence of a long-standing tradition
   of journalism in Istanbul and to a lesser degree
   in Ankara, members of the national daily press
   situated in these cities could be considered the
   "elite" of the Turkish press corps. Therefore it
   was thought that the newsmen working in Istanbul
   and Ankara may set the standards of professionalism
   for the members of the regional and local presses
   in Turkey. Thus the study of the national press
   as first in the chronological order could provide
   a basis for comparisons for the second and third
   stages of a proposed three-stage investigation.

3. Finally, the 15 newspapers included in the sample
   of this study from Ankara and Istanbul make up the
   bulk of the newspaper circulation in Turkey, with
   a total publication of 1,711,903 copies per day.[3]
   On the other hand, out of 116 million Turkish Liras

worth of advertising revenue obtained from govern-

ment and private sectors in 1967, 108 million

Turkish Liras worth of it was shared among the

newspapers published in Ankara and Istanbul.[4]

Thus, with their economic capacity and relatively

high circulation rates according to Turkish stan-

dards, the national dailies are in a position to

attract better educated and more qualified newsmen

than the regional and local newspapers of Turkey.

The decision to include all nationally circulated

newspapers in the sample of this study limited the geo-

graphic area of the investigation to two metropolitan centers,

namely Ankara, the capital of Turkey, and Istanbul.

The remaining sections of this paper will describe the

sampling, questionnaire construction, pre-testing, train-

ing of interviewers, interviewing, and coding procedures

of this study.

Sampling

The population of the study was designed to comprise

all of the editorial staff (e.g., editors-in-chief, associ-

ate editors, desk chiefs, chief correspondents, reporters,

sports writers, editorial and column writers, and art and

book critics) of the 15 national dailies in Ankara and
Istanbul. In this connection the sampling unit was defined
as any person who works full-time or part-time with a fixed
salary on the editorial staff of the dailies included into
the sample of this study.

The first step in the sampling procedure was to obtain
a complete and accurate list of the names and positions of
the editorial staff working on the fifteen dailies. This
objective was achieved by visiting the personnel offices
of the four dailies in Ankara and eleven dailies in Istanbul.

Some difficulty was encountered with certain newspapers
in the process of obtaining the names of the employees be-
cause personnel managers, or in some cases, editors-in-
chief were reluctant to reveal the correct number of the
editorial staff working on their newspapers. In these
instances the confidential nature and the purely scientific
goals of this study were stressed and the persons involved
were persuaded to cooperate and to provide the necessary
information.

The list of names collected through personal contacts
with the managements of the fifteen dailies in the sample
totaled 395 persons who were qualified to be included in

the population of this survey. Out of 395 full-time and part-time newsmen, 270 were working on the eleven newspapers in Istanbul, 71 were on the rosters of four Ankara dailies, and 54 staffed the offices of eleven Istanbul dailies in Ankara.

At this point a decision was made to treat the 54 representatives of eleven Istanbul dailies in Ankara as a separate group. By the very nature of their work, these journalists were covering the national and international news for their newspapers from the capital of Turkey. Informal conversations with the majority of Ankara representatives revealed that they did not consider themselves in the same group with the journalists working for the papers in Ankara. On the other hand, they also did not belong to the group of journalists in Istanbul, although they worked for the Istanbul dailies. As in the case of Washington correspondents, the representatives of Istanbul newspapers in Ankara felt that they comprised a different group.

In addition, 49 employees of the foreign and domestic news services of the Turkish Radio and Television System were added as a separate group to the population of the survey. Established in 1964 by a special law, the Turkish

Radio and Television System is a continuation of state
owned radio services. Nevertheless, by the new law the TRT
was granted autonomy and became a semi-governmental, inde-
pendent agency, similar to the British Broadcasting Corpor-
ation.[5] The foreign and domestic news services of the TRT
serve all state owned radio and television stations in
Turkey and are staffed mostly by former newspapermen. In
this respect it was thought that former journalists working
in a semi-governmental organization could provide a useful
addition to the survey's population. As electronic jour-
nalists they could be considered as part of the national
press corps because of the audience characteristics of the
Turkish Radio and Television System.

The first stratification in the population was made
according to the groups selected: (1) 270 newsmen from 11
Istanbul dailies; (2) 71 newsmen from four Ankara dailies;
(3) 54 newsmen working at the offices of 11 Istanbul dailies
in Ankara; and (4) 49 employees of the foreign and domestic
news services of the Turkish Radio and Television System.

The second stratification in the population was made
according to the positions held by the respondents on their
respective newspapers. Five categories were created in

terms of positions: (1) Supervisory staff (e.g., editor-in-chief, editor, associate editor, magazine editor, sports editor, etc.); (2) Reporters (e.g., regular reporter, parliament reporter, prime ministry reporter, police reporter, city hall reporter, etc.); (3) Editorial and column writers; (4) Sports writers and reporters; (5) Arts and books critics.

The third step of the sampling procedure consisted of organizing the respondents, according to every newspaper, every group and every position in the stratification, by their last names in an alphabetical order.

As a fourth step the respondents in all three groups, excluding TRT employees, were quantitatively ordered according to their positions or their newspapers from the highest to the lowest number. In other words, a newspaper in the Istanbul group with the highest number of supervisory staff was placed first in this category and so were the respondents in five categories. The same procedure was applied to the two other groups in Ankara.

After the respondents were stratified by the groups and their positions within the groups and listed by the alphabetical order of their last names, every respondent was assigned a number within each group and each position

category.

Finally a fifty per cent sample was drawn systematically, with a random start, from this stratified list.

The sampling process produced 135 possible respondents from eleven Istanbul dailies, 35 respondents from four Ankara dailies and 27 respondents from the bureaus of Istanbul newspapers in Ankara. All but eight were interviewed. The number of incompleted interviews from Ankara newspapers was only three and all 27 respondents from the Ankara offices of Istanbul dailies were interviewed.

Forty-nine newsmen from the Turkish Radio and Television System were first stratified according to their services: (1) Foreign news service, and (2) Domestic news service. They were then alphabetically ordered according to their last names and a fifty per cent sample was drawn from this group which produced 24 respondents. All 24 possible respondents from control group were interviewed.

Questionnaire construction

The instrumentation administered in this study had seven sections: (1) professional orientation; (2) individual modernity; (3) occupational mobility; (4) professional implementation; (5) self-conceived images of

newspapers; (6) evaluation of content; and (7) socio-economic characteristics. As discussed in the third chapter of this study, for purposes of obtaining comparable, cumulative cross-cultural data, the items on professional orientation were adopted with minor changes from the measuring instruments developed by the Mass Communications Research Center at the University of Wisconsin.[6]

The theoretical implications concerning the six remaining sections, and the general characteristics of the items in each section, will be briefly discussed below.

The individual modernity, which is one of the dependent variables of this study, is a much discussed but rarely measured concept. As for the measurement of individual modernity, Smith and Inkeles note:

> As is true of so many important concepts, individual modernity is more often defined than measured. On the occasions when it is measured, it is generally done on an ad hoc basis, separately by each team going into the field. This consumes much energy for a task which may be incidental to the main interest of the various projects. The venture is, furthermore, inherently fraught with much risk of failure. Even when the effort is successful, the lack of comparability of one's new measure with measures of modernity used in other studies greatly reduces its contribution to cumulative social science knowledge.[7]

The authors claim that as a by-product of a large scale comparative study conducted in six developing countries (Argentine, Chile, India, Israel, Nigeria, and Pakistan) with a sample of 5,500 male respondents predominantly from industrial and agricultural occupations, they were able to devise a brief, reliable, valid, and cross-culturally useful measure of the relative standing of individuals on a scale of modernity.[8] Smith and Inkeles constructed six different sets of questionnaire forms from the data collected in six countries by employing item analysis and criterion group methods.[9] Their two short "Overall Modernity" forms consisted of 14 items meeting both selection procedures simultaneously. According to the authors, the short forms include mainly attitudinal items to measure individual modernity.[10] In the instrumentation of this survey, nine items of the short forms were employed to measure individual modernity of the respondents. Five items were excluded because it was thought that these items were far below the intellectual levels of the respondents in our sample. For example, an item designed to measure the world affairs knowledge of the agricultural and industrial workers who made up the population of the surveys conducted in six countries by

Inkeles and his colleagues questioned the whereabouts of

Washington and Moscow. It was decided that inclusion of

this item into the instrumentation of the present investi-

gation would offend the newsmen in the sample and create an

adverse reaction. Therefore five items of this nature were

excluded from the original versions of short forms of Smith

and Inkeles' "Overall Modernity" scale.

According to a functionalist view of occupations, pro-

fessionals comprise a homogeneous community whose members

share identity, values, definitions of role and interests.

Goode states that members of a professional community

". . . are bound by a sense of identity . . . (and) share

values in common . . . "[11]

It is not the intention of this investigator to view

journalism as a profession and newspapermen as a group of

professionals. It was indicated in the third chapter of

this study that the aims of this investigation were to ex-

plore the professional attitudes of a group of Turkish

journalists based on the basic criteria of professional-

ization. However, it has been empirically supported by a

few communicator studies that professionally oriented journal-

ists also were bound by a sense of identity and shared

values in common.

In his participant-observer study Stark contended that professionally oriented newsmen in his sample had more liberal attitudes, and therefore were in disagreement with the publisher's conservative policies. Professionals, stated Stark, also considered themselves part of a professional fraternity whose membership cuts horizontally across the boundaries of specific newspapers.[12]

McLeod and Hawley found that professionally oriented editorial members of the Milwaukee Journal and the Milwaukee Sentinel showed more favorable reaction toward improvements in journalistic occupation and also were more critical of the content of the newspapers they worked for than the less professional.[13]

Another finding of McLeod and Hawley indicated that there was a homogeneity of cognitive judgments among the professionally oriented journalists.[14]

In the CIESPAL study, McLeod and Rush found that some antecedent characteristics of the professionally oriented Latin American journalists tended to be similar in nature. Thus, professionals were somewhat younger, more often male, and appeared to have reporting and editing jobs rather

than managerial positions.[15]

Thus derived from the empirical evidences obtained in the previous communicator studies, an attempt was made to relate the focal variable of this study, professional orientation, to a number of variables such as desire for professional improvements, self conceived images of newspapers, evaluation of content, organizational attitudes, job characteristics and socio-economic background.

Occupational sociologists maintain that if an occupation attempts to develop into a full-scale profession its members must find a technical basis for it, assert an exclusive jurisdiction, link both skills and jurisdiction to standards of training, and convince the public that its services are uniquely dependable.[16] Therefore professional behavior among the members of emerging occupations such as journalism should also include a desire for improvements in areas of basic criteria of professionalization.

Prior to the administration of the measuring instrument of this study, a series of informal interviews was conducted with members of the press in Istanbul and Ankara in order to determine their perceptions of the problems of the press in Turkey. From the information collected through

informal interviews, 27 questions were constructed which
dealt with topics pertaining to freedom of the press, train-
ing, social functions of the press, ethics, responsibility
of the press and objectivity. Based on a seven-point scale
ranging from 1 for "strongly agree," to 7 for "strongly
disagree," these questions were designed to measure the de-
sire among the members of the nationally circulated daily
press of Turkey for further improvements of the performance
of its members and within the occupation itself.

In order to indicate professionally oriented journal-
ists' homogeneity of judgment, respondents were asked to
rate each of the two concepts "IDEAL NEWSPAPER" and "YOUR
OWN NEWSPAPER or NEWSPAPER WHICH YOU WORK FOR," on 17 bi-
polar Semantic Differential adjective scales.[17]

To assess the evaluative judgments of the respondents
of the content of the newspapers for which they worked, a
set of twenty-one questions, with a four-point scale ranging
from 1 for "should carry more," to 4 for "does not carry,"
was constructed. The items included in this section of the
measuring instrument dealt with categories of news, editor-
ials, features, serials, specialized articles, and simpli-
fied items for the less educated people in Turkey.

On the other hand, a set of questions including member-
ship, duration of membership, holding elective office in
the past and in the present, attendance to business and
social meetings and expectations from the professional bod-
ies were designed to determine the attitudes of the Turkish
journalists towards professional organizations.

The questions on job characteristics were designed to
inquire about such areas as experience in journalism and
attitudes towards professional aspects of journalistic occu-
pation.

In order to probe the socio-economic backgrounds of
the respondents in the sample, a detailed set of questions
pertaining to various demographic characteristics was added.

About two-thirds of the 96 items in the measuring in-
strument were structured questions with fixed alternatives

Pre-testing

As mentioned in the questionnaire construction section
above, the items to measure the focal variable of this study
were adopted from the instruments developed and employed in
previous studies. Therefore, translations of those questions
adopted from the questionnaires developed by the Mass Com-
munications Research Center at the University of Wisconsin

were made with utmost care in order to stay as close as possible to their English versions. Nevertheless, difficulties were encountered during the translation of some parts of the questionnaire because of the characteristics of the Turkish language. For example, the 17-item Semantic Differential scale included pairs of adjectives with opposite meanings. Some pairs had very slight tonal differences in the English language: "complex-simple," or "difficult-easy." In the Turkish language to differentiate these two pairs of adjectives with different words was rather difficult. In this respect, Turkish experts in both languages were consulted during the pre-test of the questionnaire in order to achieve the closest translation possible.

Further translation difficulties stemmed from the construction of scales. For example, one of the structured items in the instrumentation had four alternatives as "Extremely Important," "Quite Important," "Somewhat Important," and "Not Important." In order to distinguish between these alternatives in the translation and convey the intended meanings in the original version of the questions, several pre-tests had to be conducted among university

students, journalists, social scientists and language experts. Finally we were able to utilize the right Turkish words which expressed the meanings desired to be conveyed in the instrumentation.

After the completion of the questionnaire, a pre-test with 20 journalists from different Ankara evening daily newspapers was administered. Because the respondents in the pre-test worked for the evening dailies, they were not included in the population of the study.

The duration of the personal interviews during the pre-test ranged from 50 to 90 minutes. On the average, it was an hour and ten minutes. Some respondents found the interviews quite long and were reluctant to continue their answering. Therefore, some questions had to be rearranged and reworded, without changing their meanings. Also the interview schedule was divided into two parts: (a) personal interview, and (b) self-administered questions. Thus almost two-thirds of the interview schedule was changed into self-administered questions. This change in the format of the questionnaire helped to shorten the time.

Reactions from the respondents to the Semantic Differential section was varied, but mostly critical. A new

introduction to this section was added with a more detail-
ed explanation.

Ideas and suggestions from the respondents were
analyzed and few questions were added to the questionnaire
after the first pre-test.

On the other hand, the reaction of the respondents to
the set of questions on individual modernity was as ex-
pected. The analysis of these questions on individual
modernity showed very small variance. Nevertheless, the
questions were left in the measuring instrument. The de-
cision was made with the thought that in the future stages
of this investigation, the regional and local newsmen might
react differently to these questions than did the more so-
phisticated metropolitan newspapermen. Therefore, it was
decided to leave the individual modernity questions in the
text of the measuring instrument for the purpose of further
comparisons between the different segments of the press in
Turkey.

A second pre-test with 10 additional newsmen from the
evening papers of Ankara was conducted after changes made
from the results of the first pre-test.

The second pre-test showed that the change in the

format indeed helped to cut the duration of interviewing to 55 minutes on the average. The result of the second pre-test also showed that the rewording and corrections in the text of the questionnaire went well with the respondents.

After two pre-tests, we were ready to administer the interview schedules and collect the data for our survey.

Training of interviewers

Seven students from the Press and Broadcasting School in Ankara were employed as interviewers in this investigation. Five of these interviewers were male and fourth year students. Two of them were female and second year students. All of the students had previous interviewing experience in different surveys conducted in Turkey. A one-week training session was held with the interviewers in order to orient them to the theoretical and methodological characteristics and interviewing considerations of the investigation.

For the training of interviewers, a seven page manual was prepared by this investigator which included sections on (1) the goals of the investigation, (2) rationale of the investigation, (3) basic elements of the questionnaire, (4) rules of interviewing, and (5) procedures to be followed during the data collection.

After seven days of training, the student interviewers were given a written test on the manual and on the oral instructions conducted by this investigator in the classroom. At the same time, simulated interviews were held in the class with other students posing as respondents. At the end of the training session the interviewers were asked to complete two questionnaires per interviewer with the students of the Press and Broadcasting School. After the questionnaires were returned, this investigator held sessions with each student interviewer to study the completed interviews, point to the mistakes made, and provide further training.

The interviewers were paid 15 Turkish Liras ($1.50) per interview in Ankara and 20 Turkish Liras ($2.00) per interview in Istanbul.

Interviewing

Prior to interviewing in Ankara and Istanbul, a letter of introduction was mailed to every respondent in the sample, informing him about the study, its goals, and the approximate date of the interview. The letter also assured the respondent about the confidentiality of the responses given and asked his cooperation in this project of the first scientific investigation of the members of the Turkish press.

Three days before the interview, every respondent was called by phone and informed about the arrival of his interviewer and an appointment was made.

The interviewing started in the first week of January in Ankara. All of the members of the four Ankara newspapers, and more than half of the representatives of the eleven Istanbul dailies in Ankara were interviewed by the end of January, 1969. Because of the semester break in February, this investigator and seven student interviewers travelled to Istanbul on the first of February. Istanbul newspapers, as mentioned elsewhere in this chapter, are located in one district and therefore their offices are within walking distance from each other. The headquarters of the Association of Newspapermen in Istanbul is also located in the center of the newspaper district. Thus, during the interviewing in Istanbul we were able, with the cooperation of the employees at the Association, to use the hall of the headquarters as our meeting ground and work-center. This investigator was able to spot-check interviewers by visiting the newspapers daily. Due largely to friendly and positive reaction of the Istanbul newsmen, we were able to complete 127 interviews within ten days and return to Ankara by the end of the second

week of February.

The rest of the Ankara representatives of the Istanbul newspapers in the sample, and 24 members of the Turkish Radio and Television System's news services employees, were interviewed during the rest of February and the first week of March.

With the permission of the Director of the Press and Broadcasting School in Ankara we were allowed to use a room in the school as our work-center during the interviewing. Spot checks on interviewers in Ankara were made by phone calls and daily visits to the offices of newspapers.

During the interviewing, a log was kept indicating daily returns from the field, mortalities, and their reasons.

Out of 221 possible interviews, only three rejections were recorded. The rest of the mortalities were normal cases in which the respondent was on annual leave, on an assignment in other towns of Turkey, or had left the paper.

Coding

Coding of the data and verification were done by this investigator after his return to Madison, Wisconsin in April, 1969 from Turkey. In the next two chapters, the results of this study will be discussed.

Summary

Of 402 dailies published in Turkey in 1968, four morning newspapers in Ankara and eleven morning newspapers in Istanbul were selected to make up the population of this study. All fifteen newspapers were included in the sampling design of the present investigation.

From the stratified and randomized population of 395 newsmen working on four Ankara and eleven Istanbul newspapers in the study, a fifty per cent sample was drawn.

24 newsmen working on the foreign and domestic news services of the Turkish Radio and Television System were added to the survey.

The measuring instrument had seven basic sections including items on professional orientation, individual modernity, job characteristics, professional implementation, self-conceived images of newspapers, evaluation of content, and socio-economic characteristics.

Two pre-tests with a total of 30 newsmen were conducted by the investigator before the collection of the data.

Seven student interviewers from the Press and Broadcasting School in Ankara were trained and employed in the interviewing.

FOOTNOTES OF CHAPTER IV

[1]Turizm ve Tanitma Bakanligi Arsiv Mudurlugu, Turkiyede Sureli Yayinlar: Gazeteler, Dergiler, Bultenler ve Basimevleri (The Ministry of Tourism and Information, the Directorate of Archives, Periodicals in Turkey: Newspapers, Magazines, Bulletins and Printshops) (Ankara: Ayyildiz Matbaasi, A.S., 1967) pp. 9-11.

[2]Ankara Gazeteciler Cemiyeti, Rapor (The annual report of the Executive Board of the Association of Newspapermen in Ankara) (Ankara: Ulusal Basimevi, 1969) pp. 57-58.

[3]Ibid.

[4]Ilhami Soysal, "Su Bizim Basin," (Our Press) Aksam, March 2-7, 1968.

[5]For detailed information of the organizational structure and operational regulations of the Turkish Radio and Television System, see a booklet prepared by TRT Publications Department: TRT: Turkiye Radyo Televizyon Kurumu Kanunu; TRT Genel Yayin Ilkeleri (TRT: Turkish Radio Television System Law; TRT General Broadcasting Regulations) (Ankara: Ayyildiz Matbaasi, A.S., 1969).

[6]Jack M. McLeod and Searle E. Hawley, Jr., "Professionalization Among Newsmen," Journalism Quarterly 41 (Fall, 1964) pp. 529-539.

[7]David Horton Smith and Alex Inkeles, "The OM Scale: A Comparative Socio-Psychological Measure of Individual Modernity," Sociometry 29:4 (December, 1966) pp. 353-377.

[8]Ibid. p. 354.

[9]Ibid., p. 359.

[10]Ibid., p. 371.

[11]William J. Goode, "Community Within a Community: The

Professions," <u>American Sociological Review</u> 20 (1957) pp. 194-200.

[12]Rodney W. Stark, "Policy and the Pros: An Organizational Analysis of a Metropolitan Newspaper," <u>Berkeley Journal of Sociology</u> 7 (1962) pp. 11-32.

[13]McLeod and Hawley, <u>op. cit.</u>, pp 535-536.

[14]<u>Ibid.</u>, p. 535.

[15]Jack M. McLeod and Ramona R. Rush, "Professionalization of Latin American and U. S. Journalists: Part I and Part II," <u>Journalism Quarterly</u> 46 (Fall, 1969) pp. 583-590 and 46 (Winter, 1969) pp. 784-789.

[16]William J. Goode, "Encroachment, Charlatanism, and Emerging Profession: Psychology, Sociology, and Medicine," <u>American Sociological Review</u> 25 (1960) pp. 902-914.

[17]McLeod and Hawley, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 533.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The basic measuring instrument of professional orienta-
tion studies in the journalistic occupation is a battery of
24 job characteristics which was developed by McLeod and
Hawley;[1] they utilized the previous studies conducted by
Marvick and Samuelson.[2]

McLeod and Hawley, in their study of editorial staff
of two Milwaukee newspapers, operationalized the basic
criteria of professionalization into a 24-item index which
was employed to separate their respondents on the contimuum
of professionalism.

Based on the literature of occupational sociology and
utilization of item analysis, the occupational attributes
included in the 24-item professionalism index are split half
and half, 12 of which are assumed to be professionally
oriented and the other 12 items as non-professional charac-
teristics. For example, items such as importance of the
use of professional skills and knowledge, free expression
of ideas, service element, influence on society, and
organization worked for are devised to measure the

professional orientation of a person. On the other hand, items stressing job security, human relation aspects and gain in prestige and monetary ends of a job are assumed to measure the non-professional characteristics of respondents. The assumption is that newsmen with higher professional bent should emphasize professional attributes of a job to a greater degree than the non-professional aspects of it.

The 24-item professionalism index was employed to separate a sample of 210 Turkish journalists into three groups: high, medium and low professionals. The attitudinal and socio-economic characteristics of the Turkish journalists which were subjected to analysis in this study included: (a) occupational perception and job satisfaction; (b) individual modernity; (c) desires for professional implementation; (d) homogeneity of cognitive judgments; (3) criticism of the news content; (f) attitudes toward professional organizations; (g) differences in job characteristics and socio-economic backgrounds of the respondents.

The remainder of this chapter will be devoted to analysis of data and discussion of findings in accordance with the research goals stated above.

Professional orientation

From the 24-item professionalism index two sets of scores were obtained: (1) <u>desired</u> job characteristics and; (2) the characteristics <u>provided</u> by the respondent's own job. In order to obtain these scores each respondent was asked to rate 1 to 4, on a four-point scale ranging from "extremely important" to "not important," how each attribute on the 24-item professionalism scale was to him in an <u>ideal job.</u> Respondents rated 24 attributes once more on a four-point scale ranging from "extremely well" to "not at all," as to how well their present job provided these characteristics.

A factor analysis (communality solution with normalized varimax rotation) of scores obtained from the respondents to <u>desired</u> job characteristics yielded seven factors; see Table 3. As was the case with the McLeod and Rush study of Latin American journalists,[3] all seven factors emerged from the analysis were "mixed." In other words, professionally oriented items clustered with non-professional items in all seven factors.

On the basis of component job characteristics, one might label the seven factors which emerged: Social;

TABLE 3

FACTOR LOADINGS OF DESIRED JOB ITEMS
(N=210)

ITEMS	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
Social Factor							
Good working hours	.693						
Congenial co-workers	.593						
Appreciative supervisors(*)	.595						
Respect for co-workers(*)	.504						
Security of job	.491						
Achievement Factor							
Advance in organization		.581					
Advance in career(*)		.549					
Good salary		.414					
Chance for originality(*)		.377					
Prestige Factor							
Prestige job in community			.693				
Respected organization(*)			.513				
Prestige job in organization			.477				
Advantages Factor							
Enjoyment of job				.601			
Job essential to community(*)				.567			
Excitement and variety of job				.456			
Full use of abilities(*)				.430			
Influence Factor							
Meet important people					.455		
Influence public(*)					.446		
Influence on decisions(*)					.436		
Impress on organization(*)					.389		
Job Activity Factor							
Working with people						.535	
Opportunity to learn(*)						.456	
Employment Factor							
Availability of support							.450
Freedom from supervision(*)							.354
Percent of total variance	8.9%	6.6	6.3	6.3	6.2	5.2	2.8	42.3
Percent of total factor variance	21.0%	15.6	15.0	14.9	14.6	12.4	6.5	100.0

(*) professional items

Achievement; Prestige; Advantages; Influence; Job Activity
and Employment.

Among the seven "mixed" clusters, Social, Achievement,
Prestige, and Influence factors were especially important
to revealing the nature of perceived occupational patterns
of Turkish journalists. For example, in a cluster which
was labeled Social Factor, "good working hours," "congenial
co-workers," "appreciative supervisor," "respect for co-
workers," and "security of job" were grouped together.
Thus the concept, "job security," was linked to a group of
human relation characteristics and routine working hours.
This certainly represents a clear pattern of bureaucratic
attitude towards one's job. In other words, peaceful
working relations and routine hours contribute, to a con-
siderable extent, to the feeling of job security among
Turkish journalists. On the other hand, Achievement was
defined in terms of "advancement in organization," "advance-
ment in career," "good salary," and a "chance for originality."
The fine distinction between promotional advance, increase
in income and occupational progress was lost to respondents
of the survey which may be due to cultural differences.
The prestige factor is quite clear in the sense that it

brings together "prestige job in community," working for a "respected organization," and having a "prestige job in organization." However, the influence factor reveals more cultural peculiarities in terms of occupational characteristics. In this cluster three professional items, "influence public," "influence on decisions," and "impact on organization," are linked with a non-professional item "meet important people." Yet, in a transitional society such as Turkey, having access to important and influential persons might still be considered a factor of social power and influence.

Emergence of "mixed" factors from the Turkish data did not lend support to the validity of the 24-item professional index. On the other hand, another study conducted in India produced five "pure" factors.[4] Thus, to further explore the applicability of 24-item proffesionalization index in cross-cultural situations and to improve the measuring instrument, the decision was made to item analyze the "desired" job characteristics obtained in the Turkish data and to select the powerful items in order to divide the respondents according to their professional orientation.

In situations where "pure" factors emerge from the

factor analysis of 24 desired job characteristics (i.e.,
factors composed of either all professional or all non-
professional items) the ranking procedure of respondents
on the professionalism scale is rather simple. All pro-
fessional and non-professional items are summed from the
raw scores of respondents in the sample and from the total
of professional items the difference between professional
and non-professional items is subtracted. Subtracting
the difference diminishes the effect of a response set of
the journalists who might have a uniformly high or low
desire for both professional and non-professional aspects
of the job.[5] This procedure allows us to assign a pro-
fessional orientation score to each and every respondent
in the sample. And finally, appropriate cutting points
are determined and the sample can be divided into three
groups as high, medium and low professionals according to
their professional orientation scores. However, in the
case of the present data, the emergence of "mixed" factors
as a result of factor analysis, for reasons of improving
the measuring instrument in further studies in cross
cultural replications, made us decide to apply an item
analysis on 24 desired job characteristics in order to

obtain professional orientation scores of the respondents.
Utilizing the correlation matrix from the factor analysis
and eliminating the "weak" predictor items from the index,
the item analysis enabled us to obtain nine professional
and eight non-professional items which showed evidence of
discriminating the professional orientation of the respon-
dents. The nine professional items included, "opportunity
to learn," "influence on decisions," "advance in career,"
"influence on public," "full use of abilities," "chance
for originality," "job essential to society," "impress on
organization," and "respected organization." On the other
hand, the eight non-professional items were, "advance in
organization," "prestige job in organization," "good
salary," "availability of support," "prestige job in the
community," "security of the job," "good working hours,"
and "congenial co-workers." Out of seven "weak" items
three professional attributes were "freedom from super-
vision," "respect for ability and competence of co-workers,"
and "appreciative supervisor," and four non-professional
items were "enjoyment of the job," "excitement of the
job," "working with people rather than things," and "con-
tact with important people."

For the ranking of respondents with respect to their professional orientation, the nine professional and eight non-professional items were utilized by summing the professional items for each and every respondent and subtracting from this total the difference between the professional and non-professional items. Thus, every respondent was assigned a professional orientation score. Finally, by dividing the respondents into three groups at the appropriate cutting points on the array of professional orientation scores, 70 high, 70 medium and 70 low professionally oriented respondents emerged from a sample of 210 Turkish newspapermen.

A correlation analysis of desired job characteristics with professional orientation index (Appendix B, Table 34) shows that ten out of 12 professional items correlate highly with the professional orientation index. On the other hand, only four out of 12 non-professional items have significant correlations.

Desired job characteristics

After dividing respondents into three groups (by utilizing the nine professional and eight non-professional attributes) as high, medium, and low professionals

(hereafter designated in tables as high professionals ('HP'), medium professionals ('MP'), and low professionals ('LP')) we then could proceed with the comparison of emphasis given to the 24 occupational attributes by three groups. In this comparison the assumption is that the high professionals, on a four-point scale ranging from 1 for "extremely important," to 4 for "not important," should put more emphasis on professional items than the medium and low professionals. The opposite is expected for the non-professional items which stress security, human relations, and economic aspects of a job. Though stemming mostly from the influence of the item analysis, Table 4 nevertheless bears support for this assumption in that a somewhat different pattern emerges between high and low professionals in terms of importance given to the 12 professionally-oriented items. The responses of medium professionals to professional attributes although somewhat lower, follow a pattern which is quite close to the one set by the high professionally-oriented journalists.

TABLE 4

COMPARISON OF DESIRED JOB CHARACTERISTICS
AMONG TURKISH JOURNALISTS
(N=210)

	PERCENTAGE INDICATING "EXTREMELY IMPORTANT"		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
PROFESSIONAL ITEMS			
Opportunity to learn new skills and knowledge	89	81	59
Having an influence on important decisions	77	70	27
Getting ahead in your professional career	96	83	66
Freedom from continual close supervision over your work	44	39	36
Opportunity to have an influence on public thinking	87	71	34
Full use of your abilities and knowledge	91	84	43
Opportunity for originality and initiative	81	71	41
Having a job that is valuable and essential to society	86	81	44
Respect for the ability and competence of co-workers	81	74	60
A supervisor who appreciates the time you spend on work	61	79	53

TABLE 4 (continued)

| | PERCENTAGE INDICATING "EXTREMELY IMPORTANT" | | |
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
A job that makes the organiza-. tion different in some way because I work for it	73	60	21
Having a job with an organiza- tion that is nationally known and respected	91	80	41

NON-PROFESSIONAL ITEMS

Getting ahead in the organiza- tion you work for	59	81	64
Having a prestigious job in the organization	63	74	47
Salary: earning enough money for a good living	51	79	57
Availability of support: work- ing with people who will stand behind a man	46	61	49
Having a job with prestige in the community	54	73	53
An enjoyment of what is involved in doing the job	91	84	70
Security of the job in its being fairly permanent	67	83	66
A job with hours does not disrupt the family life	36	64	44
Being with people who are con- genial to work with	49	69	47

TABLE 4 (continued)

| | PERCENTAGE INDICATING "EXTREMELY IMPORTANT" | | |
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Excitement and variety the job provides	74	67	40
Working with people rather than things	49	61	34
A job that brings me into contact with important people	56	61	29

Out of seven strongly emphasized items by high professionals, six are professionally oriented attributes. Those professional items emphasized by high professionally oriented journalists are "advancement in career," "full use of abilities," "job with respected organization," "opportunity to learn," "influence on public," and "job essential to society." A non-professional item "enjoyment of job," is given emphasis by all three groups. On the other hand, high, medium and low professionals alike disregard the importance of one professional item "freedom from close supervision." In this respect the assumption of Breed and others[6] on "close control in the newsroom," is somewhat supported by the reaction of Turkish journalists to this

item. Perhaps this low emphasis on "freedom from close supervision," is an indicator of the acceptance of the fact by Turkish newsmen of the futility to fight against the tight control which exists in the newsroom.

Interestingly enough, the close resemblance that exists between high and medium professionals in their responses to the 12 professional items does not follow in non-professional items. Here a new pattern emerges and the responses of high and low professionals develop close proximity.

Medium professionals value all 12 non-professional items highly but are particularly fond of three items, "advancement in organization," "job security," and "good salary." In some respect, this emerging group strikes an interesting contrast to the indifference of low and professionally-oriented pattern of high professionals in their reaction to the 24 occupational attributes. While they reveal a high desire for a professional competence by emphasizing the professional items, at the same time they are quite interested in the worldly aspects of a job.

Job satisfaction

As was explained earlier, the respondents were also asked to rate 24 occupational attributes once more on a

on a four point scale ranging from 1 for "extremely well," to 4 for "not at all," as to how well their present job provided these characteristics. The degree of job satisfaction of the journalists in the sample is determined by the difference between the level of desire for any job characteristic and the level of actual provision by the respondent's own job.

This comparison of "Want-Get" ratio actually determines the level of frustration.[7] Thus if the actual provision lags behind the extent to which a characteristic is desired by the respondent a gap in job satisfaction is assumed. Therefore a larger minus figure characterizes a high degree of frustration or dissatisfaction. A positive figure means a relative satisfaction. Table 5 illustrates the difference between mean scores of "desires," and "provisions," in all three groups. It is evident from the results shown on Table 5 that high professionals are especially dissatisfied with two aspects of their jobs both of which involve decision-making, "influence on decisions," and "impress on organization," (-1.01 and -1.17 respectively). As may be expected, high professionals are not happy with the limited freedom provided for them in the decision-making process within

TABLE 5

PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION OF TURKISH
JOURNALISTS
(N=210)

PROFESSIONAL ITEMS	DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS OF DESIRES-PROVISION		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Opportunity to learn new skills and knowledge	-.80	-.68	-.28
Having an influence on important decisions	- 1.01	-.66	-.07
Getting ahead in your professional career	-.54	-.66	-.14
Freedom from continual close supervision of your work	-.21	-.23	-.10
Opportunity to have influence on public thinking	-.82	-.43	+.49
Having a job that is valuable and essential to society	-.64	-.49	-.13
Opportunity for originality and initiative	-.67	-.45	-.13
Full use of your abilities and knowledge	-.94	-.51	-.17
Respect for the ability and competence of co-workers	-.52	-.53	-.37
A supervisor who appreciates the time you spend on work	-.56	-.43	-.20

TABLE 5 (continued)

PROFESSIONAL ITEMS	DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS OF DESIRES-PROVISION		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
A job that makes the organization different in some way because I work for it	-1.17	+.06	-.13
Having a job with an organization that is nationally known and respected	.43	-.20	+.53
NON-PROFESSIONAL ITEMS			
Getting ahead in the organization you work for	-.52	-.67	-.52
Having a prestigious job in the organization	-.18	-.45	.00
Salary: Earning enough money for a good living	-.79	+.17	-.67
Availability of support: working with people who will stand behind a man	-.22	-.47	-.17
Having a job with prestige in the community	-.07	-.32	-.07
An enjoyment of what is involved in doing the job	-.47	-.23	-.07
Security of the job in its being fairly permanent	-.35	-.50	-.56
A job with hours does not disrupt the family life	-.61	-1.00	-.82

TABLE 5 (continued)

| NON-PROFESSIONAL ITEMS | DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS OF DESIRES-PROVISION | | |
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Being with people who are congenial to work with	-.05	-.36	-.32
Excitement and variety the job provides	-.53	-.17	+.36
Working with people rather than things	-.04	-.10	+.39
A job that brings me into contact with important people	+.03	-.06	-.23

A large negative figure indicates a high level of dissatisfaction, a positive figure represents relative satisfaction.

the hierarchical organization of a newspaper. In addition, high professionals are also dissatisfied in areas such as "full use of abilities," "influence on public," and "opportunity to learn." Somewhat inherently related together, these five items depict a picture of curtailed freedom of expression in terms of the journalistic occupation. In other words, high professionals feel the pressure, both from within and outside their jobs, of not being able

to fully express themselves. This of course highlights a pertinent characteristic as far as the journalistic occupation is concerned in developing countries.

In contrast to high professionally-oriented journalists, low professionals show a pattern of "resigned" individuals in terms of professional freedom of expression and competence. They seem quite content with whatever they are provided and tend not to register too much complaint about it. As a matter of fact, they are relatively satisfied with the opportunities provided for them to "influence public" (+.49) and being able to work for a "respected organization" (+.53). However, there is one revealing aspect about the reaction of low professionals to professionally-oriented items and that is their high dissatisfaction with the item "respect for co-workers," (-.37). Perhaps this means a resentment of the treatment given to them by their colleagues or an unconscious expression of their frustration due to their self-realized professional incompetence. In fact, this explanation is given further support by low professionals' reaction towards "having a prestigious job in the organization."

Although moderately expressed, medium professionals

also complain about limitations as seen in professional items such as "opportunity to learn," "influence on decisions," and "advancement in career."

The medium and low, and to a lesser extent, high professionals, are quite dissatisfied with the erratic and long working hours that disrupt their family lives (-1.00; -.82; and -.61 respectively). While both high and low professionally oriented journalists complain about inadequate salaries (-.79 and -.67 respectively) medium professionals seem somewhat satisfied with what they are paid (+.17). However, in comparison to two other groups, the highest median monthly income is reported by the medium professionals; see Table 32. Yet the medium professionals are still highly dissatisfied with non-professional items such as "advancement in organization," and "job security." Low professionally-oriented journalists are also worried about the security of their jobs.

Stressing attributes dealing with influence and decision-making the high professionals, in accordance with the theoretical notions of occupational sociology, articulated the limitations with which journalists in Turkey are faced.

Individual modernity

The nine items adopted from Smith and Inkeles' short forms of "Overall Modernity,"[8] accounted for very small variance between the three professional groups. This was evident from the results of pre-tests administered to a group of 30 journalists in Ankara. Nevertheless, the questions were left in the measuring instrument for future comparisons when the professionalization studies are conducted with regional and local newspapermen of Turkey.

A percentage distribution of the responses of high, medium and low professionals to nine individual modernity items is shown in Table 6. Examination of Table 6 reveals that there are no very significant differences in reactions of the three groups to most of the items. In their overall responses to nine questions comprising the short forms of the OM scale, Turkish journalists seem to be modern in their attitudes. Yet the structure of the OM scale and the response set of the Turkish journalists to some of the individual modernity items necessitates certain discussion.

According to Smith and Inkeles, only one alternative in every question represents the modern end of the OM scale.[9] The surveys of individual modernity were conducted

TABLE 6

INDIVIDUAL MODERNITY OF TURKISH JOURNALISTS
(N=209)

INDIVIDUAL MODERNITY ITEMS	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=69)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Different ways of doing things			
Always useful(*)	43%	47%	43%
Usually useful	43	43	47
Useful at times	10	6	4
Seldom useful	4	4	6
Qualification for a public office			
Being highly educated and specialized(*)	84	84	83
Most popular among people	9	9	14
Coming from a prominent family	2	3	--
Devotions to traditions and customs	5	4	3
Item important for the country			
Hard work of the people(*)	25	31	30
Good planning on the part of government	72	69	70
Good luck	3	--	--
God's help	--	--	--
Scientific research			
All beneficial(*)	69	67	61
Somewhat beneficial	26	26	33
All somewhat harmful	3	7	4
All very harmful	2	--	2
To limit number of children			
Necessary to take better care of others(*)	93	89	90
It is wrong to limit	7	11	10

TABLE 6 (continued)

INDIVIDUAL MODERNITY ITEMS	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=69)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Job choice			
Job he prefers(*)	100	100	99
Job his parents prefers	--	--	1
Meeting people			
Prefer to meet new people(*)	87	81	84
Prefer people already know	13	19	16
A person can be great without religion			
Yes(*)	79	70	76
No	21	30	24
Planning nature			
Plans ahead carefully(*)	60	59	61
Plans ahead in few matters	35	34	33
Lets things go as they are	5	7	6

(*) Individual modernity indicators.

in six developed countries by Inkeles and his colleagues with

samples mostly made up of farm and labor segments of the popu-

lations.[10] The investigators also claimed that the OM scale

could be utilized to measure the individual modernity of other

occupational groups such as white collar workers or pro-
fessionals.[11] The findings of the present survey, in some

respects, pose certain questions about the claims of Inkeles

and his colleagues that their measuring instrument is not

culture-bound and could be applied to all strata of a popu-

lation in a developing country. For example, in the case of

Turkey on at least two items; "different ways of doing

things," and "item most important for the country;" could

be considered and answered in terms of several historical,

economical, sociological and political perspectives. Thus

when these questions were posed to a group of intellectuals

such as metropolitan journalists in the present survey, the

"either/or" structure of the OM scale became obsolete. As

Table 6 illustrates, the journalists in the sample were di-

vided half and half on the item, "different ways of doing

things." At least half of the respondents in all three

groups (43%; 43%; and 47% respectively), realizing the com-

plexity of social change and hazards of attempting to change

things for change sake, answered this question with a cer-

tain amount of caution. On the other hand, the Turkish

journalists favor the alternative "good planning on the part

of government," to the question "item important for the

country." For the last decade, the most important debates
between moderns and conservatives in Turkey has been the im-
plementation and execution of five-year plans. As part of
the modernizing elite in Turkey, the members of the press
largely favored the idea of planning ahead by the government
and the findings of the present survey demonstrate this fact
quite clearly. Thus it might be argued that the political,
economical and sociological factors peculiar to the nature
of Turkish society motivated the respondents to select the
alternative "planning ahead," over the "hard work of the
people." Therefore, the majority of the respondents in all
three groups (72%; 69%; and 70% respectively) favored the
item "good planning on the part of government." Furthermore,
the five-year plans designed by the governments of Turkey in
the last decade put rather strong emphasis on birth control.[12]
In Turkey, as in many developed and developing countries, the
issue of birth control is a subject of discussion between
moderns and traditionals. The similarity of the response sets
of the journalists to "good planning on the part of govern-
ment, and "to limit the number of children," (93%; 89% and
90% respectively) further supports this writer's argument
that the OM scale when used as a cross-cultural measuring

instrument should be approached with considerable caution.

Professional implementation

According to occupational sociologists, it is usually the advanced members of an occupation who demand more professional improvements in their field by imposing certain rules and regulations relative to training, recruitment, organizational activities and ethics. Thus, more professionally oriented members of an occupation attempt to improve the conditions in their field by leading others and help the enhancement of professionalization.[13]

In the studies of professionalism in the journalistic occupation, it was also assumed that the journalists who are more professionally oriented than their colleagues should favor certain improvements in their field of work.

The measuring instrument of the present investigation included 27 items which dealt with different areas of professional improvement in the Turkish press.

A factor analysis (communality solution with normalized varimax rotation) of 27 professional improvement items produced six factors; see Table 7. Those items loaded below .400 were excluded from the factors because they accounted for very small variance. This exclusion process provided us with 16

items which were clustered into six factors: Freedom of the Press; Training; Social Functions of the Press; Ethics; Responsibility; and Objectivity.

Five out of six factors emerged which could be called "pure" factors in that they include items designed to measure various aspects of similar occupational characteristics. Factor III emerged as a "mixed" factor which included two social function items; "the role of the press in national development," and "social status of newsmen;" alongside one technical item, "emphasis on government news," and one responsibility item, "partisan press."

In Table 8 the correlation of professional improvement items with the professional orientation index is presented. Only four out of 27 professional improvement items; "membership in political parties," "economic scarcities," "limited news sources," and "profit making motive;" correlated significantly with the professional orientation index.

As can be observed from Table 9, a strong urge for professional improvements in the journalistic occupation is demonstrated by Turkish newsmen in this survey. Means of the responses given to 27 professional implementation

TABLE 7
FACTOR LOADINGS OF PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT ITEMS
(N=210)

ITEMS	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
Freedom of the Press Factor						
Economic scarcities force the press to yield government	.760					
Government pressures affect on professionalization	.607					
Dependency on government for printing material curtails freedom of the press	.553					
Training Factor						
Journalism requires long and specialized training		.586				
Specialization of journalists is necessary		.490				
Mandatory journalism degree		.448				
Social Functions of the Press Factor						
The role of the press in national development is more important than political parties			.589			
Emphasis on government news is overdone			.423			
Partisan press limits its opportunities			.417			
Newsman has not achieved his deserved social status in Turkish society			.407			
Ethics Factor						
Newspapers should give public what they want (-)				.518		
Journalists should be tolerated for occasional junkets(-)				.440		
Responsibility Factor						
Journalists should be willing to go to jail if necessary					.521	
Press-card system attracts unqualified to journalism					.502	
Objectivity Factor						
Active membership in a political party does not affect objectivity						.548
Party organ can report objectively						.502
Percent of total variance	7.4%	4.9	4.3	3.8	3.7	3.1	27.2
Percent of total factor variance	25.5%	16.9	14.9	13.2	12.7	10.7	93.9

(-) negative items

TABLE 8

CORRELATION OF PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT ITEMS
WITH PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION
INDEX

PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT ITEMS	CORRELATION
Journalism requires long and specialized training	-.029
Quit if disagree with paper's policy	.044
Government advertising should be abolished	.039
There is no real threat to freedom of the press in Turkey	-.074
Mandatory journalism degree	-.007
Willingness to go to jail	.060
Press card system attracts unqualified	.061
Membership in political parties does not affect objectivity	.150
Opportunities for refresher courses	.078
Give public what they want	-.034
Emphasis on government news is overdone	-.054
Dependency on government for printing material curtails freedom	.086
Specialization of journalists necessary	.008
Journalists should serve public	.060
Government pressures affect professionalization	.051
Economic scarcities force the press to yield to government pressures	.153

TABLE 8 (continued)

PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT ITEMS	CORRELATION
No need for self-control of the press	.016
Limited news sources affect professionalism	.160
Partisan press limits its opportunities	.024
Sensationalism is necessary in Turkey	.090
Party organ can report objectively	.061
The role of the press in national development is important	-.009
Profit making motive overshadows public service	.144
Public service is luxury for a newsman	-.019
Turkish society does not appreciate journalists	.039
Junkets should be tolerated	-.093
No discrimination on sex in recruitment	.079

(.13 and above is significant at .05 level.)

items on Table 9 show that there are very small differences between high, medium and low professionals in their desires for professional improvements in the Turkish press.

TABLE 9

MEAN ANALYSIS OF PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT ITEMS[*]
(N=210)

PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT ITEMS	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Freedom of the Press			
There is no real threat to freedom of the press in Turkey	4.14	3.36	3.79
Dependency on government for printing material curtails freedom	2.56	2.61	2.83
Government pressures affect professionalization	4.71	4.79	4.97
Economic scarcities force the press to yield to government pressures in Turkey	3.13	3.37	3.76
Training			
Journalism require long and specialized training	1.94	1.65	1.97
Mandatory journalism degree	4.69	4.24	4.64
Specialization of journalists necessary	1.49	1.48	1.60
Opportunities for refresher courses	1.23	1.23	1.36
Social Functions			
Public service is luxury for newsman	5.44	5 57	5.54
Journalists should serve public	1.60	1.63	1 83
Profit-making overshadows public service	1.94	2.07	2.34

TABLE 9 (continued)

PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT ITEMS	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Social Functions			
The role of the press in national development is more important than the political parties	1.59	1.31	1.47
Turkish public does not appreciate value of press	2.93	2.77	3.21
No discrimination on sex in recruitment	1.32	1.13	1.33
Ethics			
Junkets should be tolerated	5.10	4.59	4.91
Willingness to go to jail	1.30	1.59	1.56
No need for self-control of the press	4.38	4.77	4.67
Responsibility			
Give public what they want	4.56	4.17	4.40
Quit if disagree with paper's policy	2.61	2.80	2.74
Government advertising should be abolished	2.93	2.93	3.74
Press card attracts unqualified	1.96	2.01	2.09
Partisan press limits its opportunities	1.48	1.29	1.33
Sensationalism is necessary in Turkey	3.16	2.90	3.19
Limited news sources affect professionalism	2.30	2.26	2.89

TABLE 9 (continued)

PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT ITEMS	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)

Objectivity

Membership in political parties does not affect	3.94	3.93	4.33
Emphasis on government news is overdone	3.35	2.54	2.89
Party organ can report objectively	3.31	3.74	3 63

(*) Responses ranged from 1 for "strongly agree," to 7 for "strongly disagree."

A detailed discussion of professional improvement items according to six basic categories is presented below.

a) Freedom of the press

Close scrutiny of Table 9 reveals that, despite the new Constitution and relaxed press laws[14] since 1960, all three groups still feel certain threats to the freedom of the press in Turkey. However, highs are somewhat more disturbed with it than the other two groups.

The Turkish government regulates import quotas for printing materials and printing presses, which are not

manufactured in Turkey. Thus, publishers must obtain import permits from the government in order to buy their needs from abroad. Does this restriction have an influence on the freedom of the press in Turkey? All three groups slightly agree that dependency on government for printing material and printing presses somewhat curtails the freedom of the press.

Turkish journalists are of the opinion that pressures from the government could not affect the professionalization of the Turkish press. As a matter of fact, low professionally-oriented journalists' disagreement with this statement is slightly higher than that of the medium and highs. In this respect, Head's question: "Can a Journalist Be a 'Professional' in a Developing Country?" seems to be answered affirmatively by the Turkish journalists.[15] It is the belief of the Turkish journalists that, despite government pressures, professionalization in the journalistic occupation is possible.

All three groups take a somewhat neutral position that economic scarcities could force the press to yield to government pressures in Turkey.

b) <u>Training</u>

Attitudes of Turkish journalists towards the training

aspect in journalism provide us with an interesting pattern.

There is strong agreement among the three groups, al-

though low professionals are slightly more convinced than

the highs and mediums, that journalism requires long and

specialized training. Yet all three groups tend to reject

the idea of a mandatory journalism degree. To illustrate

this point further it may be helpful to quote a noted news-

man on the subject. During the data collection in Turkey,

this writer also conducted informal interviews with journal-

ists who were not included in the sample of this survey.

One of these newspapermen, Mehmet Ali Kislali, the Director

of the Turkish News Agency in Ankara, commented on formal

education in journalism thusly:

> I think it is quite important that a journal-
> ist should have an adequate education. How-
> ever, among the editors and publishers there
> is this persistent belief that the public does
> not demand a higher quality of reporting than
> whatever exists in the Turkish press today.
> Therefore they (editors and publishers) are not
> willing to pay more money to hire highly edu-
> cated reporters.[16]

On the subject of a mandatory journalism degree another

journalist, Erdogan Tamer, the editor of <u>Ulus</u> in Ankara,

offered the following comments:

> Today the training in basic journalism is a
> necessity for those who are working in the
> areas of general reporting. On the other
> hand I do not believe that what the schools
> of journalism in Turkey offer in terms of
> formal training is adequate enough in the areas
> of specialization such as sciences, agriculture
> or foreign affairs. What we need is not a man-
> datory degree in journalism but specialists in
> certain areas who are trained to cover the
> stories and inform the audiences adequately on
> these subjects.[17]

High, medium, and low professionals, quite in line with
Mr. Tamer's comment, agree on the necessity of speciali-
zation in the journalistic occupation and favor the idea of
refresher courses for journalists.

c) Social functions

The public service zeal runs quite high among Turkish
journalists. They reject the statement quite strongly that
public service is a luxury for a newsman and believe in the
idea that journalists should serve the public.

All three groups agree that, at times, profit-making
motives of newspapers in Turkey overshadow the public ser-
vice commitment. The high professionals believe this some-
what more strongly than the mediums and lows.

Members of the Turkish press are also of the opinion

that the role of the press in national development is more important than the role played by the political parties.

There is a slight agreement among Turkish journalists that the public in Turkey does not appreciate the value of the press and thus journalists can not achieve the social status they deserve.

All three groups agree that there should be no discrimination on sex in recruitment into the journalistic occupation. However, the findings of this survey show that the Turkish press is dominated by males. Out of 210 respondents in the sample only 14 of them or seven per cent were females against 196 or ninety-three per cent males.

d) Ethics

High and low professionally oriented journalists reject the idea that junkets should be tolerated. The medium professionals are also in disagreement with this statement but in somewhat lower degree than the other two groups.

High professionals strongly agree that to conceal the source of the news, a newsman should take the risk of going to jail. Medium and low professionals also agreed, but somewhat moderately.

Self-control of the press in Turkey is a long de-
bated issue among the newspapermen. A system of self-con-
trol was established in the early sixties but did not prove
to be successful.[18] Seyfettin Turhan, one of the journal-
ists who initiated the movement to establish a system of
self-control in the Turkish press, commented about its out-
come thusly:

> The idea of establishing a system of self-
> control in Turkish press came about as a
> good-will gesture after the 1960 military
> 'coup'. The members of the press were
> quite enthusiastic about it and accepted
> the proposed code-of-ethics without op-
> position. But what we did not see then and
> became quite clear to us now is that any
> system of self-control without certain sanc-
> tions to carry out its rules was doomed to
> failure. This is exactly what happened to
> our code-of-ethics.[19]

Thus there is some evidence from the reaction to state-
ment in Table 9 that high professionally-oriented journal-
ists, somewhat moderately, medium and low professionals quite
strongly, are beginning to lose faith in the effectiveness
of a system of self-control without sanctions in Turkey.

e) Responsibility

In the area of responsibility of the press the newspaper-
men in the sample show almost the same enthusiasm as in other

areas of professional improvement.

They reject the statement that the public should be given what they want and agree that a journalist should leave a paper if he does not agree with its policies.

Two items which are related to indirect support of the Turkish press by the government caused mixed reactions from the journalists who participated in the survey. The high and low professionals slightly agree that government advertising should be abolished. But low professionals are in slight disagreement with this controversial issue of the Turkish press. The journalists who were interviewed informally uniformly agree that the government advertising only serves the purpose of keeping small and unimportant newspapers alive. They contend that the abolishment of government advertising will create a healthy competition for private advertising among the major newspapers.[20]

High professionally-oriented newsmen believe that the press card system, which was created at the beginning of the Republic to help the press to cover stories without much difficulty and at minimum expense,[21] is not necessary anymore and attracts unqualified people to the occupation. The medium and low professionals also agree with this statement.

Both high and low professionally-oriented journal-
ists are close to neutral on the statement that sensation-
alism is necessary to attract readers. Medium profession-
als still somewhat believe the necessity of sensationalism.

All three groups are in agreement about the adverse
effects of limited news sources on professionalization in
their occupation.

f) Objectivity

Low professionals tend to disagree with the statement
that "membership in political parties does not affect ob-
jectivity of a newspaperman." High and medium profession-
als also in disagreement with the idea but not as strongly
as low professionals. On the other hand, the medium pro-
fessionals agree that emphasis on government news is over-
done. On this issue high professionals are somewhat neutral
and low professionals are in slight agreement.

Finally, all three groups remain neutral on the ques-
tion of objectivity of a party organ.

In all areas questioned--freedom of the press; training;
social functions of the press; ethics; responsibility and ob-
jectivity--Turkish journalists express a strong desire in
the direction of professional improvements and the

differences between high, medium and low professionals

on professional implementation items tend to be negligible.

Cognitive judgments

According to a functionalist view of occupations, pro-

fessionals comprise a homogeneous community whose members

share identity, values, definition of role, and interest.

Goode states that members of a professional community ". . .

are bound by a sense of identity . . . (and) . . . share

values in common. . ."[22]

It is one the assumptions of professionalization studies

of the journalistic occupation that cognitive judgments of

high professionals will differ from those of less profes-

sionally oriented journalists. In order to test this assump-

tion 186 respondents (24 members of the Turkish Radio and

Television System were excluded from this analysis) in the

sample were asked to rate each of the two concepts (IDEAL

NEWSPAPER and YOUR OWN NEWSPAPER) on 17 bi-polar Semantic

Differential adjective scales.

On the basis of the two basic concepts as replicates, a

factor analysis (communality solution with normalized vari-

max rotation) with 17 scales was run separately for each

group; see Table 10. Five factors with clusters and a

one-scale unique factor emerged.

On most of the five factors, high professionals set a pattern which is cohesive, clear and quite different in its nature from the patterns which emerged from the reactions of medium and low professionals.

In the first and the most dominant factor, which can be called Evaluative, high and medium professionals exhibit certain similarity on these substantially loaded scales, "valuable-worthless," "useful-useless," "strong-weak," "good-bad," and "adequate-inadequate." In addition to the five scales mentioned, high professionals have one more scale in the first factor, "truthful-false." In other words, the pattern for the medium professionals differs from the high professionally-oriented newsmen with the addition of two more scales, "exciting-boring," and "active-passive."

The Evaluative factor of the low professionals is a "mixed" one in that it includes such scales as "adequate-inadequate," (which is a common scale with high and medium professionals) "exciting-boring," "active-passive," (which are similar with medium professionals) "simple-complex," and "clear-confusing."

TABLE 10
ROTATED FACTOR LOADINGS FOR TURKISH JOURNALISTS
ON IDEAL NEWSPAPER AND OWN NEWSPAPER CONCEPTS
(N=186)

ITEMS	I			II			III			IV			V			VI		
Evaluative Factor	HP	MP	LP	HP	MP	LP	HP	MP	LP	HP	MP	LP	HP	MP	LP	HP	MP	LP
Valuable-Worthless	.786	.607											.382					
Useful-Useless	.779	.581								.359								
Strong-Weak	.597	.649		.597														
Good-Bad	.587	.597		.621														
Adequate-Inadequate	.586	.572	.585										.458	.404				
Truthful-False	.484																	
Dynamism Factor																		
Exciting-Boring		.563	.641	.571														
Active-Passive		.473	.600	.568														
Colorful-Colorless					.507		.457		.521									
Responsibility Factor																		
Responsible-Irresponsible							.636				.552			.384				
Simple-Complex		.566				.559	.492							.591			.367	
Serious-Sensational							.452											
Readability Factor																		
Easy-Difficult						.457					.627							.581
Clear-Confusing		.747				.497					.523							
Influence Factor																		
Unbiased-Biased										.539	.551	.494						
Important-Unimportant										.572	.402	.488						
Unique Factor																		
Cautious-Daring													.550	.484				
Percent of total variance	17.4	16.9	15.0	13.7	6.9	9.6	8.0	5.5	9.4	6.6	5.4	6.5	6.3	5.2	4.7	3.1	3.6	4.0
Percentage of total factor variance	31.0	37.8	29.9	24.3	15.5	19.1	14.3	12.4	18.7	11.8	12.1	13.0	10.7	11.8	9.4	5.4	8.1	7.9

HP=High Professional   MP=Medium Professional   LP=Low Professional

After the first factor structure all three groups develop different patterns.

The second factor cluster of high professionals which is termed Dynamism, is comprised of two Evaluative scales of mediums, "exciting-boring," and "active-passive." In addition, high professionals have one more scale in the second factor which is "colorful-colorless."

For the medium professionals, the second factor may be called Readability because it is comprised of three scales that obviously define this concept, "simple-complex," "easy-difficult," and "clear-confusing."

The second factor structure of low professionals is made of such scales as "strong-weak," "good-bad," and "colorful-colorless," and is termed Dynamism.

The three scales which clustered in the third factor of high professionals were "responsible-irresponsible," "simple-complex," and "serious-sensational." This factor was termed Responsibility for the high professionals.

A single-scale, unique factor emerged for the medium professionals in the third factor.

The third factor of the low professionals is comprised of three scales, "useful-useless," "unbiased-biased," and

"important-unimportant." According to the structure of the factor it was labeled as Influence.

The structure of the fourth factor of the high professionals includes two scales, "easy-difficult," and "clear-confusing," and termed as Readability.

The fourth factor is called Influence for the medium professionals and it includes two scales, "unbiased-biased," and "important-unimportant."

The four scales clustered around the fourth factor for the low professionals were labeled as Responsibility and they were comprised of such adjective pairs as "valuable-worthless," "truthful-false," "responsible-irresponsible," and "cautious-daring."

For the high professionals, the fifth factor included two scales, "unbiased-biased," and "important-unimportant." The fifth factor of high professionals resembled in structure the fourth factor of medium professionals and therefore it was called Influence.

For the medium professionals, three scales made the fifth factor, "truthful-false," "responsible-irresponsible," and "cautious-daring," and they were labeled as Responsibility.

Finally, fifth factor of low professionals and sixth factor of all three groups were single-item, unique factors.

The results of factor analysis in Table 10 demonstrate the areas of differences and certain similarities between the three groups on various images of newspapers.

The high professionals evaluate a newspaper by its valuableness, usefulness, strongness, goodness, adequacy and truthfulness. The medium professionals, with the exception of truthfulness, also take into account of all the five characteristics which are included in the factor structure of high professionals. However, in addition, the medium professionals look for the excitement and action in a newspaper. For the low professionals, the image is quite different. They are evaluating a newspaper on its adequacy, excitement, action, simplicity and clarity.

Thus, the Evaluative factor structure in the Turkish sample resembles the Milwaukee study in terms of differences between high, medium and low professionals. Likewise in the Milwaukee sample the professionals and semi-professionals were quite close in evaluating IDEAL and OWN newspaper concepts but the clerical employees which was considered as a

control group differed from the staff members in their evaluation of these concepts.[23]

The evaluation of a newspaper by high professionals suggest that they were aiming at a certain group of opinion leaders or a minority of intellectuals. The medium professionals would like to capture the middle ground by pleasing both the intellectuals and the masses. But low professionals give the impression that they are aiming at the mass audiences. Thus from clustering of factors one is tempted to make an assumption that there exist a different newspaper image in relation to a newspaper's professional orientation. However, in order to make further and more distinct inferences it is necessary to determine the affiliation of the three groups to the newspapers in the sample, the characteristics of the audiences of the newspapers which high, medium and low professionals work for and a comparative content analysis between these newspapers.

Dynamism for the high professionals means excitement, action and color. The low professionals define dynamism in terms of strongness, goodness and color. Thus cognitively the low professionals link the strength and goodness with dynamism.

For the high professionals responsibility means simplicity and seriousness. However, the medium professionals define responsibility in terms of truthfulness and caution. On the other hand, low professionals' "mixed" reaction to responsibility includes valuableness, truthfulness and caution. Both medium and low professionals relate responsibility to being cautious. According to data collected in this survey, the percentage of conviction because of work was slightly higher among the high in comparison to medium and low professionals (23%; 21%; and 16% respectively). Furthermore, in connection with their work, high professionals served slightly more jail terms than the medium and low professionals (6%; 4%; and 3% respectively); see Appendix B, Table 38. Thus, in some respects, these figures explain the differences of perception between the three groups in terms of responsibility and cautiousness.

For high professionals readability is defined in terms of easiness and clarity.

High and medium professionals have similar images of influence which to both groups means unbiasedness and importance. It is a somewhat "mixed" factor structure for all three groups because the low professionals add one more

dimension to it, "usefulness."

In terms of theoretical assumptions of this study the clustering of factor structures as "pure" or "mixed" nature could reveal the patterns homogeneity of cognitive judgments of the respondents and in particular differences between the three groups in their perception of newspaper images. Out of five factor structures shown in Table 10, high professionals have three "pure" factors, Evaluative, Dynamism, and Readability. Only one factor, Readability, appears as "pure" for the medium professionals. And all factors which emerged for low professionals are "mixed". Therefore, according to the data, in comparison to medium and low professionals, the high professionally-oriented journalists in the sample have rather cohesive and homogeneous cognitions of a newspaper with respect to given characteristics. However, medium and particularly low professionals, by having "mixed" factors, demonstrate a pattern of indecisiveness and confusion in their cognitive judgments. In this respect it could be said that high professional orientation somewhat contributes tc a better and clear perception of certain characteristics of a newspaper.

Adequacy of news content

To probe into their judgments of the adequacy of news

content in their papers, the 186 respondents in the sample
(again 24 members of the Turkish Radio and Television Sys-
tem were excluded from this analysis) were asked to rate 24
news areas of content on a four-point scale ranging 1 for
"should carry more," 2 for "should carry less," 3 for "carries
right amount," and 4 for "does not carry at all."

Table 11 indicates the percentage who felt more content
was needed in each of the 24 subject matter areas.

As indicated from the results presented in Table 11, the
areas which the three groups felt more content material were
needed do not show many differences between the high, medium
and low professionals. This may be partly due to the fact
that among the fifteen newspapers included in the sample of
this survey, there were style and content differences which
probably affected the results shown in Table 11.

Despite the small difference among them, all three
groups agree that more emphasis should be given to such areas
of content as foreign, domestic, local, constructive, societal
development, education, economics, science, labor and rural
news, and simplified news for less educated readers.

There is also an agreement, with differing degrees, among
the three groups that the Turkish papers place too much

TABLE 11

ADEQUACY OF NEWS CONTENT BY TURKISH JOURNALISTS[*]
(n=186)

	PERCENTAGE INDICATING "SHOULD CARRY MORE"		
TYPE OF CONTENT	HP (n=62)	MP (n=63)	LP (n=61)
Foreign news	52	43	38
Domestic news	54	60	46
Local news	46	42	34
News about politics and political parties	10	11	10
Crime news	7	19	8
Optimistic news	61	50	67
Women and fashion	21	17	11
Cartoons	26	25	18
Picture serials	16	21	11
Serials	8	13	7
Sensational news	13	16	21
News about societal development	34	52	47
Education news	34	48	61
Sports	20	29	26
Economic news	43	38	33

TABLE 11 (continued)

TYPE OF CONTENT	PERCENTAGE INDICATING "SHOULD CARRY MORE"		
	HP (n=62)	MP (n=63)	LP (n=61)
Science news	56	49	54
Simplified news for less educated	48	49	43
Bylined editorials	20	17	23
Society news	12	3	8
Labor news	59	38	61
Rural news	67	56	61

(*) Responses ranged from 1 to 4: 1 for "should carry more;" 2 for "should carry less;" 3 for "carries right amount;" and 4 for "does not carry at all."

emphasis on news about political parties, crime news, sensational news, sports and bylined editorials.

In terms of entertainment content, the high professionals believe that women and fashion news, society news and cartoons should be emphasized more. The medium professionals think there is a need for more picture serials and sports. On the other hand low professionally-oriented journalists see more need for sensational news in their papers.

In previous studies of professionalization in the journalistic occupation, the hypothesis underlying the adequacy of the news content was that the professionally oriented journalists should put more emphasis on public affairs content and criticize their paper more for the lack of it than their less professionally oriented colleagues.

A mean analysis in Table 12 shows that high professionals are indeed more interested in public affairs of news (foreign news in particular) than the medium and low professionals and criticize their paper more for the lack of this kind of content than the other two groups.

However, although the differences are smaller, as was the case with public affairs news, the high professionals are also more interested in entertainment content than the medium and low professionals.

Table 13, adapted from a trend analysis study conducted by Nermin Abadan in 1960, shows the comparative fluctuations in several content categories within a twenty-one year period.[24] The two newspapers studied are also included in the sample of this survey.

Abadan's article provides us with very little information about the procedure used in the selection of content

TABLE 12

MEAN ANALYSIS OF ADEQUACY OF NEWS CONTENT
BY TURKISH JOURNALISTS ACCORDING
TO CONTENT CATEGORIES (*)
(N=186)

CONTENT CATEGORIES	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=62)	MP (n=63)	LP (n=61)

PUBLIC AFFAIRS

Foreign news	1.96	2.14	2.23
Domestic news	1.91	1.83	2.17
Local news	1.78	1.88	1.93
News about politics and political parties	2.41	2.44	2.53
Education news	2.25	2.09	1.80
Economic news	2.09	2.34	2.29
Science news	1.87	2.19	1.94
Bylined editorials	2.23	2.26	2.11
Simplified news for less educated	2.18	2.11	2.24
Societal development news	2.39	2.00	1.97
Labor news	1.87	2.36	1 90
Rural news	1.71	2.07	1.89
Optimistic news	1.80	2.03	1.65
GROUP MEANS	2.03	2.13	2.15

ENTERTAINMENT

Women and fashion	2.22	2.41	2.40
Crime news	2.32	2.20	2.24
Sensational news	2.14	2.67	2.52
Cartoons and comics	2.14	2.33	2.31
Picture serials	2.32	2.29	2.31
Serials	2.30	2.33	2.34

TABLE 12 (continued)

CONTENT CATEGORIES	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=62)	MP (n=63)	LP (n=61)
ENTERTAINMENT			
Sports	2.58	2.39	2.40
Society news	2.36	2.67	2.40
GROUP MEANS	2.31	2.41	2.37

(*) Responses ranged as 1 for "should carry more;"2 for "should carry less;" 3 for "carries right amount;" and 4 for "does not carry at all."

categories and the methodology in sampling the years and the issues of the two newspapers studied. Nevertheless, the data shown in Table 13 illustrates a point that in the two leading, nationally circulated dailies of Turkey, within the twenty-one year period the entertainment material was given lesser space than the other content categories. Thus, thinking of a newspaper not only as a medium for informational material, the high professional (and in slightly lesser degree the other two groups) felt the need for more light material in their respective newspapers.

Attitudes towards professional bodies

The idea of professional organizations is not new to

the members of the Turkish press. Since the establishment

of the first professional body, the Ottoman Press Assoc-

iation in 1917 in Istanbul, several press organizations were

formed in Turkey.[25] However, not until the formation of

the Association of Newspapermen in 1946 and followed later

by the formation of the Newspapermen's Trade Unions in 1952

had the members of the Turkish press experienced relations

with independent professional bodies free from the influ-

ence of the government.[26]

In the present survey several aspects of organization-

al activities, membership, duration of membership, office

holding, attendance to business and social meetings of

formal organizations; of respondents were probed. In Ap-

pendix B, Table 37 of this report, detailed information on

the organizational activities of the respondents is presented.

In addition to the descriptive information on organ-

izational activities of the respondents, an attempt was made

to inquire about their attitudes towards the professional

bodies. Through open ended questions, respondents were ques-

tioned about their expectations from the Association of

Newspapermen and the Newspapermen's Trade Union with re-

spect to the journalistic occupation in Turkey.

In describing the importance of professional bodies

to an occupation Carr-Saunders and Wilson state:

> Professions can only be said to exist where
> the practitioners come together in free
> association. Desire to associate and ability
> to do so are the prerequisite of profession-
> alism.[27]

Throughout the history of established professions and

in recent years within the emerging professions, organ-

izational activities centered around the protection of mem-

bers from governmental influences, provision of adequate

training, regulation and restriction of recruitment, main-

tenance and betterment of occupational standards and en-

hancement of solidarity and colleague relations among the

members of an occupation.[28]

The solidarity of members or colleague orientation is

considered one of the most important facets of profession-

alization in that it creates a sense of _esprit de corps_

among the practitioners of an occupation and thus helps to

control such things as entry to occupation, development of

a unique mission, shared attitudes towards clients and

society, and the formation of informal and formal assoc-

iations.[29]

In Table 14 the two items, in proportional terms, were somewhat strongly emphasized by the three groups of journalists in the sample: the education of members and improvement of journalism as a profession.

With slightly more emphasis by high professionals, all three groups expect journalistic associations should educate their members in professional subjects and in areas pertaining to organizational training. As a matter of fact associations of newspapermen in Istanbul, Ankara and other sizable cities of Turkey provide assistance to their members by organizing seminars, language courses and conferences annually and attempt to educate their membership.[30]

Again, proportionally, a higher emphasis was placed on improvement of journalism as a profession, with medium professionals stressing slightly higher than both high and low professionals. This reaction could be explained as an attempt to make journalism a respected occupation in the Turkish society.

It could be said that both high and medium professionals are aware of the necessity of solidarity among the members of their occupation (20%; and 19% respectively). The

low professionals in comparison to the two other groups do

not pay considerable attention to colleague orientation (6%).

TABLE 14

EXPECTATIONS OF TURKISH JOURNALISTS
FROM JOURNALISTIC ASSOCIATIONS
(N=179)

EXPECTATIONS	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=61)	MP (n=59)	LP (n=59)
Education of members (professional education; organizational training)	29%	24%	25%
Improvement of journalism as a profession	21	25	19
Creation of solidarity among its members (professional cooperation and college relationship)	20	19	6
Protection of legal, social and economic rights of journalists	18	15	29
To provide social security	6	12	15
To emphasize on ethical aspects	6	5	6
	100%	100%	100%

The protection of legal, social, and economic rights

and social security are also mentioned by the three groups
but it seems that the low professionals are somewhat more
concerned about these issues than the high and medium pro-
fessionals.

Finally, high, medium and low professionals, with
slight differences between them, have some expectations from
the professional associations to regulate the ethical stan-
dards of journalism in Turkey.

Trade unionism in Turkey is a fairly recent phenomenon,
in comparison to the Western countries, and was introduced to
the country by the Republican government after the establish-
ment of the multi-party system. Karpat, commenting on the
creation of trade unionism in Turkey, states:

> The trade unions were freely formed in
> early 1946 following the amendment of the
> Association Law which permitted the es-
> tablishment of associations based on class
> interest. Most of them were closed for
> having been influenced by leftists six
> months later. The Republican government
> hurriedly introduced the Trade Union Act
> (#5018) on February 20, 1947 because of
> international obligations and, as a deputy
> expressed it, chiefly because: "this As-
> sembly which wants to avoid adventures can-
> not delay the organization of workers into
> associations which would protect them from
> having a black mark on their foreheads and
> which would remain pure, honest, national-
> istic, patriotic and Turks forever."[31]

After the Trade Union Act in 1947, the unions and federations sprung immediately and a large segment of the labor in Turkey unionized.[32]

Unionization of white-collar workers, semi-professionals and professional occupations in Turkey came later with much difficulties. The Newspapermen's Trade Union was formed in 1952 but with little organizational power other than helping journalists in placement, retirement, and certain other social security matters. But after the military 'coup' in 1960 the journalists were provided with certain rights by the military government, among them was the right to strike in case of labor disputes with management. The publishers of nine Istanbul dailies, resenting the new clause attached to the Newspapermen's Trade Union Law, closed their papers. In protest, journalists went on strike and published a paper Basin (Press), and resisted the pressures from the management.[33]

On the unionization in journalism and the field of entertainment in the United States, Caplow states:

> In journalism and entertainment occupations, where the great and irrational individualization of services makes it impossible to limit recruiting in any serious way, while the high rewards offered at the top of the occupation attract a horde

of marginal competitors. . . Before the
establishment of union control in these
fields, the effect of this situation was
sometimes to reduce the marginal wage to
zero or less: young actors or reporters
might pay the employer for the privilege
of acquiring experience. . . Thus, the
union tends to become a business office,
supervising the execution of employment
contracts, and if well enough established
it may even be able to substitute uni-
lateral fixing of minimum fees for ne-
gotiation.[34]

In Turkey the goals of unionization of journalists
was to create a formal body to bargain with management
in terms of standardization of salaries, establishment
of minimum wages, and to provide secure and beneficial
working conditions for all the members of the press.

As can be seen in Table 15, all three groups, in the
tradition of trade unionism, place major emphasis, with
some differences, on two items: protection of legal, social
and economic rights and maintaining the right of collective
bargaining by the trade unions.

As an individual group, low professionally-oriented
journalists are somewhat more interested in protection of
their legal, social and economic rights and social security
than the high and medium professionals. However, in com-
parison to high and medium professionals, low professionally-

TABLE 15

EXPECTATIONS OF TURKISH JOURNALISTS
FROM JOURNALISTIC TRADE
UNIONS
(N=173)

	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
EXPECTATIONS	HP (n=61)	MP (n=55)	LP (n=57)
To provide collective bargaining	23%	24%	14%
To provide social security	20	18	26
Protection of legal, social and economic rights	38	42	44
Creation of solidarity among its members (professional cooperation and colleague relationship)	13	7	7
Improvement of journalism as a profession	6	9	9
	100%	100%	100%

oriented journalists place less emphasis on the issue of collective bargaining. Thus, a close scrutiny of Tables 14 and 15 reveals that high and to some degree medium professionals approach the matter of professional organizations in terms of a whole system. On the other hand, low professionally-oriented journalists evaluate professional bodies, in some

respects, in terms of their personal benefits.

Because the trade unions are more concerned with the issues of economic, social and legal rights all three groups give less importance to such items as colleague relations and improvement of journalism as a profession among their demands from the journalistic trade unions.

Job characteristics and socio-economic backgrounds

a) Job characteristics

On job characteristics and socio-economic backgrounds of the respondents in the sample, some attitudinal and mostly descriptive data were collected.

Table 16 indicates the differences between the three professional groups in terms of occupational experience.

According to the findings in Table 16, high professionals have slightly more years of experience in the journalistic occupation than the two other groups. Low professionals stayed with their present employers a little longer than the high and medium professionally-oriented journalists. However, it seems from the Table 16 that the high professionals kept their present positions somewhat longer than the others. Among the three groups of professionals, medium professionally-oriented journalists have slightly

TABLE 16

OCCUPATIONAL EXPERIENCE
(N=210)

OCCUPATIONAL EXPERIENCE	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Experience in journalism			
Experience in median years	14.10	13.07	13.53
Experience at present paper			
Experience in median years	5.00	4.71	5.26
Experience at present position			
Experience in median years	4.36	3.44	3.81

higher occupational mobility and thus report somewhat more frequent changes in their occupational background.

On Table 17, the occupational mobility in terms of working with different newspapers is presented.

The medium professionals again tend to change their jobs more frequently than the high and low professionals. Among the three groups, the high professionals seem to be slightly more stable in terms of changing their jobs.

TABLE 17

NUMBER OF JOBS HELD WITH DIFFERENT
NEWSPAPERS
(N=210)

| NUMBER OF JOBS | PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION | | |
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Median number of jobs	5.35	6.50	5.81

Table 18 demonstrates that the high professionals start-
ed in the occupation somewhat older than the medium and low
professions. One possible explanation of high professionals'
starting late in their occupation could be their higher edu-
cation than the two other groups; see Table 30 on page 208.

TABLE 18

AGE OF RESPONDENTS AT TIME OF FIRST EMPLOYMENT
(N=210)

| AGE IN TIME OF FIRST EM-PLOYMENT | PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION | | |
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Age in median years	22.37	21.47	21.82

Patterns of recruitment are illustrated in Table 19.

According to the findings in Table 19 informal channels of

recruitment are quite effective in finding the first job in

the journalistic occupation in Turkey.

TABLE 19

HOW THE FIRST AND PRESENT JOBS WERE FOUND (N=210)

PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION

WAYS THE JOBS WERE FOUND	HP (n=70)		MP (n=70)		LP (n=70)	
	FJ(*)	PJ(+)	FJ	PJ	FJ	PJ
Applied by himself	39%	14%	36%	19%	27%	16%
Through friends	36	10	36	20	39	13
Offered by the paper	10	60	14	45	26	48
Other	15	16	14	16	8	23
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

(*) FJ=First job
(+) PJ=Present job

However, after the first job some kind of formal recruitment

procedures are employed by the newspapers. Table 19 shows

that most of the journalists either applied by themselves or

received the help of their friends in finding their first jobs. This situation changes quite interestingly in their present job. The performance, in some ways, become an important asset and newspapers seek better journalists after they are known in the journalistic circles. High professionals were sought after by the newspapers more than the medium and low professionally-oriented journalists. This change in recruitment procedures after the first job indicates that professional performance is an important factor in hiring practices in the journalistic occupation in Turkish press.

As it can be seen in Table 20, the Turkish journalist works long hours and six days a week.

Despite the formation of trade unions, the hours spent on the job and the days spent during the week seem somewhat long; this may be due to the limited staffs of the newspapers.

In addition to long hours and six days a week, 26 per cent of the respondents also work in additional jobs. Table 21 demonstrates the distribution of respondents who hold additional jobs among the three groups.

Among the three groups who hold additional jobs, high and low professionally-oriented journalists hold twice as

TABLE 20

TIME SPENT AT JOB
(N=210)

TIME SPENT	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Time spent daily on the job			
Median hours spent	9.3	9.0	9.1
Time spent weekly on the job			
Median days spent	6	6	6

TABLE 21

ADDITIONAL JOBS

HOLDS ADDITIONAL JOBS	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Yes	31%	20%	25%
No	69	80	75
	100%	100%	100%

KIND OF ADDITIONAL JOBS	(n=22)	(n=14)	(n=19)
Related to journalism	54%	21%	53%
Non-journalistic	46	79	47
	100%	100%	100%

many jobs related to journalism as medium professionals.

The respondents in the sample were also questioned about their motivations on choosing journalism as an occupation. Table 22 demonstrates the reaction of the respondents to this question.

TABLE 22

REASONS GIVEN FOR CHOOSING JOURNALISM
AS AN OCCUPATION
(N=210)

| REASONS GIVEN | PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION | | |
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Wrote while in school and was fond of literature	24%	21%	22%
Likes journalism as a profession	30	19	28
Accidental or was forced into it by conditions	14	30	18
Public service zeal	13	11	13
Other	19	18	19
	100%	100%	100%

There are several aspects of Table 22 which need to be discussed in terms of motivations of respondents electing

journalism as their profession. For example, the marginals computed for the total sample shows that 22 per cent of the respondents mentioned the fact that they were either related to a high school paper or wrote occasionally to the newspapers in their towns or cities and were also fond of literature. In terms of professional categories the proportion is still retained as close to one fourth on this item by high professionals being slightly higher than the two other groups. Thus, it could be said that early interest or experience in writing and being fond of literature during the growing years has a certain amount of influence on some Turkish journalists in selecting journalism as an occupation.

On liking the journalistic profession there is a curvilinear distribution among the three groups. In comparison to high and low professionals, medium professionally-oriented journalists show a lesser affection to their work (30%, 19%, and 28% respectively). On the other hand, the medium professionals are almost twice as high than the high and low professionals in admitting to being accidentally recruited into the journalistic occupation (14%, 30%, and 18% respectively). In proportion to other items, the public service aspect of the journalistic profession is not given a very

strong emphasis by all three groups.

On their motivations with respect to their jobs respondents were questioned further about the possibilities and desired conditions for leaving their present job for another position within the journalism occupation. Out of 210 respondents, 53 per cent indicated that they would leave their present job for some other work. The reaction of respondents is shown in Table 23.

TABLE 23

CONDITIONS FOR LEAVING THE PRESENT
JOB
(N=210)

| CONDITIONS GIVEN | PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION | | |
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
A better paying job	18%	11%	17%
A better position in another paper	9	16	11
A paper which meets the expectation of the respondent	22	13	13
Other	8	10	13
Does not consider leaving	43	50	46
	100%	100%	100%

One of the interesting findings presented in Table 23 is that almost half of the respondents in all three professional groups do not consider changing their present employer or newspaper for another one.

Elsewhere in this report it was mentioned that in his research with a sample of 362 Turkish junior and senior administrators, Matthews found his respondents quite cautious on risk taking in terms of their jobs. When questioned about their perferences of occupational security and high salary, out of 362 respondents, 76 per cent indicated that they would prefer maximum security against low salary. About 14 per cent said that they would choose moderate security with moderate salary. And only seven per cent indicated a preference for high salary with a little security. Based on his findings, Matthews then inferred that the results may be partly influenced by the occupational positions of the respondents but added that data available suggest that this is a rather consited value preference for the whole Turkish society.[35]

Although asked in different context and to a different occupational group, the data shown in Table 23, in some respects, pose a challenge to the generalization made by

Matthews about Turkish society, because half of the re-
spondents in the present survey showed an interest in
leaving their jobs for another position or newspaper, un-
der certain conditions. What was missing in Matthews'
study was a lack of the consideration of a tight and com-
petitive market for jobs in a developing country such as
Turkey. This important factor also exists in journal-
istic occupation and might have its effects on those jour-
nalists who answered to our question by stating that they
do not consider leaving their present jobs.

One other aspect of Table 23 seems rather interest-
ing. In comparison to the other two groups, somewhat more
high professionals are critical of the papers they work
for and would like to leave for a paper which would fit to
their expectations (22%. 13%, and 13% respectively). This
finding, in some respects, supports Stark's participant-
observer study in a large West Coast daily newspaper. He
found that professionals did not have a high evaluation of
the newspaper for which they worked, and considered them-
selves part of a professional fraternity whose membership
cuts horizontally across the boundaries of specific news-
papers. On the other hand, non-professionals, according

to Stark, had a narrow outlook and thought of themselves as employees of that particular newspaper.[36]

In addition to the 24-item professional orientation index which was utilized to separate respondents on the continuum of professionalism, two open ended questions were asked to every respondent to define the characteristics of journalism as a profession and to cite the characteristics which distinguish professions from other occupations.

Ninety-six per cent of the respondents in the sample thought that journalism was a profession. Table 24 shows the differences of professional characteristics attached to journalism by the three groups.

In Table 24, public service as a professional aspect of journalism is, in comparison to other characteristics mentioned, the most emphasized item by all three groups of professionals. In this respect at least some of the Turkish journalists in the sample are in the same opinion with writers such as Schramm who stated that "an occupation which is organized, as mass communication is, around a very high concept of public service is necessarily a profession and its members must be professionals."[37]

TABLE 24

CHARACTERISTICS WHICH MAKE JOURNALISM
A PROFESSION
(N=210)

| CHARACTERISTICS GIVEN | PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION | | |
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Public service	39%	26%	31%
Means for livelihood	17	21	19
It is a specialized field	7	13	11
It requires formal training	6	6	3
It has legal protection and its own regulations	13	17	11
It requires special talent	9	6	7
Other	9	11	18
	100%	100%	100%

Slightly more medium professionals than high and low professionally-oriented journalists consider journalism as a means of livelihood. Only seven per cent of high professionals claim that journalism is a specialized field in comparison to 13 per cent of medium and 11 per cent of low professionals.

An insignificant percentage of all three groups (6%,

6%, and 3% respectively) believe in the necessity of for-
mal training for journalism to become a profession. Per-
haps due to recent developments in professional organ-
izations and collective bargaining rights granted to the
journalistic trade unions, the respondents also mention the
legal protection and work regulations as one of the profes-
sional characteristics of their occupation. Finally, a
small percentage in all three groups, with slight differ-
ences between them, claim that the journalistic occupation
requires a special talent.

Table 25 demonstrates the perception of the Turkish
journalists of a profession.

Table 25 illustrates certain perceptional contrasts,
particularly between high and low professionals, in terms
of definition of a profession.

According to the theoretical assumptions of occu-
pational sociology, professionalism or attitudinal and be-
havioral characteristics of a professional should include
(1) a high degree of generalized and systematic knowledge;
(2) a primary orientation to community interest rather than
individual, self interest; (3) a high degree of self-con-
trol of behavior through codes of ethics internalized in

TABLE 25

CHARACTERISTICS WHICH DISTINGUISH PROFESSIONS
FROM OTHER OCCUPATIONS
(N=210)

	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
CHARACTERISTICS GIVEN	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Means of livelihood	9%	13%	23%
Public service	16	14	19
Formal training and specialization	34	27	17
Self satisfaction	4	13	9
Ethics	6	6	1
Monopoly and independence	8	6	1
Experience and know-how	7	8	8
Other	16	13	22
	100%	100%	100%

the process of work socialization and through voluntary associations organized and operated by the work of specialists themselves; and (4) a desire for a system of rewards (monetary and honorary) that is primarily a set of symbols of work achievement and thus ends in themselves, not means to some end of individual self-interest.[38]

The data presented in Table 25 reveals conceptual dif-
ferences between high and low professionals in that a good
portion of high professionally-oriented journalists, 34 per
cent, stress the importance of formal training and special-
ization in professionalization in contrast to 17 per cent of
low professionals. On the other hand, 23 per cent of low
professionals, the highest portion within the group, empha-
size the characteristic of a profession as a means of liveli-
hood in contrast to 9 per cent of high professionals.

The public service aspect of a profession was mentioned
by some member of all three professional groups with a slight
difference between them.

Furthermore, small portions in all three groups also
perceived professional ethics and monopoly as characteristics
of a profession. However, despite the small percentage of
journalists who mentioned ethics and monopoly, high and low
professionals differed once again by placing emphasis on
these items. Six per cent of the high and medium profession-
als mentioned the ethical aspect of a profession in com-
parison to one per cent of low professionals. On the other
hand, eight per cent of high professionals considered mo-
nopoly and independence as one of the characteristics of a

profession in contrast one per cent of low professionally-oriented journalists.

In an overall evaluation of the results shown in Table 25 it could be said that these apparently conflicting perceptions on the definition of a profession between high and low professionally-oriented journalists, considering the theoretical notions of the sociology of occupations, suggest that there might be some attitudinal and behavioral differences stemming from the professional orientations of members of an occupation towards their jobs.

b) Socio-economic backgrounds

Table 26 demonstrate the difference of age between the three professional groups.

TABLE 26

AGE
(N=210)

| | PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION | | |
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Age in median years	38	37	36.7

The high professionals are slightly older than the two other groups. The youngest of the three professional groups in terms of age are the low professionally-oriented journalists.

In Table 27 the birth place of the respondents and the place of upbringing are shown in terms of urban and rural differences.

TABLE 27

PLACE OF BIRTH AND UPBRINGING
(N=210)

| | PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION | | |
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Place of birth			
Urban	46%	42%	43%
Rural	49	50	50
Outside of Turkey	5	8	8
	100%	100%	100%
Upbringing			
Urban	71%	67%	73%
Rural	27	29	23
Outside of Turkey	2	4	4
	100%	100%	100%

Table 27 shows that the respondents are almost equally divided between urban and rural areas with respect to their birth place. But the picture changes in terms of upbringing. In order to determine their place of upbringing each respondent was asked the place where he spent most of his high school years. According to Table 27 the majority of respondents in all three groups spent their high school years in three big cities of Turkey; Istanbul, Ankara and Izmir which are considered urban centers in this investigation.

Marital status of the respondents is shown in Table 28.

The majority of respondents (76%, 77% and 60% respectively) are married. The percentage of bachelors is highest among the low professionals. Another aspect of Table 28 is the negligible number of divorces among the Turkish journalists. Only high professionals report a three per cent of divorce and there is no divorced persons among the medium and lows.

The number of children of those respondents who are married is demonstrated in Table 29.

The number of children is quite restricted in the families of the Turkish journalists. Table 29 shows that the

TABLE 28

MARITAL STATUS
(N=210)

| | PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION | | |
| | HP | MP | LP |
MARITAL STATUS	(n=70)	(n=70)	(n=70)
Married	76%	77%	60%
Widowed	1	1	1
Divorced	3	--	--
Unmarried	20	21	39
	100%	100%	100%

TABLE 29

NUMBER OF CHILDREN OF
MARRIED RESPONDENTS
(N=150)

| | PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION | | |
| | HP | MP | LP |
	(n=54)	(n=54)	(n=42)
Median number of children	1.5	1	1.5

median of children in all three groups do not exceed two.

Table 30 illustrates the levels of education of the respondent, his spouse and his father.

TABLE 30

EDUCATION

LEVELS OF EDUCATION	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Education (Self)			
High school and below	19%	39%	30%
Some university	33	24	36
University	48	37	34
	100%	100%	100%
Spouse's education	(n=54)	(n=55)	(n=42)
High school and below	56%	73%	79%
Some university	2	7	--
University	42	20	21
	100%	100%	100%
Father's education	(n=69)	(n=69)	(n=70)
No schooling	4%	6%	3%
High school and below	42	57	69
Some university	6	3	4
University	48	34	24
	100%	100%	100%

The high professionals as can be seen from Table 30 are
the most educated group of the three and they are married to

highly educated women and their fathers also the highest

educated group among the three. Thus, although the differ-

ences did not reach to an acceptable statistical level of

significance, as an indicator of professionalism the ante-

cedent variable education is consistent with the assumption

of occupational sociology that professionalism is assoc-

iated with degrees of education.

The Occupational distribution of the respondents' fa-

thers is shown in Table 31.

The majority of the respondents come from bureaucratic

families. The second source of the respondents is homes

with professional backgrounds. In this respect the high pro-

fessionals distinguish themselves from the other two groups.

The highest percentage among the groups coming from profes-

sional families belongs to high professionals (23% in compari-

son to 17% and 11% of medium and low professionals). Thus

considering the socialization process in the family and its

effects on the second generation it could be said that for

some it may take at least two generations to develop profes-

sional orientation.

A small percentage of Turkish journalists come from

labor and farm families. And the sons of businessmen

TABLE 31

FATHER'S OCCUPATION
(N=205)

	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
OCCUPATION	HP (n=66)	MP (n=69)	LP (n=70)
Government employee	45%	51%	54%
Business	15	14	9
Professional	23	17	11
Labor and farming	9	9	10
Other	8	9	16
	100%	100%	100%

TABLE 32

MONTHLY INCOME

	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
MONTHLY INCOME	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Median monthly income in Turkish Liras(*)	2035	2095	2024
	(n=33)	(n=30)	(n=31)
Additional monthly income in Turkish Liras	1849	1294	1207

(*) One American dollar in official foreign exchange is equal to 12 Turkish Liras.

moderately take to the profession of journalism (15%, 14% and 9% respectively).

In Table 32 the monthly income and additional income of respondents are shown.

As far as monthly income is concerned, the differences between the three professional groups tend to be quite small. The highest median income is reported by the medium professionals. The low professionals report the lowest median income.

However the high professionals report the highest additional monthly income among the three. Again the low professionals have the lowest additional monthly income reported.

Finally, in a attempt to examine further the relations between the focal variable "professional orientation index," and one of the dependent variables "professional implementation," a partial-correlation analysis was applied by utilizing the seven antecedent variables in the measuring instrument.

In this process a zero-order correlation between the sums of professional orientation index (by utilizing the respondents' professional orientation raw scores), and 27

professional implementation item was computed. Then by

holding constant the sum of seven antecedent variables; po-

sition of respondent, years of experience, time spent at

job (full-time; part-time), education, father's education,

father's occupation, and age of respondent; a partial corre-

lation was obtained. Table 33 shows the results of this

test.

TABLE 33

PARTIAL CORRELATION BETWEEN PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION
INDEX AND PROFESSIONAL IMPLEMENTATION ITEMS WITH
SEVEN ANTECEDENT VARIABLES HELD CONSTANT[*]

Professional orientation index	Zero-order correlation	Partial correlation	Net change
Professional imple-mentation on items	.125	.123	.002

[*] Seven antecedent variables include: position of re-
spondent; years of experience; time spent at job (full-
time; part-time); education; father's education; fa-
ther's occupation; and age of respondent.

It is evident from Table 33 that the zero-order corre-

lation between the sums of professional orientation index and

professional implementation items did not reach to a statisti-

cally significant level. As a result partial correlation of

holding the effect of seven antecedent variables constant produced an insignificant net change of .002. Therefore it can be said that partial correlation utilizing the seven variables did not change the relations between focal variable and one of the dependent variables in the measuring instrument.

Although most of the quantitative findings of this survey did not reach themselves acceptable levels of statistical tests of significance, nevertheless some of the results of the present study, as a replication in a different social system, still produced some evidence supportive of the conceptual notions of the previous professionalization studies in journalistic occupation in the United States and elsewhere. A summary and discussion of general findings will be presented in the next chapter.

FOOTNOTES OF CHAPTER V

[1]Jack M. McLeod and Searle E. Hawley, Jr., "Professionalization Among Newsmen," Journalism Quarterly 41 (Fall, 1964) pp. 529-539.

[2]Dwaine Marvick, "Career Perspectives in a Bureaucratic Setting," (Ann Arbor: Michigan Governmental Studies, 1954) No. 27, also Merrill Samuelson, "A Standardized Test to Measure Job Satisfaction in the Newsroom," Journalism Quarterly 39 (Summer, 1962) pp. 285-291.

[3]Jack M. McLeod and Ramona R. Rush, "Professionalization of Latin American and U. S. Journalists: Part I and II," Journalism Quarterly 46 (Fall, 1969) pp. 583-590 and 46 (Winter, 1969) pp. 784-789.

[4]K. Eapen Eapen,"Journalism As A Profession in India: A Study of Two States and Two Cities,"(Unpublished doctoral dissertation),University of Wisconsin, 1969.

[5]McLeod and Rush, Part II, op. cit. p 784.

[6]Warren Breed, "Social Control in the Newsroom: A Functional Analysis," Social Forces 33 (May, 1955) pp. 326-335.

[7]McLeod and Rush, Part I., op. cit., p 586.

[8]David Horton Smith and Alex Inkeles, "The OM Scale: A Comparative Socio-Psychological Measure of Individual Modernity," Sociometry 29:4 (December, 1966) pp. 353-377.

[9]Ibid., pp. 364-365.

[10]Ibid., pp. 355-356.

[11]Ibid., p. 357.

[12]Republic of Turkey Prime Ministry State Planning Organization, Second Five Year Plan, 1968-1972 (Central Bank of the Republic of Turkey, Ankara, 1969) pp. 249-252.

[13]William J. Goode, "Encroachment, Charlatanism, and the Emerging Profession: Psychology, Sociology, and Medicine," American Sociological Review 25 (1960) pp. 902-914.

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[15]Sydney Head, "Can a Journalist Be a 'Professional' in a Developing Country?," Journalism Quarterly 40 (Fall, 1963) pp. 594-598.

[16]Tape recorded interview with Mehmet Ali Kislali, the Director of the Turkish News Agency in Ankara, March 25, 1969.

[17]Tape recorded interview with Erdogan Tamer, the editor of Ulus in Ankara, March 24, 1969.

[18]Ipekci, op. cit., p.7.

[19]Tape recorded interview with Seyfettin Turhan, Editor of Meydan, a political review, in Ankara, March 22, 1969.

[20]Tape recorded interviews with Erdogan Tamer, the Editor of Ulus in Ankara, March 24, 1969; and Seyfettin Turhan, editor of Meydan, a political review, in Ankara, March 22, 1969.

[21]Yusuf Tavus, Basin Rehberi (The Press Guide) (Ankara: Basnur Matbaasi, 1969) 2nd edition, pp. 112-130.

[22]William J. Goode, "Community Within a Community: The Professions," American Sociological Review 20 (1957) pp.194-200.

[23]Searle E. Hawley, Jr., "Professionalization Among Newsmen: The Milwaukee Journal and Sentinel,"(Unpublished Master's thesis),University of Wisconsin, 1964. pp. 71-75.

[24]Nermin Abadan, "The Structural Change in the Turkish Press Under The Republican Regime," Gazette X:1 (1964) pp. 27-36.

[25]Server Iskit, Turkiyede Matbuat Idareleri ve Politikalari

(The Press Administrations and Their Policies in Turkey) Istanbul: Tan Basimevi, 1943) pp. 295-301.

[26]Burhan Felek, "Press Associations in Turkey," Gazette X:1 (1964) pp. 45-47.

[27]A. M. Carr-Saunders and P. A. Wilson, The Professions (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1933) p. 495.

[28]Rue Bucher and Anselm Strauss, "Professions in Process," The American Journal of Sociology, LXVI (January, 1961)

[29]Edward Gross, Work and Society (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1958) pp. 223-235.

[30]Felek, op. cit., p. 46.

[31]Kemal H. Karpat, Turkey's Politics: The Transition to a Multi-Party System (Princeton University Press, 1959) p.313.

[32]Ibid., p. 110.

[33]Kemal H. Karpat, "Mass Media and Political Modernization in Turkey," a paper prepared for the Seminar on the Political Modernization of Japan and Turkey, Gould House, Dobbs Ferry, New York, September 10-14, 1962, p. 58.

[34]Theodore Caplow, The Sociology of Work (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1964) p. 202.

[35]A.T.J. Matthews, "Emergent Turkish Administrator," in Jerry R. Hopper and Richard I. Lewis (eds.) The Turkish Administrator: A Cultural Survey (Ankara, Turkey: USAID, 1968) p. 229.

[36]Rodney W. Stark, "Policy and Pros: An Organizational Analysis of Metropolitan Newspaper," Berkeley Journal of Sociology 7 (1962) pp. 11-32.

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[38]Bernard Barber, "Some Problems in the Sociology of Professions," in Kenneth S. Lynn and Editors of Daedalus (eds.) The Professions in America (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1965) pp. 15-34.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

At the centennial of Turkish journalism (1860-1960)
one of the critics of the Turkish press, Dr. Cavit Orhan
Tutengil, an associate professor of sociology at the Faculty
of Economics in the University of Istanbul, stated:

> . . . because the Turkish newspapers still
> could not rid themselves of the pretentious,
> eye-catching, circus atmosphere, the only
> common thing between them and the contemporary
> world press is that they both use the same
> kind of newsprint and printing machines. Most
> of the time it is difficult to justify the ex-
> istence of the Turkish press in the face of
> stark realities which haunt the country. With-
> out going too far back into history, let us
> consider the newspapers right after the May 27th
> (military 'coup'). You will find the sports
> news, cheap magazine materials, adventures of
> queens, and movie gossips still occupying most
> of the space. . . Even our serious, opinion
> papers, most of the time, are paying lip service
> to the public service responsibility of the press.
> While thousand and one problems of the country
> are waiting to be solved, the main fares of the
> press include irrelevant translations from the
> foreign press, some world news filtered through a
> foreign wire service, and piece-meal items about
> a few big cities and a few bylined, short articles.
> . . _In Turkey of 1960, there are some serious,_
> _intellectual journalists_, but there is no serious
> opinion newspapers.[1]*

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*Italics are mine.

A few years after the centennial of the Turkish press, this writer had the opportunity to conduct the first attempt to systematically assess the self-perceived professional orientations of a representative group of Turkish metropolitan journalists. In the present survey, a measuring instrument adopted from previous professionalization studies[2] was administered, with additional measures[3] to 210 full-time and part-time, salaried, editorial staff members of fifteen nationally circulated newspapers in Ankara and Istanbul, and central news service employees of the Turkish radio and Television System.[4]

Our basic research interest in this study was two-fold: (1) Are there indentifiable attitudinal and behavioral patterns of professionalism among members of journalistic occupation which could be related to the basic criteria of professionalization? (2) If such characteristics of professionalism exist among newspapermen do they transcend cultural boundaries?

Furthermore, the basic design of the study, the measuring instrument, and analysis of data were guided by three

assumptions: (1) It is more realistic and useful to study the professional orientation of communicators than to investigate the professional characteristics of journalistic occupations; (2) In doing this, one should apply standard measures to obtain comparative and cumulative data about professional orientation of journalists; and (3) As was found in studies conducted in the United States and some Latin American and Asian countries,[5] professionally oriented newspapermen show differences which distinguish them in their behavior and attitudes from their less professionally oriented colleagues. Thus it is also plausible that professionally oriented Turkish journalists may possess some distinctive behavioral and attitudinal attributes that may differentiate them from their less professionally oriented colleagues.

Data collected in Ankara and Istanbul, Turkey between January and March 1969 from 210 members of the Turkish national press were analyzed by employing statistical techniques such as factor analysis, correlation, mean and contingency analysis.

The remainder of this chapter will include a summary of major findings of this study and some concluding remarks

about possible future research on professionalization in
Turkey.

A summary of the major findings

With the necessary amount of caution, it could be said
that some of the theoretical assumptions on which this
study was based were supported by the data collected.

From the general structure of our analysis there emerges
a group of journalists categorized as high professionals,
who demonstrate certain behavioral and attitudinal character-
istics and have some differences in their socio-economic
backgrounds that, in some respects, distinguish them from
their lesser professionally-oriented colleagues: medium and
low professionals.

Job satisfaction is one of the attitudinal areas that
high professionally-oriented journalists show a low degree of
satisfaction of, mostly stressing the professional aspects of
their jobs, such as "influence on decisions," "impress on or-
ganization," "full use of abilities," "influence on public,"
and "opportunity to learn."

On the other hand, low professionals appear to have a
"resigned" attitude with respect to professional freedom of
expression and competence. By demonstrating a relative

satisfaction with such items as "influence public," and "work for respected organization," the low professionally-oriented journalists seem to be content with working for a nationally circulated newspaper and pleased with whatever influence they may have on public opinion.

These differences between the attitudes of the two groups toward their jobs underline one of the assumptions of occupational sociology: that the higher professional orientation motivates a person to learn more about his job, fully utilize his abilities, show interest in the decision-making process within the organization he works, and express a desire to have an influence on public opinion. Thus, the high professionally-oriented Turkish journalists are quite critical of these aspects of their job and demonstrate strong dissatisfaction. Similar results were reached in Milwaukee and Indian studies were high professionally-oriented journalists showed dissatisfaction, as in the case of Turkish journalists with items dealing with learning, influence and using one's full abilities.[6]

According to the results of the present survey, although Turkish journalists appear somewhat modern as a group, there seems to be no relationship between professional orientation

and individual modernity. Due possibly to certain discrepan-
cies in the short form of the OM scale, which were discussed
in Chapter V, the findings do not indicate meaningful dif-
ferences among the three professional groups. The results
also might be affected by some intervening variables. For
example, the respondents in the sample, in many respects,
had homogeneous backgrounds. The majority of them were from
urban, middle class families. Their educational attainment
exceeded the mean level of education for the general Turkish
population. Moreover, as members of the national press they
were part of the modernizing elite in Turkey. Thus, these
internal and external factors may have obscured the de-
termination of a relationship between individual modernity
and professional orientation of the respondents in the sample.

Nevertheless, by their achievement-oriented approach
toward their jobs, by their desire to have more power in the
decision-making process within the organization for which
they work, which could be interpreted as a quest for autonomy,
and by the somewhat strong emphasis placed on the need for
more foreign news, which could be explained as a wider world
outlook and cosmopoliteness, and finally, by their grasp of
systemic problems in matters pertaining to professional

organizations, the high professionally-oriented journalists appear to demonstrate a more modern personality than the medium and low professionals.

In almost all of the six areas of professional implementation, "freedom of the press," "training," "social functions of the press," "ethics," "responsibility," and "objectivity," the high, medium and low professionals reacted in a similar fashion to the questions asked. Furthermore, with the exception of the opposition to "mandatory journalism degree," the reactions of the respondents were in the direction of improvements. This could be interpreted as a high professional orientation among the metropolitan Turkish journalists; a ceiling effect may make it impossible to detect differences among the three professional groups. On the other hand, an almost uniformly favorable approach toward professional improvements among the Turkish journalists could be an indication of their lack of discrimination in making distinctions among the issues according to their antecedent order of importance. In light of historical evidence, the latter seems to be a more plausible explanation than the former. The transitional developments which have been taking place in the Turkish press within the last decade might have

been the cause of the indiscriminating reaction of the
respondents. Neglected and under pressure for about a cen-
tury, the press had come of age after the military 'coup'
in 1960 in terms of professional improvements. Thus, the
uniformly favorable approach demonstrated by the respon-
dents toward some of the professional improvement questions
with somewhat naive enthusiasm might be a side effect of re-
cent developments within the Turkish press.

The professional orientation of metropolitan Turkish
journalists is related to their perceived images of IDEAL
and OWN newspapers. The results of three factor analyses of
responses to 17 bi-polar Semantic Differential adjective
scales on the two concepts, IDEAL NEWSPAPER and YOUR OWN NEWS-
PAPER, show certain differences between high and low pro-
fessionally-oriented journalists with regard to homogeneity
of cognitive judgments.

In terms of theoretical assumptions of this study, the
clustering of factor structures as "pure" or "mixed" reveal-
ed patterns of homogeneity in cognitive judgments of the
respondents, and in particular, differences among the three
groups in their perception of newspaper images.

According to factor analyses applied separately to

three professional groups, out of five factor structures,

high professionally-oriented journalists had three loaded

"pure" factors. Only one factor emerged as "pure" for the

medium professionals; and all factors which emerged for low

professionally-oriented journalists were "mixed." Therefore,

in accordance with the theoretical assumptions of this study,

in comparison to low professionals, high professionally-ori-

ented journalists had more cohesive and homogeneous cog-

nitions of a newspaper with respect to the 17 bi-polar ad-

jectives.

A mean analysis of adequacy of news content shows that,

with particular amphasis on foreign news, high professionals

are more critical of the content areas in public affairs

than their less professionally-oriented colleagues. Further-

more, high professionals also are in favor of more enter-

tainment material than the two other professional groups.

One of the most salient characteristics of high profes-

sionals that distinguishes them from the low professionally-

oriented journalists in their attitudes toward professional

organizations is their systemic approach. In other words,

while high professionally-oriented journalists perceive these

organizations as a link and outlet for their occupational

community to a larger social system, the low professionals view them as self serving organizations to accommodate their individual benefits.

High professionals also differ from the two other professional groups in two important respects: job seeking and conditions given by the respondents for leaving their present job.

It is evident from Table 19 that after a certain period of time as working journalists, high professionals become known within the occupational community because of their performance, and newspapers seek after them more than the medium and low professionally-oriented journalists.

A portion of high professionally-oriented journalists may have set high standards for their newspapers and thus are more critical of the performance of papers for which they work than are the medium and low professionals; and would be willing to leave for another paper only if it fits their standards. This finding, in some respects, supports Stark's results in his study where professionals did not have a high evaluation of the newspaper for which they worked, and considered themselves part of a professional fraternity whose membership cuts horizontally across the boundaries of

specific newspapers.[7]

In their socio-economic backgrounds, high professionally-oriented journalists distinguish themselves from the medium and low professionals in education and father's occupation.

It seems that education is a very important factor in the families of high professionals. Not only are high professionals themselves more educated than their lesser professionally-oriented colleagues but their spouses and fathers also have higher education than the spouses and fathers of the medium and low professionals. Thus, education clearly becomes the single most important factor in differentiating among the three groups in terms of professionalization.

On the other hand, although almost fifty per cent of all three groups come from families with bureaucratic backgrounds, the high professionals still differ from the medium and low professionally-oriented journalists by having the highest percentage of professional background in their families. In other words, among the three groups the fathers of high professionals are more likely to have had professional occupations than the fathers of medium and low

professionally-oriented journalists. Thus, in addition to
education, the occupational background of fathers of the
respondents also appears to be a contributing factor to pro-
fessional orientation.

Conclusions

From a theoretical viewpoint, the present survey pro-
vides quantitative evidence that there are indeed definable
attitudinal and behavioral patterns of professionalism a-
mong journalists that are related to the basic criteria of
professionalization. Furthermore, the data collected from
a sample of 210 Turkish metropolitan journalists suggest that
the professional characteristics which exist within the com-
munity of the journalistic occupation are not altogether cul-
ture bound and, in some respects, transcend cultural bounda-
ries

In particular, to paraphrase Dr. Tutengil's statement,
it could be said that in Turkey of 1968 there was a group of
journalists among the members of the press in Istanbul and
Ankara who, according to our findings, could be cate-
gorized as high professionals with differing perceptions of
the problems of their occupation, who behaved differently
toward their jobs and who possessed certain socio-economic

characteristics that distinguished them from their lesser

professionally-oriented colleagues.

Thus, from our findings, we were able to reach the following conclusions:

a. Professionally oriented journalists put more emphasis on using their full abilities and working in a job that is essential to the society than those less professionally oriented.

b. Professionally oriented journalists are more critical of the limitations in their occupation with regard to freedom of expression and decision-making than those less professionally oriented.

c. Professionally oriented journalists have a more cohesive and homogeneous cognitive judgment of newspapers than those less professionally oriented.

d. After spending a certain period of time as a working newsman, professionally oriented journalists are sought after more by the newspapers than those less professionally oriented.

e. Professionally oriented journalists have more formal education than those less professionally oriented.

In light of our findings from the present investigation, two basic aspects of studies in journalistic occupation seems to be in need of more research: (1) Motivational elements of professionalism. That is to say, what

are the most easily detectable and significant attitudinal

and behavioral attributes of a person which consistently

contribute to his professional orientation as a journalist?

(2) The occupational implications of the results emerging

from the studies of professionalism among the different

groups of journalists. How could the findings of the present

study, and studies of its kind, be related and made more

meaningful to other occupations and to society at large.

In relation to motivational elements of journalism it

has to be noted that there were two peculiar characteristics

of the Turkish sample which might have influenced the find-

ings indirectly.

The present survey can be described as an elite study.

As was the case with Turkish political elite in Frey's in-

vestigation,[8] the members of metropolitan the press as an e-

lite group within the journalistic occupation in the Turkish

press, show similarities in their socio-economic backgrounds.

For example, more than half of the respondents (61 per cent)

come from families with bureaucratic and professional back-

grounds. Most were brought up in urban areas, such as Istan-

bul, Ankara, and Izmir (70 per cent), and most had their

first jobs (70 per cent) with newspapers in three

metropolitan centers of Turkey. Furthermore, although high professionally-oriented journalists have more formal training, the medium and low professionals who make up sixty per cent of the sample have more or less similar educational backgrounds. Therefore, with these common backgrounds, the respondents tend to think alike and react to certain questions with small variances.

The second important factor, which could be partially attributed to the existence of the first factor, was the strong reaction of respondents to certain attitudinal questions as a group. For example, items in the measuring instrument providing four, five or seven alternative scales to the respondents failed, most of the time, to bring out desirable distributions. In other words, respondents clustered at either one or the other extreme end of the scale in answering these items. There might be some cultural, methodological, and other explanations to this response pattern of the journalists in the sample. However, due to the response pattern to certain items, we were unable to reach finer variances and differences among our three professional groups.

Single shot surveys applied in one particular point in time are often limited in their ability to reveal the complex

nature of socio-psychological variables in comparison with experiments and in-depth interviews. However, for practical purposes, single-shot sample surveys are quite useful in collecting factual data about large populations with a representative random sample. Obviously, the most important limitation in single-shot sample surveys is time. It is impossible to set up a design with Time One and Time Two and test the effects of our stimulus in experimental and control groups between the two points in time. Thus researchers who utilize the single-shot sample survey, such as this investigator, have to realize that they are investigating some phenomenon in nature after it has occurred (or did not occur). Nevertheless, surveys such as the present one help to bring out revealing descriptive data by which a researcher can decide on the important aspects of the relationships between the variables to be pursued in further research.

In order to accommodate the shortcoming of time element in single-shot surveys, longitudinal studies by sampling the same population periodically in five-year intervals might help to bring the developments within and differences among the professional groups with respect to professionalism within the journalistic occupation.

Still, in connection with the motivational elements in professionalism, perhaps the most needed research is case or in-depth studies with a group of journalists drawn from the samples of surveys such as the present one. In a single-shot survey study the measuring instrument employed is also limited by time that the respondent would allow us to spend with him. Often we restrict ourselves to an hour or so interview schedule and thus are able to ask a limited number of questions. Throughout the analysis of the data from the present survey, the three groups of respondents revealed certain characteristics which need to be pursued in in-depth interviews in order to gather more meaningful data about the factors that affect their attitudes and behaviors. Thus it may be possible for us to structure some "prototypes" of journalists by utilizing the case study approach.

Another approach to motivational elements of professionalism is the employment of "performance" as a criterion. Combined with a content analysis study, this approach could be related to the basic criteria of professionalism as one of the levels of professional orientation. A panel of judges could, by using the Q-sort method, rate and then rank order the material produced by the editorial staff of the

newspapers in the sample. Thus the scores obtained from

the panel on individual performance of the respondents and

general editorial rank of the newspapers for which they work

could be combined into an index. Furthermore, this index

could be matched with the professional orientation scores of

the respondents obtained from the 24-item professionalism

index. With the employment of this procedure at three lev-

els one could then compare the "desires," and "provision"

scores and actual performance of respondents with the ranks

of the newspapers for which they work to determine the at-

titudinal and behavioral motivations of the three profes-

sional groups in the sample toward their jobs.[9]

As was mentioned elsewhere in this chapter, the present

investigation could be defined as an elite study which in-

cludes a group of people who are staff members of 15 nation-

ally circulated newspapers of Turkey. Their self-described

characteristics of the issues and problems of the press and

their attitudes toward the functional role of the press in

Turkish society should be analyzed further in comparison with

additional studies of the members of regional and local

press in Turkey. The differences which might emerge in at-

titudinal and behavioral patterns and socio-economic

backgrounds of these different groups of journalists might indeed help to interpret the findings of present survey.

In addition to the regional and local press, other occupational groups and their reactions to the issues and problems of journalism should be studied. It is important to include other occupational groups in the realm of professionalization studies because a full description of the elite in a developing country is needed to evaluate the self-described characteristics of the metropolitan journalists. Are there certain similarities, as Frey's study suggests, which might be explained in terms of elite characteristics among different occupational groups? Or do the journalists stand out as a distinct group among the other occupational groups? Furthermore, how do the members of other occupational groups, such as politicians, react to the problems which concern the members of the press? How do they evaluate the performance and attitudes of the members of the journalistic occupation?

Studies which are geared to measure public reaction to the journalistic occupation are also needed in order to close the gap between the self-description of journalists of their own occupation and public's perception of the press.

Research in mass communications in Turkey is virtually

nonexistent. It becomes a more acute problem when one attempts to relate the findings of a survey such as the present one to the realities of the country. For example, the areas in which the journalists in the sample desire to see improvements include freedom of expression, decision-making aspect of their occupation, training, ethical aspects of journalism, limited sources, and relation of the government with the press. However, there are very limited materials which one can utilize in this research in order to relate these findings to the actual situation that exists in Turkey. Therefore, it is the contention of this writer that in addition to professionalization studies, there is need to conduct research in every area of mass communications in Turkey in order to make attempts of this kind more meaningful and fruitful.

FOOTNOTES OF CHAPTER VI

[1]Cavit O. Tutengil, "Fikir Gazeteciliginin 100. Yilinda Gazetecilerimiz," (Our Journalists in the 100th Anniversary of Opinion Journalism) Kitap Belleten (Book Review, Special Issue on the History of the Turkish Press) I:2, n.d., p.4.

[2]Searle E. Hawley, Jr., "Professionalization Among Newsmen: The Milwaukee Journal and Sentinel," (Unpublished master's thesis) University of Wisconsin, 1964; and Lawrence Scott Ward, "Professionalization Among Advertising Agency Personnel," (Unpublished master's thesis) University of Wisconsin, 1966.

[3]The measuring instrument employed in present survey is discussed in detail in Chapter III and IV of this report.

[4]For a detailed description of the sample see Chapter IV of this report.

[5]Jack M. McLeod and Searle E. Hawley, Jr., "Professionalizanilation Among Newsmen," Journalism Quarterly 41 (Fall, 1964) pp. 529-539; also Jack M. McLeod and Ramona R. Rush, "Professionalization of Latin American and U. S. Journalists: Parts I and II," Journalism Quarterly 46 (Fall, 1969) pp. 583-590 and 46 (Winter, 1969) pp. 784-789; and K. Eapen Eapen, "Journalism As A Profession in India: Two States and Two Cities," (Unpublished doctoral dissertation) University of Wisconsin, 1969.

[6]See studies by Hawley, Jr., op. cit., pp. 61-65 and Eapen, Ibid., pp. 87-88.

[7]Rodney W. Stark., "Policy and the Pros: An Organizational Analysis of a Metropolitan Newspaper," Berkeley Journal of Sociology 7 (1962) pp. 11-32.

[8]Frederick W. Frey, The Turkish Political Elite (Cambridge: M.I.T. Press, 1965).

[9]As an example of employment of performance as one of the levels of focal variable see Thomas Coldwell, "Professionalization and Performance Among Newspaper Photographers," (Unpublished master's thesis) University of Wisconsin, 1970.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

PROFESSIONAL PROGRESS IN THE TURKISH METROPOLITAN
PRESS
1968-1969

Interview Number:_____

Sample Number:_____

Name of the Newspaper:_____

Respondent's Name:_____

Ankara Paper: _____   Istanbul Paper:_____

Ankara Representative of Istanbul Paper:_____

Male:_____ Female:_____
....

Date of initial contact: _____Time:_____

Date of Second contact:_____Time:_____

Date of third contact: _____Time:_____

Date of fourth contact:_____Time:_____

Date of fifth contact: _____Time:_____

Interview completed(check)_____

Interviewer's signature

_____

Interviewer's remarks:_____

_____

_____

PART I

1. People have differing reasons for selecting their professions. Could you tell me briefly why you took up journalism as your profession?

2. For how long have you made a living as a journalist?
   _____

3. Is this your first job with newspapers? Yes___ No ___
   (If yes, go to Question 8)

4. On how many newspapers have you worked up until today?
   _____

5. About your first job in journalism:

   5.1. About how old were you when you started making your living with journalism?_____

   5.2. Where did you get your first job?

      Name of the publication:_____

      Place where it was published:_____

   5.3. How did you get your first job in journalism?

      I applied by myself _____
      A friend helped me _____
      It was offered by the paper _____
      By the union's help _____
      By transfer _____
      I took an examination and won _____
      By promotion _____
      Another way (please specify)_____

   5.4 Why did you leave your first job?_____

   5.5. What was your last position when you left your first job?_____

6. In your journalism career which job was the <u>least</u>
<u>satisfying</u>? (This could be reporting, editing, or other
kinds of work done in newspapers (If the respondent's
answer to Question 6 is "my first job" go to Question 7)

6.1. Where did you get this job?

Name of the publication:_____

The place where it was published:_____

6.2. How did you find this job?

I applied by myself _____
A friend helped me _____
It was offered by the paper _____
By the union's help _____
By transfer _____
I took an examination and won _____
By promotion _____
Another way (please specify) _____

6.3. Why did you leave this job?_____

6.4. Could you tell me in one sentence or two why do
you think this was your least satisfying job?

7. In your journalism career which job was the <u>most satis-</u>
<u>fying</u>? (This could be reporting, editing, or other kinds
of work done in newspapers) (If the respondent's answer
to this question is "my present job? go to Question 8)

7.1. Where did you get this job?

Name of the publication:_____

Place where it was published:_____

7.2. How did you find this job?

I applied by myself _____
A friend helped me _____

It was offered by the paper _____
By the union's help _____
By transfer _____
I took an examination and won _____
By promotion _____
Another way (please specify)_____

7.3. Why did you leave this job?_____

7.4. Could you tell me in one sentence or two why do you
     think this was your most satisfying job?

8. About your present job:

   8.1. For how long have you been working on this job?
        _____

   8.2. What is the position you hold on this newspaper?
        If you have more than one job on this paper then
        please name the one at which you spend the most
        time:_____

   8.3. How long have you held this position? (This ques-
        tion asks the duration of time spent on the present
        position of the respondent) _____

   8.4. Time spent on job: Part-time _____ Full-time _____

        Average hours spent on job daily (Circle one)

        less than 4, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, more than 10

        Average days spent weekly: (circle one)

        3, 4, 5, 6, 7

   8.5. Have you had any promotion on this job? Yes___ No___

        (If yes) How many times _____

8.6. How did you find this job?

I applied by myself _____
A friend helped me _____
It was offered by the paper _____
By the union's help ____
By transfer _____
I took an examination and won ____
By promotion _____
Another way (please specify)_____

8.7 Under what conditions would you leave this job for a job in another newspaper?

If I can have an increase in my salary _____

If I find a better position (in journalism) _____

If I find a paper to fit my standards _____

I don't think about leaving this paper _____

Another reason (please specify)_____

9. Would you leave journalism for a non-journalistic job? Yes ____ No ____ (If no go to Question 10) (If yes) Under what conditions would you leave journalism?

_____

10. To your son or to somebody seeking advice from you, would you recommend journalism as a profession to enter? If yes, why?_____
If no, why?_____

11. In general, how satisfied are you with your present job with regard to the following areas?

	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neutral or Undecided	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
Position	___	___	___	___	___
Salary	___	___	___	___	___

	Very Satis- fied	Satis- fied	Neutral or Un- decided	Dis- satis- fied	Very Dis- satis- fied
Assignments	——	——	——	——	——
Promotion	——	——	——	——	——
Service to the society	——	——	——	——	——
Colleague relations	——	——	——	——	——
Your paper's general politi- cal policy	——	——	——	——	——

PART II

12. (Give the cards to respondent) Desired characteristics which could make an occupation satisfactory might change from person to person. Now I will read to you certain characteristics. First by checking the green card, please determine the importance of these characteristics, according to your opinion of any occupation. Then, by checking the yellow card, determine how well your own job provides these characteristics. Tell me only the numbers of your answers.

(Use the green card)	(Use the yellow card)
To any occupation This characteris- tic is:	Your job provides this characteris- ic:
1. Extremely Important	1. Extremely Well
2. Quite Important	2. Quite Well
3. Somewhat Important	3. Somewhat
4. Not Important	4. Not at all

(green card) (yellow card)

12.1 Opportunity to learn new
skills and knowledge   ___   ___

12.2 Having an influence on
important decisions   ___   ___

12.3 Getting ahead in the
organization you work for   ___   ___

12.4 Getting ahead in your pro-
fessional career   ___   ___

12.5 Having a prestigious job
in the organization   ___   ___

12.6 Freedom from continual
close supervision over
your work   ___   ___

12.7 Salary: earning enough
money for a good living   ___   ___

12.8 Opportunity to have an in-
fluence on public thinking   ___   ___

12.9 Full use of your abilities
and knowledge   ___   ___

12.10 Opportunity for originality
and initiative   ___   ___

12.11 Availability of support:
working with people who
will stand behind a man,
people who can help out in
a tough spot when needed   ___   ___

12.12 Having a job that is valuable
and essential to society   ___   ___

12.13 Having a job with prestige in
the community   ___   ___

12.14 Respect for the ability and
the competence of co-workers   ___   ___

12.15 An enjoyment of what is in-
volved in doing the job   ___   ___

12.16 Security of the job in its
being fairly permanent   ___   ___

12.17 A job with hours that does
not disrupt the family life   ___   ___

12.18 Being with people who are
congenial and easy to work
with   ___   ___

12.19 Excitement and variety the
job provides   ___   ___

12.20 Working with people rather
than things   ___   ___

12.21 A supervisor who appreciates
the time you spend in im-
proving your capabilities   ___   ___

12.22 A job that makes the
organization different in
some way because I work
for it   ___   ___

12.23 A job that brings me into
contact with important
people, e.g., community and
state leaders   ___   ___

12.24 Having a job with an organi-
zation that is nationally
known and respected   ___   ___

13. What agency was most important in <u>inducing you to become</u> a journalist? (Such as family, school, etc.)

_____

14. What agency was most important in training you in journalism? (such as family, school, or a newspaper, etc.)_____

15. Do you feel the need for further improvement of your professional qualifications? Yes___ No___ (If no, go to Question 17)

16. How do you feel you could improve your professional qualifications?

17. Do you think journalism is a profession?

    (If yes) In your opinion what makes journalism a profession?

    (If no) In your opinion what are the characteristics that prevent journalism from becoming a profession?

18. In your opinion what are the two most important characteristics which distinguish a profession from other occupations?

    1._____

    2. _____

PART III

19. Your membership and activities in journalistic associations; professional trade unions and in other organizations?

19.1 Membership in professional association	Approximate duration of membership	Highest elective post held in this association	Elected post held at present (if any)

———————   ———————   ———————   ———————

———————   ———————   ———————   ———————

19.2 Membership in profes- sional trade unions	Approximate duration of membership	Highest elective post held in this trade union	Elected post held at present (if any)

———————   ———————   ———————   ———————

———————   ———————   ———————   ———————

19.3 Membership in other organiza- tions	Approximate duration of membership	Highest elective post held in this organization	Elected post held at present (if any)

———————   ———————   ———————   ———————

———————   ———————   ———————   ———————

20. Frequency of your attendance at business meetings (Annual meetings, etc.) and social activities (Annual parties, picnics, etc.) of professional organizations in which you hold membership (Mark only one box for each activity)

		ATTENDANCE							
Names of profes- sional associ- ations	Number of annu- al busi- ness meetings	FORMAL ACTIVITIES				SOCIAL ACTIVITIES			
		To all of Them	To most of Them	To some of Them	To none of Them	To all of Them	To most of Them	To some of Them	To none of Them

——— ——— ——— ——— ——— ——— ——— ——— ——— ———

——— ——— ——— ——— ——— ——— ——— ——— ——— ———

21. Thinking of journalistic occupation as a whole:

21.1 In your opinion what should be the most important activities of professional associations with respect to journalism?

21.2 In your opinion what should be the most important activities of professional trade unions with respect to journalism?

22. Thinking of your position specifically:

22.1 In your opinion what are the most important characteristics of professional associations of which you are a member with respect to your job?

22.2 In your opinion what are the most important characteristics of professional trade unions of which you are a member with respect to your job?

23. According to your opinion what is the most important problem with which the press in Turkey faces today?

23.1 What kind of solution would you recommend for this problem?

PART IV

We devoted this part of the questionnaire for the issues and problems of journalists and the press. You may agree completely with some of the opinions we present here. On the other hand, you also may completely disagree with some of them. Even if you agree or disagree with some statements below you may do so in certain degrees. In some cases your reaction to some items could be neutral or you may be undecided about those opinions. For example, when we say:

Fenerbahce is the best soccer team of Turkey

_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____

Strongly Agree Slightly Neutral or Slightly Disagree Strongly
Agree   Agree   Undecided   Disagree   Disagree

If you are an ardent Fenerbahce fan you would possible mark
the extreme left end of the continuum. But a fan of Besiktas
could have a totally opposite opinion and thus would chose
to mark the other extreme on the right end. If you are not
interested in soccer or undecided on the statement you could
mark the middle block which says "Neutral or Undecided."
On the other hand, there exist two alternatives for the ones
who "agree" or "disagree" with the statement thus some will
chose to mark one of these. The thing to do is chose accord-
ing to your own beliefs and opinions one of the blocks which
best expresses your views and put a cross mark (X) in the
middle of the block.

Please read all of the statements below carefully and mark
the blocks which describe your reaction to them. Do not
leave any statement unanswered.

24. Journalism is a profession which requires a long and
    specialized training.

    Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__ Strongly disagree

25. A journalist should not continue to work for a news-
    paper if he strongly disagrees with its political
    views.

    Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__ Strongly disagree

26. In order for the Turkish press to become more inde-
    pendent and useful the government advertising should
    be abolished.

    Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__ Strongly disagree

27. There is no real threat to freedom of the press in
    Turkey today.

    Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__ Strongly disagree

28. A degree in journalism should be required for all intending to make journalism a career in Turkey.

   Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

29. Journalists should be willing to go to jail if necessary (e.g. to protect the identity of their news sources).

   Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

30. The advantages provided by the press card attract some unqualified people to the journalistic occupation.

   Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

31. To become an active member of a political party does not prevent a newspaperman to write and edit impartially and objectively.

   Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

32. Opportunities should be provided for the working journalist to attend seminars or refresher courses at a nearby university in order to expand his professional knowledge.

   Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

33. Newspapers should give public what they want rather than what they think public should read.

   Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

34. The emphasis on reporting government news (parliamentary news, statements of the Ministers, official handouts, etc.) is overdone.

   Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

35. In Turkey the freedom of the press is repressed because of the dependency of newspapers on the government for their needs such as news print, or printing machines.

    Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

36. Specialization of journalists is necessary in order to do research and thus to conduct their informing duty dilligently in fields such as agriculture, economics, national development, and urban affairs.

    Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

37. A journalist becomes a journalist by his degree of willingness to serve the public.

    Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

38. One reason why there are not enough journalists with professional orientation in Turkey is the pressure of the government on the press.

    Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

39. Due to economic scarcities, the Turkish press to some degree yields to the pressures of the government.

    Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

40. There is no need for the self-control of the press in a free country.

    Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

41. Another aspect which prevents the working of the journalists according to professional standards is insufficient news sources--such as domestic and foreign news agencies, inadequate facilities, etc.

    Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

42. In some respects, a partisan press limits its own opportunities and duties.

    Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

43. For a developing country such as Turkey, it is neces-
sary for the press to be somewhat sensational in order
to increase the number of readers.

   Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

44. It is possible for a newspaper as an organ of a party
to report objectively, truthfully, and faithfully.

   Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

45. The role of the press in national development is more
important than the role of the political parties.

   Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

46. In Turkey the profit-making motive of the press over-
shadows the ideal of serving the societal development.

   Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

47. Newspapermen like everyone else is in trouble earning
a living. Service to the public is a luxury for a
newspaperman.

   Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

48. Because in the Turkish society the value of the press
is not understood well enough, the newspaperman has
not achieved a social status which he deserves.

   Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

49. Journalists should be tolerated to go occasionally on
junkets organized by the government or by big companies
or to attend dinners given by them or to accept presents
offered by them.

   Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

50. Reporters should be recruited without discrimination
against their sex.

   Strongly agree__:__:__:__:__:__:__: Strongly disagree

51. How do you feel when the name of your newspaper is mentioned in a gathering?

    I feel very disturbed___
    I feel disturbed___
    I feel proud___
    I feel very proud___

52. In general how do you find the administration of your newspaper, not from the economic point, but from the professional point (such as conveniences provided for the reporters, ability of the editors, etc.)

    It is administered very badly___
    It is administered badly___
    It is administered quite good___
    It is administered very good___

53. How do you find your paper in comparison with other Istanbul and Ankara papers with respect to educating and informing those who have little education and need to be trained?

    It is worse than most___
    It is about average___
    It is better than most___
    It is one of the best___

54. How do you find your newspaper in supporting the political, economic and societal development in Turkey?

    It does not perform this duty___
    It slightly performs this duty___
    It somewhat performs this duty___
    It performs this duty excellently___

55. Does your newspaper "kill" the news if it conflicts with its material interests?

    Very frequently___
    More than often___
    Sometimes___
    Never___

56. Is there a promising future for you in excelling in
your profession at the paper you are presently employed?

   It is impossible___
   I have some doubts___
   I believe moderately___
   I believe completely___

57. Would you evaluate your paper with respect to items
mentioned below (Mark only one box for every item).

	Should carry more	Should carry less	Is carrying right amount	Does not carry
Foreign news	___	___	___	___
Domestic news	___	___	___	___
Local news	___	___	___	___
Politics and news about political parties	___	___	___	___
Crime news	___	___	___	___
Constructive and optimistic news to boost the morale of the people	___	___	___	___
Women and fashion	___	___	___	___
Cartoons and comics	___	___	___	___
Picture serials	___	___	___	___
Serials	___	___	___	___
Sensational news	___	___	___	___
News about societal development	___	___	___	___
News about education	___	___	___	___
Sports	___	___	___	___
Economics news	___	___	___	___
Science news	___	___	___	___
Simplified news for the less educated	___	___	___	___
Bylined editorials	___	___	___	___
Society news	___	___	___	___
News about labor and labor problems	___	___	___	___
News about villagers and village problems	___	___	___	___

Please read the questions below and mark the one <u>which</u> <u>best</u> <u>represents</u> <u>your</u> <u>own</u> <u>opinion</u>.

58. While some speak about different and new ways of doing things; some insist on preserving the old, tried ways, which one of the statements below suits your opinion about the ones who speak different and new ways of doing things?

    They are always useful___
    They are usually useful___
    They are useful at times___
    They are seldom useful___

59. If you had to pick only one qualification about a man who seeks an important public office, which one of the qualifications shown below would you pick?

    Coming from a well-known and distinguished family___
    Devotion to traditions and customs___
    Being the most popular among the people___
    Being highly educated and specialized in his field___

60. Which <u>one</u> of the items below are the most important for the future of this country?

    The hard work of the people___
    God's help___
    Good planning on the part of government___
    Good luck___

61. Scientists are studying such things as what determines whether a baby is a boy or girl and how it is that a seed turns into a plant. Would you evaluate this research activity?

    All very beneficial___
    All somewhat beneficial___
    All somewhat harmful___
    All very harmful___

62. Which one of the following statements describes your opinion best?

    It is wrong for a man and wife purposely to limit the number of their children___
    It is necessary for a man and wife to limit the number of their children so they can take better care of those they already have___

63. If a man must choose between a job which he likes and a job which his parents prefer for him which should he choose?

    The job which he prefers___
    The job which his parents prefer___

64. Do you like to meet new people, or would you prefer to spend your time with people you already know?

    Prefer people already know___
    Prefer to meet new people___

65. Is it possible for a person without believing in any religion to become a great man?

    Yes___ No ___

66. The attitude of planning things ahead changes from one person to another. How would you define yourself in this respect?

    I plan a few things ahead___
    I plan most things ahead___
    I let things progress in their normal way and do not worry about them___

PART VI

67. In this part of our questionnaire we would like for you to think about an ideal newspaper and your own newspaper and then decide to what degree should an ideal paper include the adjectives paired below and

to what degree your own paper has them.
For example if Mr. Ahmet feels that an ideal inter-
national organization should be "quite strong"
economically he would then express his opinion on the
"weak-strong" continuum as it is shown below:

Weak _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:__X__:_____:Strong
  very   quite slight- equal slight- quite very
  weak   weak   ly weak or un-ly   strong strong
                        deci- strong
                        ded

But when we ask the same Mr. Ahmet about his opinion
of the economic strength of the United Nations on the
same "weak-strong" continuum he may mark his reaction
as it is shown below.

Weak _____:_____:__X__:_____:_____:_____:_____:Strong
  very   quite slight- equal slight- quite very
  weak   weak   ly   or un- ly   strong strong
                 weak   deci- strong
                         ded

Thus we want you to express your opinion of an ideal
paper and your own paper with respect to pairs of ad-
jectives presented to you under the concepts of "AN
IDEAL PAPER" and "YOUR OWN PAPER."

But:

   A. Mark only one block in each continuum.

   B. Place your mark in the middle of the block.

   C. Do not leave any "pair of adjectives" without
      an answer

   D. Do mark fast and according to your own opinion.

IDEAL NEWSPAPER

Valuable	very	quite	sli- ghtly	equal or unde- cided	sli- ghtly	quite	very	:Worthless

Complex	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Simple
Boring	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Exciting
Passive	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Active
Truthful	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:False
Colorless	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Colorful
Confusing	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Clear
Inade- quate	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Adequate
Responsi- ble	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	Irres- ponsible
Unim- portant	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	Impor- tant
Biased	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Unbiased
Weak	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Strong
Good	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Bad
Useless	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Useful
Sensa- tional	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Serious
Cautious	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Daring
Difficult	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Easy

YOUR OWN PAPER

Valuable	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Worthless
Complex	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Simple
Boring	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Exciting
Passive	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Active
Truthful	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:False
Colorless	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Colorful
Confusing	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Clear
Inade- quate	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	:Adequate
Respon- sible	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	Irrespon- :sible

Unim-portant	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:tant	Impor-
Biased	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:Unbiased	
Weak	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:Strong	
Good	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:Bad	
Useless	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:Useful	
Sensa-tional	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:Serious	
Cautious	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:Daring	
Difficult	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:	____	:Easy	

PART VII

68. Have you ever held a non-newspaper job? Yes____ No____
    (If no go to Question 70)

69. Would you list a few non-newspaper jobs you held?

    Type of Job   **Approximate Duration of Employment**

70. What is your marital status?

    Married____Widowed____Divorced____Separated____Unmarried____

71. (Do not ask to bachelors) How many children do you have?

    ____

72. (To bachelors ask self, father's, and mother's edu-
    cation only) How much schooling did you have____
    your wife (or husband) have____your father have (or
    had)____ your mother have (or had)?

	Self	Wife or Husband	Father	Mother
Could not read or write	____	____	____	____
Some primary school	____	____	____	____
Completed primary school	____	____	____	____
Completed secondary school	____	____	____	____
Some high school	____	____	____	____

Completed high school
Some college no degree
Completed college
Some post graduate work
no master's degree
Received master's degree
Other (please specify)

73. What is (or was) your father's occupation?

74. (Do not ask to bachelors) Is your wife (or husband) employed? (If no go to Question 76)

    Yes___ No___

75. What is her (or his) occupation?

76. After completing formal education, did you attend any special courses or seminars related or unrelated to your occupation while working as a journalist? (If no go to Question 78)

    Yes___ No___

77. Courses and seminars attended:

Names of courses	Approximate Date of Entry	Approximate Date of re-entry

Names of seminars	Approximate Date of Entry	Approximate Date of re-entry

78. Did you have a training period in journalism without pay?   Yes___ No___

    (If yes)

    78.1 Where did you work?_____

    78.2 How long did you work?_____

79. Do you know any foreign languages? (If no go to Question 83)
Yes_____
No_____

80. About the foreign languages you know, please list them one by one. (As respondent counts the languages record one language on top of every column and then ask the questions about his degree of knowledge. Check only one box under every language)

Can use <u>for work</u> with ease	__	__	__
Can use <u>for work</u> with some difficulty	__	__	__
Slight knowledge	__	__	__

81. (Question number 81 will be asked only to those respondents who answered yes to Question number 79)

Do you read newspapers, magazines, books, and listen to radios in any language other than Turkish?

81.1. Newspapers
More than one per day___
At least one per day___
Occasionally___
Never___

81.2 Magazines
More than one per week___
At least one per week___
Occasionally___
Never___

81.3. Books
More than one per month___
At least one per day___
Occasionally___
Never___

81.4. Radios
     More than one program per day___
     At least one per day___
     Occasionally___
     Never___

82. Do you go to foreign movies?

     More than one per week___
     At least one per week___
     Occasionally___
     Never___

83. Do you read Turkish newspapers, magazines, books in Turkish, listen to Turkish radios, watch television and go to Turkish movies?

     83.1. Newspapers
          More than one per day___
          At least one per day___
          Occasionally___
          Never___

     83.2. Magazines
          More than one per week___
          At least one per week___
          Occasionally___
          Never___

     83.3 Books
          More than one per month___
          At least one per month___
          Occasionally___
          Never___

     83.4. Radios
          More than one program per day___
          At least one per day ___
          Occasionally___
          Never___

83.5. Television
More than one program per week___
At least one per week___
Occasionally___
Never___

83.6. Movies
More than one per month___
At least one per month___
Occasionally___
Never___

84. Have you ever traveled abroad? (If no go to Question 86)
Yes___
No___

85. Countries visited:

Countries visited	Number of Times	Estimated total time spent there	Mostly journal- istic purposes	Mostly touris- tic purposes	Both jour- nalistic and Touristic
_____	____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	____	_____	_____	_____	_____

86. Place of former residence:

	Place	Province of Turkey
You were born in	_____	_____
Went to high school	_____	_____
Got your first job in journalism	_____	_____
Got your first full-time job with news- papers	_____	_____

87. About how old are you?_____

88. As a newspaperman, how do you judge the social status
    of your occupation in comparison to other occupations
    in the Turkish society?

    Journalism's social status is:

    Among the highest____
    Higher than most____
    About average____
    Below average____
    Among the lowest____

89. According to your opinion, when compared to other oc-
    cupations, what is the social status of journalism
    in the public eye?

    The social status of journalism in the Turkish public
    eye is:

    Among the highest____
    Higher than most____
    About average____
    Below average____
    Among the lowest____

90. Is journalism considered as a profession in the Turkish
    society? If yes, why? If no, why not? Please briefly
    explain.

91. In a sentence or two would you explain what do you
    understand of a newspaper's service to the public?

92. Have you received any award concerning your profession?

    Yes____ No____

    (If yes) In what areas?_____

93. Have you been convicted because of your work? Yes____ No____

    (If yes) Have you been imprisoned? Yes____ No____ (If

yes) How long have you been jailed?_____

94. Do you hold more than one job at the present time?
    Yes___ No___ (If no go to Question number 96)

95. Additional jobs you are holding at the present time:

    Type of job   Total time spent on additional
    _____   jobs in a week
                               _____

96. Sources of income: TL

    Salary on monthly basis   _____

    Income from other journalistic
    jobs if any   _____

    Income from non-journalistic
    jobs if any   _____

    Wife's (or husband's) income if
    any (on monthly basis)   _____

    Income from other sources such as
    real property, interest, etc., if any   _____

    Total sum of Respondent's income   _____TL

    Thank you very much for your time and interest shown
    for this research. (Before leaving the respondent
    check the whole questionnaire once more and make
    your corrections in front of him.)

APPENDIX B

TABLE 34

CORRELATION OF DESIRED JOB CHARACTERISTICS
WITH PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION
INDEX

DESIRED JOB CHARACTERISTICS	CORRELATION	MEANS
Opportunity to learn(*)	.360	1.27 (x)
Influence on decisions(*)	.537	1.51
Advance in organization	.062	1.47
Advance in career(*)	.411	1.24
Prestige job in organization	.064	1.59
Freedom from supervision(*)	.070	2.16
Good salary	.094	1.47
Influence public(*)	.640	1.56
Full use of abilities(*)	.616	1.38
Chance for originality(*)	.524	1.46
Availability of support	-.031	1.83
Job essential to community(*)	.584	1.41
Prestige job in community	.005	1.60
Respect for co-workers(*)	.180	1.40
Enjoyment of job	.398	1.24
Security of job	-.064	1.43
Good working hours	-.013	1.80
Congenial co-workers	.010	1.63

TABLE 34 (continued)

DESIRED JOB CHARACTERISTICS	CORRELATION	MEANS
Excitement of job	.436	1.63
Working with people	.281	1.83
Appreciative supervisor(*)	.039	1.63
Impress on organization(*)	.469	1.72
Meet important people	.341	1.95
Respected organization(*)	.521	1.51
	.16 and above is significant	

(*) Professional items
(x) Responses ranged from 1 for "extremely important" to 4 for "not important."

TABLE 35

MEAN ANALYSIS OF SIX PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT FACTORS(*)
(N=210)

FACTORS	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP	MP	LP
FREEDOM OF THE PRESS	(n=70)	(n=70)	(n=70)
Economic scarcities force the press to yield to government pressures	3.13	3.37	3.76
Government pressures affect on professionalism	4.71	4.79	4.97
Dependency on government for printing material curtails freedom	2.65	2.61	2.83
GROUP MEANS	3.49	3.60	3.85

TRAINING

Journalism requires long and specialized training	1.94	1.65	1.97
Specialization of journalists necessary	1.49	1.48	1.60
Mandatory journalism degree	4.69	4.24	4.64
GROUP MEANS	2.71	2.46	2.74

SOCIAL FUNCTIONS

The role of the press in national development is important	1.59	1.31	1.47
Emphasis on government news is overdone	3.35	2.54	2.89
Partisan press limits its opportunities	1.48	1.29	1.33

TABLE 35 (continued)

FACTORS	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Turkish society does not appreciate journalists	2.93	2.77	3.21
GROUP MEANS	2.34	1.98	2.22

ETHICS

Give public what they want	4.56	4.17	4.40
Junkets should be tolerated	5.10	4.59	4.91
GROUP MEANS	4.83	4.38	4.66

RESPONSIBILITY

Willingness to go to jail	1.30	1.59	1.56
Press card system attracts unqualified	1.96	2.01	2.09
GROUP MEANS	1.63	1.80	1.83

OBJECTIVITY

Membership in political parties does not affect objectivity	3.94	3.93	4.33
Party organ can report objectively	3.31	3.74	3.63
GROUP MEANS	3.63	3.84	3.98

(*) Responses ranged from 1 for "strongly agree" to 7 for "strongly disagree."

TABLE 36

MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN IDEAL AND OWN
NEWSPAPER CONCEPTS ACCORDING TO FIVE FACTORS
(N=186)

EVALUATIVE

	HP (n=62)	MP (n=63)	LP (n=71)
HP	--		
MP	1.03	--	
LP	.67	.89	--

DYNAMISM

	HP (n=62)	MP (n=63)	LP (n=71)
HP	--		
MP	.84	--	
LP	.74	.95	--

RESPONSIBILITY

	HP	MP	LP
HP	--		
MP	1.51	--	
LP	1.20	1.13	--

READABILITY

	HP	MP	LP
HP	--		
MP	.57	--	
LP	.27	.27	--

INFLUENCE

	HP	MP	LP
HP	--		
MP	2.97	--	
LP	3.22	3.09	--

TABLE 37

ACTIVITIES OF TURKISH JOURNALISTS IN
PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

JOURNALISM ASSOCIATIONS	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Membership:			
Median number of associations	1.7	1.9	2
Duration of membership:			
Median number of years	10.6	11.4	10.3
Elective office held:	(n=54)	(n=55)	(n=49)
Yes	33%	29%	27%
No	67	71	73
	100%	100%	100%
Holds elective office now:			
Yes	19%	10%	21%
No	81	90	79
	100%	100%	100%
Attendance at business meetings:			
To all of them	43%	62%	53%
To most of them	20	9	12
To some of them	15	11	14
To none of them	22	18	21
	100%	100%	100%

TABLE 37 (continued)

JOURNALISTIC ASSOCIATIONS	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Attendance at social meetings:			
To all of them	29%	36%	24%
To most of them	13	7	12
To some of them	31	22	39
To none of them	27	35	25
	100%	100%	100%
JOURNALISM UNIONS	(n=70)	(n=70)	(n=70)
Membership:			
Median number of unions	2.1	2.2	2.1
Duration of membership:			
Median number of years	6.2	12.2	8
Elective office held:	(n=52)	(n=46)	(n=51)
Yes	37%	17%	27%
No	63	83	73
	100%	100%	100%
Holds elective office now:	(n=52)	(n=46)	(n=51)
Yes	11%	6%	20%
No	89	94	80
	100%	100%	100%
Attendance at business meetings:	(n=56)	(n=46)	(n=47)
To all of them	45%	54%	53%

TABLE 37 (continued)

Attendance at business meetings:	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=56)	MP (n=46)	LP (n=47)
To most of them	5	7	6
To some of them	25	24	17
To none of them	25	15	29
	100%	100%	100%

Attendance at social meetings:			
To all of them	24%	29%	16%
To most of them	10	4	7
To some of them	32	31	30
To none of them	34	36	47
	100%	100%	100%

TABLE 38

CONVICTION AND IMPRISONMENT BECAUSE OF WORK
(N=210)

Conviction	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Yes	23%	21%	16%
No	77	79	84
	100%	100%	100%

Imprisonment			
Yes	6%	4%	3%
No	94	96	97
	100%	100%	100%

TABLE 39

USAGE OF FOREIGN MEDIA BY TURKISH
JOURNALISTS
(N=210)

TYPES OF FOREIGN MEDIA	PERCENTAGE OF MEDIA USAGE		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Newspapers:			
More than one newspaper a day	26%	20%	21%
At least one newspaper a day	13	14	6
Sometimes	30	30	30
Never	31	36	43
Magazines:			
More than one magazine a week	30	27	27
At least one magazine a week	13	14	13
Sometimes	29	27	17
Never	28	32	43
Books:			
More than one book a month	26	10	11
At least one book a month	9	17	13
Sometimes	21	19	19
Never	44	54	57
Radio:			
More than one program a day	23	14	17
At least one program a day	16	11	7
Sometimes	23	24	27
Never	38	51	49
Movies:			
More than one film a month	64	66	60
At least one film a month	14	8	6
Sometimes	13	9	11
Never	9	17	23

TABLE 40

USAGE OF TURKISH MEDIA BY TURKISH
JOURNALISTS
(N=210)

TYPES OF TURKISH MEDIA	PERCENTAGE OF MEDIA USAGE		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Newspapers:			
More than one newspaper a day	99%	97%	99%
At least one newspaper a day	1	3	1
Sometimes	--	--	--
Never	--	--	--
Magazines:			
More than one magazine a week	90	77	86
At least one magazine a week	7	13	9
Sometimes	3	6	4
Never	--	--	--
Books:			
More than one book a month	73	73	63
At least one book a month	17	11	30
Sometimes	10	13	7
Never	--	3	--
Radio:			
More than one program a day	69	79	73
At least one program a day	16	7	16
Sometimes	11	13	10
Never	4	1	1
Television:			
More than one program a day	13	12	11

TABLE 40 (continued)

TYPES OF TURKISH MEDIA	PERCENTAGE OF MEDIA USAGE		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Television:			
At least one program a day	7	13	19
Sometimes	26	29	29
Never	54	46	41
Movies:			
More than one film a month	20	19	17
At least one film a month	4	7	6
Sometimes	43	40	37
Never	33	34	40

TABLE 41

LOCALE OF FIRST AND REGULAR NEWSPAPER
JOBS
(N=210)

LOCALE OF FIRST JOB	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Urban	84%	90%	91%
Rural	14	10	7
Outside of Turkey	2	--	2
	100%	100%	100%
LOCALE OF REGULAR JOB			
Urban	91	90	94
Rural	7	10	4
Outside of Turkey	1	--	2
	100%	100%	100%

TABLE 42

APPRENTICESHIP IN JOURNALISM
(N=210)

	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Yes	40%	36%	50%
No	60	64	50
	100%	100%	100%
LOCALE OF APPRENTICESHIP (N=90)	(n=30)	(n=25)	(n=35)
Istanbul	73%	80%	66%
Ankara	27	4	20
Izmir	--	--	3
Other cities of Turkey	--	16	11
	100%	100%	100%
PERIOD OF APPRENTICESHIP (N=89)	(n=29)	(n=25)	(n=35)
Median months	3.9	4.7	4.7

TABLE 43

HELD PREVIOUS JOBS OUTSIDE OF JOURNALISM
(N=208)

	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=68)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
Yes	54%	54%	46%
No	46	46	54
	100%	100%	100%
KINDS OF JOBS HELD OUTSIDE OF JOURNALISM	(n=31)	(n=34)	(n=29)
Government	19%	21%	31%
Teaching	23	18	10
Business	6	26	10
Professional	30	15	17
Politics	3	--	3
Art	6	3	14
Labor	13	17	15
	100%	100%	100%

TABLE 44

NUMBER OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES KNOWN
(N=186)

Number of Languages	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=70)	MP (n=70)	LP (n=70)
One	60%	67%	59%
Two	28	21	25
Three	8	11	11
Four	4	1	3
Five	--	--	2
	100%	100%	100%

TABLE 45

FUNCTIONAL USE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES BY
TURKISH JOURNALISTS
(N=186)

FUNCTIONAL USE OF LANGUAGES	PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION		
	HP (n=60)	MP (n=63)	LP (n=63)
English with ease	34%	21%	21%
English with difficulty	20	20	41
French with ease	19	21	11
French with difficulty	7	9	7
Other languages with ease	4	9	7
Other languages with difficulty	3	9	3
N.A.	13	10	10
	100%	100%	100%

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