PRIVACY REGULATION AND FRESHMAN ADJUSTMENT TO A COLLEGE: A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY

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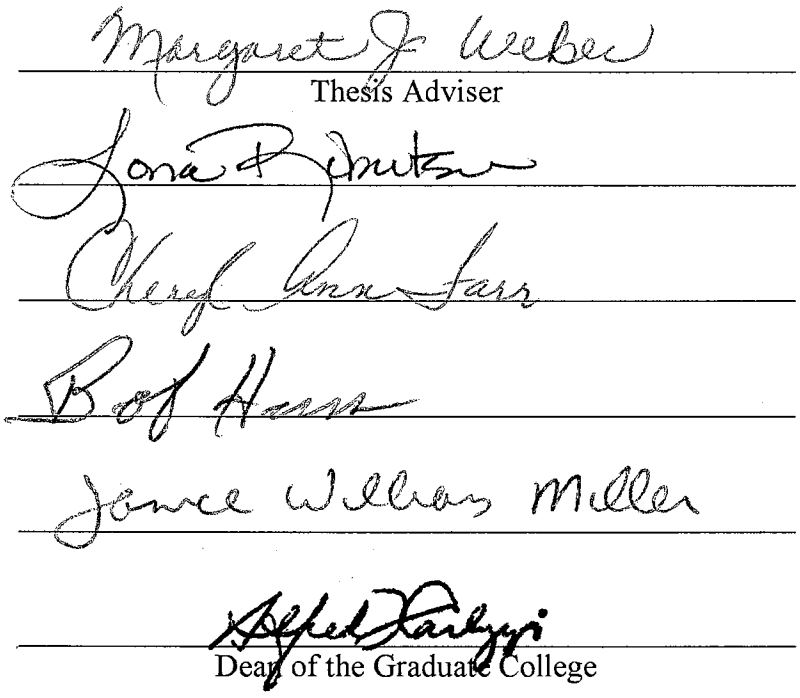

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

College transition presents not only stressful challenges but also stimulating opportunities for freshmen to accomplish intellectual and social tasks. For many first year college students, the university may be their first experience living away from home and first separation from their families for an extended period of time. Thus, the ability to adjust to college is one of the major challenges.

Several researchers have indicated that the freshman year experience is viewed as critical in reducing attrition rates (Fidler, 1991; Noel, Levitz, and Saluri, 1985; Strumpf and Hunt, 1993; Upcraft, Gardner, and Associates, 1989). The stress of college adjustment is clearly evident in persistence rates indicating almost half of student attrition takes place during the first academic year (Porter, 1990). These high attrition patterns suggest that many students may be dropping out of college without giving themselves a chance to adjust (Tinto, 1987).

There is a large body of knowledge concerning the impact of the environmental and social factors upon college students (Upcraft, 1989). The freshmen residence hall experience is the most critical factor in predicting persistence and completing undergraduate studies (Astin, 1977; Gardner, 1991; Upcraft, 1989). Residence halls provide opportunities for student interaction with one another and with the collegiate environment. In residence halls, the roommate relationship is one of the most important

factors because roommates can strongly influence each other.

However, sharing the same room with someone having different habits and personality may lead to some tension and conflict, as well as it may limit the privacy. Upcraft (1989) states that: "Assigning two freshmen who do not know each other to a room is a difficult situation, and the resulting adjustment problems can have a very powerful effect on academic and personal development" (p.144). Moreover, Upcraft (1989) mentions that most freshmen leave college because of an inability to deal with peers, get along with roommates, or establish new friends.

Theoretical Framework

This study is based on the privacy regulation model proposed by Altman (1975). The model defines privacy as "a selective control of access to the self or to one's group" and as a process that includes both the opening and the closing of the self to others (p. 18). Central to Altman's privacy model are the constructs of desired privacy, achieved privacy, and optimum state of privacy (see Figure 1). Desired privacy is an individual's ideal level of contact with others at any specific time, whereas achieved privacy refers to the actual level of contact experienced by an individual at a particular point in time.

Privacy regulation is an optimizing process in which individuals are motivated to achieve their desired levels of privacy. According to the privacy model (Altman, 1975), when an individual achieves the ideal level of social interaction, an optimum state of privacy occurs. The individual experiences a desired sense of solitude when he/she wants to be alone or a desired sense of connection when he/she wants to be with others.

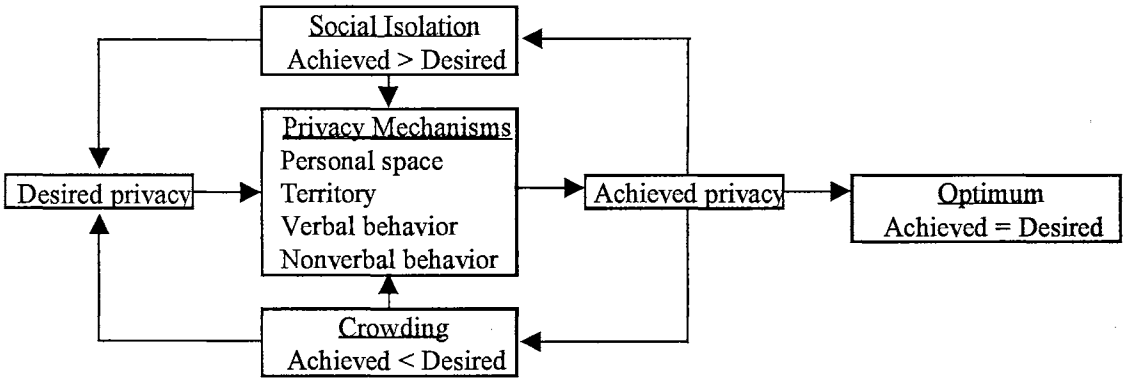

Figure 1. The privacy regulation model (Altman, 1975).

When achieved privacy is greater or less than what is desired, this state will be experienced negatively. If the achieved privacy is greater than the desired level, an individual feels isolated. In such instances, one speaks of boredom, isolation, or loneliness. If the achieved level is less than the desired level, an individual feels crowded. Such situations can be named as privacy invasion. In each case, an individual employs privacy regulation mechanisms including, contact-seeking and contact-avoiding behaviors to adjust his/her achieved privacy to that what he/she desires.

Problem Statement

Although the literature examines college adjustment from several contexts, there has been very little theoretical and empirical work investigating the importance of privacy regulation in residence halls on students' adjustment to a college. In a study of first year college students living in residence halls, Vinsel, Brown, Altman, and Foss (1980) have found students using a variety of effective contact-seeking and contact-avoiding behaviors are less likely to drop out by the end of the second year. Thus, the use of privacy regulation mechanisms was associated with better adjustment at the university.

There is also a clear lack of information regarding the cultural differences in privacy regulation mechanisms used by college students. Altman (1975) states the implementation of privacy regulation mechanisms may vary across personal, social, physical, and cultural factors. Therefore, the research was carried out by means of a survey to examine the differences in privacy regulation mechanisms used by American and Turkish freshmen living in residence halls. The survey was conducted at Oklahoma State University in Stillwater, Oklahoma, U.S.A and at Bilkent University in Ankara, Turkey. Privacy regulation mechanisms were defined as contact-seeking and contact-avoiding behaviors that students used in their residential settings.

Based on Altman's model (1975), students were divided into three categories: crowded, isolated and optimum. If a student's achieved privacy level was less than what he/she desired, he/she was grouped into crowded category. Second, if a student's achieved privacy level was more than what he/she desired, he/she was described as isolated. Third, if a student's achieved privacy level was equal to what he/she desired, then he/she was grouped into optimum category. The data of this study provides useful information in understanding American and Turkish freshmen's privacy regulation from a cultural and behavioral perspective. Further, college adjustment was assessed through social, academic, institutional, and personal dimensions. The information gathered from this study would be helpful in identifying the potential problems in college adjustment during the first months at the university.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to examine whether privacy regulation mechanisms (contact-seeking and contact-avoiding behaviors) differed for American and Turkish freshmen living in residence halls. The individual factors that were considered as important include culture, gender, and student groups (crowded, optimum, and isolated) based on the discrepancy scores between achieved and desired privacy levels. The second purpose of this study was to examine whether the adjustment scores differed between American and Turkish freshmen among crowded, optimum, and isolated students.

The third purpose of this study was to determine whether the desired level of privacy in a residence hall room differed based on culture and gender. Furthermore, the relationships between the desired and achieved levels of privacy and the perception of crowding in residential settings were investigated. Also, the differences in the crowding perception scores of student groups (crowded, optimum, and isolated) were examined based on culture and gender. The final purpose of this study was to determine whether the degree of territorial behavior in a residence hall room differed between American and Turkish male and female freshmen based on previous bedroom sharing experience during adolescence and knowing one's roommate before sharing the residence hall room.

Objectives

The specific objectives of this study were to:

1. Determine whether the number of contact-seeking and contact-avoiding behaviors used by American and Turkish freshmen differed across gender among crowded, optimum, and isolated students.

2. Determine whether the adjustment scores differed between American and Turkish freshmen among crowded, optimum, and isolated students.

3. Determine whether the desired level of privacy differed between American and Turkish freshmen across gender.

4. Examine the relationships between the desired and achieved levels of privacy and the crowding perception scores of American and Turkish freshmen.

5. Determine whether the crowding perception scores differed between American and Turkish freshmen across gender among crowded, optimum, and isolated students.

6. Determine whether the degree of territorial behavior differed between American and Turkish freshmen across gender based on previous bedroom sharing experience and knowing one's roommate before sharing the residence hall room.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions were based on Altman's (1975) privacy model:

1. Privacy— "an interpersonal boundary process by which a person or group regulates interaction with others. By altering the degree of openness of the self to others, a hypothetical personal boundary is more or less receptive to social interaction with others. Privacy is, therefore, a dynamic process involving selective control over a self-boundary, either by an individual or by a group" (p. 6).

2. Privacy regulation— "an optimizing process in which individuals are motivated to achieve their desired levels of privacy" (p. 10).

3. Desired privacy— "is an ideal level of privacy or contact with others at any specific time" (p. 6). The desired level of privacy can be low or high and depends on cultural, social, physical, and individual factors.

4. Achieved privacy— "refers to the actual level of contact experienced by an individual that results from interaction with others at a particular point in time" (p. 10).

5. Optimum state of privacy— If the achieved level of privacy is equal to the desired level of privacy, an optimum state of privacy exists. The individual experiences a desired sense of solitude when he/she wants to be alone or a desired sense of connection when he/she wants to be with others. "If the achieved privacy is lower or higher than desired privacy—too much or too little contact—a state of imbalance exists...thus the idea of privacy as an optimization process means that departures from an ideal in either of two directions—higher or lower—is unsatisfactory." (Altman, 1975, p. 11).

6. Social isolation— "occurs when the achieved level of privacy is greater than the desired level of privacy" (p. 8).

7. Crowding— "occurs when a failure of privacy regulation results in a greater amount of social contact than is desired" (p. 8).

8. Privacy regulation mechanisms— Vinsel, Brown, Altman, and Foss (1980) developed the Social Contact Questionnaire, assessing the privacy regulation mechanisms. It consists of nine contact-seeking and nine contact-avoiding behaviors. The contact-seeking behaviors include opening the door to one's room, going to a hall lounge, going to other places where people are around, phoning someone, studying in a busy place, visiting others' rooms, attracting others with music, using the bathroom at a busy time, inviting people to one's room. The contact-avoiding behaviors include shutting the

door to one's room, finding a quiet place to study, arranging the room for privacy, tuning out noise, using loud music to cover noise, going for a walk alone, using the bathroom at a quiet time, learning to sleep/study with others in the room.

9. Territorial behavior— "a self-other boundary regulation mechanism, which involves the personalization of a place and the communication that it is 'owned' by a person or group" (Altman, 1975, p. 107).

Organization of Chapters

The format of this dissertation is to provide manuscripts suitable for publication and to fulfill the traditional thesis requirements. The chapters of the dissertation are organized in the following manner: Chapter I gives a brief introduction to the study, including the purpose and objectives. Chapter II contains the literature review as it pertains to the theoretical framework. Chapter III explains the methodology. Chapter IV contains manuscript one, addressing the importance of privacy regulation in residence halls on students' adjustment to college. Chapter V includes the manuscript two, which addresses the cross-cultural differences in the crowding perception of residence halls and its relation to privacy. Chapter VI contains the manuscript three, addressing the importance of individual and social factors on territorial behavior. In Chapter VII, the summary and conclusions are presented with implications and recommendations for future studies.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter outlines the states and functions of privacy, and the privacy regulation mechanisms. The following literature also discusses the student development theories and previous research findings on adjustment problems of students during college transition. Finally, this chapter concludes with the discussion of the social and physical factors in residence halls.

States of Privacy

Westin (1970) established four basic states of individual privacy, each with its related function: solitude, intimacy, anonymity, and reserve. Solitude, or the condition of being alone, is the most commonly used term for the definition of privacy. In solitude, an individual is separated from others. In the state of intimacy, the boundary is around two or more people, allowing them to interact unobserved by others. In anonymity, an individual is in the presence of others in public places, but is unidentified or is not under surveillance. In the state of reserve, an individual communicates with others, but is able to select the information that he/she receives (Westin, 1970).

Other researchers have used a broader range of items and have employed factor analysis to identify types of privacy and to develop subscales. Pedersen (1979), looking

at privacy preferences, identified six factors: reserve, solitude, isolation (which involves a greater degree of physical separation than solitude), intimacy with family, intimacy with friends, and anonymity. Moreover, Marshall (1972, 1974) identified six major factors of privacy. Four are known as intimacy, solitude, anonymity, and reserve. Solitude is defined as being in the presence of others, but being left alone. The other two factors are labeled as seclusion and not neighboring. Seclusion emphasized separation from others, including visual and auditory seclusion, whereas not neighboring concerned control over interaction and low levels of involvement with neighbors.

Furthermore, Rüstemli and Kökdemir (1993) indicated that there were significant differences in preferences for privacy such that the most preferred types of privacy were intimacy with friends and solitude, and the least preferred were reserve and isolation for Turkish college students. Based on Pedersen's (1979) classification of intimacy with family and friends, Rüstemli and Kökdemir (1993) state that "The structure of Turkish family is an intact unit, with intense care and concern for children. . . in such environment children would develop deep confidence in, and an intimate relationship with their parents, but the restricted nature and content of parent-child communication and the parents' expectations of a high degree of dependency on the part of their children are contrary to the needs of the adolescent and young adult years" (p. 813). Therefore, intimacy is directed towards peers for Turkish college students. Further, Rüstemli and Kökdemir (1993) indicated that preference for intimate relationships with friends rather than with family members provides evidence for Pedersen's (1979) suggestion that there are two types of intimacy.

Functions of Privacy Regulation

Westin (1970) identifies four purposes served by privacy. Privacy provides for personal autonomy, it allows for release of emotions, it helps self-evaluation, and it limits and protects communication. Personal autonomy includes the concept of the self as having an inner core of secrets and the issues of self-worth, self-identity, and self-independence. Second, privacy allows an individual to deal with emotional release in such a way giving vent to feelings and not to display in public such as finding the nearest secluded place to cry (Gifford, 1987). Third, privacy is essential in helping self-evaluation. It provides an individual with a less demanding environment that gives him/her an opportunity to process information and to plan future actions. Moreover, Westin (1970) indicates that an individual seeks privacy for protected communication. An individual needs privacy to assess his/her experiences and the information received.

According to Altman (1975), privacy regulation serves interpersonal, self/other interface, and self-identity functions that are central to psychological well-being. Privacy regulation serves as an interpersonal function in that it allows individuals control over interpersonal boundaries and social interactions. Control over interaction allows for the self/other interface function of privacy—it allows individuals for self-evaluation and to set up role relationships that help individuals to develop strategies for dealing with others. Further, the interpersonal and self/other interface functions of privacy help to promote self-identity (Altman, 1975). Self-identity is an understanding of one's emotions and cognitions as well as strengths and weaknesses (Altman, 1975, p. 49). Control over interpersonal boundaries provides an individual with information about where the self-ends and others begin and allows him/her to establish individual and group identities.

This control also allows an individual to develop a sense of competence in the social environment and a sense of self-worth (Altman and Chemers, 1980).

Privacy Regulation Mechanisms

Altman (1975) proposes a number of mechanisms involved in privacy regulation. These mechanisms include territorial behavior or the possession of an area and objects, personal spacing, verbal and nonverbal behaviors, and cultural mechanisms or the behavioral customs of different cultures to regulate social interaction. These mechanisms can operate as an integrated system in regulating interpersonal exchange. Therefore, the concepts of privacy, territorial behavior, and personal space are closely linked to each other, and these mechanisms may vary across cultures.

Territorial Behavior

According to Altman's (1975) privacy regulation model, territorial behavior plays an important role in organizing interactions between individuals or groups and is used to maintain a balance between desired and achieved levels of privacy. Bell et al. (1990) state that territories differ in the duration of occupancy, the amount of personalization, and the likelihood of defense if violated (p. 256).

A number of studies (Altman and Chemers, 1980; Taylor and Stough, 1978) have demonstrated the existence of three basic territory types: primary, secondary, and public territory. These differ in their importance to the individual's or group's existence—primary territory is the most important, followed by secondary and public territories.

Primary territory is under the control of a specific individual. Secondary territories are less essential places for an individual; they are often used temporarily or periodically. Public territories are places in which everyone has equal rights, which are not assigned to a specific person. Examples of public territories can be parks or streets.

Personal Space

An individual alters his/her distance and angle of orientation from others to achieve desired level of interaction (Altman, 1975, p. 8). Personal space refers to "an area with invisible boundary surrounding the person's body into which intruders may not come" (Sommer, 1969, p. 26). The existence of personal space can be directly observed when a person unwittingly or purposefully intrudes into the personal space of another.

Although territory and personal space might appear synonymous, they can be distinguished in several ways. First, personal space is portable, whereas territory is relatively fixed. Territorial boundaries are usually marked such that they are visible to others, whereas the boundaries of personal space are invisible. Next, personal space has the body as its focal point whereas the center of a territory is usually the home of a person (Sommer, 1969; Veitch and Arkkelin, 1995). Finally, personal space intrusion usually leads to withdrawal from the situation, whereas intrusion into territory usually leads to threats and fights (Sommer, 1969).

Gifford (1994) mentions that individual characteristics such as age, gender, and culture are good indicators of how much space people require. In a study investigating American college students' interpersonal distance preferences, Kaya (1998) found that males preferred larger interpersonal distances than females. For the interpersonal distance

of the same-sex dyads, Aiello (1987) found that female-female pairs maintain closer distances than male-male pairs. Further, it should be noted that when dyads are of mixed sex, the interpersonal distance depends on the relationship of the interactants. In an acquaintant relationship, mixed-sex dyads maintain less personal space than either male-male or female-female pairs (Aiello, 1987). Moreover, in a field study investigating the interpersonal distances of Turkish adolescents, Kaya and Erkip (1999) found that females' approach to males was more distant than males' approach to females. Further, same-sex dyads had typically smaller interpersonal distances than mixed-sex dyads.

Hall (1966) proposes cultures as contact and non-contact. The contact culture is composed of individuals (e.g., Mediterranean, Middle Eastern, Arabic, Hispanic cultures) who face one another more directly, interact closer to one another, touch one another more, look one another in the eye more, and speak in a louder voice than do individuals of the non-contact culture (e.g., Northern European, Caucasian American cultures). In some countries, personal space even extends to eye contact and to look into another's eyes when conversation is considered impolite (Hall, 1966).

Watson (1970) revealed the differences in proxemic behavior of students from different parts of the world. Watson (1970) identified the contact cultures as Arabs, Latin Americans, and Southern Europeans, while North Americans, Asians, Indians, Pakistanis, and Northern Europeans as non-contact cultures. The results indicated that students from contact cultures faced each other more directly, touched more, and spent more time in looking into each other's eyes than students from non-contact cultures. Also, Hall (1966) found that Latin Americans, French, Greeks, and Arabs use intimate sensory modalities such as smell and touch more than Americans, therefore maintain smaller interaction

distances than Americans. Thus, interpersonal distancing to fulfill the protective and communicative functions of personal space varies for cultural groups.

Moreover, Hall (1966) stated that differences in interpersonal distances are not limited only to cultural groups, but also include subcultural groups, particularly in the United States. Hall (1966) used the term American to refer to the dominant non-contact group of Americans of Northern European ancestry. Hall (1966) hypothesized that lower income black and Spanish subcultures are more highly involved than white middle-class Americans, and therefore use closer interaction distances. Black Americans interact more closely than white Americans while young, but demand greater distances in adolescence (Aiello and Thompson, 1980).

Verbal and Nonverbal Behaviors

Altman (1975) states that verbal behaviors include the content and form of the interpersonal communication. Therefore, what people say to others to make themselves more or less accessible and how they say things by means of intensity or other features of speech (e.g., voice quality, language style, vocabulary selection) are important determinants of social interaction.

Hall (1966) explains nonverbal behaviors as important elements in interpersonal communication. Hall (1966) proposed a science of proxemics or the study of man's use of space as a specialized elaboration of culture (p. 1). Hall hypothesized four spatial zones that reflect different relationships between the interactants and the types of activities and spaces corresponding to them. Hall (1966) observed that these distances often relate to the senses: whether we can smell the other person, feel body heat, reach

out and touch, or see facial features. Each of these zones provides a different level of sensory information. These are intimate distance (0 to 18 inches), personal distance (1.5 to 4 feet), social distance (4 to 12 feet), and public distance (12 to 25 feet).

Finally, Altman (1975) suggests two important ideas explicit in Hall's analysis of distance zones. "First, the zones are not necessarily universal, and there are wide cultural variations in what behaviors are permissible in each zone and in what distances are appropriate with certain persons in certain settings. Second, the zones are not important in terms of physical distance per se; they are important because of the interpersonal communication possibilities they offer." (p. 60).

Student Development Theories

Theories of student development emphasize not only how college students think about themselves and their physical environments, but also how they feel, behave, and interpret the meaning of their experiences in the college environments. Student development theories can be divided into four major categories: psychosocial, cognitive, typology models, and person-environment interaction models.

Psychosocial Theories

Erik Erikson (1964) was the first psychological theorist looking at adolescent development in a social context and defining the identity development of youth. Erikson (1964) discusses the social dimension of individual development, emphasizing the fact that life occurs in interaction with family and a particular culture. Erikson's theory offers

us a way of thinking that measures who the students are and how the college environment may inhibit or enhance their development (Widick, Parker, and Knefelkamp, 1978).

Psychosocial theories which build on Erikson's model (1964), share similar constructs in describing individual development. These theories suggest that an individual develops through a sequence of stages that defines the life cycle. Erikson (1964) outlined eight stages in psychosocial development, each with a life challenge that can lead to either progress or regress. The first challenge for infants is to learn basic trust by deciding whether the world is safe and secure. In the next two stages, (autonomy versus shame, initiative vs. guilt) the child explores the world first physically, then conceptually. According to Erikson (1964), during the forth stage (industry vs. inferiority) the child's maturing capacities in a school context require a creation of self-image. In the fifth stage, adolescents face identity versus identity diffusion.

If the first four stages are positively established, the individual will be able to move toward goals and achieve capacities that are necessary for establishing an identity. According to Erikson (1964), a sense of identity, which is experienced personally, can be confirmed and validated by others, and formed in the context of cultural norms. The individual knows who he/she is and the qualities that are most essential for existence. However, the identity is not fully developed until adulthood. Erikson (1964) divides adulthood into three stages, each of which includes important tasks. During the young adulthood, the individual experiences intimacy versus isolation. The middle adult years are characterized by the conflict between generativity versus stagnation. Erikson (1964) indicates that an adult learns the virtue of caring and invests in the society of which he is taking part during these years. The last stage includes the years of old age that brings

integrity versus despair with gaining wisdom and acceptance. If the individual has a positive experience in his/her developmental process, then it is likely that the individual will develop a sense of integrity. On the other hand, if the experience is negative, then despair may occur.

The stabilization of identity is the most essential task for adolescents and young adults during college years. Influenced by Erikson, Chickering (1969) expanded the stage of adolescent development to include the sources of impact in the college environment in a more detailed perspective. Chickering (1969) views a college student as a person in a distinct psychosocial phase involving the importance of certain inner capabilities and needs which interact with the demands of a college environment.

Chickering (1969) proposes seven dimensions or vectors of development during adolescence: developing competence, managing emotions, developing autonomy, establishing identity, freeing interpersonal relationships, clarifying purposes, and developing integrity. In the first vector, if an individual can develop competencies in academic work and social situations, a sense of competence emerges. Development in managing emotions, the second vector, involves increasing awareness of one's feelings and integration of feelings that allow control and expression. The third vector, developing autonomy, includes three major groups: establishing emotional autonomy, attaining instrumental autonomy, and the recognition of interdependence. Emotional autonomy can be established by the awareness of and trust in one's abilities and feelings. Instrumental autonomy involves the ability to make plans for attaining goals and use problem-solving skills. Interdependence can be established with the sense of being responsible for one's one life, and then an individual can acknowledge his connectedness to others.

The forth vector, establishing identity, involves an ability to develop a sense of self by clarifying physical needs, characteristics, and to have a stable self-image. In the next vector, development includes increased acceptance of differences between individuals and the capacity to have mature and intimate relationships. The interpersonal relationships can significantly develop in young adulthood, particularly in a college environment. In the sixth vector, the clarification of educational and career goals, assessment of interests, and life style preference involve. The final vector, developing integrity, involves the capacity to look objectively to situations and incorporate complexity into one's value judgments. It is also an ability to develop a sense of social and personal responsibility.

Cognitive Development Theories

Cognitive development theories are primarily based on Jean Piaget's model (1964). These theories emphasize specific aspects of student development such as intellectual and ethical development (Perry, 1970), or moral judgment (Kohlberg, 1971). In this perspective, development is seen as a sequence of irreversible stages by which individuals perceive and reason about their own world. Perry (1970) proposed nine positions, which can be combined into four broad descriptions of each position in intellectual development: Dualism (positions 1-2), multiplicity (positions 3-4), relativism (positions 5-6), and commitment in relativism (positions 7-9). Perry (1970) suggests that during the first two positions, students viewing the world dualistically use concrete categories to understand people, values, and knowledge. In multiplicity, students acknowledge multiple perspectives to a given situation or problem, but still feel that

questions simply have multiple answers. In the third category, relativism, students show the capacity for detachment and ability to think analytically. At the upper positions, students can make an affirmation of themselves and their responsibilities as well as establishing their self-identities in this process. The first half of the continuum (positions 1-5) emphasizes on intellectual development, whereas the second half (positions 6-9) is on moral, ethical, and identity development.

Psychosocial and cognitive developmental theories provide ways of describing college student development: Psychosocial theories describe what students are concerned about and what decisions are primary, while cognitive developmental theories suggest how students think about and what shifts in reasoning would occur.

Typology Models

Typology models focuses on individual differences in personality and learning styles (Kolb, 1976; Myers, 1980), as well as ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds (Cross, 1981). Typology models provide us an understanding of how institutional challenges and environmental factors can influence different types of students and how students can manage, delay, or progress through development based on their cognitive style or ethnic backgrounds (Knefelkamp, Widick, and Parker, 1978).

In the late 1980s, theories have expanded perspectives to explore the specific aspects of student development including learning styles, family backgrounds, and life experiences prior to college, decision-making, and involvement. Astin's (1985) involvement theory suggests that students learn best when they involve both physically and psychologically in an academic experience. Another approach to student

development is Tinto's (1987) theory of freshmen development. Tinto suggests that development occurs in three distinct stages: separation, transition, and incorporation. Separation begins during the last year of high school going towards a college education. In this stage, freshmen differentiate themselves from others in their past communities, homes, schools, and work places. The second stage, transition, bridges the old and the new experience. If the differences between the old and the new are extreme, freshmen encounter more difficulties in learning new norms, values, and behaviors. In the last stage, freshmen need to establish membership in both social and academic communities of college life.

Person-Environment Interaction Theories

Person-environment interaction theories focus on how environment can influence behavior through its interactions with characteristics of the individual (Banning, 1989). These theories also suggest that students can experience the same environment differently based on their own level of developments and there should be an optimum fit between people and their environment for growth and development.

Bronfenbrenner (1979) defines the concept of ecological transition. "An ecological transition occurs whenever a person's position in the ecological environment is altered as the result of a change in role, setting, or both" (p. 26). Some students find ways to make this transition constructively and adapt to college, whereas others feel overwhelmed and unable to effectively meet the demands of their new roles. If this transition is made successfully, then growth and development of the individual can be expected. Therefore, an unsuccessful transition is more likely to lead to stress and failure.

The general application of the concept of ecological transition to freshmen year adjustment has been suggested by Banning (1989). Banning (1989) argues that the impact a collegiate environment may have on freshmen is an ecological transition from their previous environment to the collegiate environment. Further, Banning (1989) states that: "If the sending environment is significantly different from the receiving environment of the college, the degree of stress will be higher and perhaps the likelihood of failure greater. On the other hand, if the receiving environment is nearly like the sending environment, then the ecological transition will be less, but so will the potential for growth and development." (p.57).

College Adjustment

College adjustment is defined as an individual's ability to cope effectively with the new college environment (Baker and Siryk, 1989), including the dimensions of social, academic, institutional, and personal adjustment (Baker and Siryk, 1986). Several researchers indicate that most of the common difficulties in social adjustment during the freshman year involve homesickness and loneliness (Fisher and Hood, 1988; Rich and Scovel, 1987). Further, a sense of competence seems to be an important dimension of social adjustment in a new academic environment. Janosik, Creamer, and Cross (1988) examined the relationship between the student-environment fit in residence halls and the sense of competence of freshman students. Social competence was more positive when students perceived their residence halls as providing high levels of emotional support, order, and organization, as well as low levels of competition.

Baker and Siryk (1989) indicate that motivation to learn, a clear sense of purpose, and general satisfaction with the academic environment are important elements of academic adjustment. Napoli and Wortman (1998) found that the more academically integrated students had higher academic achievement and initial goal commitment than students having difficulties in academic adjustment. Moreover, several researchers indicate that institutional commitment has a strong effect on adjustment to a college (Munro, 1981; Terenzini, Lorang, and Pascarella, 1981). In a longitudinal study investigating the development and coping structures of freshmen, Lokitz and Sprandel (1976) found that students are concerned with academic performance during their first semester, but move toward an interest in social concerns during their second semester.

For many first year college students, separation from parents is a challenging task that affects personal, social, and academic adjustment (Gerdes and Mallinckrodt, 1994). Berman and Sperling (1991) indicate that separation-individuation issues are particularly relevant during the first year of college, a time when many freshmen live away from home for the first time. Several researchers have recognized the potential associations between students' relationships with their parents and level of adjustment during the college years (Holmbeck and Leake, 1999; Kenny and Donaldson, 1991; Matthews, 1999; Rice, Cole and Lapsley, 1990; Wintre and Yaffe, 2000). Upcraft, Peterson, and Moore (1981) found that freshmen maintaining compatible relationships with their families are more likely to persist in college than those who do not. Kurdek and Fine (1994) indicated that the more warmth, supervision, and the less conflict that children experience in their families, the more positive their adjustment.

Residence Hall Designs

The important factors in residence hall settings can be discussed in two major categories: physical and social factors. Physical factors include the physical dimensions of a residence hall environment and the ambient conditions of a hall room, whereas social factors include the quality of social relations, the quantity of social contact, as well as the type of living arrangements and the type of room occupancy.

Physical Factors

Physical factors include the size, shape, color, height of a room, the type of view out a window, the furnishings whether the furniture is movable or build-in, the type of a corridor (e.g., suite vs. long-corridor type), the number of rooms located along a corridor, the building floor height, the location of vertical circulation, the location of bathrooms and lounges or other social gathering areas.

Each type of room has certain shape, dimension, furnishings, and ambient conditions, all of which affect human behavior (Heimstra and McFarling, 1974). The shape and size of any particular room are largely accepted as fixed because the physical dimensions of a room cannot be changed without considerable effort and expense. Therefore, researchers concentrate on manipulating other aspects such as color, ambient conditions, or the arrangement of furnishings.

Moreover, the quantity of space provided in a hall room is a matter not only of activity and movement but also of behavioral adjustment. Gifford (1987) indicates that too much space in height or length could give rise to the feelings of formality and may affect the quality of social relationships, whereas too little space could result in a sense of

being crowded. Further, Robinson (1998) states that physical aspects of residence hall design can support the development of social relations among residents, including the physical character of a corridor, the number of rooms located along a corridor, the placement of doors along a corridor, the location of vertical circulation, the location of bathrooms and lounges or other social spaces.

Many researchers investigated the relationships between the physical dimensions of a residence room and residents' satisfaction levels, preferences, and feelings about a hall room (Butler and Steuerwald, 1991; Mandel et al., 1980; Verderber, 1986). Verderber (1986) established that people preferred rooms with windows to rooms lacking a window. In addition, the type of view, whether it is natural or man-made, affects this preference (Butler and Steuerwald, 1991). Further, the rooms receiving more sunlight were perceived as less crowded than the rooms received less sunlight (Mandel et al., 1980; Schiffenbauer et al., 1977). Also, it has been found that residence hall rooms with more usable floor space and rooms on higher floors were perceived as larger, but not as less crowded (Schiffenbauer et al., 1977). Moreover, Schiffenbauer (1979) indicated that residents of higher floors felt less crowded than residents of lower floors did. This may be because views out the windows of higher-level dwellings provide more visual expanse or visual escape to the residents than do lower level windows. In a study of Turkish students living in residence halls, Kaya and Erkip (2001) also found that residents of higher floors perceived their rooms as larger and felt less crowded than residents of lower floors. They further indicated that when the room was perceived as larger and the resident's feeling of privacy in a room increased, the satisfaction with one's room was also increased.

Social Factors

Social factors involve social relations with other residents and with roommate, the frequency of contact with others, the type of room occupancy (e.g., double, triple or more), student assignment to residence halls based on gender or class level (e.g., single-sex, coeducational, freshmen housed with upperclassmen in a coed hall), as well as roommate assignment according to the matching criteria such as life-style or personality.

The frequency of contact is an important element in developing a network of social relations within an environment. Studies have shown that people who live close to the main entrance of an apartment building know more neighbors because they are more likely to come across to the other residents (Mehrabian, 1976). Heimstra and McFarling (1974) state that the location of lounge areas or bathroom facilities is an important determinant for social relations. In residence halls, the lounges are sometimes located at the far end of a corridor; hence their serious environmental handicaps are increased by their physical inaccessibility (Heimstra and McFarling, 1974). Further, Heimstra and McFarling (1974) indicate that bathroom facilities, which are commonly shared on a particular floor, tend to increase the possibility of social contact among residents.

However, when the number of occupants in a residence hall room increases, it may become difficult to regulate privacy. Therefore, the individual's sense of control can be affected by social density (Gifford, 1987). Thus, the type of occupancy might effect the satisfaction with a residence hall room. Glassman et al. (1978) demonstrated that students living in triple-occupancy room arrangements experienced greater interpersonal and environmental dissatisfaction, obtained lower grades, and requested more room changes than students living in double occupancy rooms.

Another important social factor is the assignment of residents based on their gender and class level. Typically, first year students at American colleges and universities are assigned to one of four housing types: single-sex arrangement, coed arrangement, freshmen housed with upperclassmen in a single-sex arrangement, and freshman men and women housed with upper-class men and women in a coeducational residence hall (Ballou, 1991). In Turkey, students are assigned to single-sex living arrangements because there are no coed halls.

Ballou (1986) and Null, Hull, and Menis (1982) examined how freshmen evaluate their hall social climates according to whether they live in coed, single-sex, all-freshmen, or freshmen-upperclassmen (mixed) residence halls. The findings indicate that freshman men, housed in single-sex arrangements, perceived their hall environments as less supportive and more competitive, whereas freshman women tend to perceive it as high in supportive and not competitive. Besides, the results of Ballou's (1986) study indicate that mixed-class men's halls were perceived as the lowest level of emotional support and the highest level of internal competitiveness among residents. On the other hand, the mixed-class women's halls were perceived as the highest level of emotional support and indicated a low level of internal competitiveness. However, when freshman men are mixed with women in coeducational arrangement, the men reported an increased emotional support, less competition, and a greater sense of influence (Ballou, 1986). In a study investigating the effects of living arrangements on the involvement of students in residence hall activities, Warner and Noftsinger (1994) demonstrated that coeducational halls foster more student involvement than single-sex male and female halls.

Upcraft (1989) proposes some strategies in freshmen assignment to residence halls such as assigning by academic major and academic ability, assigning to coed halls, assigning with upper-level students, eliminating crowded floors or buildings, assigning roommates according to the selected criteria (e.g., personality, life-style). Moreover, Moos (1988) indicates that assigning roommates according to the matching criteria such as life-style or personality can help to increase the likelihood of satisfaction with the residence hall environment.

In summary, the designers of public housing units are forced to use the space as economically as possible. This emphasis often results in a double loaded corridor, a straight hallway with rooms on both sides. This type of corridor is considered to be public space because residents must use it to reach their rooms. However, informal social interaction or unwanted social contact is unlikely to occur because of the traffic in this limited space. Another disadvantage of this type of corridor is the lack of physical boundaries to act as territorial markers for individuals.

In the present study, while choosing residence halls from Oklahoma State University and Bilkent University, room size, furniture arrangement, type of corridor (e.g., long corridor type), and type of room occupancy (e.g., double occupancy) were taken into consideration to control physical factors. Also, the social factors including the assignment of residents based on their gender (e.g., single-sex living arrangement) and to their roommates (e.g., knowing one's roommate before sharing the hall room vs. being assigned by the Department of Residential Life) were considered.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Chapter III presents the selection criteria of the residence halls at Oklahoma State University and Bilkent University and then gives a description of the selected residence halls. Further, it explains the sample and the sampling criteria, as well as the data collection procedure, the instrument, and the reliability of scales measuring the variables of interest in this study.

Selection of the Residence Halls

Both Oklahoma State University (OSU) and Bilkent University offer a variety of residence halls in terms of living arrangements and building configurations for student housing on campus. At Bilkent University, there are 18 residence hall buildings, all of which are single-sex halls, whereas there are five coeducational and five single-sex halls at OSU. To choose similar residence halls from each university, the following criteria were taken into consideration:

1. The residence halls having similar building configuration and architectural design were considered (e.g., long-corridor type, suite type).

2. Since the interested population in this study was freshmen, the halls housing the majority of freshman residents were considered.

3. The residence halls offering double occupancy room type were considered to examine social relationships between roommates and to control social density.

4. In Turkey, residence halls accommodate either men or women, in other words there are no coeducational living arrangements. Thus, the coed halls at OSU were eliminated to control the social factors resulting in different living arrangements.

Description of the Residence Halls

Based on the selection criteria, two residence halls from each university, one for men and the other for women, having similar design and plan configuration were chosen. OSU residence halls are designed as long-corridor with 32 double occupancy rooms located on each floor. The room size was 3.66 m by 4.42 m. Each room consisted of two twin-size beds, two desks, two chairs, and a built-in closet (see Appendix A). Bilkent residence hall buildings are also designed as long-corridor with 38 rooms located on each floor. The room measured 3.00 m by 3.40 m in size, which was slightly smaller than the rooms at OSU. Each room consisted of a bunk bed, a desk for two people to study, two chairs, and a wardrobe (see Appendix A). The furniture in the residence hall rooms at each university was movable so that the residents could arrange their rooms according to their own preferences. Therefore, the flexibility of furniture in the residence hall rooms was considered to be similar. Further, both universities' residence halls provide two bathroom areas, one toward each end of the corridor, which were shared by the residents on each floor.

However, there are some differences between OSU and Bilkent Universities' residence halls in terms of the location of lounge, the usage of vertical circulation, and

the number of floors. At OSU residence halls, the lounge was located at the center area on each floor, whereas at Bilkent residence halls, there were two lounges located one toward each end of the corridor on each floor. The second difference is the vertical circulation, maintained by the four elevators at the center area at OSU residence halls, while at Bilkent residence halls this is maintained by the central stairways. Absence of an elevator at Bilkent halls may not be as crucial as it is for OSU halls because of the number of floors. The Bilkent residence hall is a five-story building including the first floor comparing to OSU halls—12-story female residence hall and 14-story male residence hall. These differences were acknowledged for the description of building configurations and designs of residence halls.

Selection of the Sample

In this study, the population was defined as the total number of freshmen living in double occupancy rooms at the selected residence hall buildings from Oklahoma State University and Bilkent University during fall 2000. During the fall 2000, 734 freshmen (286 males and 448 females) lived in double occupancy rooms at the selected OSU residence halls, whereas at Bilkent University, the total number of freshmen was 569 (257 males and 312 females).

The sample was a random selection of freshmen living in double occupancy rooms at the selected residence halls. The random list of names and hall room numbers of freshmen were obtained from the Department of Residential Life at OSU and Bilkent University. The students having no roommates and who were not freshman, were excluded from this study. Further, since this is a cross-cultural study examining Turkish

and American (Caucasian) freshmen, the subcultural groups in the American population (e.g., Mexican-American, Afro-American, Asian American, Native-American students) were eliminated from the sampling frame prior to the selection process. In Turkey, minority sampling was not an issue as the population is homogeneous.

Data Collection

Sufficient time to settle into the college routine and physical setting was given for the first year students. The pilot study was conducted at each university to check the design procedure and to refine the questions. The fall 2000 semester started in the third week of August at Oklahoma State University. The data collection took place during the eighth week of the fall semester and completed within two weeks. Then, the survey was conducted at Bilkent University in Ankara, Turkey. The time schedule was planned accordingly since the fall semester started in the first week of October at Bilkent University, thus, the data collection took place during the last week of November and completed within two weeks.

The students were contacted individually by going door-to-door at residence hall rooms. The Freshman Residential Life Survey was administered in accordance with standard instructions (see Appendix B). During the initial contact the subjects were told the purpose of the study (see Appendix C). The participation was voluntary. The volunteered students were asked to read and sign the consent form prior to completing the survey (see Appendix D). For students who could not be reached during the first attempt, the investigator made other two attempts to reach them at a later time.

Instrument

The research instrument was developed to collect the necessary data for the variables of interest (see Appendix B). Some of the scales, most of which use a 5-point or 7-point rating scale were taken directly from previous instruments. Some other scales were adapted by making minor changes, while some items were specifically constructed for this study. The scales are discussed in the following section.

Background Information

Demographic variables were obtained: gender, age, the composition of family members living together in the same house, the number of residences in which a student lived with his/her family for at least one year prior to coming to college, the type of community lived in, as well as the type of the last living unit prior to coming to college and the features of living unit (e.g., the number of bedrooms and bathrooms). Further, the participants were asked if they knew their roommates before sharing the hall room. This questionnaire was also used to establish a student's bedroom sharing status during adolescence (shared his/her bedroom with other(s) vs. had his/her own bedroom). If shared, the number of people that a student has shared his/her bedroom with was asked.

Privacy Scale

This portion of the instrument assessed the following three proposed constructs: (a) desired and achieved levels of privacy, (b) use and effectiveness of privacy regulation mechanisms, and (c) the feelings of loneliness and crowdedness, as well as being solitude and being connected.

Desired and achieved levels of privacy. Harris (1994) measured the actual and desired levels of privacy by assessing the amount of interaction an individual wants to have and the amount of interaction an individual actually has with his/her family in their apartments. To assess the desired and achieved privacy, this scale was adapted by substituting "residence hall room" for "apartment". The participants were asked "how much privacy they want to have" and "how much they actually have" in their residence hall room on a 7-point rating scale from 1 = "none at all" to 7 = "a lot". Therefore, individuals responded according to their ideal and actual privacy needs. These two items have the same direction; the higher the score, the greater the level of desired and achieved privacy. The optimum level of privacy was assessed through the discrepancy score between the achieved and desired privacy levels. Predictions derived from the discrepancy scores between ideal and actual have generally received wide empirical support (Higgins et al., 1986; Higgins, 1987).

The use and effectiveness of privacy regulation mechanisms. Vinsel, Brown, Altman, and Foss (1980) developed the Social Contact Questionnaire, assessing the use and effectiveness of privacy regulation mechanisms. It consists of nine contact-seeking and nine contact-avoiding behaviors. This 18-item scale was taken directly from the Social Contact Questionnaire. The subjects responded on a 5-point rating scale indicating the use of privacy regulation mechanisms from 1 = "never" to 5 = "very often" (the higher the score, the more the mechanism was frequently used), and if used, the effectiveness of these mechanisms on a 5-point rating scale from 1 = "not at all" to 5 = "very effective" (the higher the score, the more effective the mechanism used).

The feelings of loneliness, crowdedness, being solitude, and being connected. Harris (1994) measured a variety of feelings that an individual would experience when he/she is at home. These are the feelings of loneliness (wanting more interaction with others), the feeling of being crowded (wanting less interaction with others), the feeling of being solitude (satisfied with time away from others), and the feeling of being connected (enjoying time together with others). This 4-item scale was adapted by substituting "residence hall room" for "home". Participants indicated how often they feel these emotions in a residence hall room on a 7-point rating scale from 1 = "never" to 7 = "very often". The lower the score, the less the feelings were experienced.

Territorial Behavior Scale

The degree of a student's territorial behavior was assessed through the Territorial Behavior Questionnaire, developed by Kaplan (1982). It measured two aspects of territorial behavior: the firmness of boundaries (the degree of exclusivity of use of personal belongings by an individual) and the personalization of the shared room (the degree to which an individual feels his/her room as personal and expressive of the self). High territorial behavior was associated with making exclusive use of one's desk, bed, or other features of the shared room (Kaplan, 1982). Participants responded on a 7-point rating scale from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree", or 1 = "never" to 7 = "very often". The items 2, 5, 6, 8, 11, 12, 13, and 16 were reverse scored. The higher the score, the more the degree of territorial behavior. The scores could range from 16 to 112.

Environmental Perception Scale

This scale examines how students perceive their residence hall rooms and their general opinions about the residence hall environment in regard to crowding. It was adapted from Kaplan's study (1982). The instrument included 10 semantic differential scales about the perception of the room (e.g., cramped-roomy), and 10 items assessing the opinions about living situation in the residence hall in regard to crowding on a 7-point rating scale from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree". The number of items was reduced from 10 to 6 items because some of these items were not of interest in this study (e.g., perception of dining area in regard to crowding) and others (e.g., rating the adequacy of desired privacy) overlapped with other items in different scales. The sixth item was reverse scored; the higher the score, the more an individual perceived the residence hall environment as being crowded.

Adjustment Scale

This 28-item scale is a blend of several instruments and was adapted to assess different dimensions of adjustment: social, academic, institutional, and personal. Pascarella and Terenzini (1980) developed an instrument measuring the various dimensions of social and academic integration and goal/institutional commitment. It consisted of five scales, namely, peer-group interactions, interactions with faculty, faculty concern for student development and teaching, academic and intellectual development, and institutional/goal commitments. The 34 items were scored on a 5-point rating scale from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree". The coefficient alphas for these scales ranged from .71 to .84. This instrument was considered to be a valid and reliable

measure and the results were supportive of the instrument's predictive validity (Terenzini, Lorang, and Pascarella, 1981).

The items 1 through 6 in the social adjustment scale, the items 8, 9, 10 in the academic adjustment scale, and the items 14 through 17 in the institutional adjustment scale were taken directly from Pascarella and Terenzini (1980). The item 18 in the institutional adjustment scale and the items 21 through 26 in the personal adjustment scale, were taken directly from the Satisfaction Scale, constructed by Vinsel, Brown, Altman, and Foss (1980). The items including 7, 11, 12, 13, 19, 20, 27, and 28 were developed for the present study. The items 3, 5, 12, 17, 20, 21, 23, 24, 27, and 28 were reverse scored; the higher the score, the better the adjustment.

Limitations of the Study

There are several limitations that must be considered if one attempts to generalize from the results of this study. First, the study was limited to a sample of freshmen living in double occupancy rooms at the selected residence halls from Oklahoma State University and Bilkent University. Therefore, it was not representative of freshmen living in residence halls at other institutions in the United States and in Turkey. Second, since this was a cross-cultural study, the variance in residence hall room size was inevitable. Generally, the hall rooms in Turkey are smaller in size than in the United States. Thus, this aspect was acknowledged as a limitation of this study. Third, since the design of this research was cross-sectional, the adjustment scores of students were limited to the obtained scores during the second month at a college. That is, it is unknown whether the student has dropped out or stayed in college after the first academic year.

Reliability of Measures

Cronbach's coefficient alpha was calculated for each of the scales and subscales used in the present study. The instrument was translated into Turkish for the Turkish sample (see Appendix B). Alphas were calculated separately for the American and Turkish sample. The coefficients are displayed in Table 1. The potential reason for low reliabilities of some scales might be due to the translation of the instrument. Therefore, these reliability coefficients may suggest that the Turkish instrument might have been back translated into English to obtain a higher internal consistency among the items.

Table 1. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients for the Reliabilities of Scales and Subscales

Measure	Number of Items	American sample	Turkish sample
The use and effectiveness of contact-seeking and avoiding behaviors	36	.92	.88
Territorial behavior	16	.71	.56
Total environmental perception	16	.80	.83
Environmental perception (a)	6	.73	.70
Environmental perception (b)	10	.77	.81
Total adjustment scale	28	.83	.83
Social adjustment	7	.35	.64
Academic adjustment	6	.73	.64
Institutional adjustment	7	.80	.75
Personal adjustment	8	.72	.70

CHAPTER IV

MANUSCRIPT I

PRIVACY REGULATION AND COLLEGE ADJUSTMENT: AMERICAN AND TURKISH FRESHMEN LIVING IN RESIDENCE HALLS

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PRIVACY REGULATION AND COLLEGE ADJUSTMENT: AMERICAN AND TURKISH FRESHMEN LIVING IN RESIDENCE HALLS

Abstract

This study investigates the importance of privacy regulation on college adjustment of American and Turkish freshmen living in residence halls. This study enhances our understanding of how students regulate their privacy in their residential settings from a behavioral and cultural perspective. Adjustment to college was assessed through social, academic, institutional, and personal dimensions. The total sample size was 408 students; 200 in the American sample and 208 in the Turkish sample. Privacy regulation was found to be important for social and personal adjustment to a college. The findings are important for residential staff at universities to identify potential problems of adjustment during the first months at a college.

Introduction

College transition presents not only stressful challenges but also stimulating opportunities for freshmen to accomplish intellectual and social tasks. Freshmen need a variety of coping skills to make this transition successfully to the college environment. For many first year college students, the university may be their first experience living away from home for an extended period of time. The ability to adjust to college is one of the major challenges.

Several researchers have indicated that the freshman year is viewed as critical in reducing attrition rates and keeping students in college (Fidler, 1991; Strumpf and Hunt, 1993). Students face several demands in the transition from high school to college (Napoli and Wortman, 1998; Pascarella and Terenzini, 1980). These demands include complex challenges in social, academic, institutional, and personal adjustment. Therefore, persistence in college necessitates a student to adjust both socially and intellectually to a new environment (Baker and Siryk, 1984). In a comprehensive study of the effects of college environment on students, Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) state that students living in a residence hall as opposed to off-campus can take advantage of increasing the possibilities of social involvement and persistence in college.

There is a large body of knowledge concerning the impact of the residence hall experience on college students (Upcraft, 1989; Gardner, 1991). Social relations between roommates and how students feel about themselves in their residential settings make a major difference in completing undergraduate studies. Double occupancy is a residence hall room type where two students share the same space. For students entering college for the first time, the companionship provided by one's roommate can make significant

contributions in reducing the feeling of loneliness. However, sharing the same room may lead to some tension and conflict, as well as it may limit privacy (Upcraft, 1989).

Privacy regulation is an optimizing process in which individuals are motivated to achieve their desired levels of privacy (Altman, 1975). In a study of first year college students living in residence halls, Vinsel, Brown, Altman, and Foss (1980) have found students who can effectively regulate their privacy by using contact-seeking or contact-avoiding behaviors are less likely to drop out by the end of the second year. Thus, the use and effectiveness of privacy regulation mechanisms were associated with better adjustment at the university. Further, Harris, Brown, and Werner (1996) have explored the relationship between privacy regulation and place attachment in the home. When privacy regulation is facilitated, family functioning and feelings of control are enhanced, which in turn increased the feelings of attachment to the home.

This study examines the importance of privacy regulation on college adjustment of American and Turkish freshmen living in double occupancy rooms at residence halls. The cultural differences in the use of behavioral mechanisms, including contact-seeking and contact-avoiding behaviors were investigated. The research was carried out by means of a survey at Oklahoma State University (OSU) in Stillwater, Oklahoma, U.S.A and at Bilkent University in Ankara, Turkey.

Literature Review

College Adjustment

Social adjustment is one of the dimensions in predicting college persistence (Mallinckrodt, 1988). Important elements of social adjustment include becoming

integrated into the social life of college, managing new social freedoms and forming a social network, as well as receiving emotional support and having a sense of competence (Janosik, Creamer, and Cross, 1988). In a residence hall setting, Barthelemy and Fine (1995) found that social conflict was negatively correlated to social adjustment for both male and female students.

Personal adjustment can be manifested as psychological distress, anxiety, or low self-esteem (Lee, 1998; Pappas and Loring, 1985; Sherer, 1985). Hesse-Biber and Marino (1991) stated that males tend to fare better than females in terms of self-image. Females adapt less quickly than males, experience personal-emotional adjustment difficulties (Jackson, 1998; Stewart et al., 1986) and more stress and psychological disturbance than males after entering college (Alfeld-Liro and Sigelman, 1998; Fisher and Hood, 1988). Hesse-Biber and Marino (1991) suggested that this may be because females are more susceptible to psychological disturbance during the college transition. Further, Napoli and Wortman (1998) indicated that students having high self-esteem had better personal-emotional adjustment. Moreover, some of the most common difficulties in adjustment during the freshman year involve homesickness and loneliness (Fisher and Hood, 1988; Rich and Scovel, 1987). Therefore, one dimension of residence halls that has been identified as important for positive development is the degree to which residence halls are perceived as supportive and involving (Chickering, 1969).

Several studies recognized the potential influences of separation from parents on personal, social, and academic adjustment (Gerdes and Mallinckrodt, 1994; Holmbeck and Leake, 1999; Kenny and Donaldson, 1991; Matthews, 1999; Rice, Cole and Lapsley, 1990; Wintre and Yaffe, 2000), because separation-individuation issues are particularly

relevant during the first year of college—a time when many freshmen live away from home for the first time (Berman and Sperling, 1991). Upcraft, Peterson, and Moore (1981) stated that freshmen maintaining compatible relationships with their families are more likely to persist in college than those who do not. Kurdek and Fine (1994) showed that the more warmth, supervision, and the less conflict that an individual experiences in his/her family, the more positive his/her adjustment. In a study investigating family relationships, Holmbeck and Wandrei (1993) also showed that for both male and female freshmen, positive family relationships increased the likelihood of adjustment. It has been further indicated that females who experienced adjustment problems had developed strong bonds to others, hence exhibited high levels of separation anxiety. Males who did not adjust to college showed that they were more disconnected from others.

Factors Influencing Desired Privacy

According to Altman's (1975) formulation of privacy regulation process, each individual desires a certain level of privacy, which can be influenced by personal, cultural, social, and physical factors. Kline and Bell (1983) found gender differences in the levels of privacy preference of college students such that females have higher preference for privacy than males. Idehen (1997) examined how privacy preference differs for male and female students. Results showed that females express more awareness for privacy in the use of personal time, the information conveyed, and the use of personal property.

A preference for a certain level of privacy not only depends on individual factors but also on the cultural context. Altman (1977) states that privacy as a regulatory process

of social interaction is a phenomenon that is both culturally universal and culturally specific. Thus, the desire for privacy may be universal but its manifestations vary considerably from culture to culture (Altman and Chemers, 1980).

Several investigators indicate that the physical factors can also lead an individual to have greater or less privacy preferences (Gifford, 1987; Harrison, 1994). Gifford (1987) mentions that in some physical settings, an individual may desire more privacy and expect that one can somehow obtain it, while in other settings an individual may desire more social contact with others, and find ways to obtain that necessary interaction. Among hall residents, high desire for privacy was associated with the perception of residence hall space as inadequate and dissatisfaction with the amount of privacy in the residence hall (Harrison, 1994). Residents having higher privacy demands preferred living in a house or in an apartment to living in a residence hall.

This study advances previous literature in several ways. Although many studies have investigated freshmen's college adjustment from social contexts, few have assessed the importance of privacy regulation in residential settings on college adjustment. Further, there is a clear lack of knowledge on cultural differences in privacy regulation and college adjustment. This study is based on the privacy regulation model proposed by Altman (1975). The model defines privacy as "a selective control of access to the self or to one's group" and as a process that includes both the opening and closing of the self to others (p. 18).

When an individual's achieved privacy equals what he/she desires, an optimum state of privacy occurs. The individual experiences a sense of solitude when he/she wants to be alone or a sense of connection when he/she wants to be with others. However, when

the achieved privacy level is greater than the desired privacy level, an individual feels isolated. On the other hand, if the achieved privacy level is less than the desired privacy level, an individual feels crowded. When these two levels are disparate, attempts will be make to resolve the discrepancy. In each case, an individual employs behavioral mechanisms to regulate contact with others. Based on the discrepancy scores between the achieved and desired privacy levels, students were divided into three groups: crowded, isolated and optimum. The specific objectives of this study were to:

1. (a) Determine whether the number of contact-seeking behaviors used by American and Turkish male and female freshmen differed among crowded, optimum, and isolated students.

   (b) Determine whether the number of contact-avoiding behaviors used by American and Turkish male and female freshmen differed among crowded, optimum, and isolated students.

2. Examine whether the adjustment scores differed between American and Turkish freshmen among crowded, optimum, and isolated students.

Method

Description of the Residence Hall Rooms

Two residence halls from Oklahoma State University (OSU) and Bilkent University, one for men and the other for women, having similar design and plan configuration (long-corridor with double occupancy rooms located on each floor) were chosen. At OSU residence halls, the room size was 3.66 m by 4.42 m. Each room consisted of two twin-size beds, two desks, two chairs, and a built-in closet. At Bilkent

University residence halls, the room measured 3.00 m by 3.40 m in size, which was slightly smaller than the rooms at OSU. Each room consisted of a bunk bed, a desk for two people to study, two chairs, and a wardrobe. The furniture in hall rooms at each university was movable so the residents could arrange their rooms according to their own preferences. Therefore, the flexibility of furniture in hall rooms was fairly similar.

Procedure

Before assessing students' adjustment, sufficient time to settle into the college routine and physical environment was given for freshmen at OSU and Bilkent University. The data collection was started during the eighth week of the fall 2000 semester and was completed within two weeks at each university. The questionnaire was administered to students in their residence hall rooms. During the initial contact students were told the purpose of the study. The participation was voluntary. The volunteered students read and signed the consent form prior to completing the questionnaire. For the residents who were out of their rooms during the initial contact, attempts to reach them were made on two other days.

Sample

The population was defined as the total number of freshmen living in double occupancy rooms at the selected residence halls during fall 2000. Since this was a cross-cultural study examining Turkish and American (Caucasian) freshmen, the subcultural groups in the American population (e.g., Mexican-American, Afro-American, Native-

American) were eliminated from the sampling frame. In Turkey, minority sampling was not an issue as the population is homogeneous.

Of 734 freshmen living in the selected residence halls at OSU, 286 residents were males and 448 were females. To represent the American population, a random list of 119 males and 161 females were obtained form the Department of Residential Life. Of the 280 sampled residents, 5% refused to participate, 4.6% did not return the questionnaire, and the researcher was unable to contact 19% of the residents after three attempts. The final American sample of 200 residents gathered, including 95 males and 105 females.

At Bilkent selected residence halls, 569 freshmen lived in double occupancy rooms (257 males and 312 females). A random list of 110 males and 124 females were obtained form the Department of Residential Life to represent the Turkish population. Of the 234 sampled residents, about 2% refused to participate, 3% did not return the survey, and the researcher was unable to contact 6.4% of the residents after three attempts. The Turkish sample consisted of 208 residents, including 100 male and 108 female freshmen. The mean age of the American sample was 18.41 with a range of 17 to 22, similar to the Turkish sample (M=18.32 with a range of 17 to 23).

Instrument

Several different scales were used to collect the necessary data for the variables of interest under this study. The questionnaire was translated into Turkish for the Turkish sample. The scales measuring each of the variables are discussed in the following section.

Privacy Scale. This portion of the questionnaire assesses the following constructs: (a) desired and achieved levels of privacy, and (b) use and effectiveness of privacy regulation mechanisms.

(a) Desired and achieved levels of privacy. Harris (1994) measured the achieved and desired levels of privacy, assessing the amount of interaction an individual wants to have and the amount of interaction an individual actually has with his/her family in their apartments. This scale was adapted by substituting "residence hall room" for "apartment". Participants were asked to indicate, "how much privacy they want to have" and "how much privacy they actually have" in their hall rooms on a 7-point rating scale from 1 = "none at all" to 7 = "a lot". Predictions derived from the discrepancy scores between ideal and actual have generally received wide empirical support (Higgins, 1987).

(b) The use and effectiveness of privacy regulation mechanisms. Vinsel, Brown, Altman, and Foss (1980) developed the Social Contact Questionnaire, which measures the use and effectiveness of privacy regulation mechanisms. This scale consisted of nine contact-seeking and nine contact-avoiding behaviors that the students used in their residence halls. Participants responded on a 5-point rating scale indicating the use of these behaviors from 1 = "never" to 5 = "very often" (the higher the score, the more the behavior was frequently used), and if used, the effectiveness of these behaviors on a 5-point rating scale from 1 = "not at all" to 5 = "very effective" (the higher the score, the more effective the behavior used).

Adjustment Scale. This scale was used to assess social, academic, institutional, and personal adjustment. Pascarella and Terenzini (1980) developed an instrument measuring the various dimensions of social and academic integration and

goal/institutional commitment. The items measuring the social adjustment, such as "I have developed close personal relationships with other students", "It has been difficult for me to meet and make friends", the items assessing the academic adjustment, such as "I am satisfied with my academic experience at this university", "My academic experience has had a positive influence on my intellectual growth and interest in ideas", and the items measuring the institutional adjustment, such as "I am confident that I made the right decision in choosing to attend this university", "It is likely that I will register at this university next fall" were taken directly from Pascarella and Terenzini (1980). The items measuring the personal adjustment, such as "I often feel alone at the university", "I feel like the residence hall is home now", "It is not easy to take responsibility for myself" were taken directly from the Satisfaction Scale, constructed by Vinsel, Brown, Altman, and Foss (1980). Participants responded to a total of 28 items on a 7-point rating scale from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree". The higher the score, the better the adjustment.

Results

Reliability of Measures

Cronbach's alpha coefficients were computed to test reliability of the scales for the American and Turkish sample separately. For the American sample, the reliability coefficient for the use and effectiveness of privacy regulation mechanisms scale was .92, and for the Turkish sample the reliability coefficient was .88. The reliability coefficient of the adjustment scale was .83 for the American and Turkish sample, indicating high internal consistency among the items.

Preliminary Analyses

The use of contact-seeking and avoiding behaviors. Independent samples t-test was used to examine whether American and Turkish students differed in the use of contact-seeking and contact-avoiding behaviors. It was assumed that the scores were normally distributed and had equal variances between the two samples. Table 2 presents the means and standard deviations on the use of contact-seeking and avoiding behaviors. Among the contact-seeking behaviors, opening the door to one's room [t (388) = 12.90, p = .000], going to a hall lounge [t (406) = 2.24, $p < .05$], going to other places where people were around [t (406) = -8.09, p = .000], visiting others' rooms [t (406) = -4.82, p = .000], using loud music to attract people [t (324) = 5.49, p = .000], and using the bathroom at a busy time [t (332) = 2.46, $p < .05$] were significantly different between American and Turkish students. Inspection of the two group means (see Table 2) indicates that opening the door to one's room, going to a hall lounge, using loud music to attract people, and using the bathroom at a busy time were used significantly more often by the American students than the Turkish students. On the other hand, the average use of going to other places where people were around and visiting others' rooms indicated by the Turkish students was significantly more frequent than the use indicated by the American students. The similar contact-seeking behaviors for these two samples were phoning someone, studying in a busy place, and inviting others to one's room.

Among the contact-avoiding behaviors, closing the door to one's room [t (382) = 2.67, $p < .01$], finding a quiet place to study [t (404) = -3.08, $p < .01$], arranging the room for privacy [t (383) = -6.16, p = .000], tuning out noise to study, [t (406) = -2.98, $p < .01$], playing loud music to shut out distractions [t (403) = 2.33, $p < .05$], going for a walk

alone [t (403) = -4.74, p = .000], using the bathroom at a quiet time [t (402) = -16.16, p = .000], getting ready for bed in the bathroom when there were others in the room [t (398) = -3.06, p < .01] were significantly different between American and Turkish students. Inspection of the two group means (see Table 2) indicates that the average use of closing door to one's room and playing loud music to shut out distractions indicated by the American students was significantly more than the use indicated by the Turkish students. On the other hand, the average use of finding a quiet place to study, arranging room for privacy, tuning out noise to study, going for a walk alone, using the bathroom at a quiet time, and getting ready for bed in the bathroom when there were others in the room for the Turkish students was significantly more than the use indicated by the American students. The similar contact-avoiding behavior for these two samples was to learn sleep/study with others in a residence hall room.

The effectiveness of contact-seeking and avoiding behaviors. Independent samples t-test was used to examine whether the effectiveness of the contact-seeking and avoiding behaviors differed between the American and Turkish sample. Since the respondents were asked to indicate the effectiveness of each behavior they used, the n size differed for each item. Table 3 presents the means and standard deviations on the effectiveness of contact-seeking and contact-avoiding behaviors. Among the contact-seeking behaviors, the effectiveness of opening the door to one's room [t (233) = 3.16, p < .01], going to other places where people were around [t (347) = -2.61, p < .01], phoning someone [t (371) = 1.99, p < .05], and using loud music to attract people [t (97) = 2.17, p < .05] was significantly different between American and Turkish students. Inspection of the two group means (see Table 3) indicates that the average effectiveness of opening the

door to one's room, phoning someone, and using loud music to attract people indicated by the American students was significantly higher than the effectiveness for these behaviors indicated by the Turkish students. On the other hand, the average effectiveness of going to other places where people were around for the Turkish students was significantly higher than for the American students. The same effective contact-seeking behaviors indicated by these two samples were to go to a lounge, to study at a place where people were around, to visit others' rooms, to use the bathroom at a busy time, and to invite others to one's room.

Among the contact-avoiding behaviors, the effectiveness of arranging the room for privacy [t (195) = -2.04, $p < .05$], tuning out noise to study, [t (343) = -3.03, $p < .05$], and using the bathroom at a quiet time [t (402) = -16.16, $p = .000$] was significantly different between American and Turkish students. Inspection of the two group means (see Table 3) indicates that the average effectiveness of arranging the room for privacy, tuning out noise to study, and using the bathroom at a quiet time indicated by the American students was significantly less than the effectiveness indicated by the Turkish students. On the other hand, the average effectiveness of closing door to one's room, finding a quiet place to study, playing loud music to shut out distractions, going for a walk alone, getting ready for bed in the bathroom when there were others in the room, and learning to sleep/study with others in the room did not show any significant differences between these two samples.

Crowded, isolated, and optimum groups. The students were divided into three groups based on their discrepancy scores. For example, if a student's achieved privacy score was 5 and his/her desired privacy score was 7, then the discrepancy score would be

–2, indicating an inadequacy in the individual's privacy level (crowded). On the other hand, if the achieved privacy score was 7 and the desired privacy score was 2, then the discrepancy score would be +5, indicating an excessive level of privacy (isolated). Third, if the achieved privacy level was equal to the desired level—then the discrepancy score would be 0, indicating an optimum state.

Differences in the Number of Contact-seeking and Contact-avoiding Behaviors

Participants were asked to indicate the use of behavioral mechanisms; contact-seeking and contact-avoiding behaviors when they want to be with others and when they want to be alone, respectively. These mechanisms were considered as conceptually separate constructs and were independent from each other. Two composite measures; the number of contact-seeking and the number of contact-avoiding behaviors were calculated by summing up the total number of behaviors for each subject. The number of contact-seeking and contact-avoiding behaviors could range from 0 = "none of the behaviors used" to 9 = "all of the behaviors used". The correlation between these two measures was fairly weak ($r = .248$, $p = .01$). About 6.2 percent of the variance in one of these measures can be accounted for by the other. Table 4 presents the distribution of the number of contact-seeking and contact-avoiding behaviors in the American and Turkish sample.

To determine whether the number of contact-seeking behaviors used by American and Turkish male and female freshmen differed among the three groups (crowded, optimum, and isolated), $2 \times 2 \times 3$ ANOVA was calculated. The independent variables were culture (American and Turkish), gender (male and female), and groups based on discrepancy scores between achieved and desired privacy levels (crowded, optimum, and

isolated). The dependent variable was the number of contact-seeking behaviors. Based on the results, there was no significant three-way interaction. A significant two-way interaction between culture and group was found [F (2, 396) = 3.042, $p < .05$]. The main effect of culture was also significant [F (1, 396) = 17.03, $p < .001$], but there were no group [F (2, 396) = .305, $p > .05$] and gender [F (1, 396) = .939, $p > .05$] main effects. The effect of culture differentially influenced the number of contact-seeking behaviors across the three groups. American and Turkish students significantly differed in the number of contact-seeking behaviors across these three groups. Tukey's test for post-hoc analysis indicated that the students in the optimum category appeared to have a significant difference in the number of contact-seeking behaviors between the American and Turkish sample ($p = .000$). However, there were no significant differences in the number of contact-seeking behaviors for the students in crowded ($p > .05$) and isolated category ($p > .05$) between the two samples. The number of contact-seeking behaviors used by the optimum students in the American sample ($M = 6.50$, $SD = 1.68$) was more than the number of behaviors used by the optimum students in the Turkish sample ($M = 5.16$, $SD = 1.34$). Regardless of student categories, Americans ($M = 6.22$, $SD = 1.74$) exhibited more contact-seeking behaviors than Turkish students ($M = 5.53$, $SD = 1.43$).

$2 \times 2 \times 3$ ANOVA was run to determine whether the number of contact-avoiding behaviors used by American and Turkish male and female freshmen differed among the three groups (crowded, optimum, and isolated). There was neither significant three-way interaction nor two-way interaction effect. Also, there was no group [F (2, 396) = 1.94, $p > .05$] and gender main effect [F (1, 396) = .236, $p > .05$]. However, a significant main effect for culture was found [F (1, 396) = 22.35, $p < .001$]. The number of contact-

avoiding behaviors was found to be significantly different for the American (M = 5.84, SD = 1.86) and Turkish (M = 6.60, SD = 1.71) students. Turkish students exhibited more contact-avoiding behaviors than American students.

Differences in College Adjustment

To examine whether adjustment scores differed between American and Turkish freshmen among the three groups, five 2 × 3 ANOVAs were computed. The independent variables were culture (American and Turkish) and groups based on discrepancy scores between achieved and desired privacy levels (crowded, optimum, and isolated). The dependent variables were the total adjustment score, the social adjustment score, the academic adjustment score, the institutional adjustment score, and the personal adjustment score, respectively.

First, the differences in the total adjustment scores between American and Turkish freshmen among the three groups were examined. There was no significant culture and group interaction effect [F (2, 402) = 1.16, $p > .05$]. Also, there is no culture main effect [F (1, 402) = 3.12, $p > .05$], indicating that cultures did not show any significant differences in the total adjustment scores. However, a significant main effect for groups was found [F (2, 402) = 4.47, $p < .05$]. To examine the group differences, Tukey's test for post-hoc analysis was run. A significant difference was found in the total adjustment score of the crowded students and the scores of the optimum ($p < .05$) and the isolated students ($p < .05$). The mean of total adjustment score for the crowded students (M = 136.16, SD = 19.58) was lower than the scores for both the isolated (M = 140.98, SD = 21.82) and the optimum students (M = 141.15, SD = 20.39).

Second, the differences in the social adjustment scores between American and Turkish freshmen among the three groups were investigated. There was no significant culture and group interaction effect [F (2, 402) = .524, p > .05]. However, significant main effects were found for culture [F (1, 402) = 10.57, p = .001] and for groups [F (2, 402) = 5.12, p < .01]. Turkish students (M = 34.23, SD = 7.00) had a higher social adjustment scores than American students (M = 31.66, SD = 5.42). To understand where the group differences were, Tukey's test for post-hoc analysis was run. The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the social adjustment scores of the crowded students and the scores of the isolated (p < .01) and optimum students (p = .001). The crowded students had a lower mean of social adjustment score (M = 31.69, SD = 6.06) than the isolated (M = 34.13, SD = 7.11) and the optimum students (M = 34.41, SD = 6.04).

Third, 2 × 3 ANOVA was run to compare the academic adjustment scores among the three groups between American and Turkish students. However, no significant culture and group interaction effect was found [F (2, 402) = .863, p > .05]. Also, there were no main effects for culture [F (1, 402) = .074, p > .05] and group [F (2, 402) = .756, p > .05]. To compare students' institutional adjustment scores among the three groups between American and Turkish students, 2 × 3 ANOVA was calculated. However, no significant culture and group interaction effect was found [F (2, 402) = .403, p > .05]. Also, there were no main effects for culture [F (1, 402) = 1.86, p > .05] and group [F (2, 402) = .581, p > .05].

Finally, the differences in the personal adjustment scores between American and Turkish freshmen among the three groups were examined. There was no significant two-

way interaction between culture and group [F (2, 402) = 1.02, p > .05]. However, there was a significant culture main effect [F (1, 402) = 32.36, p = .000], indicating that cultures show significant differences in personal adjustment. American students have a higher personal adjustment score (M = 38.87, SD = 7.96) than Turkish students (M = 34.18, SD = 8.88). A significant main effect for groups was also found [F (2, 402) = 6.25, p < .01]. To understand where the group differences were, Tukey's test for post-hoc analysis was run. There was a statistically significant difference between the personal adjustment scores of the crowded students and the scores of the isolated (p < .01) and the optimum students (p = .001). The mean of personal adjustment score for the crowded students (M = 35.75, SD = 8.84) was lower than the means of personal adjustment scores for both the isolated (M = 36.70, SD = 9.14) and the optimum students (M = 37.61, SD = 8.23).

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the importance of privacy regulation on college adjustment of American and Turkish freshmen living in double occupancy rooms at residence halls. Possible indicators of adjustment, such as individual opinions about college life, the quality of social relationships with friends and roommates, as well as personal feelings about the physical environment and one's academic experience were examined. The information provided by this study is useful in understanding how privacy regulation in residence halls can ease students' adjustment to a college environment. This study provides strong evidence that students who feel crowded in their residence hall rooms tend to have poorer social and personal adjustment. Thus, privacy regulation was found to be important for the social and personal dimensions of college adjustment.

Similarly, the results of this study, which indicate that students who are capable of the regulation of their privacy by using contact-seeking or contact-avoiding behaviors have better adjustment patterns, support Vinsel et. al's (1980) findings.

Further, this study investigated the differences in behavioral mechanisms used by American and Turkish male and female students to either gain social contact or avoid social interaction with others. Behavioral mechanisms included the contact-seeking and contact-avoiding behaviors that students use in their residential settings. Results of this research support Altman's privacy regulation model (1975,1977), indicating that there are cultural differences in how individuals utilize privacy mechanisms to regulate their social contact with others. The findings of this study showed significant cultural differences in behavioral mechanisms exhibited by the American and Turkish students when they want to be with others and when they want to be alone. Students in both cultures used a variety of behaviors to seek and avoid social contact with others. For seeking contact, the shared behaviors indicated by the American and Turkish students were phoning someone, inviting others to one's room, and studying in a place where others were present. On the other hand, American students indicated the usage of contact-seeking behaviors such as: opening the door to one's room, going to a hall lounge, using loud music to attract people, or using the bathroom at a busy time more favorably than Turkish students. However, Turkish students exhibit significant different contact-seeking behaviors such as, going to other places where people were around within the residence hall and visiting others' rooms. To avoid social contact, American students prefer to shut the door to their rooms and play loud music to shut out distractions compared to Turkish students who

prefer to tune out noise and find a quiet place to study, go for a walk alone, or use the bathroom at a quiet time.

Another important finding of this study was that there were significant cultural differences in adjustment to college. American students reported better personal adjustment scores than Turkish students, while Turkish students had better social adjustment scores than American students. Results showed that American freshmen had more difficulties in becoming integrated into the social life of college, receiving emotional support from their peers, as well as managing new social freedoms and forming a social network. On the other hand, Turkish freshmen were better able to create a support network, enabling them to have a better social adjustment. However, personal adjustment difficulties occurred for Turkish freshmen. They often felt alone, got homesick, as well as felt nervous and tense. These different patterns in college adjustment can be explained by the usage of behavioral mechanisms in order to regulate their privacy. When Turkish students want to be with others, they tend to use more direct behaviors such as visiting others' rooms or going to places where they can be with their friends. American students, on the other hand, tend to exhibit more indirect behaviors in seeking contact such as opening the door to their rooms or using loud music to attract others, which may in turn explain their social adjustment difficulties.

The findings also showed that Turkish freshmen had problems in personal adjustment, which can be explained by the preferences in contact-avoiding behaviors that they chose (e.g., prefer to go walk alone, use bathroom at a quiet time). Another potential reason for adjustment differences could be explained by the dissimilarity in the accessibility to home environment within the sample of American and Turkish freshmen.

American students generally visit their families during weekends and they can commute easily because of opportunities (e.g., having cars, living in a closer proximity to this particular university). On the other hand, Turkish students, who most of the time had to stay in residence halls, cannot visit their families frequently due to transportation and geographical location (e.g., few have cars, live a further distance from college). As a result, they may have chosen and found ways to adjust themselves to their social environments and have developed close personal relationships with their friends at college. Even with the potential close relationships, Turkish students got homesick. Future research focusing on the importance of accessibility to home and perceived distance from home in relation to adjustment problems of the Turkish and American first year college students could shed even more light into this area.

There are certain limitations to the present study that should be taken into consideration while interpreting the findings. First, the study was conducted at Oklahoma State University and Bilkent University and the sample was limited to those freshmen living in double occupancy rooms at the selected residence halls at each university. Hence, the results do not necessarily represent American and Turkish students living in residence halls at other institutions. Therefore, it is recommended that future research include students at other Turkish and American institutions in order to better represent the population and generalizability of the results into these two cultures. Further, several researchers have recognized the influence of separation from families on social and personal adjustment, particularly important for the first year college students (Holmbeck and Leake, 1999; Holmbeck and Wandrei; 1993; Matthews, 1999). Thus, there may be some variations in freshmen adjustment patterns due to their family relationships, which

have not been investigated in the present study. Examination of family support and family relationships as possible indicators of successful social and personal adjustment of American and Turkish first year college students is a path that merits further research.

Another limitation occurred due to the nature of this research. Since the design of this study was cross-sectional, the findings were limited only to the adjustment problems occurring during the first months at a college. Therefore, it is unknown whether a student dropped out or stayed in college after the first academic year. It would be beneficial to follow-up on the students at the end of their second semester or during their sophomore year to examine continuing retention rates. Future research could be longitudinal and qualitative to present a more comprehensive explanation concerning cultural differences in student adjustment.

Although the generalizability of the findings is limited to those freshmen living in residence halls at Oklahoma State University and Bilkent University, the results obtained from this cross-cultural research introduce a new perspective to the literature. It provides insights about the importance of privacy regulation in residence hall environments on student's college adjustment. The findings of this research suggest important implications for housing administrators, counselors, students, practitioners, and designers. Information regarding potential problems of freshmen adjustment during the first months at a college could be useful for residential life staff and professionals in related organizations at universities. There is clear evidence in the literature that residence halls can have a positive impact on college adjustment and student retention (Upcraft, 1989). Since living in a residence hall can increase students' motivation to complete their education, residential life staff could benefit from the insights this study provides. Intervention

programs could be developed to train resident counselors to help with students who experience difficulties in the transition to college. Housing administrators and residential life staff might consider implementing programs to assist the student's transition to a college environment. These developmental programs could be formed to train students about privacy regulation in residence rooms. Students can be informed about ways in which they can regulate their privacy effectively and how they can enhance social contact or avoid unwanted social interaction in their residential settings. This information could be presented in formal and informal seminars, or by booklets and newspapers distributed by the Department of Residential Life. Programs that assist students with adjustments to campus life and interpersonal relationships benefit residential life staff by reducing the number of roommate conflicts and increasing university retention.

In summary, this study presents a theoretical explanation of the importance of privacy regulation as it pertains to college adjustment. Based on the data gathered, the next steps would be to propose design implications for residence halls and to provide solutions to regulate privacy in residence rooms, thereby easing the adjustment of students.

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Table 2. Means and Standard Deviations on the Use of Contact-Seeking and Contact-Avoiding Behaviors for the American and Turkish Sample

	American sample (N = 200)		Turkish sample (N = 208)	
Contact-seeking behaviors	M†	SD	M	SD
Open door to room***	3.10	1.26	1.62	1.06
Go to hall lounge**	2.11	1.19	1.86	1.06
Go to other place***	2.87	1.18	3.80	1.12
Phone someone	3.79	1.23	3.91	1.15
Study in busy place	2.01	1.12	1.94	1.08
Visit others' rooms***	3.04	1.26	3.61	1.13
Turn on music to attract people***	1.64	1.00	1.19	0.60
Use bathroom at a busy time*	1.39	.85	1.21	0.53
Invite people to one's room	3.19	1.18	3.39	1.10
Contact-avoiding behaviors	M	SD	M	SD
Shut door to room**	4.26	1.03	3.94	1.39
Find a quiet place**	2.76	1.34	3.19	1.49
Arrange room for privacy***	1.86	1.14	2.68	1.52
Tune out noise to study**	3.30	1.39	3.69	1.31
Play loud music to shut out distractions*	2.47	1.47	2.14	1.40
Go for a walk alone***	2.06	1.19	2.66	1.35
Use bathroom at a quiet time***	1.80	1.20	3.87	1.38
Get ready for bed in the bathroom if there are others in the room**	1.86	1.18	2.25	1.41
Learn to sleep/study with others in the room	2.93	1.29	2.81	1.53

* Indicates significance at $p < .05$
** Indicates significance at $p < .01$
*** Indicates significance at $p = .000$
† Scores could range from 1 = "never" to 5 = "very often".

Table 3. Means and Standard Deviations on the Effectiveness of Contact-Seeking and Contact-Avoiding Behaviors for the American and Turkish Sample

	American sample (N = 200)			Turkish sample (N = 208)		
Contact-seeking behaviors	n	M†	SD	n	M	SD
Open door to room**	171	3.44	1.15	64	2.91	1.19
Go to hall lounge	117	3.24	1.20	97	2.95	1.16
Go to other place**	161	3.68	.98	188	3.97	1.04
Phone someone*	183	4.25	.86	190	4.05	1.00
Study in busy place	110	2.88	.96	106	2.78	1.17
Visit others' rooms	167	3.68	1.02	191	3.90	1.07
Turn on music to attract people*	74	2.81	1.02	25	2.28	1.17
Use bathroom at a busy time	42	3.00	1.21	30	2.47	1.14
Invite people to one's room	181	3.75	1.05	187	3.66	1.16
Contact-avoiding behaviors	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Shut door to room	190	3.86	1.13	173	3.73	1.29
Find a quiet place	144	3.56	1.06	153	3.54	1.19
Arrange room for privacy*	85	3.02	1.12	130	3.36	1.28
Tune out noise to study**	165	3.32	1.27	180	3.73	1.25
Play loud music to shut out distractions	111	3.53	1.12	106	3.41	1.34
Go for a walk alone	108	3.47	1.11	147	3.53	1.26
Use bathroom at a quiet time***	79	3.13	1.15	174	3.94	1.17
Get ready for bed in the bathroom if there are others in the room	83	3.00	1.02	106	3.24	1.14
Learn to sleep/study with others in the room	158	3.06	1.15	139	3.32	1.28

* Indicates significance at $p < .05$
** Indicates significance at $p < .01$
*** Indicates significance at $p = .000$
† Scores could range from 1 = "not effective" to 5 = "very effective".

Table 4. The Frequency of the Number of Contact-Seeking and Contact-Avoiding Behaviors in the American and Turkish Sample

American sample

Number of contact seeking behaviors	n	%	Number of contact avoiding behaviors	n	%
1	2	1.0	0	1	0.5
2	4	2.0	2	4	2.0
3	13	6.5	3	16	8.0
4	13	6.5	4	34	17.0
5	23	11.5	5	28	14.0
6	47	23.5	6	43	21.5
7	50	25.0	7	34	17.0
8	35	17.5	8	21	10.5
9	13	6.5	9	19	9.5
Total	200	100.0	Total	200	100.0

Turkish sample

Number of contact seeking behaviors	n	%	Number of contact avoiding behaviors	n	%
2	1	0.5	0	1	0.5
3	11	5.3	1	1	0.5
4	37	17.8	2	2	1.0
5	64	30.8	3	5	2.4
6	42	20.2	4	13	6.3
7	36	17.3	5	26	12.5
8	9	4.3	6	47	22.6
9	8	3.8	7	44	21.2
			8	40	19.2
			9	29	13.9
Total	208	100.0	Total	208	100.0

CHAPTER V

MANUSCRIPT II

CROSS-CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCEPTION OF CROWDING AND PRIVACY REGULATION: AMERICAN AND TURKISH STUDENTS

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CROSS-CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCEPTION OF CROWDING AND PRIVACY REGULATION: AMERICAN AND TURKISH STUDENTS

Abstract

This study examines cross-cultural differences in the perception of crowding and privacy regulation between American and Turkish students living in residence halls. Oklahoma State University (OSU) in Stillwater, Oklahoma, U.S.A and Bilkent University in Ankara, Turkey were selected as research sites for this cross-cultural study. Two residence halls, one for men and the other for women, having similar design and plan configuration were chosen from each university. Participants were evenly divided across culture and gender. Subcultural groups in the American population were eliminated from the sampling frame. The total sample size was 408 students living in double occupancy rooms. Results showed that American students desired more privacy in their residence hall rooms than Turkish students. When a student's desired privacy increased, his/her crowding perception about the residential setting also increased. Culture differentially influenced the crowding perceptions of American and Turkish male and female students in their residential settings.

Introduction

The preferences for a certain level or degree of privacy may vary depending on individual, cultural, and social factors, as well as the physical environment. Although the desire for privacy varies from one situation to another, it appears that some cultures have a stronger preference for privacy and more privacy needs and gradients than others (Altman and Chemers, 1980). Further, Hall (1966) proposes cultures as contact and non-contact. The contact culture is composed of individuals (e.g., Mediterranean, Middle Eastern, Arabic, Hispanic) who face one another more directly, interact closer to one another, touch one another more, look one another in the eye more, and speak in a louder voice than do individuals of the non-contact culture (e.g., Northern European, North American). According to Hall's classification of cultures, individuals from contact cultures who prefer closer social interaction and maintain smaller interpersonal distances would have more tolerance for crowded living situations than non-contact cultures.

Hall (1966) states that the differences in interpersonal distancing are not limited only to cultural groups, but also include subcultural groups, particularly in the United States. Hall (1966) used the term American to refer to the dominant non-contact group of Americans of Northern European ancestry. In a recent study, Evans, Lepore, and Allen (2000) examined the perceptions of crowding among the four ethnic groups: Anglo-American and African American (non-contact group), Vietnamese American and Mexican American (contact group) residents of the United States. Their results showed that contact cultural groups perceive their home environments as less crowded than non-contact groups. Further, Evans, Lepore, and Allen (2000) indicated that most of the scientific, cross-cultural studies on crowding have been conducted within North America,

hence it would be necessary to examine the generalizability of findings across a broader range of cultural groups. Therefore, the present study was conducted in two distinct cultures: American, representing the non-contact culture, and Turkish for contact culture. American and Turkish college students living in residence halls were examined in relation to their differences in privacy needs and crowding perceptions while controlling the physical characteristics of the residence halls. Further, since this was a cross-cultural study examining the Turkish and American (Caucasian) students, the subcultural groups in the American population including Mexican-American, Afro-American, Asian American, and Native-American students were eliminated from the sampling frame prior to the selection process. In Turkey, minority sampling was not an issue as the population is homogeneous.

Privacy Regulation

This study is based on the privacy regulation model proposed by Altman (1975). This framework defines privacy as "a selective control of access to the self or to one's group" (p. 18). Central to Altman's privacy model are the constructs of desired privacy, achieved privacy, and optimum level of privacy. Desired privacy is an individual's ideal level of contact with others at any specific time, whereas achieved privacy refers to the actual level of contact experienced by an individual at a particular point in time.

Privacy regulation is an optimizing process in which individuals are motivated to achieve their desired levels of privacy. According to the privacy model (Altman, 1975), when an individual achieves the ideal level of social interaction, an optimum state exists. The individual experiences a desired sense of solitude when he/she wants to be alone or a

desired sense of connection when he/she wants to be with others. On the other hand, if the achieved privacy level is greater than the desired privacy level, an individual feels isolated. In such instances, one speaks of isolation or loneliness. When the achieved level is less than the desired level, an individual feels crowded. Altman's approach (1975) shows that crowding and isolation are the extreme conditions of the same measurement: Too little privacy leads to crowding, and too much privacy results in social isolation.

Distinction between Density and Crowding

In some physical environments where privacy is more difficult to regulate, such as densely populated ones, the individual who more often desires privacy may more often fail to obtain it, and therefore feels more crowded. However, crowding needs to be distinguished from population density, which are often used interchangeably. Stokols (1972) proposed the basic distinction between density and crowding. Density is a physical condition involving space limitations (the amount of physical space per person), whereas crowding is a subjective, psychological experience that is associated with a feeling of lack of control over the physical environment. Stokols (1972) views density as a necessary but not a sufficient condition for the crowding experience. In high-density situations where spatial limitation involves, an individual may experience movement restriction or privacy invasion. On the other hand, people do not always feel crowded although density is rather high. That is, in some social encounters and physical settings, high density can be expected to generate excitement, such as at a concert or at a sporting event (Horn, 1994).

There are two basic types of density as a function of the number of people and the amount of space available per person: social and spatial density. The increase in the number of people while holding the amount of space constant is referred to as social density, whereas changing the amount of space while holding the group size constant is referred to as spatial density (Gifford, 1987). In the present study, the sample was drawn from double occupancy rooms at residence halls to control the social density. To control the spatial density, residence halls in which all rooms were of identical size were chosen from each university.

Perception of Crowding

The two main theoretical approaches explaining the experience of crowding are the stimulus overload and the behavioral constraint. The stimulus overload has been described as a form resulting from inappropriate or unwanted social contact (Desor, 1972). This formulation predicts that a physical environment is evaluated as crowded if a person is overwhelmed by the presence of others or when physical conditions in an environment increase the salience of social density. The second approach, the behavioral constraint perspective, views crowding as a state where an individual experiences interference with his/her activities from others in one's immediate area (Proshansky, Ittelson, and Rivlin, 1970; Stokols, 1972). Crowding may be caused by any of these forms. Both of these approaches define crowding as a psychological state in which one's demand for physical space exceeds the available supply (Horn, 1994). Altman's (1975) formulation of the privacy regulation model is consistent with the stimulus overload approach. Crowding occurs when a level of social contact exceeds what is desired. In this

present study, it was assumed that American and Turkish students would differ in their privacy needs such that Americans require more privacy and thereby, may perceive their residential settings as more crowded than Turkish students.

Research on densely populated residential environments suggests that a lack of privacy regulation can result in less satisfactory social relationships and in social withdrawal (Baum and Valins, 1977, 1979; Firestone, Lichtman, and Evans, 1980; Ittelson, Proshansky, and Rivlin, 1970). This tendency for crowded individuals to withdraw from social interaction may reflect feelings of a lack of control or a reaction to social overload. Besides, students living in high density residence halls have rated their fellow residents as less cooperative (Baum and Valins, 1979) and less trustworthy, reported less willingness to help others, and were less likely to exhibit helping behaviors (Bickman et al., 1973). Thus, the inability to avoid unwanted social contact could affect both individual and group functioning. It is possible that being able to regulate privacy easily in a residence hall environment can enhance an individual's sense of control over his/her social interactions.

In a study of residence hall residents investigating the relation between dense living conditions and privacy, Walden, Nelson, and Smith (1981) found that males and females respond differently to double (two-person) and triple (three-person) room arrangements. Male residents assigned to double rooms increased their preferences for all states of privacy (e.g. intimacy, solitude, anonymity, and reserve) and decreased their preference for solitude in triple room arrangements. However, female residents did not show any significant changes in privacy preferences in either room arrangements. This finding may suggest that females respond to high-density living arrangements more

favorably than males. Further, among female students living at the single-sex residence halls, Sinha and Mukherjee (1996) found the increase in the number of roommates led to a decreased tolerance for crowding. However, high cooperation among roommates moderated the effects of crowding.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine whether American and Turkish male and female students differed in their desired privacy level in residential settings. The second purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between the desired and achieved levels of privacy and the crowding perception in residence halls. Another purpose was to describe the cultural differences in the crowding perception. In this research, the dependent variables were the desired and achieved privacy levels, and the crowding perception; independent variables were culture, gender, and groups based on discrepancy scores between achieved and desired privacy levels (crowded, isolated, and optimum students). Specific research questions were examined and identified as follows:

1. Do American and Turkish students differ significantly in their desired level of privacy across genders?
2. Is there a significant relationship between the desired and achieved levels of privacy and the crowding perceptions of American and Turkish students?
3. Do American and Turkish students differ significantly in the crowding perception across genders among three groups (crowded, optimum, and isolated)?

Method

Site Selection

This study was conducted at Oklahoma State University (OSU) in Stillwater, Oklahoma, U.S.A and Bilkent University in Ankara, Turkey. Both universities offer a variety of residence halls in terms of living arrangements and building configurations for student housing on campus. At Bilkent University, there are 18 residence hall buildings, all of which are single-sex halls, whereas there are five coed and five single-sex halls at OSU. To control the social and physical factors, the following criteria were considered in choosing similar residence halls from each university:

1. The residence halls having similar building configuration and architectural design were selected (e.g., long-corridor type, suite type).
2. At each university, male and female residence halls in which all rooms are of identical size were chosen to control the spatial density.
3. The residence halls offering double occupancy room were considered to examine the privacy levels and to attain equal social density in residence rooms.
4. In Turkey, residence halls accommodate either men or women, in other words there are no coed living arrangements. Thus, the coed halls at OSU were eliminated to control the possible variations resulting in social factors.

Based on these criteria, two residence halls from each university, one for men and the other for women, having similar design and plan configuration were chosen. OSU residence halls are designed as long-corridor with 32 double occupancy rooms located on each floor. The room size was 3.66 m by 4.42 m. Each room consisted of two twin-size

beds, two desks, two chairs, and a built-in closet. Bilkent University residence hall buildings are also designed as long-corridor with 38 rooms located on each floor. The room measured 3.00 m by 3.40 m in size, which was slightly smaller than the rooms at OSU. Each room consisted of a bunk bed, a desk for two people to study, two chairs, and a wardrobe. The furniture in the hall rooms at each university was movable so that the residents could arrange their rooms according to their own preferences. Therefore, the flexibility of furniture in the residence hall rooms was fairly similar.

Sample

The sample was a random selection of students living in double occupancy rooms at the selected residence halls. The random list of names and hall room numbers of students were obtained from the Department of Residential Life at OSU and Bilkent University. The residents having no roommates were excluded from the sampling frame. To represent the entire population, 119 males and 161 females were sampled at OSU, and at Bilkent University residence halls, 110 males and 124 females were sampled.

Procedure

The instrument was translated into Turkish for the Turkish sample. The data collection was conducted during the eight week of the fall 2000 semester at each university, and completed within two weeks. The students were contacted individually by going door-to-door from the selected residence hall rooms. Participation was voluntary and subjects were asked to read and sign the consent form prior to completing the survey.

For those that could not be contacted in person during the first attempt, a telephone call was made by the researcher or another attempt was made to reach them at a later time.

Instrument

The research instrument developed for data gathering was designed as a questionnaire and consisted of scales to measure individual's privacy in a residence hall room and perceptions about residence hall environment in regard to crowding.

Desired and Achieved Levels of Privacy. Harris (1994) assessed the amount of privacy an individual wants to have and the amount of privacy an individual actually has with his/her family in their apartments. These two items were adapted by substituting "residence hall room" for "apartment". The participants were asked to indicate how much privacy they want to have in their room to assess their desired privacy score, and then were asked to indicate how much privacy they actually have in their room to assess their achieved privacy score on a 7-point rating scale from 1 = "none at all" to 7 = "a lot". Therefore, individuals responded according to their ideal and actual privacy needs. Also, predictions derived from the discrepancy scores between ideal and actual have generally received wide empirical support (Higgins, 1987). These two items have the same direction; the higher the score, the greater the level of desired and achieved privacy.

Environmental Perception Scale. To examine how students perceive their residence hall room and to identify their opinions about residence hall environments in regard to crowding, a total of 16 items were used. The first 6 items were statements about the perception of crowding in residence hall environment, such as "I feel that the living situation in the residence hall is very crowded", "The corridors in the residence hall tend

to be very crowded". Participants responded on a 7-point rating scale from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree". The other 10 items were semantic differential scales about the perception of hall room (e.g., roomy-cramped, uncrowded-crowded), adapted from Kaplan (1982). Kaplan (1982) stated the alpha coefficient for the full-scale as .79, reflecting high internal consistency among the items.

Cronbach alpha coefficients were calculated for the adapted Environmental Perception Scale to determine the internal reliability among items. Alphas were calculated separately for the American and Turkish sample. The full-scale (16 items) reliability coefficient for the American sample was .80, and for the Turkish sample the reliability coefficient was .83, indicating an internally consistent scale. The subscale reliability coefficient for the American sample was .73 (6 items) and for the second part (10 items), assessing the room perception, it was .77. For the Turkish sample, the reliability coefficients were .70 (6 items), and .81 (10 items).

Results

All items were scored and the data were analyzed by means of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software program. Descriptive statistics were used to summarize data. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to examine the differences between groups, and correlation coefficients were calculated to present the relationships between variables in this study.

Descriptive Statistics of the Sample

Of the 280 sampled American students, 14 refused to participate (5%), 13 did not return the questionnaire (4.64%), and the researcher was unable to contact 53 residents (18.93%) after three attempts. Of the 234 sampled Turkish students, 4 refused to participate (1.71%), 7 did not return the survey (2.9%), and the researcher was unable to contact 15 residents (6.41%) after three attempts. This yielded a total sample of 408 students, 200 American and 208 Turkish students. The participants were evenly distributed between genders. Of the total 200 American students, 95 were males and 105 were females. Of the total 208 Turkish students, 100 were males and 108 were females. The ages of American students ranged from 17 to 22 (M = 18.41, SD = .78). Turkish students ranged in age from 17 to 23 years (M = 18.32, SD = 1.00).

Differences in the Desired Privacy Level

For the first research question, 2 × 2 ANOVA was run to examine whether the desired level of privacy differed between American and Turkish students across genders. The independent variables were culture and gender. The dependent variable was the desired privacy level. Table 5 presents the mean and standard deviations of the desired privacy levels between male and female students in the American and Turkish sample. There was no significant culture and gender interaction effect [F (1, 404) = 1.25, p > .05]. However, the main effects of culture [F (1, 404) = 37.78, p < .01] and gender [F (1, 404) = 5.29, p < .05] were statistically significant. Regardless of gender, American students desired more privacy (M = 5.19, SD = 1.36) than Turkish students (M = 4.25, SD = 1.70).

Further, in both cultures, male students reported a greater desire for privacy (M = 4.89, SD = 1.54) than did female students (M = 4.54, SD = 1.66).

Relationships Between Desired and Achieved Level of Privacy and Crowding Perception

To investigate the second research question, bivariate correlations were computed between the desired and achieved levels of privacy and the crowding perception scores for the American and Turkish sample separately. For the American sample (N = 200), the results revealed a significant positive correlation between the desired privacy and the crowding perception scores (r = .319, p = .000). For the Turkish students (N = 208), no significant relationship was found between the desired privacy and the crowding perception scores (r = .128, p > .05). Moreover, for the American sample, the results revealed a significant negative correlation between the achieved privacy level and the crowding perception scores (r = -.292, p = 0.000). However, no significant relationship was found between the achieved privacy and the crowding perception scores (r = .020, p > .05) for the Turkish sample.

Differences in the Crowding Perception

First, participants were divided into three groups based on their discrepancy scores between the achieved and desired privacy levels. These two levels of privacy were assessed on a 7-point rating scale. Thus, the discrepancy score could range from –1 to –7 (crowded), from +1 to +7 (isolated), or could be 0 (optimum). For example, if a student's achieved privacy score was 5 and his/her desired privacy score was 7, then the discrepancy score would be –2, indicating an inadequacy in the individual's privacy level

(crowded). On the other hand, if the achieved privacy score was 7 and the desired privacy score was 2, then the discrepancy score would be +5, indicating an excessive level of privacy (isolated). Third, if the achieved privacy level equaled the desired level—then the discrepancy score would be 0, indicating an optimum level. Table 6 presents the distribution of the discrepancy scores in the American and Turkish sample.

$2 \times 2 \times 3$ ANOVA was run to examine whether the crowding perception between American and Turkish male and female students differed among these three groups. The independent variables were culture, gender, and groups (crowded, optimum, and isolated). The dependent variable was the crowding perception score. Table 7 shows the mean and standard deviations of the crowding perception scores among groups between males and females in the American and Turkish sample. Based on the results of ANOVA, the three-way interaction effect did not reach statistically significance [F (2, 396) = .534, $p > .05$]. However, there was a significant two-way culture and gender interaction effect [F (1, 396) = 8.88, $p < .01$]. Also, there was a significant group main effect [F (2, 396) = 13.70, $p < .001$], indicating that crowded, optimum, and isolated students show significant differences in regard to their crowding perception.

First, the two-way culture and gender interaction effect was investigated by the interaction plot (see Figure 2). As shown in Figure 2, Turkish female students (M = 59.88, SD = 15.23) perceived their residential settings as more crowded than American female students (M = 56.05, SD = 13.74). However, American male students (M = 57.77, SD = 12.41) perceived their residential settings as more crowded than Turkish male students (M = 54.20, SD = 15.58). Second, to examine the group main effect on the perception of crowding, Tukey's test for post-hoc analysis was run. The results showed a

significant difference in the crowding perception scores of the crowded students and the isolated students ($p < .01$) and the optimum students ($p = .000$). Figure 3 shows the mean difference in the crowding perception scores among the three groups. The crowded students had a higher mean of crowding perception score ($M = 60.07$, $SD = 13.76$) than the isolated ($M = 53.96$, $SD = 14.62$) and than the optimum students ($M = 53.78$, $SD = 14.41$).

Discussion

The primary goal of this cross-cultural study was to examine the differences in desired privacy and crowding perception between American and Turkish students living in residence halls. Based on Altman's privacy regulation model (1975), the degree of desired privacy may vary across individual and cultural factors. Consistent with this approach, the findings provide strong evidence that the desired level of privacy differed based on an individual's culture and gender. The results of statistical analyses revealed that American and Turkish students significantly differed in their desired privacy levels and showed that Americans desired more privacy in their residence hall rooms than Turkish students. Further, gender was found to be an important individual factor in determining the differences in privacy needs. Male students desired more privacy than female students.

Secondly, it was assumed that there is a significant relationship between a student's desired and achieved privacy levels and their perception of crowding in residence halls. Correlation results showed a significant positive relationship between the desired privacy and crowding perception scores for the American sample. When a

student's desired privacy increased, their crowding perception concerning the residential setting also increased. On the other hand, the results revealed a significant negative correlation between the achieved privacy level and the crowding perception scores for the American sample. If a student's achieved privacy decreased, then their crowding perception concerning the residential setting increased, or vice versa. However, no relationship was found between the desired and achieved privacy and the crowding perception scores for the Turkish sample.

According to Hall's classification of cultures (1966), individuals from contact cultures (e.g., Middle Eastern, Hispanic) prefer to interact more closely with others, hence they would have more tolerance for crowded living situations than non-contact cultures (e.g., North American, Northern European). This pattern is partially supported by the findings. Although Americans required more privacy than Turkish students, no significant differences were found in the perception of crowding between students in the American and Turkish cultures. However, culture differentially influenced the crowding perceptions of American and Turkish male and female students in their residential settings. Although all rooms were of identical size at each university, Turkish female students perceived their residential setting as more crowded than American female students. On the other hand, American male students perceived their residential setting as more crowded than Turkish male students.

The findings of this study are important for several reasons. The present research is the first to show cross-cultural differences in the perception of crowding, particularly for the American and Turkish culture. In addition, as shown in Altman's model (1975), the present study shows that an individual's desired and achieved levels of privacy have

associations with how crowded he/she perceives the physical environment. Although no significant relationship was found for the Turkish sample, correlation analyses showed a significant positive relation between the desired privacy level and the crowding perception scores, as well as a significant negative correlation between the achieved privacy level and the crowding perception scores for the American sample.

Moreover, the findings that link crowding to privacy regulation is also consistent with Altman's (1975) framework. Crowding occurs when achieved privacy level is less than what is desired. The results from this study reveal that crowded, optimum, and isolated students show significant differences in the crowding perception. The crowded students had a higher mean crowding perception score than the isolated and the optimum students, which supports the relationship between crowding and privacy regulation.

This study has certain limitations and weaknesses. It is particularly important to stress the tentativeness of these findings because of the nature of the samples. Although the sample size was adequate, both the American and Turkish samples represent students from a single institution. Hence, the results do not necessarily represent a broad cross-section of students. The generalizability of the study is limited to those students living in double occupancy rooms at the selected residence halls at Oklahoma State University and Bilkent University. The nature of this study raised another limitation in generalizability of the results. Since this was a cross-sectional study, the data were only limited to the responses gathered during the second month of the academic year. Furthermore, among the individual factors related to the crowding perception, gender was the only variable that was considered to play an important role. Other individual characteristics such as personality (introversion-extraversion) or sociability of individuals should be studied to

identify the potential differences in the crowding perception. According to the literature, individuals who like to be with others tend to have a higher tolerance for crowding than individuals who are less sociable (Gifford, 1987). Finally, since this study took place in two cultures, the variation in the hall room size was inevitable. In general, the hall room size in the United States is larger than in Turkey. Thus, this aspect was acknowledged as a limitation of this study.

Despite its limitations, the results obtained in this study are statistically significant and introduce a new cross-cultural perspective to the crowding literature. A replication of this study at different institutions in the United States and in Turkey should give us a more comprehensive understanding of the issues raised here. By conducting research at other Turkish and American institutions, there would be increased potential for generalization. Cross-site studies could be conducted with other institutions to identify similar or different patterns in a student's crowding perception in their residential settings. Although the residence room size was identical at each university, Turkish females perceived their residential setting as more crowded than American female students and American male students perceived their residential setting as more crowded than Turkish male students. The reasons for the gender differences have not been determined. A study addressing this topic in a broader and comprehensive perspective should be conducted. Further, it seems essential for future studies to conduct a similar cultural research, in addition to examining other social and individual factors related to the perception of crowding in residential settings.

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Table 5. Means and Standard Deviations of the Desired Privacy Levels between Male and Female Students in the American and Turkish Sample

Culture of Student	Gender	n	M*	SD
American	Male	95	5.28	1.33
	Female	105	5.10	1.39
	Total	200	5.19	1.36
Turkish	Male	100	4.52	1.63
	Female	108	4.00	1.73
	Total	208	4.25	1.70
Total	Male	195	4.89	1.54
	Female	213	4.54	1.66
	Total	408	4.71	1.61

* Means are based on a 7-point rating scale from 1= "none at all" to 7 = "a lot

Table 6. The Distribution of the Discrepancy Scores in the American and Turkish Sample

American sample			Turkish sample		
Discrepancy Score	n	%	Discrepancy Score	n	%
-7	0	0.0	-7	0	0.0
-6	6	3.0	-6	0	0.0
-5	8	4.0	-5	0	0.0
-4	11	5.5	-4	6	2.9
-3	29	14.5	-3	15	7.2
-2	44	22.0	-2	21	10.1
-1	32	16.0	-1	35	16.8
0	44	22.0	0	73	35.1
1	13	6.5	1	21	10.1
2	8	4.0	2	19	9.1
3	2	1.0	3	14	6.7
4	3	1.5	4	3	1.4
5	0	0.0	5	0	0.0
6	0	0.0	6	1	0.5
7	0	0.0	7	0	0.0
Total	200	100.0		208	100.0

Table 7. Means and Standard Deviations of the Crowding Perception Scores among Groups between Male and Female Students in the American and Turkish Sample

Culture of Student	Gender	Groups	n	M*	SD
American	Male	Crowded	62	59.60	12.49
		Isolated	9	50.67	14.35
		Optimum	24	55.71	10.51
		Total	95	57.77	12.41
	Female	Crowded	68	59.75	13.28
		Isolated	17	49.29	13.09
		Optimum	20	49.20	11.29
		Total	105	56.05	13.74
Turkish	Male	Crowded	47	58.04	13.83
		Isolated	21	51.43	17.36
		Optimum	32	50.37	15.95
		Total	100	54.20	15.58
	Female	Crowded	30	64.97	16.57
		Isolated	37	58.35	12.91
		Optimum	41	57.54	15.62
		Total	108	59.88	15.23

* Crowding perception scores range from 16 to 112.

Figure 2. Plot for the Crowding Perception Score between Male and Female Students in the American and Turkish Sample

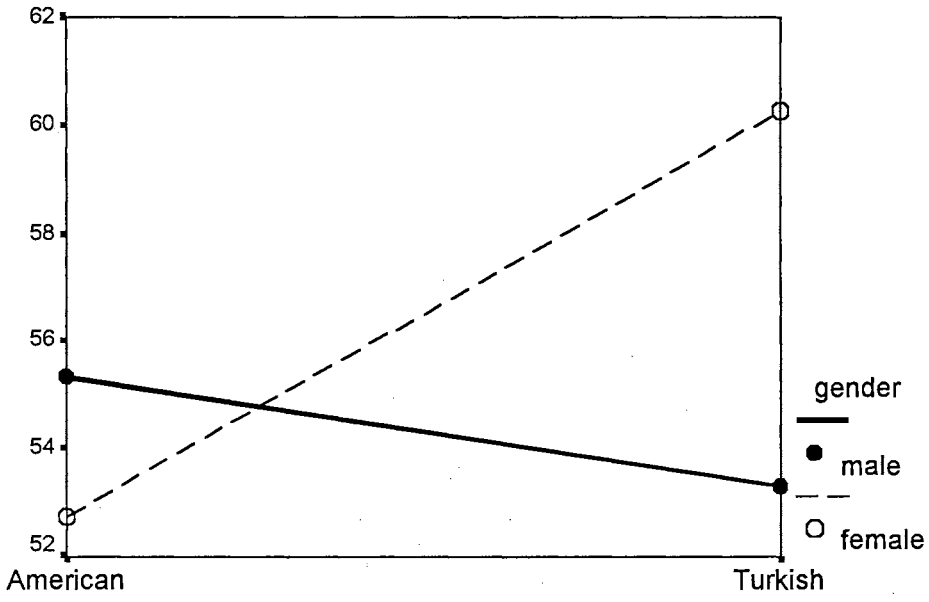
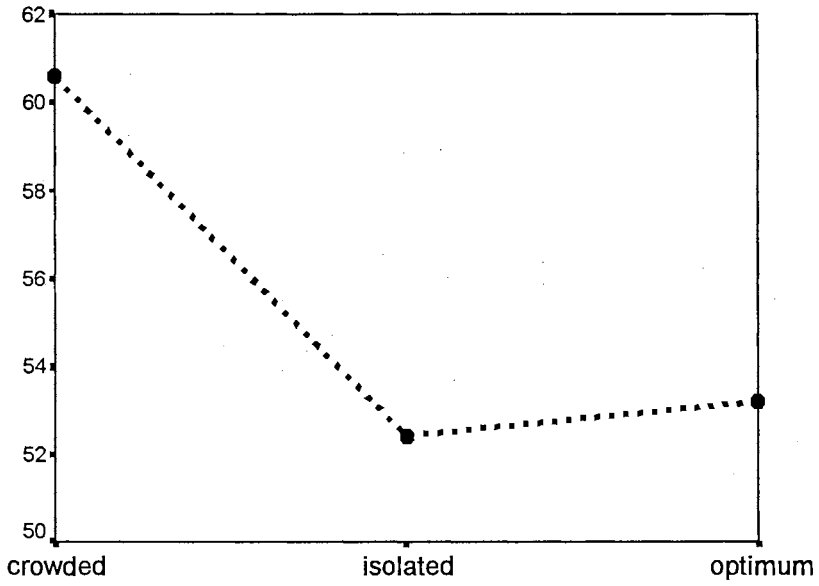


Figure 3. Plot for the Crowding Perception Score among Crowded, Isolated, and Optimum Students



CHAPTER VI

MANUSCRIPT III

TERRITORIAL BEHAVIOR OF FRESHMEN LIVING IN RESIDENCE HALLS: A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY

To be submitted to

ENVIRONMENT AND BEHAVIOR

TERRITORIAL BEHAVIOR OF FRESHMEN LIVING IN RESIDENCE HALLS: A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY

Abstract

The purpose of this cross-cultural study was to examine the differences in territorial behavior of American and Turkish freshmen living in double occupancy rooms at residence halls. Among individual and social factors, gender, culture, bedroom-sharing experience during adolescence and knowing one's roommate before sharing the residence hall room were considered as important variables. The total sample size was 408; 200 students in the American sample and 208 students in the Turkish sample. Participants were evenly divided between genders. Results showed that the pattern of territorial behavior in the hall room differences for American and Turkish male and female students significantly varied for students who knew and who did not know their roommates previously. Another important finding was that bedroom-sharing experience and knowing one's roommate combined to significantly influence student's territorial behavior in the residence hall room.

Introduction

Territorial behavior can be expressed through setting clear physical boundaries and/or by personalization of features of the environment (Altman, 1975). Gifford (1987) defines territoriality as "a pattern of behavior and attitudes held by an individual or group that is based on perceived, attempted, or actual control of a definable physical space, object, or idea and may involve habitual occupation, defense, personalization, and marking of it" (p. 137). Personalization of a space allows for psychological security, aesthetic purposes and adaptation of physical environment (Lang, 1987). According to Altman and Chemers (1980), human territorial behavior has an important function in the regulation of social interaction and providing visible cues to others, thereby avoiding conflicts in the space utilization. In addition, Sommer (1969) points out the importance of territorial markers on potential intruders; the more personal the marker, the more effective the protective system.

When people interact in a physical setting, the behavioral effects of furnishings and their arrangement can be readily observed. Therefore, the physical aspects of a setting can influence its defensibility and the extent to which particular behaviors in the space can be carried out. For example, in a library setting, carrels are perceived by students as more likely to be defended when invaded by another (Taylor and Brooks, 1980). Taylor and Brooks (1980) states temporary territories exist in public territories and people may attach to these locations in a short time. Brown (1987) indicates that conflicts may sometimes arise over the ownership of a space, resulting from the lack of definition about the type of territory. Brown (1987), further, gives an example: "A graduate student may define a certain regularly used library table as a secondary territory. An infrequent

user of the library may become puzzled when the graduate student overreacts on finding the seat taken...or a student who has been used to live in a single-room may resent the college roommate who invites strangers into the room" (p. 511).

Past studies have indicated that bedroom-sharing experience (sharing a bedroom vs. having one's own) and the number of siblings sharing a bedroom during adolescence play an important role on territorial behavior and the feelings and expectations regarding space utilization (Kaplan, 1982; Kastenbaum, 1984; Sebba and Churchman, 1983; Switzer and Taylor, 1983). Sebba and Churchman (1983) found that as the number of siblings sharing a bedroom increased, the functionality of the bedroom as a territory decreased. Children who share a bedroom with a sibling compared to those children having their own bedroom are less likely to feel that they would assert their dominance.

Further, Kastenbaum (1984) explored the relationship between human territorial behavior and social relations among residence hall residents. The findings showed that high territorial behavior was negatively correlated with roommate relations at the beginning and at the end of the semester. In a study of freshmen living in residence halls, Kaplan (1982) found that sharers who perceived their previous bedroom sharing experience at home as positive had learned that clear territorial rules setting of boundaries between roommates are important for successful sharing experience. Sharers perceived themselves as having more control over social interactions in their residential settings.

Moreover, territoriality also varies with individual characteristics such as gender and personality (Gifford, 1987; Mercer and Benjamin, 1980; Taylor, 1988). In a study of residence halls examining the differences in territoriality between male and female students, Mercer and Benjamin (1980) found that males are more territorial in their rooms

than females. Further, Switzer and Taylor (1983) showed that individuals with more sociable personalities have less need for non-shared living space. Altman (1975) stated that individuals differ in their needs for privacy, security, control, and contact with others. Thus, within a given physical setting, the territorial functioning of two people can be remarkably different.

Although the effects of individual and social factors on territorial behavior and how people perceive and control the physical settings have been clearly stated, no known previous studies have examined the territorial behavior in residences halls from a cross-cultural perspective, particularly American and Turkish college students. The research was conducted at Oklahoma State University in Stillwater, Oklahoma, U.S.A, and at Bilkent University in Ankara, Turkey. This study was carried out in double occupancy rooms at single-sex living arrangement residence halls to examine whether territorial behavior differed between American and Turkish male and female students. In the present study, the importance of bedroom-sharing experience was investigated as it related to the territoriality of students in their hall rooms. Knowing one's roommate before sharing the residence hall room was also considered as an important factor since it related to students' social and personal relationships with their roommates.

The specific objective of this study was to examine whether the territorial behavior between American and Turkish male and female freshmen differed based on bedroom-sharing experience during adolescence and knowing one's roommate previously. The dependent variable was the territorial behavior; the independent variables were culture (American, Turkish), gender (male, female), bedroom-sharing experience

during adolescence (alone, shared), and knowing one's roommate before sharing the residence hall room (yes, no).

Method

Description of Residence Halls

Two residence halls from Oklahoma State University (OSU) and Bilkent University, one for men and the other for women, having similar design and plan configuration were chosen. The residence halls were designed as long-corridor with double occupancy rooms located on each floor. Since this study was with two cultures, the variation in the residence hall room size was inevitable. In general, the size of hall rooms in the United States was larger than in Turkey. This aspect was acknowledged as a limitation of this study. However, male and female residence hall rooms were of identical size and had equal social density (double occupancy rooms) at each university. At OSU, the room size was 3.66 m by 4.42 m, and each room consisted of two twin-size beds, two desks, two chairs, and a built-in closet. At Bilkent University, the hall room measured 3.00 m by 3.40 m in size, which was slightly smaller than the rooms at OSU. Each room consisted of a bunk bed, a desk for two people to study, two chairs, and a wardrobe. The furniture in the hall rooms was movable so that the residents could arrange their rooms according to their own preferences.

Sampling

The sample was a random selection of freshmen living in double occupancy rooms at the selected residence hall buildings from Oklahoma State University and

Bilkent University during fall 2000 semester. The random list of names and hall room numbers of freshmen were obtained from the Department of Residential Life at each university. Since this was a cross-cultural study examining the Turkish and American (Caucasian) freshmen, the subcultural groups in the American population (e.g., Mexican-American, Afro-American, Native-American students) were eliminated from the sampling frame prior to the selection process. In Turkey, minority sampling was not an issue because the population is homogeneous.

Of the 280 sampled American residents, 14 refused to participate (5%), 13 did not return the questionnaire (4.64%), and the researcher was unable to contact 53 residents (18.93%) after three attempts. This yielded a final American sample of 200 residents (71.43%), including 95 males and 105 females. Of the 234 sampled Turkish residents, 4 refused to participate (1.71%), 7 did not return the survey (2.9%), and the researcher was unable to contact 15 residents (6.41%) after three attempts, yielding a final Turkish sample of 208 (88.8%) residents, including 100 males and 108 females.

The mean age of the American sample was 18.41 with a range of 17 to 22, similar to the Turkish sample ($\underline{M}$ = 18.32 with a range of 17 to 23). Table 8 shows the background information of the American and Turkish sample gathered from the survey. About 44% of American students knew their roommates before sharing the residence hall room, while 56% of them did not. The percentages of Turkish students who knew their roommates (51%) and those who did not (49%) were fairly close. Bedroom-sharing experience (shared versus having one's own bedroom) was also asked to the participants. Sharers were about 55% and non-sharers were about 45% of the Turkish sample. On the other hand, 85% of the American students had their own bedrooms, where the sharers

were only 15 %. The majority of American students were accustomed to having their own bedroom. This reveals the distinction between these two cultures in terms of bedroom sharing with siblings or others (e.g., relatives, grandparents, friends) during adolescence.

Procedure

A pilot study was conducted at each university to check the design procedure, to refine the instrument before the actual data collection, to determine the amount of time required for a respondent to complete the survey. The instrument was translated into Turkish for the Turkish sample. The fall semester started in the third week of August 2000 at Oklahoma State University. The data collection began during the eighth week of the fall semester and completed within two weeks. Then, the survey was conducted at Bilkent University in Ankara, Turkey. The time schedule was planned accordingly since the fall semester started in the first week of October at Bilkent University, thus, the data collection took place during the last week of November and completed within two weeks.

The students were contacted individually by going door-to-door at the selected residence hall rooms. During the initial contact the subjects were told the purpose of the study and what was involved as a participant. Participation was voluntary, and volunteered students were asked to read and sign the consent form prior to completing the survey. For those that could not be contacted in person during the first attempt, a telephone call was made by the researcher to reach them at a later time.

Measures

Territorial Behavior Scale. The territorial behavior was assessed through a variety of feelings and behaviors of students in their residence hall rooms. This scale consisted of 16 items, measuring two aspects of territorial behavior: firmness of boundaries (the degree of exclusivity of use of personal belongings by an individual) and personalization of the shared room (the degree to which an individual perceives his/her room as personal and expressive of the self). This scale was adapted from Kaplan (1982). Participants responded to items such as, "I feel that there is an imaginary, but clear line, which divides the room into my territory and my roommate's territory", "My roommate and I use one another's personal belongings", "I have a strong need for a clear definition of what is mine and what is my roommate's", or "I don't have anything in my room that I especially value", on a 7-point rating scale from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree", or 1 = "never" to 7 = "very often". High territorial behavior was associated with making exclusive use of one's desk, bed, or other features of the shared room (Kaplan, 1982). The higher the score, the more the territorial behavior that an individual exhibited in a residence room.

Cronbach alpha coefficients were calculated separately for the American and Turkish sample. The reliability coefficient for the American sample was .71, and for the Turkish sample it was rather low (α = .56). The potential reason for a low reliability may be due to the translation of the scale. Thus, these reliability coefficients may suggest that the Turkish instrument might have been back translated into English to obtain a higher internal consistency among the items.

Results

Data were scored and analyzed by using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software program. A four-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to determine whether the territorial behavior of American and Turkish male and female freshmen differed based on previous bedroom sharing experience and knowing one's roommate previously. The independent variables were culture (American and Turkish), gender (male and female), previous bedroom sharing experience (shared vs. alone) and knowing roommate before sharing the residence hall room (yes, no). The dependent variable was the territorial behavior score. Based on the results of ANOVA, there was no significant four-way interaction. However, a significant three-way interaction was found among culture, gender, and knowing roommate [F (1, 392) = 5.93, $p < .05$]. Since this was a $2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2$ ANOVA design, all effects were associated with one degree of freedom, indicating that no post-hoc analysis was needed. As shown in Figure 4, the male and female students who knew their roommates in the American sample significantly differed in the degree of territorial behavior that they exhibit in their residence hall rooms. American males (M = 71.29, SD = 13.08) were more territorial than American females (M = 69.25, SD = 12.58). However, Turkish male and female students showed no significant difference in territorial behavior even though they knew their roommates before sharing their residence hall rooms. Where the students did not know their roommates previously (see Figure 5), American male and female students did not show any significant differences in territorial behavior, whereas Turkish males (M = 75.57, SD = 10.42) tended to be more territorial than Turkish females (M = 66.64, SD = 11.28).

Based on the ANOVA results, the main effects of culture [F (1, 392) = 21.89, p < .001], gender [F (1, 392) = 5.15, p < .05], and knowing one's roommate [F (1, 392) = 36.70, p < .001] were also significant. Regardless of gender and being acquainted with one's roommate, American students (M = 76.08, SD = 12.89) exhibited more territorial behavior than did Turkish students (M = 67.88, SD = 11.75) in their residence hall rooms. In both culture regardless of being acquainted with one's roommate, male students (M = 72.35, SD = 12.48) were more territorial than female students (M = 71.49, SD = 13.42).

Moreover, the interaction effect between bedroom-sharing experience during adolescence and knowing one's roommate reached statistically significance [F (1, 392) = 3.98, p < .05]. As shown in Figure 6, among students who did not know their roommates and had their own bedrooms at home exhibited more territorial behavior in their hall rooms (M = 78.47, SD = 12.58) compared to students who shared their bedrooms with others during adolescence (M = 72.65, SD = 10.85). On the other hand, among students who knew their roommates and had their own bedrooms were less territorial in their residence hall rooms (M = 67.38, SD = 12.45) than the students who shared their bedrooms with others during adolescence (M = 68.74, SD = 10.39). Overall, if a student did not know his/her roommate previously showed more territorial behavior (M = 76.52, SD = 12.31) in his/her residence hall room than those who knew his/her roommate (M = 66.76, SD = 11.72).

Summary and Discussion

The specific aim of this study was to examine whether Turkish and American male and female freshmen differed in the degree of territorial behavior that they exhibited

in their residence hall rooms based on (a) previous bedroom sharing experience during adolescence, and (b) knowing one's roommate before sharing the hall room. The findings of the present study show strong evidence that the degree of territorial behavior of students in residence rooms differed based on culture and gender. American freshmen showed more territorial behavior than Turkish freshmen, and male students tended to be more territorial than female students. The participants were evenly divided between gender across the American and Turkish sample. In the Turkish sample, sharers and non-sharers were evenly distributed, whereas in the American sample, the majority of the students had their own bedrooms.

Being acquainted with one's roommate before sharing the residence hall room was considered to play an important role in territorial behavior of students. The familiarity or friendship can influence students' social and personal relationships with their roommates, thereby, affect their degree of territoriality in their hall rooms. In the present study, the percentages of students who knew and those who did not know their roommates were evenly distributed between the American and Turkish sample. One of the most important findings is that the pattern of territorial behavior in the residence hall room differences for American and Turkish male and female students significantly varied for students who knew and who did not know their roommates before sharing the hall room. That is, American male and female students who knew their roommates before sharing their hall room were more territorial than Turkish male and female students. However, Turkish male and female students showed no significant difference in territorial behavior even though they knew their roommate before sharing their hall rooms. Further, the results revealed that among students who did not know their

roommates, or in other words, who were assigned to their roommates by the Department of Residential Life, American males and females did not show any significant differences in territorial behavior, whereas Turkish males tended to be more territorial than Turkish females.

Another important finding was that previous bedroom sharing experience during adolescence and knowing one's roommate combined to significantly influence students' territorial behavior in their residence rooms. Students who had their own bedrooms during adolescence and who did not know their roommates exhibited more territorial behavior in their hall rooms compared to students who shared their bedrooms with others during adolescence. Overall, students who knew their roommates previously were less territorial in their hall rooms than those who did not know their roommates. Therefore, knowing one's roommate seems to be an important factor in student's territorial behavior in his/her residence room.

There are clear limitations to the current study, including external validity questions regarding generalizability, and internal validity questions regarding causal inferences. The American and Turkish samples were limited to those freshmen living in double occupancy rooms at the selected residence halls from Oklahoma State University and Bilkent University. Hence, the results do not necessarily represent a broad cross-section of students. Interpretations and inferences based on the results of the current study must be considered with care. Similar studies must be conducted at different institutions in the United States and in Turkey, before making casual inferences and generalizations about these two cultures. Further, there is a need for longitudinal research in order to assess the developmental trends for territorial behavior with respect to roommate

relationships in residence hall rooms. Kastenbaum (1984) showed that high territorial behavior was negatively correlated with roommate relations at the beginning and at the end of the semester. Since the data for this study were collected during the second month of semester, the relationship between human territorial behavior and social relations among residence hall residents could not have been investigated. The power of future studies would be increased if data were collected at several points in time.

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Table 8. Background Information of the American and Turkish Sample

Variables	American sample (N=200) n	%	Turkish sample (N=208) n	%
Number of siblings				
0	45	22.5	35	16.8
1	93	46.5	90	43.3
2	40	20.0	60	28.8
3	17	8.5	12	5.8
4	5	2.5	4	1.9
5	0	0.0	3	1.4
6	0	0.0	3	1.4
8	0	0.0	1	0.5
Type of community lived in				
Large urban	37	18.5	129	62.0
Small urban	42	21.0	39	18.8
Suburban	55	27.5	37	17.8
Rural	66	33.0	3	1.4
Type of living unit prior to attending to college*				
Single family	167	83.5	40	19.2
Single story multiple family unit	25	12.5	0	0.0
Two-three story apartment	3	1.5	23	11.1
Four-six story apartment	0	0.0	95	45.7
High rise apartment	0	0.0	49	23.6
Other	5	2.5	1	0.5

* The type of living unit for the 'other' category represents trail in the American sample, and a squatter in the Turkish sample.

Figure 4. Plot for the Territorial Behavior Score for Culture and Gender Interaction at Knowing Roommate

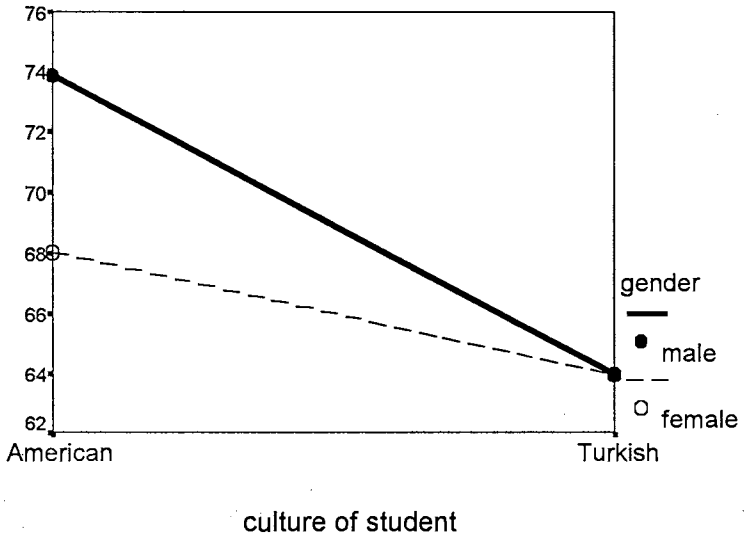


Figure 5. Plot for the Territorial Behavior Score for Culture and Gender Interaction at Not Knowing Roommate

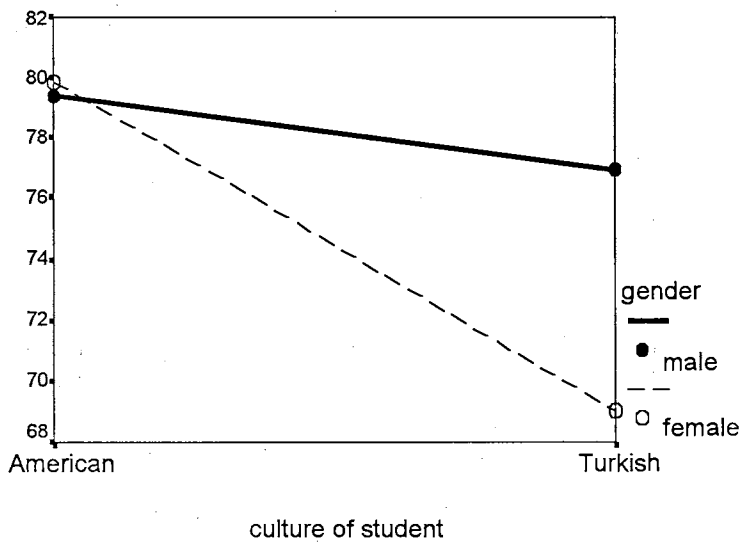
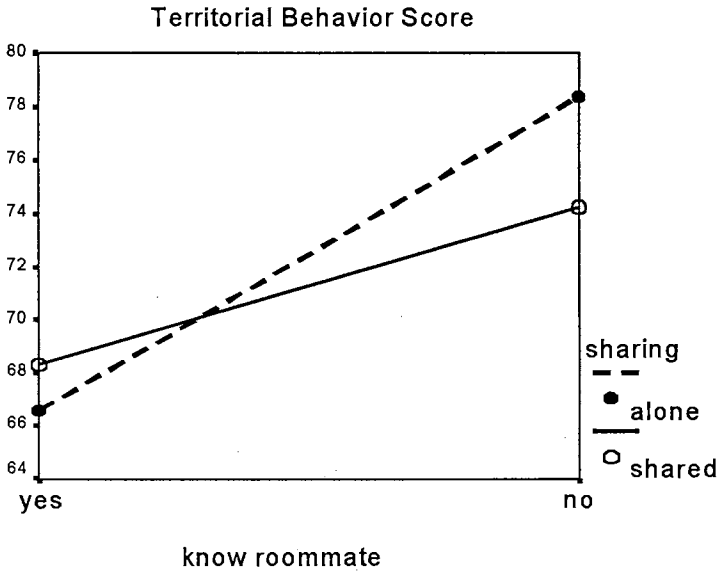


Figure 6. Plot for the Territorial Behavior Score for Knowing Roommate and Previous Bedroom Sharing Experience Interaction



CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This cross-cultural study investigated the importance of privacy regulation and the differences in college adjustment of American and Turkish freshmen living in residence halls. The information provided by this study was useful in understanding how privacy regulation in residence halls can ease students' adjustment to a college environment. The highlights of the findings of this study, as well as the relationships of these findings to previous studies are discussed in this section.

Summary and Conclusions

This study was based on Altman's privacy regulation model (1975). Based on this model, privacy regulation is an optimizing process in which individuals are motivated to achieve their desired levels of privacy. Desired, achieved, and optimum levels of privacy are the three important constructs in providing a basis for this model. If the achieved level of privacy equals the desired level, an individual experiences a desired sense of solitude when he/she wants to be alone or a desired sense of connection when he/she wants to be with others. However, social isolation occurs when the achieved level of privacy is greater than the desired level of privacy, and crowding occurs when a failure of privacy regulation results in a greater amount of social contact than is desired.

In such instances, an individual employs privacy regulation mechanisms to have a balance between his/her achieved privacy level to what he/she desires. To assess desired and achieved privacy levels, students were asked to indicate how much privacy they want to have and how much privacy they actually have in their residence hall rooms. Based on the discrepancy scores between these two levels, students were divided into three categories: crowded, isolated and optimum.

The following conclusions are based upon the findings of this study. First, the analysis of data provided strong evidence that the students who felt crowded in their residence hall rooms tended to have poorer social and personal adjustment. Thus, privacy regulation was found to be important for the social and personal dimensions of college adjustment. Similarly, the results of this study, which indicated that students who were capable of the regulation of their privacy by using contact-seeking or contact-avoiding behaviors had better adjustment patterns, support Vinsel et. al's (1980) findings. On the other hand, since the design of this study was cross-sectional, the findings were limited only to the adjustment problems occurred during the first months at the university. Therefore, it is unknown whether a student dropped out or stayed in college after the first academic year.

Altman (1975) states the implementation of privacy regulation mechanisms may vary across personal, social, physical, and cultural factors. One of the purposes of this study was to explain whether the use of privacy regulation mechanisms (contact-seeking and contact-avoiding behaviors) differed between American and Turkish freshmen. Data were collected by means of a questionnaire, designed for freshman students living in residence halls at Oklahoma State University in Stillwater, Oklahoma, U.S.A and at

Bilkent University in Ankara, Turkey. Results showed that the students in both cultures used a variety of behaviors to seek and to avoid social contact in their residential settings. American students indicated the usage of contact-seeking behaviors such as, opening the door to one's room, going to a hall lounge, or using loud music to attract people more frequently than Turkish students. On the other hand, Turkish students employed different contact-seeking behaviors such as, going to other places where people were around within the residence hall or visiting others' rooms. To avoid social contact, American students preferred to shut the door to their rooms and play loud music to shut out distractions compared to Turkish students who preferred to tune out noise and find a quiet place to study, go for a walk alone, or use the bathroom at a quiet time.

Another important finding of this study is that there were significant cultural differences in adjustment to college. American freshmen had more difficulties in becoming integrated into the social life of college, receiving emotional support from their peers as well as, managing new social freedoms and forming a social network, while Turkish freshmen had difficulties in personal adjustment. Turkish students often felt alone, got homesick, or felt nervous and tense. These different patterns in college adjustment may be due to the differences in their usage of behavioral mechanisms in order to regulate their privacy in the residence halls. When Turkish students wanted to be with others, they tended to use more direct behaviors such as visiting others' rooms or going to places where they can be with friends. American students, on the other hand, tended to exhibit more indirect behaviors while seeking contact such as using loud music to attract others or opening the door to their rooms, which may in turn influence their adjustment to their social setting. The findings also revealed that Turkish freshmen had

difficulties in personal adjustment, which can be explained by the usage preferences of contact-avoiding behaviors (e.g., prefer to go walk alone, use bathroom at a quiet time), which in turn may increase the feelings of loneliness.

According to the Altman's privacy model (1975), each individual desires to have certain level of privacy that may vary with individual and cultural factors. Consistent with this approach, the findings suggested that the desired level of privacy differed based on an individual's culture and gender. American and Turkish students significantly differed in their desired privacy levels; Americans desired more privacy in their residence hall rooms than Turkish students. Further, gender was found to be an important individual factor in determining the differences in privacy needs. Regardless of culture, male students desired more privacy than female students.

Based on Hall's classification of cultures (1966), individuals from contact cultures (e.g., Middle Eastern, Hispanic) prefer to interact more closely with others; hence they would have more tolerance for crowded living situations than non-contact cultures (e.g., North American, Northern European). This pattern was supported by the findings that culture differentially influenced the crowding perceptions of American and Turkish male and female students in their residential settings. Turkish female students perceived their residential settings as more crowded than American female students. On the other hand, American male students perceived their residential settings as more crowded than Turkish male students.

The findings of this study were important for several reasons. The present research appeared to be the first to show the cultural differences in the perception of crowding, particularly relevant for the American and Turkish culture. In addition to the

Altman's model (1975), the present study showed that American student's desired and achieved levels of privacy had associations with how crowded he/she perceives the physical environment, however no associations were found in the Turkish sample. When American student's desired level of privacy increased, his/her crowding perception about the residential setting also increased. Further, a significant negative correlation was found between the achieved privacy level and the crowding perception scores, indicating that if American student's achieved privacy decreased, then his/her crowding perception about the residential setting increased, or vice versa.

Moreover, the finding that links crowding to privacy regulation was also consistent with Altman's (1975) framework. Crowding occurs when the achieved privacy level was less than what was desired. The results from this study revealed that the crowded, optimum, and isolated students showed significant differences in regard to their crowding perception about residence halls. The crowded students had higher mean crowding perception score than the isolated and the optimum students, supporting the relationship between crowding and privacy regulation.

The final purpose of this study was to determine whether the degree or level of territorial behavior in a residence hall room differed between American and Turkish male and female freshmen based on (a) bedroom-sharing experience during adolescence and (b) knowing one's roommate before sharing the residence hall room. According to Altman (1975), territorial behavior is a boundary regulation mechanism involving personalization of a place and communication that it is 'owned' by a person or group. Knowing one's roommate before sharing the hall room was considered to play an important role in territorial behavior of students because the familiarity or friendship can

influence students' social and personal relationships with their roommates, thereby, may affect their degree of territoriality in their hall rooms.

The findings of the present study showed strong evidence that the degree of territorial behavior in residence hall rooms differed across American and Turkish males and females based on whether they knew their roommates previously. American males and females who knew their roommates before sharing their hall room were more territorial than Turkish male and female students. Further, the results showed that American males and females who did not know their roommates, or in other words, who were assigned to their roommates by the Department of Residential Life, did not show any significant difference in the degree of territorial behavior that they exhibit, whereas Turkish males tended to be more territorial than Turkish females. Another important finding was that bedroom-sharing experience during adolescence and knowing one's roommate combined to significantly influence student's territorial behavior in a residence hall room. Among students having their own bedrooms during adolescence and who did not know their roommates exhibited more territorial behavior in their hall rooms compared to students who shared their bedrooms with others during adolescence.

Implications

This study explored the importance of privacy regulation on college adjustment of first year students. Although the generalizability of the findings is limited to those freshmen living in residence halls at Oklahoma State University and Bilkent University, the results obtained from this cross-cultural research introduce a new perspective to the literature. Further, research results provide support for the relationship between privacy

and crowding, and provide insights about the cultural differences in the crowding perception about residence halls and territorial behavior exhibited by the American and Turkish freshmen.

The findings of this research can be useful to residential staff and professionals in related organizations at universities to identify potential problems of freshmen adjustment during the first months at a college. Residential staff could benefit from the insights this study provides. Intervention programs could be developed to train resident counselors to help with students having problems in college transition. The developmental programs could be formed to train students about privacy regulation in residence rooms as well as students can be informed about how they can enhance social contact or avoid social interaction in residential settings. The education can be provided by formal and informal seminars in residence halls, or booklets and newspapers distributed by the Department of Residential Life at universities.

In summary, this study provides a theoretical explanation of the importance of privacy regulation on college adjustment. The findings show strong evidence about cultural differences regarding privacy regulation mechanisms and college adjustment. Based on the information gathered from the results, the next steps would be to propose design implications for residence hall environments and design solutions in helping privacy regulation, thereby, easing the adjustment of students.

Recommendations for Future Studies

The sample in this study was a representative of freshmen living in double occupancy rooms at the selected residence halls from Oklahoma State University and

Bilkent University. Therefore, it does not represent American and Turkish freshmen living in residence halls at other institutions. A replication of this study at different institutions in the United States and in Turkey should give us a more comprehensive understanding of the issues raised here and would be helpful in the generalizability of the findings into these two cultures.

Although in the present study the residence halls having similar design and plan configuration were selected from each university, the findings revealed that there are significant differences in the crowding perceptions of students. It seems essential for future studies to conduct a similar cultural research by controlling the physical dimensions of residence halls and to examine whether the findings would show consistent patterns with the current results. If so, an important question might be raised: Why are the residence halls being designed in a similar way (e.g., having similar building and plan configuration) even though the crowding perception in physical settings and space utilization vary across cultures?

Further, several researchers have recognized the influence of separation from families on social and personal adjustment, particularly important for the first year college students (Holmbeck and Leake, 1999; Matthews, 1999). Thus, there may be some variations in freshmen adjustment patterns due to their family relationships, which have not been investigated in the present study. Future research areas could include the comparison of American and Turkish students' adjustment problems related to the family issues. Finally, this was a cross-sectional study so the data were limited to the responses gathered during the second month of the academic year. Longitudinal studies are needed to provide a more comprehensive explanation of students' college adjustment patterns.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

RESIDENCE HALL ROOM FLOOR PLANS

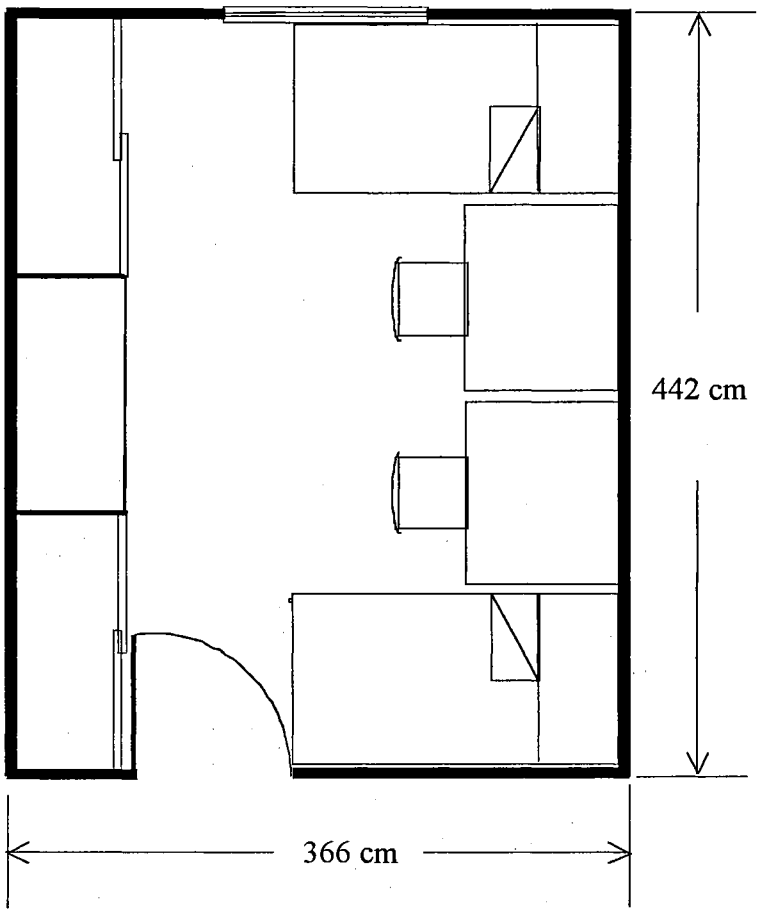

Figure A.1. Oklahoma State University Residence Hall Room Floor Plan (Scale: 1/50).

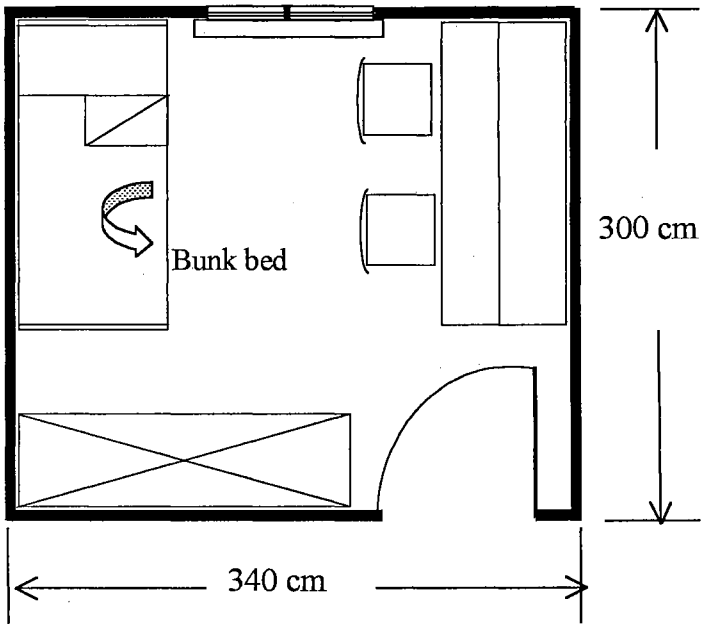

Figure A.2. Bilkent University Residence Hall Room Floor Plan (Scale: 1/50).

APPENDIX B

INSTRUMENT

FRESHMAN RESIDENTIAL LIFE SURVEY

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Your gender:
☐ Male
☐ Female

Your age: _____

• The composition of your family currently living together in the same house:

	Number
Parents (include step parents)	_____
Siblings (e.g., sister, brother)	_____
Grandparents	_____
Relatives (e.g., aunts, uncles)	_____
Others, please specify_____	_____

• Did you know your roommate before sharing your residence hall room?
☐ Yes
☐ No

The following questions are designed to learn about your background with regard to places in which you have lived prior to coming to college.

• In how many residences have you lived prior to coming to college? (Count only those in which you and your family lived for at least one year.) _____

• What type of community did you live in prior to coming to college?
☐ Large urban
☐ Small urban
☐ Suburban
☐ Rural
☐ Other, please specify_____

• **Type of living unit:**
☐ Single family
☐ Duplex
☐ Single story multiple family unit
☐ Two-three story apartment building
☐ Four-six story apartment building
☐ High rise apartment
☐ Other, please describe_____

• **Features of this living unit:**
Number of bedrooms:_____
Number of bathrooms:_____

• Did you occupy your bedroom alone or did you share it with others in the last 5 years?
☐ Alone
☐ Shared

• If shared, with how many? _____

PRIVACY SCALE

Privacy in the residence hall room may involve balancing the amount of interaction you <u>want</u> with others and the amount of interaction you <u>actually have</u>. Please answer the following questions and place a check mark in the space that most reflects your interaction with others when you are in your room.

• How much privacy do you <u>want</u> to have (e.g., how much control do you want to have over being alone vs. being with other people) when you are in your room?

none at all ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ a lot
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

• How much privacy do you <u>actually have</u> (e.g., how much control do you actually have over being alone vs. being with other people) when you are in your room?

none at all ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ a lot
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

The following questions concern the behaviors you may use when you want to be with others or to be away from others when you want privacy. For each behavior you will be asked to indicate how often you use the behavior and how effective the behavior is in increasing or decreasing your interaction with others. If you never use a behavior (you circle a "1" in the "How often..." column), you do <u>not</u> need to rate the effectiveness of that behavior (leave "If used, ..." column blank).

When you <u>want to be with others</u>, how often do you use (how effective are) the following behaviors:	How often do you use the behavior? Never				Very Often	If used, how effective is the behavior? Not at all				Very Effective
1. Open the door to my room	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2. Go to a hall lounge	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3. Go to other place where people will be within the residence hall	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4. Call someone on the telephone	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5. Study at a time or place where people are around	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6. Go looking for people in their rooms	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7. Turn on music to attract people	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
8. Use the bathroom to wash up at a popular time	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
9. Invite people to my room	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

When you want to be away from others, how often do you use (how effective are) the following behaviors:	How often do you use the behavior? Never				Very Often	If used, how effective is the behavior? Not at all				Very Effective
1. Shut the door to my room	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2. Find a quiet place somewhere on campus or in the residence hall	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3. Arrange my room to provide for privacy	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4. Tune out noise when I want to concentrate	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5. Play loud music (or use headphones) to shut out distractions	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6. Go for a walk by myself	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7. Get up early or stay up late to get the bathroom to myself	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
8. Get ready for bed in the bathroom if there are other people in my room	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
9. I have learned to sleep/study with other people in the room and with parties on the floor	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

• People often experience a variety of emotions. When you are in your room, how often do you feel:

Lonely – wanting more interaction with others

never ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ very often

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Crowded – wanting less interaction with others

never ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ very often

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Solitude – satisfied with time away from others

never ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ very often

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Connection – enjoying time together with others

never ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ very often

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

TERRITORIAL BEHAVIOR SCALE

The following questions are designed to explore your living habits in your residence hall room. Please check the number that most reflects your behavior. Checking the number in the extreme position means that you either strongly disagree or strongly agree or behave in this manner never or very often.

1. I feel that there is an imaginary, but clear line, which divides the room into my territory and my roommate's territory.

strongly disagree ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. My roommate and I lie down on one another's bed.

never ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ very often
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. If a friend of mine who had never seen my room saw it, he/she would recognize it as mine.

strongly disagree ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Some of the articles that I have in my room are things that I really care about.

strongly disagree ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. My roommate and I use one another's desk.

never ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ very often
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. My roommate and I use one another's clothes.

never ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ very often
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. I feel that my room is truly a reflection of me.

strongly disagree ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. My roommate and I use one another's personal belongings (e.g., books, radio, pens).

never ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ very often
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. My roommate and I each decorated our own side of the room.

strongly disagree ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ strongly agree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. I feel very much at home in my room.

strongly disagree ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. My roommate and I take things out of one another's closet and drawers without first asking.

never ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ very often

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. I feel, overall, that the room is more a reflection my roommate's taste and style.

strongly disagree ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. I don't have anything in my room that I especially value.

strongly disagree ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. I feel that my side of the room looks very different from my roommate's.

strongly disagree ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. I have a strong need for a clear definition of what is mine and what is my roommate's.

strongly disagree ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16. In general, I prefer sharing a room with another person to living alone.

strongly disagree ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ENVIRONMENTAL PERCEPTION SCALE

The following questions deal with general opinions you have about <u>residence hall life</u>. For each of the rating scales below, circle the number that most reflects your feelings about residence hall.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. I feel that the living situation in the residence hall is very crowded.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The corridors in the residence hall tend to be very crowded.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. The bathrooms are often crowded and it is necessary to wait in order to use them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The noise of my neighbors in the hall is loud enough and frequent enough to be annoying.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I prefer to meet my friends outside the residence hall so that we can have privacy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I can find quiet hours in the residence hall to either get work done or just be alone without being disturbed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

For each of the rating scales below, place a check mark in the space that most reflects your feelings about your <u>room</u>. Checking the space in the extreme position means that your reaction to the room had the quality referred to in a very large degree, while checking the middle space means that your reaction to the room was neutral.

comfortable	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	uncomfortable
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
private	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	public
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
roomy	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	cramped
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
personal	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	impersonal
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
warm	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	cold
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
happy	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	sad
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
pleasing	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	annoying
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
closed	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	open
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
uncrowded	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	crowded
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
quiet	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	noisy
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

ADJUSTMENT SCALE

The following questions deal with general opinions you have about college life. For each of the rating scales below, please circle the number that best indicates how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
Social adjustment							
1. Since coming to this university I have developed close personal relationships with other students.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The student friendships I have developed at this university have been personally satisfying.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. It has been difficult for me to meet and make friends with other students.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Few of the students I know would be willing to listen to me and help me if I had a personal problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Most students at this university have values and attitudes different from my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I am more likely to attend a cultural event (e.g., a concert, lectures) now than I was before coming to this university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I easily get along with my roommate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Academic adjustment							
8. I am satisfied with my academic experience at this university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I am satisfied with the extent of my intellectual development since enrolling in this university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. My academic experience has had a positive influence on my intellectual growth and interest in ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I feel good about my academic program and courses.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I find my academic work difficult at college.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I regularly attend my classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Institutional adjustment

14. It is important for me to graduate from college.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I am confident that I made the right decision in choosing to attend this university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. It is likely that I will register at this university next fall.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. It is not important to me to graduate from this university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. The likelihood that I will finish the present school year is almost certain.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I have clear academic goals and purposes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I would rather be in another university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Personal adjustment

21. I often feel alone at the university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I like living in the residence hall.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. A big campus like this is lonely.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Sometimes I get homesick.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I am adjusting pretty well to the university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. I feel like the residence hall is "home" now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I often feel nervous and tense.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. It is not easy to take responsibility for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

YURT YAŞAMI ANKETİ

ÖĞRENCİ HAKKINDA GENEL BİLGİ

Cinsiyetiniz:
☐ Erkek
☐ Kız

Yaşınız: _____

• Evinizde yaşayan aile bireylerinin sayısı:

	Sayı
Anne, baba (üvey varsa belirtiniz)	_____
Büyük kardeş	_____
Küçük kardeş	_____
Anneanne, dede, babaanne, büyük baba	_____
Akraba (amca, hala, teyze, dayı, yeğen, vs)	_____
Diğer, lütfen belirtiniz_____	_____

• Yurt odanızı paylaşmadan önce oda arkadaşınızı tanıyor muydunuz?
☐ Evet
☐ Hayır

• Şimdiye kadar aileniz ile kaç ev değiştirdiniz (en az 1 yıl oturulan ev sayısı) _____

• Yaşamınızın büyük kısmını geçirdiğiniz yerleşim merkezi aşağıdakilerden hangisidir?
☐ Büyük şehir (İstanbul, Ankara, İzmir, Bursa, vs.)
☐ İlçe merkezi
☐ İl merkezi (bucak, belde)
☐ Kırsal kesim, köy
☐ Diğer, lütfen belirtiniz _____

• **Ailenizin halen oturmakta olduğu konut tipi:**
☐ Tek katlı müstakil ev
☐ 2 katlı müstakil ev
☐ 2-3 katlı apartman
☐ 4-6 katlı apartman
☐ 6 katdan yüksek apartman
☐ Diğer, lütfen belirtiniz _____

• **Bu konutun özellikleri:**
Yatak odası sayısı:_____
Banyo sayısı:_____

• Son 5 yıl içinde yatak odanızı başkası ile (kardeş, akraba, arkadaş gibi) paylaştınız mı?
☐ Hayır, paylaşmadım.
☐ Evet, paylaştım.

• Paylaştıysanız, kaç kişi ile paylaştınız? _____

SOSYAL İLİŞKİ

Yurt odasında <u>mevcut</u> sosyal ilişki düzeyi ile <u>istenilen</u> ilişki düzeyinin dengede tutulması büyük önem taşır. Aşağıda verilen soruları dikkatlice okuyup, sizin diğerleri ile olan ilişki düzeyini yansıtan en uygun rakamı işaretleyiniz..

• Odanızda iken, odaya giren çıkanları, gelişen tüm olayları, oda arkadaşınızın davranışlarını ne ölçüde kontrol etmek istersiniz?

hiç istemem ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ çok isterim
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

• Sizce şu anda ne kadar kontrolunuz var?

hiç yok ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ çok var
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Aşağıdaki sorular sizin diğerleri ile <u>birlikte olmak</u> yada <u>yalnız kalmak</u> istediğiniz zaman kullandığınız davranışlar hakkında bilgi edinmek için düzenlenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen her durum için, o davranışı ne sıklıkta kullandığınızı ve etki derecesini belirtiniz. İlgili seçeneğe ait rakamı lütfen yuvarlak içine alınız.

Diğerleri ile <u>birlikte olmak</u> istediğiniz zaman:	Bu davranışı ne kadar sıklıkta kullanıyorsunuz?					Eğer kullanıyorsanız, ne derecede etkili oluyor?				
	hiç				çok sık	hiç etkili olmuyor				çok etkili oluyor
1. Oda kapısını açık bırakırım	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2. Yurt oturma odasına/salonuna giderim	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3. Tanıdıklarımın olacağı yerlere giderim	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4. Tanıdıklarımı telefon ile ararım	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5. Diğerlerinin bulunduğu yerlerde/ zamanlarda ders çalışırım	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6. Arkadaşlarımın odalarını ziyaret ederim	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7. Başka insanların dikkatini çekmek için müziğin sesini açarım	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
8. Banyoyu kalabalık zamanlarda kullanırım	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
9. Tanıdıklarımı odama davet ederim	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Yalnız kalmak istediğiniz zaman:	Bu davranışı ne kadar sıklıkta kullanıyorsunuz?					Eğer kullanıyorsanız, ne derecede etkili oluyor?				
	hiç				çok sık	hiç etkili olmuyor				çok etkili oluyor
1. Oda kapısını kapatırım	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2. Yurtda yada kampüste sessiz bir yer ararım	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3. Odada kendime ait bir mekan yaratırım	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4. Ders çalışırken sessiz ortam yaratırım	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5. Gürültüyü duymamak için yüksek sesle müzik dinlerim (yada kulaklık ile)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6. Tek başıma yürüyüşe çıkarım	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7. Banyoyu tenha zamanlarda kullanırım	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
8. Odam kalabalıksa, odama girmekten kaçınırım	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
9. Odamda birileri varken çalışmayı / uyumayı öğrendim	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

• Yurt odanızda iken, aşağıda belirtilen duyguları ne sıklıkta hissediyorsunuz?

Yalnızlık duygusu

hiç ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ çok sık

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Kalabalık hissi (insanlardan kaçma isteği)

hiç ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ çok sık

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Tek başına olmaktan memnun olma (diğerleri ile ayrı olmaktan memnun olma)

hiç ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ çok sık

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Bağlılık/birliktelik duygusu (diğerleri ile birlikte olmaktan memnun olma)

hiç ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ çok sık

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

SOSYAL DAVRANIŞ / MEKANSAL DAVRANIŞ

Bu bölümdeki sorular yurt odanızdaki yaşamınız hakkında bilgi edinmek için düzenlenmiştir. Aşağıda verilen durumlardan her birine ne derecede katıldığınızı belirtiniz. Katılma derecesini gösteren rakamı işaretleyiniz.

1. Bence benim ve oda arkadaşımın kişisel alanını ayıran hayali ama kesin bir çizgi var.

kesinlikle katılmıyorum							kesinlikle katılıyorum
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

2. Oda arkadaşım da ben de, birbirimizin yatağına oturup, uzanırız.

hiç bir zaman							her zaman
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

3. Odama ilk defa gelen bir arkadaşım odanın bana ait olduğunu anlar.

kesinlikle katılmıyorum							kesinlikle katılıyorum
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

4. Odamdaki bazı eşyalar benim için çok değerlidir.

kesinlikle katılmıyorum							kesinlikle katılıyorum
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

5. Oda arkadaşım da ben de, birbirimizin çalışma masasını kullanırız.

hiç bir zaman							her zaman
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

6. Oda arkadaşım da ben de, birbirimizin kıyafetlerini giyeriz.

hiç bir zaman							her zaman
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

7. Odamın tamamen beni yansıttığı fikrindeyim.

kesinlikle katılmıyorum							kesinlikle katılıyorum
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

8. Oda arkadaşım da ben de, birbirimizin kişisel eşyalarını kullanırız (radyo, kalem, vs).

hiç bir zaman							her zaman
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

9. Oda arkadaşım da ben de, odanın kendimize ait olan kısmını dekore ettik.

kesinlikle katılmıyorum							kesinlikle katılıyorum
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

10. Odamda kendimi evimdeymişim gibi hissediyorum.

kesinlikle katılmıyorum							kesinlikle katılıyorum
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

11. Oda arkadaşım da ben de, birbirimizin eşyalarını sormadan çekmecesinden/ dolabından alırız.

hiç bir zaman ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ her zaman
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. Genel olarak, yurt odamın, oda arkadaşımın zevkini ve tarzını yansıttığı fikrindeyim.

kesinlikle kesinlikle
katılmıyorum ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ katılıyorum
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. Odamda gerçekten değer verdiğim hiç bir şey yok.

kesinlikle kesinlikle
katılmıyorum ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ katılıyorum
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. Bence yurt odamın bana ait tarafı, oda arkadaşımınkinden çok farklı.

kesinlikle kesinlikle
katılmıyorum ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ katılıyorum
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. Odamda neyin kime ait olduğunu kesinlikle bilmek isterim.

kesinlikle kesinlikle
katılmıyorum ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ katılıyorum
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16. Genel olarak, tek başıma kalmaktansa, bir başkası ile odayı paylaşmayı tercih ederim.

kesinlikle kesinlikle
katılmıyorum ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ katılıyorum
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ÇEVRESEL ALGILAMA

Aşağıdaki sorular sizin <u>yurt yaşamı</u> ile ilgili genel görüşlerinizi içermektedir. Aşağıda verilen durumlardan her birine ne derecede katıldığınızı belirtiniz. Katılma derecesini gösteren sayıyı lütfen yuvarlak içine alınız.

	kesinlikle katılmıyorum						kesinlikle katılıyorum
1. Yurt yaşamının çok kalabalık olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Yurtdaki koridorlar çok kalabalık.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Yurt banyoları genellikle kalabalık ve kullanmak için beklemek gerekiyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Yurtdaki diğer odaların gürültüleri sık sık rahatsız edici düzeye ulaşıyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Arkadaşlarım ile yalnız kalmak için yurdun dışında buluşmayı tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Yurtda ödevlerimi yapmak, ders çalışmak, yada rahatsız edilmeden yalnız kalmak için sessiz sakin zamanlar bulabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Aşağıda verilen sıfat çiftleri ile odanızı hissettiğiniz şekilde değerlendiriniz. Örnek: Odanız, rahat ise 1'i, rahatsız ise 7'yi işaretleyiniz. Uç noktalara yakınlık derecesine göre diğer rakamları işaretleyiniz. Bu konuda kararsızsanız 4' ü işaretleyiniz.

rahat	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	rahatsız
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
özel	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	genel
(kendime ait)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(herkeze ait)
ferah	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	sıkışık
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
kişisel	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	kişisel değil
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
sıcak ortam	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	soğuk ortam
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
mutlu	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	mutsuz
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
memnun edici	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	rahatsız edici
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
kişilere kapalı	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	kişilere açık
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
tenha	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	kalabalık
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
sessiz	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	gürültülü
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

ÜNİVERSİTE YAŞAMI

Bu bölümdeki sorular sizin üniversite yaşamı ile ilgili genel düşüncelerinizi içermektedir. Aşağıda verilen durumlardan her birine ne derecede katıldığınızı belirtiniz. Katılma derecesini gösteren sayıyı lütfen yuvarlak içine alınız.

	kesinlikle katılmıyorum						kesinlikle katılıyorum
1. Üniversiteye başladığımdan beri, diğer öğrenciler ile yakın arkadaşlık kurdum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Üniversitede kurduğum arkadaşlıklardan memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Diğer öğrencilerle tanışıp, arkadaş olmak benim için zor oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Kişisel bir problemim olduğunda, bana yardımcı olacak birkaç arkadaşım var.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Bu üniversitede bir çok öğrencinin değer yargıları ve davranışları benimkilerden farklı.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Artık eskisine göre kültürel etkinliklere daha çok katılıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Oda arkadaşımla iyi geçinirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Üniversitede ki akademik deneyimimden memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.Üniversiteye başladığımdan beri entellektüel gelişimimden memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Akademik deneyimim, entellektüel gelişimime ve yeni fikirlere olan ilgime olumlu etkisi oldu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Aldığım derslerden ve bölümümden memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Bölümümde ki dersleri zor buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Derslere düzenli olarak katılıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Benim için üniversiteden mezun olmak önemli.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Bu üniversiteyi seçmekle doğru karar verdiğime eminim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. Gelecek sene, bu üniversiteye kaydımı devam ettireceğim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Bu üniversiteden mezun olmak benim için önemli değil.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Bu akademik yılı başarıyla bitireceğime eminim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Belirli kesin akademik hedeflerim ve amaçlarım var.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Başka bir üniversitede olmayı tercih ederdim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Üniversitede kendimi sık sık yalnız hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Yurtda kalmayı seviyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Böyle büyük bir kampüste kendimi yalnız hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Bazen evimi, ailemi özlüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Üniversiteye alışmakta zorluk çekmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Artık yurt odamda kendimi evimde gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Sık sık aşırı heyecan ve gerilim hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Kendi sorumluluğumu üstlenmek kolay değil.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX C

SOLICITATION SCRIPT

SOLICITATION SCRIPT

Hello, My name is Naz Kaya. I am a graduate student in the Department of Design, Housing and Merchandising at Oklahoma State University. I am conducting a research, examining the current living situations in residence halls, which is part of my dissertation study. Participants will be asked to complete a questionnaire. It takes 10-15 minutes to complete this questionnaire. All the information you provide will be kept confidential. No names are requested anywhere in the questionnaire. The participation is voluntary. There is no penalty if you decide not to participate.

[The subject is asked whether he/she wants to participate in this study.]

Would you be willing to participate in this study?

→ *If the answer is yes, the subject is asked:*

Is this a good time for you?

> *[If the answer is yes, the investigator provided a consent form (2 copies—1 for research documentation, 1 for participant to keep) and asked the subject to read and sign the consent form. The person who signed the form received a copy of the document. Then, the questionnaire was given to the subject to complete.]*
>
> *[If the answer is no, the subject is asked to set up an appointment for a later time.]*

→ *If the answer is no, the subject is told:*

Thank you for your time. Have a nice day.

APPENDIX D

CONSENT FORM

CONSENT FORM

Name of the research project: PRIVACY REGULATION AND FRESHMAN ADJUSTMENT TO A COLLEGE: A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY

Naz Kaya, the principle investigator of this study, is conducting this research. She is a graduate student in the Department of Design, Housing, and Merchandising at Oklahoma State University. The purpose of this study is to examine the current living situations in residence halls and aims to ease the transition to a college environment. The findings of this research would be helpful for the Residential Life staff to have a better understanding of students' needs. The questionnaire takes 10-15 minutes to complete. There are no right or wrong responses. All information provided in this survey will be held in the strictest confidence and will be used only for the purpose of this research.

I understand that participation is voluntary and that I will not be penalized if I choose not to participate. I also understand that I am free to withdraw my consent and end my participation in this project at any time without penalty after I notify the project director.

I have read and fully understand the consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. A copy has been given to me.

Date: _____ Time: _____(a.m./p.m.)

Name:_____ Signature:_____

I certify that I have personally explained all elements of this form to the subject before requesting the subject to sign it.

Signed: _____

Project director

APPENDIX E

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

Oklahoma State University
Institutional Review Board

Protocol Expires: 9/21/01

Date : Friday, September 22, 2000 IRB Application No HE015

Proposal Title: PRIVACY REGULATION AND FRESHMAN ADJUSTMENT TO A COLLEGE: A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY

Principal Investigator(s) :

Naz Kaya
021 HES
Stillwater, OK 74078

Margaret Weber
109 HES
Stillwater, OK 74078

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s) : Approved

Signature : 

Carol Olson, Director of University Research Compliance

Friday, September 22, 2000
Date

Approvals are valid for one calendar year, after which time a request for continuation must be submitted. Any modifications to the research project approved by the IRB must be submitted for approval with the advisor's signature. The IRB office MUST be notified in writing when a project is complete. Approved projects are subject to monitoring by the IRB. Expedited and exempt projects may be reviewed by the full Institutional Review Board.

VITA

Naz Kaya

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: PRIVACY REGULATION AND FRESHMAN ADJUSTMENT TO A COLLEGE: A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY

Major Field: Human Environmental Sciences

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Ankara, Turkey in 1974, the daughter of Müge and Sefa Kaya

Education: Graduated form T.E.D. Ankara College in June, 1991; received Bachelor of Fine Arts degree in Interior Architecture and Environmental Design from Bilkent University, Ankara, Turkey in June, 1995; received Master of Fine Arts degree in Interior Architecture and Environmental Design from Bilkent University, Ankara, Turkey in June, 1997; Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree with a minor in Environmental Design at Oklahoma State University in May, 2001.

Experience: Graduate Assistant, Department of Interior Architecture and Environmental Design, Bilkent University, October, 1996 to June, 1998; Teaching Assistant, Department of Design, Housing, and Merchandising, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, U.S., January, 1999 to June, 1999, May, 2000 to July, 2000; Research Assistant, College of Human Environmental Sciences, Oklahoma State University, January, 1999 to May, 2001.