

TALLINN UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY
School of Business and Governance
Department of Business Administration

Binnur Sevinc

**THE EFFECTS OF ERASMUS STUDY EXCHANGE ON
EMPLOYABILITY OF TURKISH GRADUATE SAMPLE**

Master Thesis

HWVM 11/12 Work and Organisational Psychology

Supervisor: Liina Randmann PhD

Tallinn 2018

I declare that the I have compiled the paper independently and all works, important standpoints and data by other authors have been properly referenced and the same paper has not been previously been presented for grading. The document length is 10.847 words from the introduction to the end of summary.

Binnur Sevinc

(signature, date)

Student code: 156893HVWM

Student e-mail address: binnursevinc@gmail.com

Supervisor: Liina Randmann, PhD.

The paper conforms to requirements in force

.....

(signature, date)

Chairman of the Defence Committee:

Permitted to the defence

.....

(name, signature, date)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	7
1.1. Competence Based Employability	10
1.2. Self-Perceived Employability	13
1.3. International Mobility	17
2. THE PROBLEM STATEMENT	22
3. METHODOLOGY	26
3.1. Procedure.....	26
3.2. Sample.....	26
3.3. The Scales	26
Self-Perceived Employability Scale.....	26
Competence Based Employability Scale.....	27
Self-Efficacy Scale.....	27
The Satisfaction with Life Scale	27
Demographics	27
3.4. The Results.....	28
4. DISCUSSION	32
CONCLUSION	36
LIST OF REFERENCES	39
APPENDICES	42
Appendix 1. Self-perceived employability scale.....	42
Appendix 2. Competence Based Employability scale.....	43
Appendix 3. New General Self Efficacy Scale	46
Appendix 4. Self-efficacy scale	47
Appendix 5. Descriptive Statistics of MANOVA	48
Appendix 6. Multivariate Test Results.....	50
Appendix 7. Results of Between-Subjects	51
Appendix 8. Bivariate Correlations.....	53
Appendix 9. The distribution of the objective measures of employability for people who did Erasmus	54
Appendix 10. The distribution of objective measures of employability for people who didn't do Erasmus	55

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to find out if there is any effect of Erasmus study exchange on employability of the Turkish graduates. To achieve this aim, the paper defines the employability descriptions and explains two different employability concepts that are used. Self-perceived employability and competence based employability were chosen to measure the effects of Erasmus study exchange experience. The paper then goes one step further by collecting information also about self-efficacy and life satisfaction in order to understand if the relationship goes beyond the employability skills. The study found effect of Erasmus on the life satisfaction. There are also several links found between the subscales of self-perceived employability and self-efficacy in the sample. The study also states some differences in objective measurement of employability in terms of salary and number of months of being unemployed. The graduates who did Erasmus study exchange have higher percentage of high salary range. The author believes that it contributes to the literature in following ways. First, there isn't any specific study done with the Turkish sample since the effects of Erasmus study exchange experience and this study shows some unexpected results in terms of employability and life-satisfaction of graduates. Also it shows the need to do more research about it which can also be useful for the policy making and promoting Erasmus study exchange in Turkey.

Keywords- Self-perceived employability, competence based employability, Turkish graduate students, self-efficacy, life satisfaction

INTRODUCTION

According to the Erasmus Impact report (2013) from 1987 to 2013 there were over 3 million students that did Erasmus student mobility. There are some studies conducted to measure the effects of international mobility on the skills and employability of the students. These studies showed that the experience of studying abroad enhanced students personal and professional lives, increased their openness, adaptability, flexibility, language learning, intercultural skills, self-awareness and self-reliance. However, Van Mol (2016) suggests another argument that the increase of the employability from the perspective of the employers is not that positive in all European countries however, Turkey is one of the countries that Erasmus study exchange is valued by the employers.

Employability has had many meanings throughout the history. When it comes to today, employability is defined by Forrier and Sels (2003) as the individual's chance of a job in external and internal market. Yorke and Knight (2007) defined it as chosen occupation, putting emphasis on the individual's satisfaction with the job. There are also number of attributes that are widely accepted by researches in the employability notion which are the knowledge and skills, capacity for learning, mastery of career management and job search and professional knowledge(Rothwell &Arnold, 2005). Within the light of these explanations, in this research two different perspectives of employability are used which are self-perceived employability and competence based employability. The self-perceived employability is person's belief about their skills of employability (Rothwell, Jewel &Hardie,2009).The competence based employability is set of cognitive competences that affect employability(Heijde & Heijden, 2006). These competences are anticipation and optimization, personal flexibility, corporate sense and balance. These terms were chosen because, one will show the person's beliefs about how the work abroad affected their employability, the other one will give a more objective picture if any of the employability competences increased as a result of the study abroad and if it did which competence mediated this increase.

The study aims to look if the participants thought they had any difference in self-belief and competences after Erasmus study exchange. Also the study examines if there is any difference between life satisfaction and self-efficacy of graduates who did Erasmus study exchange and who didn't. The objective measures of employability are also used, such as the salary, and number of months of being unemployed.

In this thesis, the structure will be as followed. Firstly, the employability literature will be explained, and the different models of employability will be described. Then the used models will be described in detail. The studies done with the effects of international study period will also be part of the literature review. After that, the methodology of the study will be described. The results will be shown with the statistical figures and will be discussed later in the study. The future implications will be followed by summary of the whole thesis.

1. LITERATURE REVIEW

The term employability in general refers to “the extent to which an employee is capable of gaining and maintaining employment” (Sok, Blomme&Tromp, 2014, p.274). When the history of employability is traced down, according to Gazier (1998) the term first started to be used in twentieth century (Guilbert & et.al, 2015). Even though in the beginning it was a dichotomous term to differentiate the individuals who are able to and who are unable to work, the term developed later as an economic construct for government measures. In 1950’s, the term moved to the direction of work and self-image which shifted to knowledge and abilities in 1970’s. The scope of the term included active population in 1990 and several studies showed the role of individuals in keeping and developing their employability (Guilbert & et.al, 2015). According to Kluytmanns and Ott (2010) life-time employment is replaced by life-time employability. The psychological contract between the employer and the employee as well changed. When the employers expected permanent loyalty, obedience and maximum performance before, now their expectation is rotated to permanent employment, maximum involvement, ability and motivation to mobility, education and employee’s taking responsibility over his/her career. On the other hand, the employees expected rewards for loyalty, control for their career and payment for performance of their function before and now it became more oriented to permanent jobs, challenging function, payment for performance and possibilities to move on (Kluytmanns &Ott, 2010).

According to Forrier and Sels (2003) the definitions of employability can be both external and internal. There are four different categories that employability was researched in the literature. The first one is individual characteristics. These studies focus on the characteristics that individual should have to be employable or sustain employability. The second dimension is context. Some studies don’t only focus on the individual characteristics but also the demands of employer and possibilities that are offered to the employee. They state that lack of these possibilities is an important factor preventing career development of the employee. The third dimension is effect. The studies about

effect focus on the job quality in addition to the employability of the employee. The last dimension is the activities. These studies focus on what the employee should do in order to enhance their employability such as task enrichment and training. According to the authors even though there is a big literature about employability, the clarity of the information is lacking. In order to clear the descriptions, Thijssen defines three different definitions for employability. The core definition of employability is “personal aptitude to carry out work”(Forrier & Sels, 2003, p.106). The broader definition also includes the willingness and motivation to enhance employability. Comprehensive definition adds the contextual factors like training. The use of employability in the labor market, also includes if a certain group is discriminated is also part of comprehensive employability. However, authors Forrier and Sels (2003) consider employability not something to measure but a process and their model of employability process which they explain as a process that affects the person’s chance in the external and internal market.

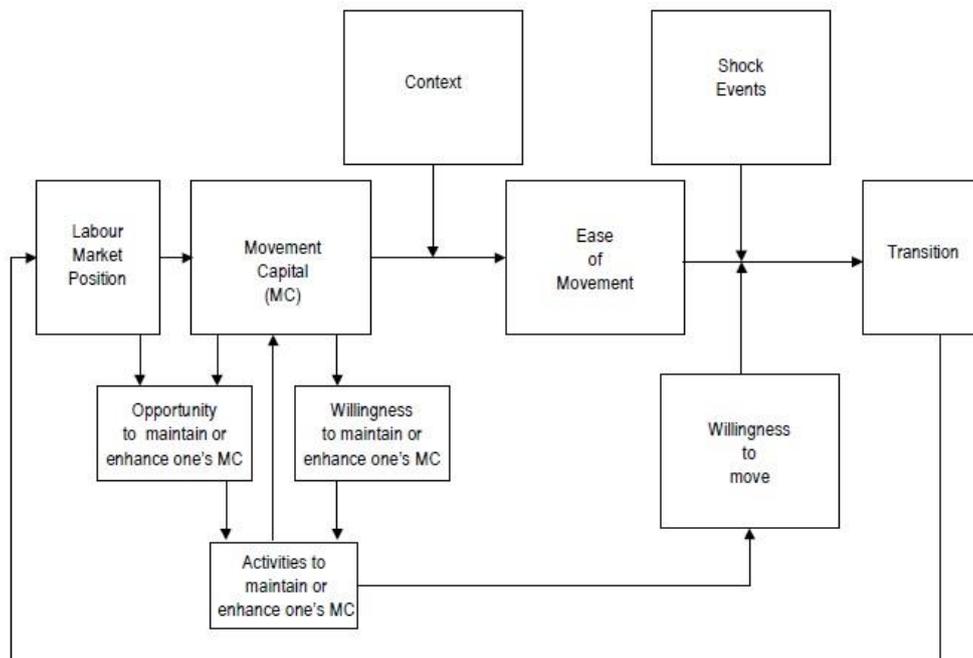


Figure.1. Employability Process Model

Source: Forrier & Sels (2003, 108).

The authors suggest this model in order to clarify the relations and components when doing research about employability. The employability is a complex process and in order

to understand why two people with the same qualifications have different careers, they suggest their model would be helpful (Forrier & Sels, 2003).

According to Hillage and Pollard (1998), employability is the skill to realize one's potential within sustainable employment (Rothwell, Herbert & Rothwell, 2008). The job seekers might expect to have a career after getting their degree. It also includes the employee's ability to move within the labor market to realize his/her potential. It can be said that the employers are getting more interested in various competences in addition to the occupational expertise when employing and expertise only doesn't secure a job (Sok, Blomme&Tromp, 2014). Even though the narrow definitions employability would include only knowledge and skills, from an individual perspective, it also includes their attitudes, how they use and show their knowledge and skills to the employers. Employability also depends on the context that the individuals seek work (Sok, Blomme& Tromp, 2014).

Another person-centric model was proposed by Fugate et al. (2004) that predicts employability as a psychosocial construct with focus on individual characteristics. This person-centric approach gives the responsibility of career management and development from employers to employees. Their conceptualization of employability includes three dimensions. These dimensions are career identity, personal adaptability and social and human capital which are independent and interrelated. Career identity is how the person defines him/herself in work context. However, it is not specific to one work but more longitudinal definition depending on the past experiences, career, and knowledge. According to the authors, career identity is a strong cognitive and psychological base of employability. The question of "who I am and who I want to be" in work context, shows the possible career identities the person have (Fugate, Kinicki & Ashfort, 2004). This provides a cognitive schema to understand the career behaviors, how the individuals sustain, enact and regulate their behaviors. Personal adaptability is the person's motivation to adapt to different situations and changing nature of work. There are individual factors that constitute to personal adaptability. The researchers found out five different personal variables that have relevance to identification and realization of opportunities at work and have external focus. These individual variables are optimism, propensity to learn, openness, internal locus of control and self-efficacy. The people with high employability manifest high in these characteristics of personal adaptability. The third factor described in their model is social and human capital. Social capital influences the networking; how the

individual is willing to develop their social network. Social capital is important in terms of job opportunities with both formal and informal social networks. Human capital, on the other hand, includes the factors that affect individual's career advancement. Age, education, work experience, emotional intelligence, skills, competences and cognitive ability are factors affecting human capital. Education and experience are found to have the strongest influence on employability. The authors define employability as a reciprocal relationship between all of these factors, affecting each other and the employability of the person (Fugate, Kinicki & Ashfort, 2004). Yorke (2006) also defines employability from individual perspective with skills, knowledge and attributes that make graduates get recruited and get successful in their chosen occupation. After the emergence of educational approaches, Bernston and Marklund as well described employability as the perception of the person for his/her opportunities to getting employed (2007).

Another term that is used when talking about employability is graduate employability. It is often explained in terms of objective measures like job offers and employment status. According to Mason et al. (2009) employability was described as the attributes that a graduate has that can make productive contribution to organization (Turhan & Akman, 2013). However according to Okay-Somerville and Scholarios (2017), subjective experience of employability is often neglected in researches about graduate employability. In their research, it was found that educational background had significant effect of perceived employability (Okay-Somerville & Scholarios, 2017). For a student their perceived employability can be accepted as getting a career that fits their degree and qualification. External labor market is also one of the important factors when considering employability. It is also a person centered construct which involves career identity, personal adaptability and social human capital. According to the study of Fugate et al., employability helps individuals to cope with work changes. In this aspect, the description is similar to self-perceived employability, with the "ability to proactively address the challenges of the labor market" (Rothwell, Herbert & Rothwell, 2008, p. 2).

1.1. Competence Based Employability

Competences are one dimension for company to increase performance and competitiveness. "The resource based view of the firm can be positioned somewhere in between so-called soft and hard strategic HRM approaches in that it offers a framework for

theorizing on and practicing balance between the interests of organizations and employees.”(Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006, p.451) In the light of that, it can be said that the competences are valuable assets that benefit both employee and organization. There are many studies done in order to find out what competences lead to employability (Espinar, 2010; Berdrow & Evers, 2011; Pinto & Ramalheira, 2017; Kluytmann & Ott, 2010; Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2009).

The study by Evers, Rush and Berdrow (1998) created a model called “Bases of Competence” that aims to analyze the core competences required for corporate employment (Berdrow & Evers, 2011). Even though their project was more focused on the business students and future managers, their study is considered to be international. Their model advocates that there is a gap between the high education prerequisites and the challenges faced in the work situation. After the longitudinal study done with students and employees in Canada, they found 17 skills and four factors. The factors included; managing self, communicating, managing people and tasks and mobilizing innovation and change (Berdrow & Evers, 2011). Managing self is maximizing the one’s abilities to develop. Learning, time management, personal strengths, and problem solving fall under this criterion. Communicating is the effective interaction with individuals and groups in order to gather integrate and convey information. The skills of interpersonal communication, listening, oral communication and written communication fall under this factor. The third factor is managing people and tasks which stand for accomplishing tasks by planning, organizing, coordinating and controlling. The last factor defined by the authors is mobilizing innovation and change which is initiating and managing change with the best results. This includes skills of ability to conceptualize, creativity, risk taking and visioning (Berdrow & Evers, 2011).

Another study that is done with perceived employability with students was with the Portuguese sample, looking at the effects of academic performance and extracurricular activities on the employability based on the Bases of the Competences by Berdrow, Rush and Evers (1998) (Pinto & Ramalheira, 2017). In their study, they asked managers and recruiters in companies in Portugal to rate the employability competences from the model. In this research, rather than the perception of the student from his/her own perception, but from the perception of the recruiter was measured (Pinto & Ramalheira, 2017). The raters were given the resumes that differ in their GPA, extracurricular activities and gender. But

they asked the recruiters to rate only the skills of time management, learning and personal organization from the model. The results indicated that GPA and extracurricular activities both were positively impacted the perception of the recruiter of their skills in managing self from the model by Berdrow and Evers (2011) and the recruiters considered students with high GPA and extracurricular activities more employable.

According to Freire et al. (2011), the generic competences that are most valued by the graduates in their sample from Spain are the communication, leadership, customer focus, understanding and emotional sensitivity (Rivera et al. , 2012). Another study with Spanish sample done by Rodrigues Espinar et al. (2010) stated that the competences for humanities graduates and Social Science graduates were different. While graduates from Humanities stated the most valued competences are writing, critical thinking and documentation; the Social Science graduates stated that teamwork, problem solving and decision making are the most valued competences(Rivera et al. , 2012).

The term competence based employability by Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) aims to bring together the individual capabilities with the organizational core competences. According to the definition of Athey and Orth (1999) competence is the performance dimensions like knowledge, skills, attitudes, behaviors as well as collective team process that affect performance and competitive advantage of the organization.

The competences of employability in this model are the occupational expertise, anticipation and optimization, personal flexibility, corporate sense and balance (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006). Occupational expertise is supported to be an important factor in employability. It is a significant human capital factor for organizations. Anticipation and optimization on the other hand is employee's ability to prepare for future work changes in personal and creative manner for best possible career outcomes. In the labor market today, instead of performing fixed job and work duties, employees have the opportunity to fulfill their labor requirements by themselves. The studies conducted for proactive personality with high anticipation and optimization skills suggested that it is important for team and company efficiency. Personal flexibility is how the employee is able to adapt to the changes and mergers happening in the organization that aren't controllable. In the today's world of work, the internal and external labor market is changing rapidly which require employees that are flexible. These two types of

adaptability measures were included in the measurement by Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006). The fourth dimension of competences of employability is the corporate sense. In the work context, an employee isn't only part of one group but he/she is part of the organization. The engagement literature and organizational citizenship behavior are part of this concept. In the work context today, an employee is part of different departments, working groups and as well part of virtual teams. The understanding and internalizing the organizational values and goals is an important factor for organizations. The last dimension is balance, which is explained as the balance between employer's interests and the employee's interests. According to the studies conducted, it is hard to talk about employability without having a honest exchange between employer and employee that they both have feelings of balance (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006).

1.2. Self-Perceived Employability

Before explaining the model used in this study, the studies done with perceived employability will be explained. One longitudinal study done by Wittekind et al. (2009) examined the determinants of perceived employability with employees of Swiss companies which was undergoing change. The researchers state that employability isn't an important factor only for the unemployed people, but also the employees who are currently employed in this changing world of work. In this sense, the organizational change can be a significant factor that is affected by perceived employability. According to the study by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) the stress in the organization is considered as threat if the employee doesn't have the cognitional coping mechanism (Wittekind, Raedar & Grote, 2009). The employees who trust their employability tend to see the change as less threatening. In the research by Wittekind et al. they make a model for determinants that include job related qualifications, willingness to change jobs and knowledge of the labor market. Job related qualification includes the university degree and competence development opportunities by the employer. They found that the university degree and skills thought are important factors in perceived employability while the duration of the training doesn't contribute to the perceived employability. This can also be because the researchers considered the quantity rather than the quality. While they also considered willingness to develop new competences and change jobs as possible determinants; the study only found significant effect for willingness to change jobs. The employees who have willingness to work in other departments and higher spectrum of jobs have higher perceived employability

(Wittekind, Raedar & Grote, 2009). Awareness of the other opportunities in the job market determinant is found to be insignificant while in other studies it was considered to be an important determinant. The researchers explain it that, the sample in the study are average or low qualified. If the employees were over-qualified and notice there are many other options they might be fit for in the market, they might have higher perceived employability while in this sample; it can cause a contra-effect. One of the biggest effects that found was caused by age; the employees with more age considered themselves less employable (Wittekind, Raedar & Grote, 2009).

Berntson et al. (2006) also investigates the determinants of the predicted employability with national representative Swedish samples. They use two theoretical backgrounds; human capital theory and dual labor market. Human capital theory is the individual aspect of employability. According to Becker (1993), the training and education are the most important investments people can do for themselves. University education in return results in higher wages and more job opportunities which is also prevalent in Swedish population (Brentson, Sverke & Marklund, 2006). Competence development was also considered as a distinctive factor that affects perceived employability since it is related to the higher wages and more promotion. While the human capital focuses on the individual part of employability, dual labor theory defines the labor opportunities and the restrictions. Doeringer and Piore (1971) describes there are internal and external labor markets. Internal labor market is the unit that is governed by rules and administration while external labor market is government by economic principles (Brentson, Sverke & Marklund, 2006). The dual labor market paradigm suggests that there are two segments in the labor market. One first segment is the group with high wages and chances of advancement while the second segment is characterized by the less flexibility, low job security and lower wages. The core employees that work full or part time are more attractive to employers that is why they are more prioritized to be selected for the first segment jobs while the second segment employees have difficulty to go up to the first segment. On the light of dual labor market paradigm, the employment contract is important for perceived employability. In their study they found that the perceived employability is affected by the competence development and education. They also found that individuals with more stimulating environment reported higher perceived employability (Brentson, Sverke & Marklund, 2006). However, the employment status didn't predict the perceived employability which is explained by that there are temporary works that require both high quality and low quality workers since

it doesn't necessarily mean that the employees with temporary jobs are low qualified. Also the external economic situation affects perceived employability significantly. How employees perceived how easy it is to find a job in different economic situations are very different. Also the effects of the education, competence development and the dual labor paradigm differ depending on the economic situation. During the times that economy was weaker, the importance of the factors was as well weaker (Brentson, Sverke & Marklund, 2006).

Study by Silla, De Cuyper, Gracia, Peiró and De Witte (2009) stated that the perceptions of individuals directly influence the emotions and behaviors which in return cause their reactions based on this cognitive evaluation (Rivera et al. , 2012). Taberero et al. support that how the individuals perceive their employability affect their feelings and reactions to the events around them which in return makes the individual more flexible to the threats in the context (Rivera et al., 2012).

The effects of perceived employability on health of the employees were also studied. According to Berntson and Marklund (2007) expecting work related health to be dependent on the individual perspective of employability is very normal because of the changing nature of jobs. The people who feel more employable tend to have higher positions and can change jobs to a better conditioned. Also the people with higher perceived employability might have higher capacity to cope with the potential hazard. Their study with the Swedish sample showed that the perceived employability is related to global health and mental well-being. Even though they didn't find any significant correlation between the current complaints and perceived employability, they found significant relevance with the health in later life. So according to their study, the employees who perceived themselves employable tend to have better health in later life (Berntson & Marklund, 2007).

Qenani et al. (2014) state that self-efficacy and self-perception effect employability through metacognition, skills and understanding. Self-perception of employability refers to students' perception and belief about their employability after their graduation. Individuals' reaction and decisions closely related to their self-perception rather than the actual skills and abilities. Even though the self-perception cannot replace the actual knowledge and skills that the employee should have, it is indeed valuable asset because of the consumption, signaling and motivation values. According to the study by Benabou and

Tirole (2002) the consumption value is that thinking one has good qualities makes the person happier and more positive self-image (Quenani et al., 2014). The signaling value is when the person has the belief that he/she has the quality; the others have more tendencies to believe that. In the end the self-perception that one can do the work good makes the person more motivated to undertake projects. Self-perceptions in the employability hypothetically increases the feeling of security and independence, makes the person feel more motivated and even leads better job performance. In the study by Quenani et al. (2014) they measured self-perceived employability with a self-rating of how employable the student thinks of him/herself. They also added the variable of self-managed career behavior which asks for their own effort for their career. Their personality was also evaluated in terms of five main personality traits. The university reputation and the external labor market conditions were also asked to students. The increased self-managed career behavior is one of the leading factors that affect self-perceived employability according to their study results. Better planning leads students to have more experience and knowledge which increases their self-confidence. University reputation and GPA both also have great effect on the students' view of their employability (Quenani et al., 2014).

In the model used in this study the employability is defined as the one's own perception of their qualification. This model is used with students and graduates mostly. The expectations of bachelor students are found to be modest as well as post graduate students. The authors Rothwell et al. further discovered their perception of employability skills with the term and measurement of self-perceived employability. Rothwell, Herbert and Rothwell (2008) described employability as the perception that one has over their qualification. They used the terms state of the external labor market, university reputation and field of study from self-perspective.

STUDENT SELF-PERCEIVED EMPLOYABILITY

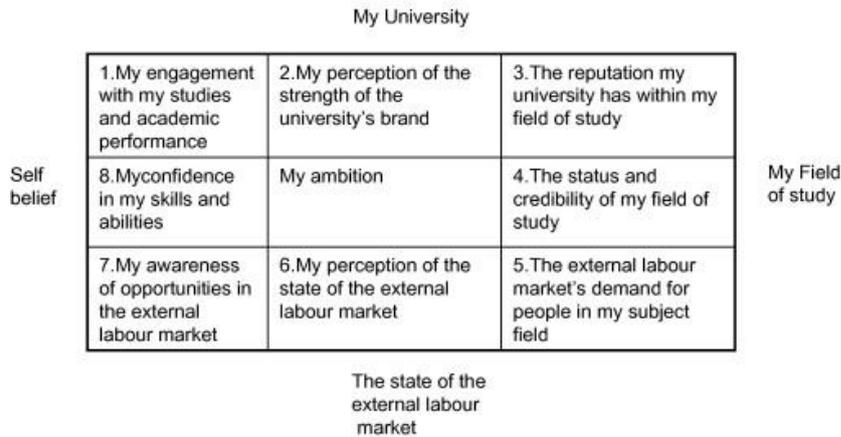


Figure 2. Student Self-Perceived Employability

Source: Rothwell et al. (2009, 154)

This employability scale has roots in a 4 sided model. These four sides are “my university”, “external labor market”, “my university” and “my field of study”. These sides define what effects the self-perceived employability has. Their study found these four layers are significantly important for the self-perception of the employability of students and graduates.

1.3. International Mobility

According to the Erasmus Impact report (2013) from 1987 to 2013 there were over 3 million students that did Erasmus student mobility. There are some studies conducted to measure the effects of international mobility on the skills and employability of the students. These studies showed that the experience of studying abroad enhanced students personal and professional lives, increased their openness, adaptability, flexibility, language learning, intercultural skills, self-awareness and self-reliance.

Shaftel’s study (2007) with U.S. undergraduate students showed that the student mobility program correlated with significant personal change. The characteristics of open-mindedness, flexibility, cross cultural adaptability and appreciation to diversity improved significantly. Another study done with U.S. college students found that the students’ intercultural competences increased greatly after their study abroad experience (Salisbury& Pascarella, 2013). Study by Williams (2005) also found that the students who went for semester abroad had higher intercultural communication skills than the ones spent

the semester in home institution. Also from their self-assessment, their soft skills which included intercultural awareness, adaptability, flexibility, innovativeness, productivity, motivation were found to be higher (Bracht et al., 2006).

According to the 2011 Eurobarometer publication, students stated that the most important skills they gathered from study abroad were foreign language skills, more awareness of another culture and adaptability. According to Erasmus Impact report these are the competences highly related to employability. However, according to a study done with two Dutch institutions, the effects of mobility programs for only three or four months had little effect on students' competences (Eurobarometer, 2011).

According to Stronkhorst (2005) international mobility developed quickly because of the growing demand and support through funding. The idea after promotion of the student mobility was the assumption that it will be good for the future citizens and professionals in the internationalized society (Stronkhorst, 2005). The term cultural intelligence was introduced in order to guide how the intercultural teams are managed and communicated through (Crossman & Clarke, 2010). This term indicates person's ability to adapt to new situations. It comes from the term cultural knowledge which can be explained as the facts we hold about one culture and how we know the things operate in that culture. Some studies suggest that international experience is the best way to increase cultural intelligence. International experience affects cognition, learning, cultural sensitivity, personal and professional development and employability (Crossman & Clarke, 2010).

To reach European Higher Education Area by 2010, increasing the student mobility was one of the objectives aimed to achieve in Bologna Declaration (Teichler & Janson, 2007). In order to measure the effects of the Erasmus on students' early career after graduation, there measurements were taken. In the first study, the Erasmus students of the academic year 1988-1989 responded surveys 3 and 5 years after their Erasmus. In the second study, they compared the early careers of 30.000 students from 11 European countries that graduated 1994-1995 4 years after their graduation. The data was collected from both mobile and non-mobile students to compare their results. In the third study, funded by European Commission, 4.600 students, employers, leaders of higher education institutions and mobile Erasmus teachers were surveyed 4 years after their Erasmus, in 2005. More than 60% of the graduates from the three studies declared that their foreign language skills

increased, and more than 50% stated their study abroad affected the decision of the employer to hire them (Teichler & Janson, 2007). As part of the third study, the employers also agree with that, the foreign language proficiency, work and study abroad experience are part of their recruitment criteria. Even though academic knowledge and personality are also important factors in hiring decisions, the language skills and international experience are considered important. The second study compares the self-ratings of the graduates' competences between mobile and non-mobile students. The mobile students ranked themselves three times higher in terms of language skills, learning a new culture and society than the non-mobile students while in terms of adaptability, general communication skills, and independence were ranked slightly different than non-mobile students (Teichler & Janson, 2007). The third survey, only 61% of the Erasmus students said they used the knowledge acquired in their job while according to the first study, there was no significant difference in that sense.

According to Van Mol (2016), Munk's (2009) formulation of "informational capital" can be used for the international student mobility. When students go abroad, they have a signaling effect with their symbolic capital. He uses the two theories to explain this, signaling theory and human capital theory. The signaling theory suggests that when a company hires a student with international experience and gets positive impact, they are more likely to employ them later. Since there is insecurity when screening candidates, it is likely the employers will be aware of particular signals that can show them what skills might be advantageous for them. In terms of human capital theory, the investments made to increase students' knowledge and skills are supposedly rewarded in labor market such as better opportunities. Student mobility can be considered as a way to give students competitive advantage in labor market. International experience can be one way to invest in the human capital, with increase in language skills, personal development and intercultural skills.

Youth on Move, report from European Commission (2011) about young mobility, stated that one of the seven individuals in the study stayed abroad for education purposes. 57% of the respondents of the study said the most important factor in their mobility abroad was improving language skills while awareness of another culture was rated as second. The other skills those were adaptability, new professional skills, interpersonal skills, better employability skills. However, in terms of improved professional skills, only 10% from

Finland, and almost none said it was an important outcome of their study abroad period (European Commission, 2011). According to another analytical report by European Commission (2010), the importance of study abroad is as important as completing a work placement abroad. Over 60% of the companies in Turkey rated it as very important.

In European Commission analytical report (2010) about employers' perspectives for graduate employability, companies asked to rate the importance of the skills measured in the study when employing graduates. In general, the computer literacy skills, team-working followed by sector specific skills were considered very important. Adapting to new situations, analytical and problem solving skills were also considered important. As expected, the graduate recruiters with higher proportion of internationalization in the organization stated language skills are very important. On the other hand, the professional value of Erasmus is declining in some European countries. The data shows that the professional importance of knowing and understanding the host culture and society is not as high as before (Teichler & Janson, 2007). However, the importance of it in Central and Eastern Europe countries is higher than Western European countries. In Central and Eastern Europe, it is still considered as an exclusive and rewarding experience.

The existing literature also states another reality. According to study done in U.K. about the student mobility effects on graduate employability, it is found that students assume their experience have no effect on their employability. Some even believe it decreases their possibility to get a job. The study done with Norwegian students showed a similar result. However, the employers were more interested in students' experience in work abroad when making recruitment decisions. There is other literature that suggests that the variability inter countries for the importance of study abroad is significant.

When students are asked about their expectations about their international experience, they responded it was primarily for the personal development. Living abroad experience is expected to develop the soft skills, meeting new people and improving their language skills. Even though for some students, it is still an important factor for their career development, it is ranked low in terms of their priorities. The future benefits for their labor value wasn't also thought as a benefit for most of the students when they compare cost and benefits of doing an experience abroad (Vossensten et al., 2010). According to the authors of the report, the positive effect of international study experience is higher in countries

with less people doing it. Therefore, when there are many students with international experience, the value of this experience for the employers decrease. In the end, in some countries Erasmus is seen as a luxury rather than an investment in future career. On the other hand, the report showed that students with Erasmus experience have identified some long term benefits that came after their experience. These benefits include language acquisition and attitudinal development (Vossensten et al., 2010).

2. THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

In South and Eastern European countries, the professional value of international mobility is much higher than Western Europe. According to Van Mol (2016) high value of international experience in Turkey, can be explained with low rates of students going abroad for study. The UNESCO Statistics for 2010 showed, Turkey has one of the lowest inbound and outbound mobility ratios with 3% of students participate in Erasmus study exchange. In these terms, experience abroad of a student is considered more unique and can have a distinctive effect on students' career. In terms of country specific information, since Turkey was one of the countries surveyed, more than 70% of the recruiters in Turkish companies rated ability to adapt to new situations, communication, analytical and problem solving skills, planning and organizational ability, decision making capacity as very important. On the other hand, foreign language skills are rather as very important only by 51% of the companies (European Commission, 2010).

In this study, the effects of Erasmus study experience on Turkish students are measured since the effects are more country specific. Also, as stated in Van Mol (2010) the positive effect of international experience wasn't clear in Turkish sample.

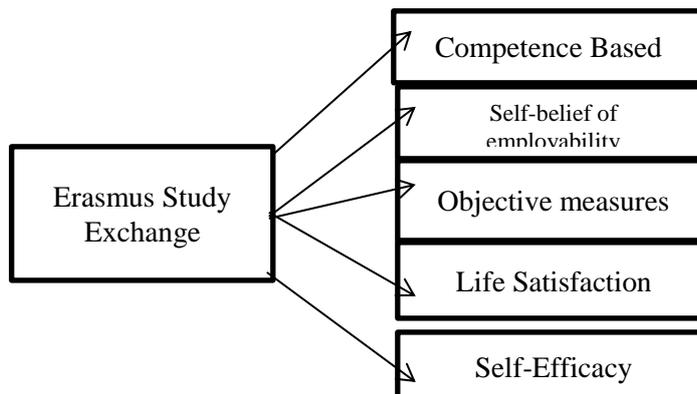


Figure 3. Effects researched in this study

- Q1: Does self-belief of self-perceived employability of Turkish students increase as a result of Erasmus student mobility?

In this study, the self-perceived and competence based employability scales were used to measure this effect. However since employability is a term that is affected by many other constructs, the self-perceived employability’s self-image part is only used to measure the effects of Erasmus on their self-belief. Self-perceived employability’s other measures like university reputation, external labor market, and the study program are used as other constructs that can be contributing rather than being affected by Erasmus. Since in Turkey, the university system is different than the European systems, the reputation of university is an important criterion when graduates are employed. After high school students are expected to take an exam that decides their university depending on their score. So, in this system, the higher the student scores, the better university he/she can get into.

In this sense, with the Turkish sample, the university reputation is a distinct factor that affects employability. Also, since in this study the students responded regardless of their department, the study program can be another factor affecting employability. Self-belief part of their employability was measured with the question of “How do you think Erasmus affected the statement below?” to isolate the effect of Erasmus study in their perception of the self-belief part of employability.

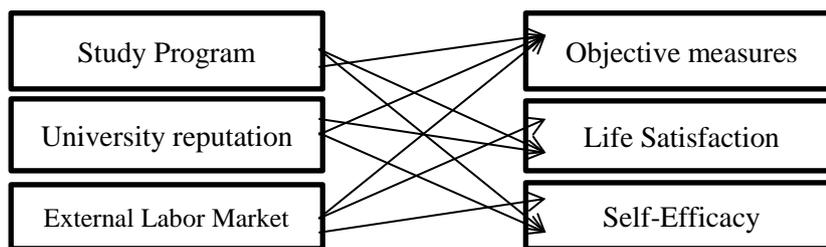


Figure 4. The other Expected Relationships

- Q2: Do competences of employability of Turkish students increase as a result of Erasmus student mobility?

- Q3: If their competences alter which of these competences mediate this relationship?

The competence based employability scale by Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) was used to measure the competences of the graduate Turkish students. This was done to find a general view if the competences of the graduates are altered after their Erasmus study from their perspective. This measurement was introduced with a counterpart that is given to the supervisors of the employees to increase validity by Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006). Since, the participants in this study aren't all employed, only the participants completed the questionnaire. The questions are asked as "How do you think Erasmus affected the statement below?" in order to understand if there is any change of behavior individually, rather than comparing the results of graduates who did Erasmus and who did not. This was done to isolate the effect of Erasmus since as explained before.

- Q4: Is there any difference in self-efficacy between students who did Erasmus and who didn't?

Another factor effecting, self-perceived employability is self-efficacy. According to Quenani et al. (2014) self-efficacy and self-perception are two constructs that are closely related and used interchangeable in the literature. Perceived self-efficacy is the individual's perception of his/her control over the functions and events in the life that affects them. Self-perceived employability is the students' perception over their employability after graduation. The individuals perform based on their perception of their ability rather than the actual ability; therefore, self-efficacy is a strong predictor and component of self-perceived employability. In this study, in order to control the effects of self-efficacy, the new self-efficacy scale by Chen, Gully and Eden (2001) was used. Both graduates were asked the questions of the measure to compare if there is any difference in their self-efficacy.

- Q5: Is there any difference in life satisfaction between students who did Erasmus study exchange and who didn't?

The satisfaction with life scale by Diener et al. (1985) was used to measure life satisfaction of both groups in order to see if there is any difference. Even though there aren't many

clinical researches yet, it is started to be acknowledged as a new phenomenon that the students feel reverse culture shock after their return from study abroad. Universities like Northwestern and University of Iowa dedicated pages for this symptoms and how to get over them. In this study, by measuring the graduates' satisfaction with life, it is aimed to measure if Erasmus period have any affect in later life satisfaction.

- Is there any difference in objective measures of employability between graduates who did Erasmus study exchange and who didn't?

In this study, the information regarding the employment status, salary, the number of months of being unemployed were collected. Also the participants were asked to rate their satisfaction with their salary.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Procedure

The Turkish translation of survey was shared through social media channels as an online survey. The online survey was also shared in Turkish Erasmus student groups for various locations.

3.2. Sample

The sample of this research was the graduates who have graduated at most 5 years ago. The ones that have been a graduate for longer weren't taken into account because of possible differences in employability skills. The study programs of the graduates weren't taken into account since the effect of it was taken into account in the questionnaire. The questionnaire was shared in social media channels, and asked to fill it anonymously online.

In total 50 people filled the questionnaire, 6 of which didn't complete it and their data was deleted. 36% of the participants did Erasmus during their study while 64% didn't spend a semester abroad. The gender distribution of the sample is 59% women, 41% men. While the 40% of the participants have Masters' degree, the 60% has only bachelor's degree. 63% of the participants are employed while 10% is looking for a job and 27% is still studying postgraduate degree.

3.3. The Scales

Self-Perceived Employability Scale

The scale developed by Rothwell et al. (2008) consists of 16 items with 5 point Likert score. In this study, the Turkish translation of the survey was used as part of the online survey. The survey was back translated, and used with 5 people to do pilot testing to learn about the possible problems with the translation. The edited survey was used in this study. The self-image part was used for the study aim while the university reputation, external

labor market, and effects of study program were asked the whole participants rather than only ones that did Erasmus semester abroad. In the present study, Cronbach's α reliability coefficient for self-perceived employability scale is 0.80; at the same time the all subscales have reliability coefficient more than 0.65.

Competence Based Employability Scale

The questionnaire by Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) was used in this study. The back translation and pilot testing was used to increase the reliability of the translation of the survey. The test consists of 47 questions with 5 point Likert scale. In this study, the open-ended questions were removed and the ones that are considered not applicable to the graduate sample were deleted. The remaining questions were added to the online survey. In the present study, Cronbach's α reliability coefficient for competence-based employability scale is 0.935.

Self-Efficacy Scale

8 item questionnaire by Chen, Gully and Eden (2001) was used in this study. The new general self-efficacy scale (NGSS) is used because it is shorter and found to be valid. This survey was also translated to Turkish and back translation and pilot testing were used. The survey was added to the online survey used in this study. In the present study, Cronbach's α reliability coefficient for self-efficacy scale is 0.936.

The Satisfaction with Life Scale

The scale by Diener, Emmons, Larsen and Griffin (1985) was used in this study. 5 item with 7 point Likert scale was translated to Turkish for the Turkish sample. The questions were added to the online survey. In the present study, Cronbach's α reliability coefficient for life-satisfaction scale is 0.879.

Demographics

The information regarding the gender, education level, if they are employed, and their satisfaction with their salary were asked through the online survey.

3.4. The Results

The results of the scales were analyzed with PASW SPSS version 18.

Table1. Descriptive Statics of the subscales

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Self_Belief	17	1,00	5,00	3,2206	1,32253
Anticipation_Optimization	17	1,14	5,00	3,1964	1,10025
Occupational_Expertise	17	1,09	5,00	3,3352	1,30889
Personal_Flexibility	17	1,60	5,00	3,8471	1,16303
Corporate_Sense	17	1,00	5,00	3,3971	1,26494
Balance	17	1,50	5,00	2,6471	,90381
Valid N (listwise)	15				

The first question of the study was if there is any difference in the competences and self-belief of the students who went Erasmus study abroad. The descriptive from the average results of Competence-based employability subscales and the Self-belief subscale of self-perceived employability are shown in Table 1. The highest change that the participants perceived in their skills after their Erasmus is personal flexibility (M=3,8471; SD=1,16303). The participants also scored high for the effect for the subscales of corporate-sense (M=3,3971; SD=1,26494) and occupational expertise (M=3,3351; SD=1,30889). The lowest scores were observed in Balance subscale (M=2,6471; SD=0,90381).

MANOVA was used to understand if there is any difference in self-efficacy, life satisfaction and three subscales of self-perceived employability; study program, external labor and university reputation between the Erasmus study exchange and gender variables. According to the results from Multivariate Reports (see Appendix 6), Wilk's Lambda is significant in Gender situation, $F(5,36)=5,135$; $p<0.05$; Wilk's $\Lambda= 0,584$. The gender effect on the on study program is found to be significant $F(2,40)= 12,497$; $p<0.05$. The males (M=3,6839; SD= 0,67094) scored significantly higher on the self- perceived employability study-program subscales than females (M=2,7889; SD=0,73380). Effect of gender on self-efficacy of participants is also found to be significant $F(1,40)= 4,409$; $p<0.05$. Male participants (M=4,3611; SD=0,70696) scored significantly higher than

female participants ($M=3,8029$; $SD= 0,66160$). The effect of gender is found insignificant in university prestige, external labor market and life-satisfaction.

Wilk's Lambda isn't found significant in Erasmus study exchange variable $F(5,36)= 2,256$; Wilk's $\Lambda= 0,701$; $p>0.05$. In individual scale results, however, there is significant difference in life satisfaction $F(1,40)= 7,793$; $p<0.05$. The participants who did Erasmus study exchange ($M=3,9059$; $SD=1,17205$) scored significantly lower than the participants who didn't ($M=4,7333$; $SD=0,87178$).

Bivariate correlation was used to understand the correlation between the questionnaires of self-perceived employability subscales; university reputation, external labor market, study-program and self-efficacy and life satisfaction. Spearman's correlation coefficient was used to understand the correlation between these ordinal scales. According to the Spearman's correlation result, there is significant relationship between the variables; study program and external labor market ($r_s(42) = .586, p = .000$). There is also significant relationship between external labor market and university prestige ($r_s(42)= 0.300, p=0.48$). The other significance occurred in self-efficacy and external labor market ($r_s(42) = .351, p = .020$) and life-satisfaction and self-efficacy ($r_s(42) = .634, p < 0.001$).

The objective measures of employment were shown with the frequency table. The information regarding current employability status, number of months that the participant looked for job, their salary and their satisfaction with their salary (on a scale of 1-7) were collected.

For the participants who did Erasmus, the following table is created. 76,5% of the participants who did Erasmus study abroad are employed, while 5,9% of them are looking for a job. In terms of number of months of being unemployed, the majority looked for a job 0-2 months. When the distribution of the salary is examined, the distribution is quite similar however, 41,1% of the participants get salary more than 4.000 TL which can be considered high for graduates with less than 5 years of experience. The other satisfaction level with the salary, from a scale of 0-5, the highest proportion 35,3% considered it as not very satisfied ($M=2,82$; $SD=1,286$).

Table 2. The distribution of the objective measures of employability for participants who did Erasmus study exchange

	Percentage
Employability Status	
Employed	76,5%
Unemployed, looking for job	5,9%
Student	17,6%
Number of months of being unemployed	
I didn't look for a job	0
0-2	70,6%
2-4	5,9%
4-6	17,6%
More than 6	5,9%
The range of the current salary (monthly, TL)	
0-1000	0
1000-2000	23,5%
2000-3000	17,6%
3000-4000	17,6%
4000-5000	23,5%
5000+	17,6%
How satisfied are you with your salary?	
Not satisfied at all	11,8%
Not satisfied	35,3%
Neither unsatisfied nor satisfied	5,9%
Satisfied	5,9%
Very satisfied	17,6%

For the distribution of objective measures of employability of the participants who didn't participate in Erasmus study exchange, the following table is created. The half of the participants are employed while 33,3% of them are student. While the majority didn't look for a job more than 2 months, the 11,1% of the participants looked for a job more than 6 months. 25,9% of the participants who didn't do Erasmus gets a salary between 0 to 1.000 TL, which is lower than the minimum wage in Turkey. The participants who gets salary more than 4.000 is 14,8%. When the satisfaction with the salary is measured, 25,9% of people rated 4, which is satisfied. While one participant didn't answer the satisfaction level, the distribution of the ratings are similar ($M=2,77$; $SD=1,306$).

Table 2. The distribution of the objective measures of employability for participants who did Erasmus study exchange

	Percentage
Employability Status	
Employed	55,6,5%
Unemployed, looking for job	11,1%
Student	33,3%
Number of months of being unemployed	
I didn't look for job	7,4%
0-2	63%
2-4	11,1%
4-6	7,4%
More than 6	11,1%
The range of the current salary (monthly, TL)	
0-1000	25,9%
1000-2000	7,4%
2000-3000	22,2%
3000-4000	29,6%
4000-5000	3,7%
5000+	11,1%
How satisfied are you with your salary?	
Not satisfied at all	22,2%
Not satisfied	18,5%
Neither unsatisfied nor satisfied	22,2%
Satisfied	25,9%
Very satisfied	7,4%
Missing	3,7%

4. DISCUSSION

When looking at the distribution table of the perception of the graduates and employees about how much the competences are changed after their Erasmus period, it can be seen that personal flexibility was the factor that have the highest mean for the scores ($M=3,8471$; $SD=1,16303$). This is in line with the studies done before. According to Erasmus Impact report (2013) the study abroad experience increases openness and flexibility. Shaftel (2007) has a similar finding from his study done with American students who did study abroad. He stated that some personal characteristics like open-mindedness, flexibility increased significantly. Also self-assessments of students ranked the adaptability and flexibility higher after the study abroad (Bracht, 2006). The Eurobarometer (2011) also stated the similar results. Even though the sample size was low to assume general results, it can be said that the flexibility as a result of study abroad period was expected. On the other hand, corporate sense ($M=3,3971$; $SD=1,26494$) and occupational expertise ($M=3,3351$; $SD=1,30889$) were also ranked as high after the study abroad in this study. According to the studies done with perceived employability, rather than the skills, the perception of the employability skills is considered important. These results can be explained in the sense that with increased belief in employability skills so their perception over the occupational expertise might have increased. This increase of self-belief over employment might have lead he graduates feel more engaged with their organization because of the motivational value (Quenani et al., 2014). However, since the sample is too small, it is hard to make a clear statement. The factors of anticipation and optimization and balance didn't have high ratings from the sample.

The only factor that is asked from the self-perceived employability measure was the self-belief factor ($M=3,2206$; $SD=1,32253$). In the study, the self-belief measure was asked in terms of how study abroad affected it. The distribution table shows higher tendency of the participants to answer with higher scores. This result was also expected. According to the study of Vossenssten (2010) the less people that have study abroad experience, the higher effect it has in that country. Turkey is considered one of the countries with lowest Erasmus

rates (European Commission, 2010). In this sense, the graduates believe by doing Erasmus, they invest in their human capital and increase their employability. So it can be said that the high scores in self-belief factor of self-perceived employability are expected.

Only significant difference that is found between the participants who did Erasmus study exchange and who didn't is life-satisfaction. In this study, the people who didn't do Erasmus student exchange found to have higher scores in life-satisfaction scale. The phenomenon that the students are going through post-Erasmus syndrome is becoming recognized. This effect should be researched more however, it can be because of the expectations of the students after their period abroad aren't met and they might not be as satisfied as the group who didn't do Erasmus student exchange.

The unexpected result of this study was gender was found to be significant for self-perception of study program and self-efficacy. The male participants have significantly higher results in study program and self-efficacy than females. In the study by Quenani (2014) the females are found to be 50% less likely to consider themselves highly employable compared to men. It was explained that men have higher expectations for their employability that is why men have greater confidence in their skills. However, the effect of gender is not always found significant. Rothwell et al. (2009) didn't find any significant difference in self-perceived employability between males and females.

Another result came out from this sample is that self-efficacy is significantly related to a subscale of self-perceived employability which is external labor market ($r_s(42) = .351, p = .020$). According to Quenani et al. (2014) there are four key elements in individuals' employability which are assets, deployment, presentation and personal circumstances and external labor market. The notion of self-efficacy is considered to be an important factor in terms of employability, and it is stated that instead of what the graduate can actually do, what his/her belief in the employability skills is what affects their employability. In this sense, finding results related to self-efficacy's effect on the subscale of self-perceived employability, external labor market, can be considered expected. In this study, self-efficacy is found to be correlated with life-satisfaction but they are interrelated concepts. As well, the results implied the correlation between scores of external labor market, university reputation and study program and external labor market which are the subscales of self-perceived employability so their relevance is very expected.

The study also looked at the objective measurements of the employability. The salaries of the participants who did Erasmus are mostly higher than the graduates who didn't do Erasmus. While in the Erasmus group 41,1% of the participants are getting salary more than 4.000 TL, in the non-Erasmus group this percentage is 14,8. Also the percentage of unemployment is higher for the group who didn't do Erasmus study exchange. However, the satisfaction with the salary is similar in both groups. Even though the group that did Erasmus has generally higher salary and higher employment rate, they didn't rate themselves more satisfied. This can as well be with the similar reasons to the life satisfaction scale. In terms of salary and employment rate, it was stated by Erasmus reports that the Turkish companies value Erasmus and this was supported in this study with these participants.

This study can be improved in several ways. Since the sample was not enough to generalize any results, a study done with more people can be used to understand affects that can be useful for universities to improve students' employability in future. As well, in this study the effects of Erasmus study was aimed with the question of "From scale of 0-5 how do you think your Erasmus affected the following statements?". Even though this question aimed to find a similar result with a pre and post-test, it might have had some problems that weren't expected. Firstly, the answers were too subjective and dependent on the self-efficacy of the students. Even though the aim of these questions was to get the answers like pre and post-test; the measurement might have gotten too complicated for the sample to answer. The future studies should do pre and post-test or use a simpler way of questioning this difference.

Different study programs should be measured as in between sample to understand the effects more specifically. The departments that require more human contact could have higher value for Erasmus study exchange than a department with more individual work like programming. Knowing these effects will be important to encourage students to participants in Erasmus program.

According to Van Mol's study (2005) the companies in Turkey value more about the study abroad experience when making recruitment decisions. In his study, he makes some assumptions of the possible reasons for the differences between countries. But for Turkey, he can't make a guess why it is important. In the article by Vossenstenn (2010), it is stated that the effect of study abroad increases when the number of people doing it is less. So this can be one explanation for Turkey, however, there is need or more explanatory studies in this area

why it is important. Understanding its real effects on the Turkish students, and the reasons for why it is important for the recruiters, other than increased language skills, can be used by universities to increase students' employability in future. It is also important to know if study abroad really affects the views of employer and in which sector. This would lead students to have more clear goals to plan their study; if doing one semester abroad will actually affect their future career.

This study contributes to the literature in a way that there is a need to explore the possible effects of Erasmus study on Turkish graduates. The number of students participating in Erasmus study exchange is increasing, and the students as well policy makers should make researches to understand how it affects their future and skills. In this way, it is important study which will show the need to study this subject. Also in this sample, the participants who did Erasmus study exchange reported significantly lower life-satisfaction. This effect should be investigated further, to find the reasons and offer solutions to increase the life-satisfaction and adaptation after Erasmus study exchange.

Even though there is a common sense about having a study abroad experience would increase one's opportunities in later life in Turkey, there is no study done to explore these effects. In order to find this, the future studies should make a longitudinal study before and after students' exchange period. This will allow getting more clear results without having effects from the third variables. With information about the effects of study abroad on the employability, universities can also benefit in order to promote the study abroad and graduates can have better chances for their career.

CONCLUSION

This study is done to explore the effects of Erasmus study exchange on employability of Turkish graduate sample. Even though the percentage of students doing study abroad in Turkey is still very little compared to other European countries, it is important to understand the effects of it for career prospects of the students. This study uses two different models of employability which are self-perceived and competence based employability.

The meaning of employability has changed gradually throughout the history. When employers were responsible from the employability of the employees, now the employees are responsible for their employability. According to Forrier and Sels (2003) the employability literature can be divided into four in terms of their focus on employability. The first group is focusing on the characteristics of individual when looking at employability. The second group also focuses on the context; and takes into account employer's demands and possibilities they offer. The third group also values the effect; the job quality concept. The fourth dimension is the activities, the trainings and education that can enhance the employability.

Perceived employability focuses on how perception of the employee affects the employability. The study by Wittekind (2009) looked at the perceived employability determinants in the change situation since they assume change is one of the factors employees feel threatened. The employees' perceived employability will determine their level of coping with this threat. According to their study university degree, the skills and age were the factors that determined the employees' perceived employability. A study done by Berntson et al. (2006) found that perceived employability is also affected by external labor status which is the general economic situation. Another study done by Berntson found that people with higher perceived employability have better mental health and have fewer problems with their physical health later in life. In this study, the model by Rothwell et al. (2009) self-perceived employability is used since they predict graduate employment. This model has four elements that they measure: the self-belief, university reputation, study program and external labor market.

The competences needed for the employability is studied in many researches and countries. According to the model of Bases of Competence; the competences needed are managing self, communicating, managing people and tasks and mobilizing innovation and change (Berdrow & Evers, 2011). However, their study mostly focuses on the business graduates and future managers while it shows how the university education and the competences needed in real job situation differ. The study by Freire (2011) looked at the competences needed with the Spanish sample, and found that the employers value the leadership, communication, customer focus, understanding and emotional sensitivity. The competence based employability by Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) defines five competences that are defining the employability of the people. These five components are occupational expertise, anticipation and optimization, personal flexibility, corporate sense and balance. These five core competences defining the employability of the individuals. The occupation expertise is the person's knowledge in his/her area. Anticipation and optimization stands for how the employee is preparing his/herself for the future changes. Personal flexibility is the adaptability skills for the changes in the company and environment. Corporate sense is important since the employee is part of the group and organization and engagement to these groups is significant both for the company and the employee. The last factor is the balance; how the employee balances between the employer's demands and personal interests.

The effect of international experience is studied by European Commission (2011) and various other authors in order to understand its effects. The information in this area is country specific (Van Mol, 2016). Even though many students rate their skills and flexibility as higher than before, the students from countries like Norway, the U.K. and the Netherlands, the students have contra arguments about the positive effects of study abroad, some even stating it affected negatively. However, in the Turkish sample, the effects are different. Turkey is one of the countries that have lower percentages of students doing study abroad (European Commission, 2011). It is stated that in the countries with high number of students doing a semester abroad, its effect on employability decreases (Vossensten et al., 2010). Turkish companies mostly state having study abroad experience is a positive factor when making recruitment decisions (Van Mol, 2016).

In this study the competence based employability, self-perceived employability, new general self-efficacy scale and life satisfaction scales were used. The sample included graduates who

did Erasmus and who didn't. The participants were given online survey, and 50 people took part in this research with 44 completing the survey. Sample was asked to rate the difference that had with the statements in the competence based employability and self-belief subscale of self-perceived employability.

After looking at the scores of how the graduates perceived the effect of Erasmus study period in terms of competences and self-belief, the high means were found in personal flexibility factor in addition to corporate sense and occupational expertise. The results of the study also found the significant difference between the graduates who did Erasmus and who didn't in terms of life satisfaction. Gender on the other hand found to be significant factor in terms of self-efficacy and study-program subscale. In both scales males scored significantly higher. The other scales, self-efficacy had significant correlation with life satisfaction; while external labor market had significant correlation with self-efficacy. The result of this study is limited to the sample size because of the low number of the participants. The objective measures of employability also show slightly higher salaries for graduates who did Erasmus. Also the number of months looking for a job is fewer than the graduates who didn't participate in Erasmus study exchange. However, the satisfaction with salary for both groups reported to be similar.

Even though the sample size was small and the method part of the study can be improved in several ways, it surely shows the need for the studies that are done in order to understand the effects of study abroad programs on Turkish students. The Turkish sample can have different results than the most of the literature which is with the U.K., U.S.A. and North and Western European countries. In today's world, the borders are getting blurred and number of students going abroad is increasing. The need to understand the effects, and have scientific evidence about it shouldn't be underestimated.

LIST OF REFERENCES

- Berdrow, I., & Evers, F. T. (2011). Bases of competence: A framework for facilitating reflective learner-centered educational environments. *Journal of Management Education*, 35(3), 427;406;-427.
- Berntson, E., Marklund, S., Stockholms universitet, Samhällsvetenskapliga fakulteten, & Psykologiska institutionen. (2007). The relationship between perceived employability and subsequent health. *Work & Stress*, 21(3), 279-292.
- Berntson, E., Sverke, M., Marklund, S., Stockholms universitet, Samhällsvetenskapliga fakulteten, & Psykologiska institutionen. (2006). Predicting perceived employability: Human capital or labour market opportunities?. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 27(2), 223-244.
- Capri, B., Ozkendir, O. M., Ozkurt, B., & Karakus, F. (2012). General self-efficacy beliefs, life satisfaction and burnout of university students. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 47, 968-973.
- Chen, G., Gully, S. M., & Eden, D. (2001). Validation of a new general self-efficacy scale. *Organizational Research Methods*, 4(1), 62-83.
- Crossman, J. E., & Clarke, M. (2010;2009;). International experience and graduate employability: Stakeholder perceptions on the connection. *Higher Education*, 59(5), 599-613.
- Dacre Pool, L., & Sewell, P. (2007). The key to employability: Developing a practical model of graduate employability. *Education + Training*, 49(4), 277-289.
- Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 49(1), 71-75.
- European Commission, 2010. Employers Perception of Graduate Employability Analytical Report. European Commission, Luxembourg.
- European Commission, 2011. Youth on Move Analytical Report. Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.
- European Commission, 2014. The Erasmus Impact Study. Effects of Mobility on the Skills and Employability of Students and the Internationalisation of Higher Education Institutions. Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.
- Forrier, A., Sels, L. (2003). The concept of Employability: A complex mosaic. *International Journal of Human Resources Development and Management* 3(2), 102-124.

- Fugate, M., Kinicki, A. J., & Ashforth, B. E. (2004). Employability: A psycho-social construct, its dimensions, and applications. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *65*(1), 14-38.
- Guilbert, L., Bernaud, J., Gouvernet, B., & Rossier, J. (2016). Employability: Review and research prospects. *International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance*, *16*(1), 69-89.
- Kluytmans, F., & Ott, M. (1999). Management of employability in the Netherlands. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *8*(2), 261-272.
- Okay-Somerville, B., & Scholarios, D. (2017). Position, possession or process? understanding objective and subjective employability during university-to-work transitions. *Studies in Higher Education*, *42*(7), 1275-17.
- Onyishi, I. E., Enwereuzor, I. K., Ituma, A. N., & Omenma, J. T. (2015). The mediating role of perceived employability in the relationship between core self-evaluations and job search behaviour. *Career Development International*, *20*(6), 604-626.
- Pinto, L. H., & Ramalheira, D. C. (2017). Perceived employability of business graduates: The effect of academic performance and extracurricular activities. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *99*, 165-178.
- Rivera, M., Gallego, L., Alvarez, M., Inchaurtieta, A., Albizuri, I. (2012). Perceived employability and competence development. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *69*, 1191-1197.
- Rothwell, A., & Arnold, J. (2007). Self-perceived employability: Development and validation of a scale. *Personnel Review*, *36*(1), 23-41.
- Rothwell, A., Herbert, I., & Rothwell, F. (2008). Self-perceived employability: Construction and initial validation of a scale for university students. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *73*(1).
- Rothwell, A., Jewell, S., & Hardie, M. (2009). Self-perceived employability: Investigating the responses of post-graduate students. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *75*(2), 161;152;-161.
- Sok, J., Blomme, R. J., & Tromp, D. M. (2013). The use of the psychological contract to explain self-perceived employability. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *34*, 274-284.
- Qenani, E., MacDougall, N., & Sexton, C. (2014). An empirical study of self-perceived employability: Improving the prospects for student employment success in an uncertain environment. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, *15*(3), 199-213.
- Teichler, U., & Janson, K. (2007). The professional value of temporary study in another european country: Employment and work of former ERASMUS students. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *11*(3-4), 486-495.

Van der Heijde, Claudia M., & Van der Heijden, Beatrice I. J. M.. (2006). A competence-based and multidimensional operationalization and measurement of employability. *Human Resource Management, 45*(3), 449-476. 10.1002/hrm.20119

Van Mol, C. (2017). Do employers value international study and internships? A comparative analysis of 31 countries. *Geoforum, 78*(January 2017), 52-60.

Wittekind, A., Raeder, S., & Grote, G. (2010). A longitudinal study of determinants of perceived employability. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31*(4), 566-586.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Self-perceived employability scale

Lütfen aşağıdaki maddeleri kendinize göre numaralandırınız. (1 en düşük 5 en yüksek)

- 1.a. Derslerimden yüksek notlar alırım.
 - 1.b. Akademik hayatımı önceliğim olarak görürüm.
 - 2.a. Benim üniversitemden mezun öğrenciler işverenler tarafından fazlaca seçilir.
 - 2b. İş ararken, üniversitemin prestiji benim için çok yararlıdır.
 - 3.a. İş verenler benim alanımla ilgili işe alımda özellikle benim üniversitemin mezunlarını hedef alırlar.
 - 3.b. Üniversitemin benim alanımdaki prestiji çok yüksektir.
 - 4.a. benim alanımda iş başvurularının sayısı iş imkanlarından daha fazladır.
 - 4.b. Seçtiğim alanın sosyal statüsü yüksektir.
 - 5.a. Seçtiğim kariyerdeki insanlar iş piyasasında çok talep görüyorlar.
 - 5.b. Üniversite derecem oldukça rağbet gören bir kariyer olarak görülmemektedir.
 - 6a. Şu dönemde üniversite mezunlarına fazlaca talep vardır.
 - 6b. İş aradığım bölgede oldukça fazla iş imkanı vardır.
- Lütfen yurt dışında yaptığınız stajın aşağıdaki maddeleri ne kadar etkilediğini açıklayınız)1- hiç etkilemedi, 5-çok etkiledi).
- 7a. Aradığım alandaki iş imkanlarını kolayca bulabilirim.
 - 7b. Beceri ve yeteneklerim iş verenlerin aradıkları özellikler.
 - 8a. İş görüşmelerinin ve işe alımlardaki başarıya olacağıma güveniyorum.
 - 8b. Deneyim ve becerilerim yeterliyse istediğim işe girebileceğimi düşünüyorum.

Appendix 2. Competence Based Employability scale

Lütfen yurt dışında yaptığınız stajın aşağıdaki maddeleri ne kadar etkilediğini açıklayınız)1- hiç etkilemedi, 5-çok etkiledi).

Kendimi iş alanımdaki konularda derin ve uzmanlık gerektiren konularda konuşabilecek yetkinlikte olarak görüyorum.

Geçtiğimiz senede, işimi az hatayla ve doğru olarak yapacak yetkinlikteydim.

Geçtiğimiz yıl içerisinde kendi işe yaklaşımımla hızlı karar alabilecek yetkinlikteydim.

Kendimi; bir işi yapmada ya da bir sorunu çözmede yeterli bilgim olmadığını anlayacak kadar yetkin görüyorum.

Kendimi işim hakkında anlaşılabilir bilgi verecek kadar yetkin görüyorum.

Genel olarak, ana mesele ve yan meseleleri ayırt edip, öncelikleri belirleyebilecek yetkinlikteyim.

Geçen sene, işimi genellikle kendi başıma yapacak yetkinlikteydim.

Kendimi iş arkadaşlarım pratik yardıma ihtiyacı olduğunda onlara yardım edebilecek yetkinlikte görüyorum.

Kendimi işimle ilgili belli çalışma methodları, kullandığım materyal ve tekniklerle ilgili belirli kararlar alırken olumlu ve olumsuz yönleri ölçüp biçecek yetkinlikte görüyorum.

Etraflıca düşünüldüğünde, kendinizi iş performansınız konusunda nasıl görüyorsunuz?

Uzmanlık alanınızdaki kabiliyetinize ne kadar güvenirsiniz?

Yeteneklerinizin seviyesini nasıl yorumlarsınız?

Geçen senede, işinizin ne kadarını başarılı bir şekilde bitirdiniz?

Geçtiğimiz senede işinizdeyken kendinizden ne kadar emin hissettiniz?

İşinizdeki bilgi ve becerilerinizi geliştirmek için ne kadar zaman harcıyorsunuz?

İş piyasasındaki değerimi korumakta sorumluluk alıyorum.

Zayıflıklarımı geliřtirmek için sistematik bir řekilde ilerleme gsteriyorum.

Kendimi srekli olarak geliřtirmeye odaklıyım.

Bilinçli olarak dikkatimi yeni ğrendiđim bilgiyi ya da beceriyi iřimde uygulamaya veririm.

Kariyer hedeflerimi belirlerken, iř piyasasındaki talepleri dikkate alırım.

Geçtiđimiz yılda başarı elde edilebilecek iř alanlarını arařtırdım.

Geçtiđimiz senede, iř alanımdaki en gncel geliřmelerden haberdar oldum.

İřinizdeki deđiřikliklere ne kolaylıkla adapte olurum.

Gerekli olduđunda ne kolaylıkla řirket deđiřikliđine adapte olursunuz?Şirketimdeki geliřmelere adapte olurum.

Ne hızla iř yerinizdeki deđiřimlere ayak uydurup fayda sađlamaya bařlıyorsunuz?

Ne hızla sektrnzdaki deđiřimlere ayak uydurup fayda sađlamaya bařlıyorsunuz?

İřimde bařarmayı amaçladıđım grevlerimde çeřitlilik vardırç

Şirketim/departmanım için sorumluluklarımdan biraz daha fazlasını yaparım.

Şirketimdeki iřletim srecini destekliyorum.

İřimde sorumluluklarımla paylařarak inisiyatif alıyorum.

Şirketimde, ortak amaç ve deđerlerden oluřan bir vizyon oluřturmakta grev alırım.

Başkalarıyla deneyimimi ve bilgimi paylařırım.

İřimden dolayı stres yařıyorum.

İř ve zel hayatım dengededeler.

İřim, eđitim srecim ve yařamım uyum içindeler.

İřte sarf ettiđim çaba karřılıđında aldıklarımla dođru orantılı.

İřim ve kariyerim için harcadıđım zamanla kiřisel geliřimim ve dinlenmek için harcadıđım zaman birbirini dengeliyor.

İřten sonra genellikle dinlenebiliyorum.

İşimde kendi hedeflerime ulaşmakla iş arkadaşlarımı desteklemek arasında bir denge kurarım.

Kendi kariyer hedeflerime ulaşmak ve iş arkadaşlarımı desteklemek arasında bir denge kurarım.

Appendix 3. New General Self Efficacy Scale

Lütfen ařađıdaki maddeleri kendinize ne kadar uygun bulduđunuza göre numaralandırınız (1 en düşük, 7 en yüksek)

Çođu yönlerden hayatım idealiıme yakın.

Hayatımdaki koşullar mükemmel.

Hayatımdan memnunum.

Şimdiye kadar, hayatımdaki önemli şeyleri elde ettim.

Hayatımı bir daha yaşasaydım, neredeyse hiç bir şeyi deđiřtirmezdim.

Appendix 4. Self-efficacy scale

Lütfen aşağıdaki maddeleri kendinize ne kadar uygun bulduğunuza göre numaralandırınız (1 en düşük, 5 en yüksek)

Kendime koyduğum hedeflerin çoğuna ulaşabileceğim.

Zor görevlerle karşılaştığımda onları başarabileceğime eminim.

Genel olarak, benim için önemli olan sonuçlara ulaşabileceğimi düşünüyorum.

Kafama koyduğum girişimlerin çoğunu başarabileceğimi düşünüyorum.

Başarılı bir şekilde sorunlarla başedebilirim.

Birçok farklı görevi etkin bir şekilde yapabileceğimden eminim.

Diğer insanlarla karşılaştırıldığında, çoğu görevi iyi bir şekilde yapabilirim.

İşler zorlaşsa bile, iyi yapabileceğimi biliyorum.

Appendix 5. Descriptive Statistics of MANOVA

Descriptive Statistics					
	Did you do Erasmus?	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
University_Prestige	Yes	Male	3,9000	1,16447	6
		Female	4,1091	,81173	11
		Total	4,0353	,91988	17
	No	Male	3,9167	,57498	12
		Female	3,7733	,80664	15
		Total	3,8370	,70392	27
	Total	Male	3,9111	,78282	18
		Female	3,9154	,81028	26
		Total	3,9136	,78993	44
Study_Program	Yes	Male	3,5417	,69672	6
		Female	2,8636	,54041	11
		Total	3,1029	,66766	17
	No	Male	3,6875	,68362	12
		Female	2,7333	,86327	15
		Total	3,1574	,91238	27
	Total	Male	3,6389	,67094	18
		Female	2,7885	,73380	26
		Total	3,1364	,81849	44
External_Labor_Market	Yes	Male	2,9167	1,11430	6
		Female	3,0000	,89443	11
		Total	2,9706	,94324	17
	No	Male	3,7500	1,01130	12
		Female	3,2333	1,01536	15
		Total	3,4630	1,02775	27
	Total	Male	3,4722	1,09104	18
		Female	3,1346	,95454	26
		Total	3,2727	1,01417	44
Life_Satisfaction	Yes	Male	4,0667	1,57818	6
		Female	3,8182	,96521	11
		Total	3,9059	1,17285	17
	No	Male	5,2500	,63317	12
		Female	4,3200	,82739	15
		Total	4,7333	,87178	27
	Total	Male	4,8556	1,14954	18
		Female	4,1077	,90550	26
		Total	4,4136	1,06653	44

Self_Efficacy	Yes	Male	3,8750	,94207	6
		Female	3,7727	,71331	11
		Total	3,8088	,77323	17
	No	Male	4,6042	,41912	12
		Female	3,8250	,64573	15
		Total	4,1713	,67417	27
	Total	Male	4,3611	,70696	18
		Female	3,8029	,66160	26
		Total	4,0313	,72743	44

Appendix 6. Multivariate Test Results

Multivariate Tests ^b						
Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	,984	442,728 ^a	5,000	36,000	,000
	Wilks' Lambda	,016	442,728 ^a	5,000	36,000	,000
	Hotelling's Trace	61,490	442,728 ^a	5,000	36,000	,000
	Roy's Largest Root	61,490	442,728 ^a	5,000	36,000	,000
Erasmus	Pillai's Trace	,239	2,256 ^a	5,000	36,000	,070
	Wilks' Lambda	,761	2,256 ^a	5,000	36,000	,070
	Hotelling's Trace	,313	2,256 ^a	5,000	36,000	,070
	Roy's Largest Root	,313	2,256 ^a	5,000	36,000	,070
Gender	Pillai's Trace	,416	5,135 ^a	5,000	36,000	,001
	Wilks' Lambda	,584	5,135 ^a	5,000	36,000	,001
	Hotelling's Trace	,713	5,135 ^a	5,000	36,000	,001
	Roy's Largest Root	,713	5,135 ^a	5,000	36,000	,001
Erasmus *	Pillai's Trace	,069	,536 ^a	5,000	36,000	,748
Gender	Wilks' Lambda	,931	,536 ^a	5,000	36,000	,748
	Hotelling's Trace	,074	,536 ^a	5,000	36,000	,748
	Roy's Largest Root	,074	,536 ^a	5,000	36,000	,748

a. Exact statistic

b. Design: Intercept + V15 + V72 + V15 * V72

Appendix 7. Results of Between-Subjects

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	University_Prestige	,717 ^a	3	,239	,366	,778
	Study_Program	7,885 ^b	3	2,628	5,025	,005
	External_Labor_Market	4,336 ^c	3	1,445	1,449	,243
	Life_Satisfaction	13,148 ^d	3	4,383	4,902	,005
	Self_Efficacy	5,459 ^e	3	1,820	4,208	,011
Intercept	University_Prestige	604,701	1	604,701	926,209	,000
	Study_Program	403,630	1	403,630	771,704	,000
	External_Labor_Market	408,292	1	408,292	409,401	,000
	Life_Satisfaction	747,522	1	747,522	836,068	,000
	Self_Efficacy	634,156	1	634,156	1466,649	,000
Erasmus Effect	University_Prestige	,250	1	,250	,383	,540
	Study_Program	,001	1	,001	,001	,973
	External_Labor_Market	2,792	1	2,792	2,799	,102
	Life_Satisfaction	6,967	1	6,967	7,793	,008
	Self_Efficacy	1,498	1	1,498	3,465	,070
Gender	University_Prestige	,011	1	,011	,016	,899
	Study_Program	6,536	1	6,536	12,497	,001
	External_Labor_Market	,461	1	,461	,462	,501
	Life_Satisfaction	3,408	1	3,408	3,811	,058
	Self_Efficacy	1,906	1	1,906	4,409	,042
Erasmus* Gender	University_Prestige	,305	1	,305	,467	,498
	Study_Program	,187	1	,187	,358	,553
	External_Labor_Market	,883	1	,883	,886	,352
	Life_Satisfaction	1,140	1	1,140	1,275	,266
	Self_Efficacy	1,124	1	1,124	2,600	,115
Error	University_Prestige	26,115	40	,653		
	Study_Program	20,921	40	,523		
	External_Labor_Market	39,892	40	,997		
	Life_Satisfaction	35,764	40	,894		
	Self_Efficacy	17,295	40	,432		
Total	University_Prestige	700,760	44			
	Study_Program	461,625	44			
	External_Labor_Market	515,500	44			
	Life_Satisfaction	906,040	44			

	Self_Efficacy	737,797	44			
Corrected Total	University_Prestige	26,832	43			
	Study_Program	28,807	43			
	External_Labor_Market	44,227	43			
	Life_Satisfaction	48,912	43			
	Self_Efficacy	22,754	43			

a. R Squared = ,027 (Adjusted R Squared = -,046)

b. R Squared = ,274 (Adjusted R Squared = ,219)

c. R Squared = ,098 (Adjusted R Squared = ,030)

d. R Squared = ,269 (Adjusted R Squared = ,214)

e. R Squared = ,240 (Adjusted R Squared = ,183)

Appendix 8. Bivariate Correlations

Correlations

			University_Prestige	Study_Program	External_Labor_Market	Life_Satisfaction	Self_Efficacy
Spearman's rho	University_Prestige	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,204	,300*	-,116	,219
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,184	,048	,453	,152
		N	44	44	44	44	44
	Study_Program	Correlation Coefficient	,204	1,000	,586**	,174	,215
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,184	.	,000	,259	,161
		N	44	44	44	44	44
	External_Labor_Market	Correlation Coefficient	,300*	,586**	1,000	,174	,351*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,048	,000	.	,259	,020
		N	44	44	44	44	44
	Life_Satisfaction	Correlation Coefficient	-,116	,174	,174	1,000	,634**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,453	,259	,259	.	,000
		N	44	44	44	44	44
	Self_Efficacy	Correlation Coefficient	,219	,215	,351*	,634**	1,000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,152	,161	,020	,000	.
		N	44	44	44	44	44

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

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

Appendix 9. The distribution of the objective measures of employability for people who did Erasmus

	Percentage
Employability Status	
Employed	76,5%
Unemployed, looking for job	5,9%
Student	17,6%
Number of months of being unemployed	
I didn't look for a job	0
0-2	70,6%
2-4	5,9%
4-6	17,6%
More than 6	5,9%
The range of the current salary (monthly, TL)	
0-1000	0
1000-2000	23,5%
2000-3000	17,6%
3000-4000	17,6%
4000-5000	23,5%
5000+	17,6%
How satisfied are you with your salary?	
Not satisfied at all	11,8%
Not satisfied	35,3%
Neither unsatisfied nor satisfied	5,9%
Satisfied	5,9%
Very satisfied	17,6%

Appendix 10. The distribution of objective measures of employability for people who didn't do Erasmus

	Percentage
Employability Status	
Employed	55,6,5%
Unemployed, looking for job	11,1%
Student	33,3%
Number of months of being unemployed	
I didn't look for job	7,4%
0-2	63%
2-4	11,1%
4-6	7,4%
More than 6	11,1%
The range of the current salary (monthly, TL)	
0-1000	25,9%
1000-2000	7,4%
2000-3000	22,2%
3000-4000	29,6%
4000-5000	3,7%
5000+	11,1%
How satisfied are you with your salary?	
Not satisfied at all	22,2%
Not satisfied	18,5%
Neither unsatisfied nor satisfied	22,2%
Satisfied	25,9%
Very satisfied	7,4%
Missing	3,7%