



INNOVATIVE
APPROACHES IN
SOCIAL, HUMAN AND
ADMINISTRATIVE
SCIENCES

Kitap Adı	: Innovative Approaches in Social, Human and Administrative Sciences
İmtiyaz Sahibi/Publisher	: Gece Kitaplığı
Genel Yayın Yönetmeni/Editor in Chief	: Doç. Dr. Atilla ATİK
Proje Koordinatörü/Project Coordinator	: Ethem BİLİCİ
Kapak&İç Tasarım/Cover&Interior Design	: Özge ERGENEL
Sosyal Medya/Social Media	: Arzu ÇUHACIOĞLU
Yayına Hazırlama	: Gece Akademi  Dizgi Birimi
Sertifika/Certificate No	: 34559
ISBN	: 978-605-288-787-5

Editör/Editors

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Gece Publishing
ABD Adres/ USA Address: 387 Park Avenue South, 5th Floor, New York, 10016, USA
Telefon/Phone: +1 347 355 10 70

Gece Kitaplığı
Türkiye Adres/Turkey Address: Kızılay Mah. Fevzi Çakmak 1. Sokak Ümit Apt. No: 22/A
Çankaya/Ankara/TR
Telefon/Phone: +90 312 431 34 84 - +90 555 888 24 26

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A COMPARISON BETWEEN THE FEEDBACK STATISTICS OF THE TWITTER ACCOUNTS OF PRESIDENTIAL CANDIDATES AND THE RESULTS OF THE JUNE 2018 TURKISH PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS

İbrahim Sena ARVAS¹

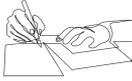
1. Introduction

Thanks to the Internet, the world is becoming smaller and smaller, and has become transformed into a virtual domain where almost all activities in life have become connected to the Internet in one way or another. This gigantic network, which indirectly connects four billion people, makes people as dependent on it as they are on bread and water, especially in decision-making processes. The importance of the Internet for a system such as politics, which depends on affecting people in their decision-making processes, cannot be overstated. There is a parallel relationship between the Internet dependence of politics and people's dependence on the Internet. The Internet is a 24-hour virtual rally space, especially for politicians where millions or even billions of people can join in.

The desire to impress the electorate through the Internet has also opened a new area of democratic competition among politicians. As is the case in Western countries, it is seen that every candidate with serious goals in the political field – and all the political parties without exception – are actively using the Internet in Turkey (Damlapınar, 2005: 106). Political practices have also been updated together with the Internet. This technology has become an indispensable tool for announcements by politicians, and it has developed new areas of expertise. Politicians increasingly need to access these new areas of expertise. One of the most important of these new areas is social media expertise. In order to benefit actively from social media, where communication and interaction on the Internet is at its highest level, consultancy services are provided to politicians by people who specialize in this field. Politicians sometimes use social media via these consultants and sometimes they use it themselves, because, as alluded to above, politicians have also entered into a competition about the frequency of their social media use. Definitely, the aim here is to share more and more communication with the electorate and to sustain it.

One of the most active social media channels that serve said purpose is Twitter. All participants in the political scene worldwide have a Twitter account. In fact, the politicians now use Twitter as an official announcement area. Today, Twitter is a channel that journalists, as well as the electorate, have to follow when they are reporting the news. As is the case all over the world, politicians actively use social media; hence Twitter is used in Turkey. Twitter's influence in

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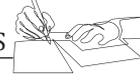
civil acts of disobedience, such as the Arab Spring and Gezi Park, also encourages politicians to take social media seriously.

This study aims to examine how, and to what extent, Twitter is used as a political propaganda tool in Turkey and how the feedback on Twitter and real-life actions matched within the context of the presidential elections in June 2018. In this study, in line with the terminology used on the Twitter platform, the contents sent from Twitter accounts are referred to as tweets while the re-posts are referred to as retweets. The study was initially limited to the statistics of the actions and feedback to these actions from the Twitter accounts of presidential candidates. Another limitation in this study were the date ranges for the actions in these accounts. In this context, the relevant statistics taken into account cover the period between the deadline for candidates to apply for the presidential elections of the President of the Republic of Turkey, 5 May 2018 at 17:00 hours and the onset of the voting period of 24 June 2018 at 08:00 hours. During these fifty days, retweets sent from other accounts are not included in the tweets for these accounts, i.e. only the statistics for the original tweets in the accounts were taken into consideration. Data on the feedback statistics of the tweets in the accounts were collected 10 days after the tweet was sent. For example, the number of feedback comments for tweets sent on 5th May were collected on the 15th May, and the number of feedback comments for the tweets sent on 23rd June were collected on the 3rd July. This period was considered for each tweet. The 10-day period was determined according to daily observations, with the number of feedback comments about a tweet fixed at 10 days. These 10 days were deemed reasonable for followers to see the tweets. Since access to the Twitter accounts of the presidential candidates was open, the number of feedback comments was not limited to the accounts in the followers' lists.

The statistical data obtained within the scope of these limitations were compared with the statistical data of the results of the election. The statistics on the Twitter accounts of the presidential candidates consisted of the number of genuine daily tweets, the daily average number of tweets, the daily average number of replies, likes and retweets. In this context, the quantitative characteristics of this study seek a meaningful relationship between the pre-election Twitter statistics of the presidential candidates and the election results.

In summary, this study seeks to answer the question of whether there is a significant relationship between the numerical ratios for feedback on the tweets of the candidates and the results of the election. Twitter is a social media platform that indicates the numerical effect of the content sent, albeit virtual, and offers instant and measurable feedback. Thanks to this feature, this study, which focuses on the feedback of the tweets, is also a kind of "effect" research.

A comparison and interpretation of these statistical data before and after the election is made in the conclusion section of the study. The significance of this study stems from the fact that social media, which has been given great importance by both the electorate and politicians, is significant, and it seeks to answer the questions of how Twitter behavior matches real life.



2. Social Media and Political Propaganda

New communication methods and techniques have emerged that have contributed to rapid developments in communication technology. Some of these have become more popular, whereas other methods and techniques have lost their importance and use (Aziz, 2003: 4). Social media, which has been defined as a new class of communication technologies that have grown rapidly in recent years, represents all the tools, services and applications that enable users to interact through network technologies. The majority of the definitions of social media are within the framework of the possibilities that social media offers to users (Sine, 2017: 53–54). The increase in these opportunities over time has transformed social media into a very broad concept. Therefore, there are many virtual communication media types included within social media. There are easy-to-use and externally accessible virtual communication media such as micro-blogs, blogs, online chat sites, social networking sites, forums, wikis, podcasts and e-mail chains (Onat, 2010: 105). With an ever-spreading field of use, social media transports a countless amount of content to an audience that expands every single day.

According to the 2018 Global Digital Report for a UK-based company *We are Social*, 53% of the world's population is using the Internet. At this rate, the number of people who use the Internet has exceeded four billion people. More than three billion of these four billion people are active social media users. According to the report's data on Turkey, 63% of the total population, 51 million people, actively uses social media.

The ratios given above show why people or institutions that aim to influence people's emotions, thoughts, attitudes and opinions through social media think this area is important. Political communication is one of the main areas where the effect mentioned is the main objective. The political communication practices of politicians, which use certain kinds of communication techniques and ways to adopt certain ideological goals, to address certain groups, masses, countries or blocks, and to put them into action when necessary, are becoming increasingly widespread on social media (Aziz, 2011: 19). Social media is a unique field to persuade the electorate with its prevalence, specificity and frequency of use.

As can be seen from the data above, both throughout the world and in Turkey, the use of the Internet and social media is rapidly increasing every single day. In line with this increase, users transfer activities normally carried out by classical communication tools to social media. In this way, political propaganda is used on social media by both propagandists and target audiences. National policymakers and local politicians are becoming increasingly popular on social media and are trying to deliver their policies, goals, promises and actions to target audiences via the Internet (Köseoğlu and Al, 2013: 112).

3. Twitter as a Propaganda Tool on Social Media

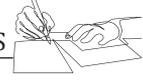
Twitter is a new generation communication media that allows you to write 140 characters of text, share audio, images and data on setup (Kırık, 2013: 80), and it has become widespread worldwide in a short time. On September 26, 2006, one of the founders, Jack Dorsey, sent the first 280-character tweet and



thus Twitter doubled the character limit in the company's text service. Twitter provides service through the Twitter Inc. Company based in San Francisco, California. Twitter was founded in 2006 by three technology entrepreneurs, Evan Williams, Biz Stone and Jack Dorsey, who worked for a San Francisco-based web company called Odeo (Akar, 2010: 63). In addition to this Noah Glass is also listed as a founder of Twitter. In the beginning, Twitter was a simple follow-up service, originally designed to announce on the Internet, where people were and what they were doing, using the initial name "twtr". But over time, Twitter's mission, vision and structure have changed. A post on Twitter, which is referred to as a micro-blogging service, is limited to 280 characters and is referred to as a tweet. Following an account on Twitter means being aware of its updates and subscribing to its personal time schedule. When you follow someone on this platform, you become their follower, and when someone follows you, they become your follower. If there is a mutual following, people can also send each other personal messages called DMs (Direct Messages). Another way to send/receive DMs is to enable the DM to accept DMs from people who do not follow them. Other users on Twitter can view the tweets posted by other members that they have added to their accounts on their own main pages in chronological order (Arvas, 2016: 147-148).

As of the first quarter of 2018, the number of monthly active users was determined to be 335 million. In the statistical data compiled by the statistics portal Statista (Statista, 2018), the number of monthly active Twitter users in Turkey was reported to be 10.8 million in 2018. The widespread use of Twitter in Turkey began on 26 April 2011. The company announced that Russian and Turkish language support was available on the official website. Then, Twitter was quickly adopted by Internet users in Turkey and began to be used by virtually anyone with a public profile, from politicians to artists (Arvas, 2016: 450). The frequency of Twitter use by politicians increases, especially during election periods.

Since it offers fast and measurable feedback, Twitter has quickly become a favorite area for politicians. It is a very important tool for politicians to have an idea of public opinion. Four different feedback types can be measured numerically on Twitter. The first two of these are tweets and replies to tweets. The answers that include supportive or critical contents related to the tweets give the politician information about the public's perception. The number of replies indicate the tweet's impact level. Additional feedbacks that can be measured on Twitter are the re-posts or retweets. The number of retweets gives an idea of the extent to which the message has spread. Retweets are an important feature that allows the message to reach the masses that do not follow the account. Further feedback on Twitter is the 'like' feature. The number of people who liked the message presents a statistic on how much the people agree with the content of the message. The most effective feedback on political propaganda through Twitter is the number of likes, because the replies may contain criticism, while the message on retweets can be deemed as a hopeful form of support as it will be featured on the person's page that retweeted the message. Retweeting is usually done by members of the party to which the politician belongs. By retweeting, members of the party try to show their commitment to the politician concerned



and how active they are in the election process. However, liking a message is the easiest and most effortless type of feedback through which the followers show their opinions. Therefore, the numerical ratio of likes is the clearest feedback on the degree to which the electorate supports the given message. The fourth feedback type on Twitter is the number of video views in the tweets. Politicians can see the extent to which video messages are spread by looking at the video view ratios. These four forms of feedback are very important for politicians, because the feedback give politicians a strong idea of the election results. Twitter, both because of these features and due to the wide number of users, has become indispensable in the field of propaganda for politicians in Turkey.

During the presidential elections of June 2018, Twitter was actively used by the candidates. Six candidates competed in the election. These candidates were Recep Tayyip Erdoğan, the candidate for the alliance between the Justice and Development Party (AK Parti) and the Nationalist Movement Party (MHP), Muharram İnce: the candidate and Yalova Deputy of the Republican People's Party (CHP), Selahattin Demirtaş; İstanbul Deputy and the People's Democratic Party (HDP) candidate, Meral Akşener: the İYİ Parti (İyi Parti) candidate, Doğu Perinçek: the Vatan Party (Vatan Partisi) candidate and Temel Karamollaoğlu: the Saadet Party (SP) candidate.

3.1. Twitter Statistics for the @RT_Erdogan Account

Recep Tayyip Erdoğan, the current Prime Minister, was the first political leader to open a Twitter account in Turkey on the 23rd August 2009 before Turkish support was introduced. Erdoğan's first tweet was, "the only haven of politics is morality..." on the 23rd November 2010 (Arvas, 2016: 169). The number of followers of Erdoğan on Twitter is very high, because Erdoğan was the founding chairman of the Justice and Development Party (Adalet ve Kalkınma Partisi, AK Parti), which was established on the 14th August 2001 and came to power about a year after its establishment – and has been in power ever since. The national and international recognition of Erdoğan for many years as Prime Minister and President has been reflected in the number of Twitter followers. In fact, Erdoğan's Twitter account was the third among world leaders in terms of the number of followers, behind Barack Obama and Narendra Modi, with approximately 2 million followers before Donald Trump was elected as the US President in November 2016. As of November 2018, Erdoğan has 13 million followers. This situation created a significant effect for Tayyip Erdoğan's political propaganda campaign on Twitter prior to the June 2018 elections.

Another advantage of long-term power and participation as president in the elections is that almost all of Erdoğan's discourses have news value. Therefore, Erdoğan's rallies are included in the main news in mainstream media. Although Erdoğan was so visible in the mainstream media, he did not fail to produce propaganda until the election morning on Twitter for the 2018 elections.

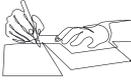


Table 1 Feedback statistics for the @RT_Erdogan account between 5 May 2018 and 24 June 2018

Total Tweet 	Mean Daily Tweets 	Mean Reply 	Mean Retweet 	Mean Likes 
176	4	820	5543	22600

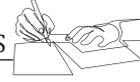
A total of 176 original tweets were sent from the @RT_Erdogan account during the fifty days. This can be rounded up to four daily tweets. Most of the tweets in the account were photos and videos. In fact, the number of tweets without photos and videos was only 48. After every rally Erdoğan attended, a video of the rally was added to the related tweet. Erdoğan, who shared many messages with the audience in this video, did not send the text from his rallies as tweets. In terms of feedback, the @RT_Erdogan account received 820 replies, 5543 retweets and 22600 likes daily. During this time, the highest amount of feedback in the @RT_Erdogan account was for the tweet featuring a video posted on 23rd June 2018, “Put out your hand now; let the strongest era begin. May the phoenix take off for Turkey.” The video featured in the tweet was viewed by 1600 thousand people and received 2,700 replies, 30 thousand retweets and 84 thousand likes. The highest number of tweets sent from the @RT_Erdogan account was on 6 May 2018. On that date, 24 tweets were sent from the account.

Table 2 Feedback statistics for the tweets sent from the @RT_Erdogan account on May 6th, the day when the highest numbers of tweets were sent from the account

Total Tweet 	Mean Reply 	Mean Retweet 	Mean Likes 
24	448	5079	13400

On May 6th, when the maximum number of tweets were sent, the number of feedback comments almost halved – except for the retweet ratio. On the same day, the 24 tweets sent had 448 feedback comments, 5079 retweets and 13400 likes. However, this decrease was not reflected in the number of retweets, indicating that the retweet process is usually from members of the party of which the politician is a member. The lowest number of tweets on a single day from the @RT_Erdogan account for the 50-day period was 2300. This showed that there were 2300 accounts that retweeted the tweets (in the worst case). These information show that as the number of tweets sent during the day increased, the number of feedback comments decreased.

There were many retweets in the @RT_Erdogan account. Retweets were sent from the Twitter account belonging to the Turkish Republic Presidency – since Recep Tayyip Erdoğan was the President of the Republic – and from AK Parti’s Twitter account since he was the leader of the party. It was also observed that the @RT_Erdogan account did not retweet any accounts associated with other parties that supported the presidency of Recep Tayyip Erdoğan within the 50-



day period.

3.2 Twitter Statistics of the @vekilince Account

The Twitter account of Muharrem İnce, @vekilince, who was a candidate for the Presidency of the Republic on June 24th 2018 was opened on August 2010. The account posted its first tweet on August 24th 2010. The tweet was, “Not being on Twitter is something, not being good at it is something else. Hello to you all! I have no relation with the account previously opened in my name.” Just like Erdoğan, İnce is one of the oldest politicians on Twitter in Turkey. As of July 2018, the @vekilince account had 4 million 400 thousand followers. Muharrem İnce, who actively uses Twitter for political propaganda, had increased the number of tweets on his account by May 5th, when the deadline for candidacy for the president ended.

Table 3 Feedback statistics for the @vekilince account between 5 May 2018 and 24 June 2018

Total Tweet 	Mean Daily Tweets 	Mean Reply 	Mean Retweet 	Mean Likes 
408	8	793	4727	33575

The number of tweets on Muharrem İnce’s official Twitter account is almost two and a half times that of @ RT_Erdogan. Just like Erdoğan, İnce added videos of all his rallies to his tweets. In terms of feedback, the @vekilince account received 793 replies, 4727 retweets and 33575 likes daily. The number of likes in the @vekilince account is much greater than the number of likes in the @RT_Erdogan account. The difference between the numbers of likes between the two accounts was 11000. The maximum number of feedback comments for the account was received on June 5th, to the tweet featuring a video. In his tweet featuring the words, “You dance Harmandalı in the land of the Efes”, Muharrem İnce shared a video where he performed a regional folk dance of Turkey’s Aegean Region in his rally scene. The video featured in the tweet was viewed by 1 million 270 thousand people and received 2255 replies, 16 thousand retweets and 86 thousand likes. The maximum number of tweets sent by his account was on the 8th June 2018 with 17 tweets and on the 23rd June 2018, which was the day before the elections. Due to the high interest in the tweets a few hours before the election, the statistical data for the 8th June 2018 were used in Table 4 to obtain more realistic results.

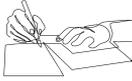


Table 4 Feedback statistics for the tweets sent from the @vekilince account on June 8th, the day when the highest numbers of tweets were sent from the account.

Total Tweet 	Mean Reply 	Mean Retweet 	Mean Likes 
17	635	3676	28352

Comparing the feedback values for the 8th June 2018, when the highest numbers of tweets were sent during the whole 50-day propaganda period, a certain difference was observed. Sending more than twice the daily average of tweets on the same day lowered the number of feedback comments, especially the average of likes. On the same day, the 17 tweets generated feedback of 635 replies, 3676 retweets and 28352 likes.

3.3. Twitter Statistics for the @hdpdemirtas Account

Selahattin Demirtaş, one of the presidential candidates, carried out his election activities for the June 24th from a prison. Twitter was the only platform through which Demirtaş could communicate with the electorate since he did not have the propaganda means that the other candidates had. However, because it is not legal to use Twitter in prison, Demirtaş sent the tweets through his lawyers. The @hdpdemirtas account was opened in December 2010. The first tweet from the account was “Greetings and regards from me also” sent on the 11th December 2010 in reply to the @bdpkisanak account. As of July 2018, the @hdpdemirtas account had 1 million 600 thousand followers. Demirtaş did not actively use his Twitter account for nearly a year following his arrest. However, starting from September 2017, he started sending tweets again through his family and his lawyers. Demirtaş, as of May 5 – the deadline for the candidacy applications for presidential elections – used the @hdpdemirtas account more actively within the constraints on him.

Table 5 Feedback statistics for the @hdpdemirtas account between 5 May 2018 and 24 June 2018

Total Tweet 	Mean Daily Tweets 	Mean Reply 	Mean Retweet 	Mean Likes 
408	8	161	1812	8202

Like the @vekilince account, the @hdpdemirtas account sent 408 tweets during the 50 days. However, there were very large numerical differences between feedback comments received by the two accounts. In terms of feedback comments, the @hdpdemirtas account received 161 replies, 1812 retweets and 8202 likes daily. The @hdpdemirtas account received the highest number of feedback comments on the 8th May 2018 to the tweet “Ketilde arıza vardı onun için gecik-

tim. TAMAM²" (The kettle has been broken, that's why I was late. ENOUGH.) In terms of feedback comments, this tweet received 5 replies, 20 thousand retweets and 86 thousand likes. The @hdpdemirtas account had a daily average of 8 tweets, although some days no tweets were sent. As the owner of the account, the frequency of tweets by Selahattin Demirtaş during these days was uneven. It is known that Demirtaş sent tweets through his lawyers. Demirtaş could not follow the feedback comments on his Twitter account and was given information by his lawyers who printed out the replies sent to the @hdpdemirtas account and took them to him. Demirtaş replied to the Twitter replies on paper in handwriting and gave them back to his lawyers. Images of these handwritten replies were taken and sent as tweets from the @hdpdemirtas account. These tweets were sent on June 22nd, when the @hdpdemirtas account posted the highest number of tweets.

Table 6 Feedback statistics for the tweets sent from the @hdpdemirtas account on June 22nd, the day when the highest numbers of tweets were sent from the account

Total Tweet 	Mean Reply 	Mean Retweet 	Mean Likes 
157	45	488	3197

Of the 157 tweets sent by the @hdpdemirtas account on June 22nd, 149 were photographs of Demirtaş's handwriting of the above-mentioned tweet print outs. The fact that all these shares were on the same date caused a decrease in the number of feedback comments below the daily average. On the same day, the 157 tweets sent generated feedback of 45 replies, 488 retweets and 3197 likes.

3.4. Twitter Statistics for the @meral_aksener Account

Meral Akşener's official Twitter account was opened in May 2012. The first tweet of the account was sent on 25 May 2012. Akşener's first tweet was, "Finally, I am here. There is no escape from technology." Although the @meral_aksener account was opened after those of Erdoğan, İnce and Demirtaş, it was used very actively. As of July 2018, the @meral_aksener account has 2 million 600 thousand followers. During her presidential candidacy, many tweets were sent from the @meral_aksener account including Akşener's rally videos, photos or just text.

Table 7 Feedback statistics for the @meral_aksener account between 5 May 2018 and 24 June 2018

Total Tweet 	Mean Daily Tweets 	Mean Reply 	Mean Retweet 	Mean Likes 
682	14	183	1121	6866

2 FOOTNOTE: TAMAM, which can be translated as "enough" or "enough is enough", was used as a catchphrase by the opposition in Turkey during the election campaign in response to Erdoğan's words regarding the election "If one day our nation says 'enough,' then we will step aside."



During the 50-day period, 682 tweets were sent from the @meral_aksener account. This is much higher than those of her rivals. However, this numerical superiority was not reflected in feedback on the tweets. In terms of feedback, the @meral_aksener account received 183 replies, 1121 retweets and 6866 likes daily. The tweet, "A voice from the sky says ENOUGH..." sent on the 8th May 2018 by the @meral_aksener account received the highest amount of feedback. In terms of feedback, this tweet received 7459 replies, 30 thousand retweets and 149 thousand likes. The mentioned tweet featured no photos or videos. Examining the 50-day average number of tweets sent from the @meral_aksener account, reveals that no excessively frequent tweets were sent except for May 30th.

Table 8 Feedback statistics for the tweets sent from the @meral_aksener account on May 30th, the day when the highest numbers of tweets were sent from the account

Total Tweet 	Mean Reply 	Mean Retweet 	Mean Likes 
79	54	521	1948

The number of tweets sent on May 30th was five times the daily average. On the 30th May, 79 tweets were sent consecutively, the amount of feedback was 1/3 of the average feedback received by the @meral_aksener account. It is seen that the frequent tweets and the accumulation on that date significantly reduced the interest of the target group in the tweets. On the same day, the 79 tweets sent generated feedback of 54 replies, 521 retweets and 1948 likes.

3.5. Twitter Statistics for the @T_Karamollaoglu Account

The official Twitter account of Temel Karamollaoglu, @T_Karamollaoglu, was opened in December 2014. The first tweet of the account was sent on 24th October 2016. Karamollaoglu's first tweet, "Bütün kardeşlerime başarı dilekleri ve duaları için teşekkür ediyorum. Cenab-ı Hak rızasından ayırmasın. Selam ve saygılarımla." (I would like to thank all my brothers and sisters for their wishes and their prayers. May God bless your heart. Greetings and regards.) Karamollaoglu did not use his Twitter account as actively as Erdoğan, Demirtaş, Akşener and İnce until his presidential candidacy, approximately 1 and a half years after his first tweet. As of July 2018, the @T_Karamollaoglu account had 260 thousand followers.

Table 9 Feedback statistics for the @T_Karamollaoglu account between 5 May 2018 and 24 June 2018

Total Tweet 	Mean Daily Tweets 	Mean Reply 	Mean Retweet 	Mean Likes 
209	4	235	1347	8256

Karamollaoğlu sent 209 tweets from his account during the presidential election rallies. The average daily number of tweets for the @T_Karamollaoglu account was 4, the number of replies was 235, the average number of retweets was 1347, and the average number of likes was 8256. The tweet with the highest amount of feedback for the @T_Karamollaoglu account was sent on 20 June 2018 with the words, “Dolar kuru 4.75.Soğan kuru 6.95” (USD exchange rate: 4.75. Onion exchange rate: 6.95) This tweet also included a photo and a price tag. In terms of feedback, this tweet received 1300 replies, 14 thousand retweets and 50 thousand likes. Unlike other politicians, Karamollaoğlu preferred to send his tweets in series. The daily tweets of the @T_Karamollaoglu account were not very frequent. During the propaganda period, the highest number of tweets sent in one day was 14 tweets on June 14th.

Table 10 Feedback statistics for the tweets sent from the @T_Karamollaoglu account on June 22nd, the day when the highest numbers of tweets were sent from the account

Total Tweet 	Mean Reply 	Mean Retweet 	Mean Likes 
14	96	587	3157

The number of tweets sent on June 14th was three times the daily average. On the same day, the tweets generated feedback of 96 replies, 587 retweets and 3157 likes. In this manner, the parallelism between the number of tweets sent on the same day and the number of feedback comments is clear.

3.6. Twitter Statistics for the @Dogu_Perincek Account

Doğu Perinçek’s @Dogu_Perincek official Twitter account was opened in May 2011. The first tweet of the account was sent on the 30th July 2011. Perinçek, in his first tweet, wrote, “Doğu Perinçek wrote about Arslan Başer Kafaoğlu.” Perinçek used to link Twitter to the Labor Party, of which he was then the president. Perinçek uploaded his articles to the website of the Labor Party and shared a link on Twitter. It is seen that the @Dogu_Perincek account was used more actively after Perinçek became the Chairman of the Vatan Partisi. However, it can be seen that the @ Doğu Perinçek account sent the lowest number of tweets and had the lowest number of followers. As of July 2018, the @Dogu_Perincek account had 168000 followers.

Table 11 Feedback statistics for the @ Dogu_Perincek account between 5 May 2018 and 24 June 2018

Total Tweet 	Mean Daily Tweets 	Mean Reply 	Mean Retweet 	Mean Likes 
143	3	76	204	425



In terms of feedback, the @Dogu_Perincek account received 76 replies, 204 retweets and 425 likes on a daily basis. It was seen that Perincek frequently retweeted, especially the posts of the Vatan Party Twitter account during the propaganda period. The tweet that received the highest amount of feedback was sent by the @Dogu_Perincek account on the 2nd June 2018, “Muharrem İnce, apoletlerini sökeceğim diyerek Türk Ordusu’nun kahraman komutanı Metin Temel’e PKK’nın mevzilerinden kurşun sıkıyor.” (Muharrem Ince, by saying, “I will remove his rank”, is firing a bullet at a heroic commander of the Turkish Army, Metin Temel, from the lines of the PKK). In terms of feedback, this tweet received 1841 replies, 1800 retweets and 5140 likes. It was seen that the tweets sent by the @Dogu_Perincek account did not feature many videos. Of the 143 tweets sent during the propaganda period, only 6 contained videos. The highest number of tweets sent by Perinçek was on May 23rd.

Table 12 Feedback statistics for the tweets sent from the @Dogu_Perincek account on May 23rd, the day when the highest numbers of tweets were sent from the account

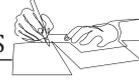
Total Tweet 	Mean Reply 	Mean Retweet 	Mean Likes 
11	46	167	286

The number of tweets sent from the @Dogu_Perincek account on May 23rd was three times the daily average. On the same day, the 11 tweets sent generated feedback of 46 replies, 167 retweets and 286 likes. It was seen that the number of tweets sent by Perinçek on the days other than May 23 were similar.

4. Conclusions

When making estimates about the election results, the occupancy rate of the rally areas and the survey results are taken into account as well as the feedback from the politicians’ Twitter accounts. The content and numbers of replies to the tweets sent by the politicians on Twitter, the number of retweets and the number of likes, is important feedback data to measure the opinion of the electorate on Twitter. These fast and measurable feedback statistics have turned Twitter into an indispensable propaganda tool for politicians. The number of followers in a politician’s Twitter account shows how the politician’s profile is. However, this does not mean that the owners of the following accounts support him. The biggest common point of the followers on Twitter is that they are curious about the developments regarding the owner of the account they follow. Followers can use Twitter to support them, and sometimes to criticize them. Also, some followers silently follow the progress of the account they are interested in. In addition, it is a fact that there are too many *troll* accounts on Twitter. Therefore, the number of followers of a politician’s Twitter account cannot be an indication of the extent to which that politician is supported.

There are four different types of feedback comments in Twitter. The first two of these are the replies to tweets. These replies may support the content contained in the tweet in question, but may also contain extremely harsh criticism.



Replies may contain a wide variety of expressions including praise, expectations, criticisms, insults, agreements and suggestions. Some tweets attract more negative reactions, whereas some tweets are strongly supported by replies. The feedback on the content of the replies can only give an idea of the vote that the politician sending the tweet will receive in the upcoming elections if their content is read. In other words, in order to be able to make a prediction about their voting intentions, all the answers must be read in full and the contents analyzed by the discourse analysis method. Otherwise, it is impossible to have an idea by looking only at the numerical ratio of the replies given to the tweets. Therefore, the numerical data of the replies can be considered as feedback but cannot give predictions about the upcoming elections.

Other feedbacks that can be measured on Twitter are the re-posts called retweets. Retweeting is also a very explicit act of support because it is also displayed in the account. As mentioned earlier, retweets are usually made by the members of the party to which the politician belongs. By retweeting, members of the party try to show their commitment to the politician concerned and how active they are in the election process. Retweeting is a highly assertive form of feedback. Beyond spreading the tweet, it indicates that the sender strongly supports the content of the tweet. It also means that content that belongs to the politician that sent the tweet is seen on the account that made the retweet. Therefore, retweeting is a strong indication of the commitment to the politician. Therefore, the numerical ratio of retweets can be considered as an indicator of how actively the party organization of the account holder is working on social media. At the same time, retweets are an indication of support given to the politician's propaganda exercise. In summary, the number of retweets is very important in the analysis of the propaganda process.

Twitter's other form of feedback is the likes for the tweet by clicking on the heart icon below the tweets. This form of feedback is a form of easy, fast and effortless. The liked tweets are not seen on the account pages that liked the tweet. Only the followers of the account are notified which contents are liked by that account. Strong affinity is not needed when a like is given. It only indicates that the tweet is liked. Since it is a form of support, people often don't like the tweets of politicians they won't vote for. When the number of followers of a Twitter account and the statistics of likes from the tweets in that account are compared, the data of the percentage of those who follow that account can be determined. However, due to the fact that the number of passive accounts cannot be determined among the follower accounts, it makes it impossible to conduct accurate analyses on these data. However, the average likes of a politician's tweets can be compared to that of rival politicians. With the data obtained from this comparison, comments can be made about the masses that follow the politicians on Twitter. In addition, the percentage of the electorate who voted and the percentage of supporters on Twitter can be compared. Comparisons can be made within the context of the question, "Which politician's supporters use Twitter more actively?" and the differences between the evidence gleaned from Twitter compared to the reality of those who voted.

Replying to a tweet and retweeting can be regarded as active feedback. Both are highly visible and assertive. In particular, replying is a form of feedback from people who have something to say. Liking a tweet or silently following an account are more passive actions compared to other feedback forms. Therefore, they are more preferable. The vast majority of Twitter users are reluctant to display their own attitudes on political issues. To formulate this assumption, it is sufficient to estimate the numerical ratio of the followers of the politicians and the feedback in their accounts. If the majority of people on Twitter revealed their political attitudes through feedback, the number of comments, retweets and likes in the accounts of politicians would be expressed in millions.

The figure below summarizes the results of the June 24th presidential elections and the average of the feedback comments during the propaganda campaign.

Figure 1 Comparison of the feedback comments on Twitter for the 24th June election results

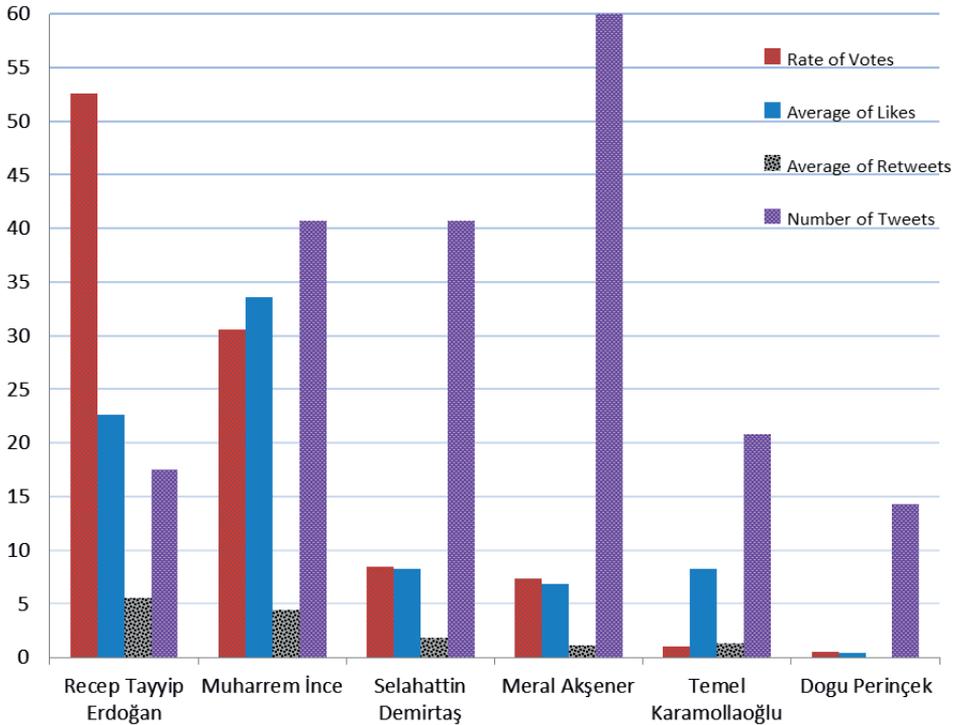
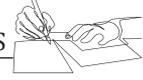


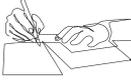
Figure 1 shows the average number of likes, retweets and tweets for the six presidential candidates from 5th May 2018 to the 24th June 2018 on Twitter accounts. In addition, the figure also shows the votes for the presidential candidates in the June 24th elections. The voter turnout in the elections is shown in red, the average of the likes for the tweets is shown in blue, the average of the retweets is shown in dotted black and the number of the tweets is shown in purple. The ranking was made according to the candidate who received the highest number of votes from left to right.



Recep Tayyip Erdoğan ranks first with a rate of 52.59% according to the 2018 presidential elections. He received 22% more votes than his closest rival, Muharrem İnce. During the election campaign, İnce used Twitter more actively than Erdoğan. Erdoğan sent 176 tweets while İnce sent 408 tweets.

Examining the numerical ratios of the feedback on the two Twitter accounts, it is seen that the average number of feedback comments received by the @vekilince account was higher than that of the @RT_Erdogan account. The tweets on the @RT_Erdogan account have an average of 22600 likes, while the tweets on the @vekilince account have an average of 33575 likes. İnce's tweets received 11000 more likes than those of Erdoğan's. It is seen that there is no significant relationship between the feedback received by the candidates and the percentage of votes received by the candidates. If the results of the election are estimated by looking at feedback, İnce would be expected to get more votes than Erdoğan. However, the results of the election show the opposite of this. According to these results, it can be said that the electorate who support İnce use Twitter more actively compared to those who support Erdoğan. Examining the average number of retweets of the tweets from these two accounts, it is seen that the average number of tweets on the @RT_Erdogan account was 5543, while the average number of tweets from the @vekilince account was 4727. There is a significant difference between the number of likes and the retweet ratios. Erdoğan had a higher number of retweets compared to İnce, whereas İnce received a much higher number of likes. It has been mentioned above that retweeting is usually done by party members. From this perspective, Erdoğan's political organization retweeted the tweets on the @RT_Erdogan account, but this support was not reflected in the average figures for the electorate who supported him who did not actively use Twitter as much. The support given to Muharrem İnce was not reflected in the average of retweets. This creates the perception that İnce was not sufficiently supported by the organization of the political party he belonged to. Considering the numerical average of the written replies given to the tweets from the two candidates, @RT_Erdogan received 820 replies while @vekilince received 793 replies. There is no significant difference between these two averages. However, these data should be analyzed by taking the average number of likes for the @RT_Erdogan into account and considering the statistics of the @vekilince account. The fact that Erdoğan is currently sending these tweets as the President, and the high number of followers, is reflected in the numerical average of the replies. As mentioned above, the characteristics of the replies on Twitter are very diverse. Because Erdoğan is the person with the highest authority in Turkey, that power is reflected in the number and content of replies to his tweets. These answers include criticism, demands and messages of support. In addition to supportive answers, there were quite a number of requests for help and of criticism. The like feedback that İnce received in Twitter reflected the replies featuring criticism of Erdoğan's tweets and, similarly, the replies received about İnce's tweets featured criticism expressed by Erdoğan's supporters.

According to the 2018 presidential election results, there was a 22% difference between Muharrem İnce and his closest rival, Selahattin Demirtaş. İnce received 30.64% of the votes and Demirtaş received 8.46% of the votes. Both candi-

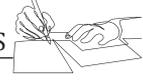


dates sent 408 tweets during the election campaign. However, it should be taken into consideration that Demirtaş carried out his election campaign from prison and Twitter was one of the only platforms where he could communicate with the electorate. Because Demirtaş could not use the Internet in prison, he sent the tweets through his lawyers. This has caused the tweets in the @hdpdemirtas account to be very frequent on certain days. The average number of likes in the @hdpdemirtas account was 8202. This ratio was significant with 33575 average likes in the @vekilince account. The average number of likes is significantly correlated to the percentage vote for both candidates. An average of 1812 retweets was produced for posts from the @hdpdemirtas account. The retweet average for this account is proportional to the percentage of votes he received, because the @hdpdemirtas account was in third place considering the number of retweets. The @hdpdemirtas account has 1 million 600 thousand followers.

Meral Akşener placed 4th according to the results of the 2018 presidential elections with 7.29% of the votes. Akşener's @meral_aksener account was the account that sent the most tweets during May 5th to June 24th period. The feedback ratios for the 682 tweets that the @meral_aksener account sent were very low. The average amount of feedback in the @T_Karamollaoglu of Temel Karamollaoglu, who received 1/7 of the votes received by Meral Akşener, was higher than that of the @meral_aksener account. This is clearly related to the high number of tweets in the @meral_aksener account. As can be seen in Table 8, the number of tweets in the @meral_aksener account is very high. If table 8 and table 7 are compared, it is clearly seen that repeatedly sending tweets from the account reduced the interest and support of the target audience to the tweets.

For example, the number of tweets sent from the @meral_aksener account on 30th May is almost half the number of tweets sent by the @RT_Erdogan account throughout the entire election process. In Table 8, it is seen that followers gave very little feedback to these tweets. Therefore, there is no significant relationship between the percentage of feedback received by the @meral_aksener account and the percentage of Akşener's votes. The frequent tweets sent from this account, which sent 14 tweets daily, reduced the effect of the propaganda. However, the number of followers of the @meral_aksener account is 1 million more than the @hdpdemirtas account of Selahattin Demirtaş who received a greater number of votes (2 million 600 thousand). This data showed that sending frequent tweets from the @meral_aksener account was not the right strategy for Twitter use.

According to the results of the 2018 presidential election, Temel Karamollaoglu won 0.89% of the vote. Karamollaoglu's @T_Karamollaoglu account has 260 thousand followers. However, there was no significant relationship between the feedback ratios of the @T_Karamollaoglu account, the number of followers and the votes that Karamollaoglu received. The average number of likes in the @T_Karamollaoglu account was 8256. This figure is more than the average number of likes for the @hdpdemirtas account, who received 8 times more votes than Karamollaoglu. It can be said that the electorate who support Karamollaoglu use Twitter very actively. The same is seen in the numerical average of retweets. In fact, the number of retweets for the tweets in the @T_Karamollaoglu account was 450 fewer than those of the @hdpdemirtas account and 226 greater than those



of the @meral_aksener account. This shows that Karamollaoğlu's party organization used Twitter quite actively and supported their candidates continuously. This numerical superiority in feedback was also due to the fact that Karamollaoğlu did not use his Twitter account as actively as Akşener and Demirtaş. A total of 209 tweets and 4 daily tweets were sent during the propaganda campaign from the @T_Karamollaoglu account. This is similar to the @RT_Erdogan account. Every tweet sent by Karamollaoğlu received significant feedback. The average number of replies to the tweets in the account was 235. This was higher than the numerical average of the replies for the tweets in both the @hdpdemirtas and @meral_aksener accounts. In summary, no significant relationship was found between the feedback ratios for the @T_Karamollaoglu account and the percentage of votes that Temel Karamollaoğlu received. The impression that the @T_Karamollaoglu account created was not reflected in the election results.

According to the results of the 2018 presidential elections, Doğu Perinçek was last with 0.2% of the votes. The @Dogu_Perincek account has 168 thousand followers. Perinçek had the lowest vote rate and the @Dogu_Perincek account had the lowest feedback ratio compared to the other candidates. The total number of tweets in the @Dogu_Perincek account was 143, and the average number of daily tweets was 3. The average number of replies to the tweets in the account was 76, the number of retweets was 204, and the number of likes was 425. These data indicate that there is a significant relationship between the number of votes for Perinçek in the election results and the feedback ratios of the @Dogu_Perincek account.

As a result, it was seen that there was no significant relationship between the average feedback ratios of the six Twitter accounts of the candidates and the election results. There were significant correlations between the feedback ratios of some accounts and the percentage of vote; however, it was not possible to make a general conclusion as this was not observed in all the accounts of the candidates. Therefore, the Twitter evidence and the reality for the electorate did not match.

Another result of the study is that, according to the statistics in Table 2, Table 4, Table 6, Table 8, Table 10 and Table 12, the feedback ratios decrease if the daily average number of tweets increases. It is seen that frequent tweet sending reduces the effect of the messages that are given via Twitter.

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TERRORISM AND GLOBAL SECURITY: THE EVALUATION OF ORIGINS, NATURE AND OBJECTIVES OF RIGHT- WING TERRORISM IN UNITED STATES

Dilan CIFTCI¹

Conceptualization of Terrorism and Violence

In order to be able to examine the distinctive ways of terrorism and violence, we have to start with the mentioning the definitions of violence and terrorism. Among all the explanations violence is the hard term to clarify without dealing the forces consequences of the negative historical experiences. Although there is uncertainty about the nature of violence, it is certain that since the beginning of the ancient time we have witnessing the different types of violence. Slavery played great role to engaging force somebody to do something and things changed by the way of century's understandings. Although we all know that the idea of slavery became unusable with the help of nation-states, this nation-states verified the new types of violence in so-called modern state.

On the other hand, terrorism is the term which cannot be explained by looking the one sides of it. Although the term terrorism has the different sides, one can describe terrorism by general guidelines as Grob-Fitzgibbon (2005) defined terrorism "terrorism is the 'use of violence for political ends.'" (Grob-Fitzgibbon, 2005:233) Of the changes introduced, the results of the social violence are appeared in a short run by its characteristics. In any kind of society there is a varieties of social violence all this varieties shaped by dealing to the historical events' causes and most of the time consequences are the main decisive factors for the types of violence.

Of particular note was the inclusion of what would become idea as Tilly (2003) defined that by referring Classical Marxist theory violence was occurred and also will occur by the result of promoted class interest, which means there is one group who achieve their interest on the other hand the remaining part of the society have no sacred geometry of chance to any actions. Therefore as Tilly (2003) mentioned that in the past the main factors which we have violence is that the false promise of modernization and as Marxist theory tried to explain incapability of meet expectations of the whole society. Although the system may help to increase number of violence in itself, violence can double by pursuing this system with obeying its rules.

According to Grob-Fitzgibbon (2005) explained that terrorism should be investigated into four different form of terrorism which are national terrorism, revolutionary terrorism, reactionary terrorism and religious terrorism. As it is clear from its name all types of terrorism has the different aim with different target

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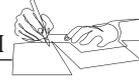


groups. Again Grob-Fitzgibbon (2005) claimed that "Again, under this definition, most acts of conventional war would be considered terrorism, including the very war intended to combat terrorism." (Grob-Fitzgibbon, 2005:233)

Different Types of Terrorism

First of all, national terrorism is the type of terrorism which have objective to change existing national boundaries. In order to achieve this proposal, as Grob-Fitzgibbon (2005) pointed out that states or an offensive national terrorists groups exercise violence to provide the national status quo in the name of altering the presented national boundaries. Provisional Irish Republican Army (PIRA) would be considered the leading national terrorist organization in Northern Ireland which is claiming independence from the United Kingdom. In addition to that as Munson (2004) Palestine Liberation Organizations are the nationalist terrorist groups this would be considered as an ethnic separatist. According to Jewish history the name Israel equal to liberation on the other hand according to Palestinian history Israel equal to subjugation. Secondly, as Grob-Fitzgibbon (2005) categorized that revolutionary terrorism basically have dream to differentiate the nature of the existing government or society. By insisting to continue for change would conclude not only regional or continental level but also as a result of globalized society it would be the worldwide level. Specifically the major parts of the revolutionary terrorist organization had change to increase by the consequences of the upheavals of the 1960s. Italian Red Brigades would be considered as a largest organization which aimed to have new government apart from the existing one. By comparing the Northern Ireland and Red Brigades it is essential to say that while Northern Ireland focusing on the national boundaries, Red Brigades concerned with the nature of the government, however in general concept both of them would be considered as a forms of violence. Thirdly, reactionary terrorism is the gift which comes from the direct reaction of the revolutionary terrorism. As it understood from its name, reactionary terrorism tries to continue running system without any kind of changes. Grob-Fitzgibbon (2005) explained reactionary terrorism bywords: "It seeks to prevent change in government or society or both. It is concerned with either preserving the present structures or returning to a "golden age" that it views as tainted by revolutionary or evolutionary change." (Grob-Fitzgibbon, 2005:240) The most striking examples of the reactionary terrorist attacks was Oklahoma City Bombing which supported by the American Militia in 1995. Finally religious terrorism is the atrocity types of violence. Even it done in the name of God or in reality this actions work under the name of religious based. The famous religious terrorist group is the Osama bin Laden's al-Qaeda which had the pick when the September 11 occurred in the America. On the other hand Japanese new religious movement organizations Aum Supreme Truth is the religiously-based terrorist groups.

These initiatives bring another explanation type for term terrorism. Tilly (2004) defined terrorism into four various explanations which are; terror as a strategy, multiple uses of terror, terror and other forms of struggle and terror and specialists in coercion. Before the examine these different understanding of terrorism it is essential to say that the term terrorism hard to define because of it include both revolutionary and conservative groups, also today some terror-



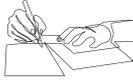
ists are respectable politicians. Moreover it is hard to have constant definition for the reason that idea of wars of liberation and guerilla warfare. On the other hand terrorism is the distinct from the other types of violence and conflict. Since terrorism would not be considered visible enemy and it does not have diffuse networks. In addition to these it is most important distinctive characteristics that with terrorism apart from the conventional conflicts it is almost impossible to achieve final victory.

Coming back to Tilly's (2004) explanations, the first category of explanations is terror as a strategy which claimed that "Asymmetrical deployment of threats and violence against enemies outside the forms of political struggle routinely operating within the current regime does have a crude logic of its own." (Tilly, 2004:9) Of particular note for the Tilly's explanation it is shown that Grob-Fitzgibbon's idea of reactionary terrorism would be considered as terror as a strategy. The type of strategic terror have aim to provoke authorities in order to create inter-communal hatred and conflict. The second category of terrorism is multiple uses of terror which tries to engage asymmetrical deployment. Furthermore, it would be considered as same as revolutionary terrorism in the name of goal to new ideologies such as; utopianism, nihilism or even publicity. The terrible Rwandan genocide was the most crucial examples of the multiple uses of the terror with state support. With respect to this example it can be said that Rwandan genocide had the strategy of ethnic cleansing in 1990s between Rwanda and Bosnia which resulted the 800,000 deaths in 1994. The third category of terrorism is terror and other forms of struggle, "In many parts of the world, specialized military forces-governmental, nongovernmental, and antigovernmental-frequently engage in kidnapping, murder, and mutilation in addition to their occasional pitched battles with other armed forces." (Tilly, 2004:10) At that point SAWL (Small arms and Light Weapons) problems would be considered as a terror and other forms of struggle with respect to consequences of the problem was 500.000 people killed each year. The final category of the Tilly's (2004) explanations is the terror and specialists in coercion which composed of the analytic confusion. This analytic confusion includes autonomists, zealots, militias and conspirators. The most important example for the terror and specialists in coercion is the horror of September 11.

From Historical Examples to Today

When we look at the today's global society it is clear that apart from the historical examples external influences have the gradual increase as a result of the globalization with weakens power of authoritarian. Historically, as Nuzzo (2004) deals with most of the time Nazi occupation was known as the years of terrorism when it occurred Germany and Italy in the 1960s and then in the 1970s and 1980s. In the meantime to that we are witnessing the number of violence experience for the state and system as Bauman (1989) pointed out that:

Had Nazi Power prevailed, authority to determine what ought to be would have found that no natural laws were broken and no crimes against God and humanity were committed in the Holocaust. It would



have been a question, though, whether the slave labor operations should continue, expand, or go out of business. Those decisions would have been made on rational grounds. (Bauman, 1989:7)

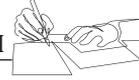
According to Nuzzo (2004) claimed that the term terrorism should be investigated by emphasizing the dialectically methods. Nuzzo (2004) used Hegel's dialectic methods for amplification the terrorism with respect to present analysis. According to Hegel's dialectic methods as Nuzzo (2004) pointed out that after the consequences of the September 11, and the direct results of America's war on terror in Iraq. Of particular note shows that global society was divided into two parts as Nuzzo (2004) mentioned 'us' and 'them' in order to say cause-effect relationship between good and evil. As Milgram (2004), "The inhumane policies may have originated in the mind of a single person, but they could only be carried out on a massive scale if a very large number of persons obeyed rules." (Milgram, 2004:146). These initiatives again explained that in order to have effective social violence, we have to address to considerable majority. For this respect Al-Qaeda is the most important examples of the how one terrorist organization might be the superior power in one society. Although in reality Al-Qaeda used to use coordinated violence by the name of power, there is a very large number of persons obeyed the Al-Qaeda rules and willing to support them as a superior power in the society.

The victims of terrorist attack are third parties, innocent bystanders; there is no special reason for attacking them; anyone else within a large class of (unrelated) people would do as well. The attack is directed indiscriminately against the entire class. (Walzer: 2004; 136 cited in Goodin: 2007; 6)

Following examination comes from the terrorism is not equal to political violence. This kind of violence has great impact on large group and creates pressure and fear on target groups rather than individuals and this type of violence has merely related political issues

For different respect, just looking historical examples is not useful for the understanding distinctive way of the defining terrorism apart from the other forms of violence. As Torres (2006) mentioned that violence would be considered as a result of the low average incomes, low growth and higher dependence on foreign trade in the long run, which means. The most striking common factor of the usage of violence in the name of state among war-prone countries is respect to their poverty level. There are various types of terrorism; however global terrorism should be emphasized because of the gradual increase of global society and the expression of freedom. With the unavoidable result of the September 11 terrorist attacks moved from the individual violence to collective violence with affecting not only large number of major countries but also non-state actors and individual who lived the different continents.

It seems clear that -in especial after 9/11-there is seemingly a consensus as to what, or who, is

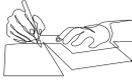


international. Even though we know to whom it was destined, the attack on the World Trade Center was immediately identified as an act of international terrorism. This can be explained through the fact that, with the end of the Cold War, the United States becomes consolidated as the hegemon in a now globalized world. The big picture is completed by the creation of an inextricable relation between terrorism and Islam, which becomes equated, as a result, to the barbaric. (Torres, 2006:206).

All along this study we have tried to examine through the historical violence cases in the different societies, in the different periods and their source of violence along with the consequences. Comparing with today's terrorism as a violent action we came up to a conclusion that there are distinctive in many ways but the most knocking one is that they are similar in one way: it is always the people of the country or the society who pay the bill and not the governors or the leaders who have taken the decision. Terrorism is a problem as old as humanity, being in an ancient society or in a modern society the reasons of terrorism as a violent action may be distinctive but the results remain the same. It may appear different in ways and in means but terrorism has always humans as victims. Lack of communication and lack of tolerance may lead the societies to violent action of terror and most of the time to a war. Today more and more we are witnessing to economic interest clashes among the people. Whichever example we take for terrorism we come across to the trace of ancient reason. This is most of the time originated from the difference of beliefs, culture, economical power, even the difference of color and many others. Empathically, it is rather crucial to finish definition of terrorism by Tilly 's (2004) words: " Most uses of the terror actually occur as complements or as byproducts of struggles in which participants- often including the so-called terrorists- are engaging simultaneously or successively in other more routine varieties of political claim making." (Tilly, 2004:6) What a violence recall to us? According to me violence is natural and what we need is to learn to make peace or correctly restore peace in the society. Today's peace makers are trying hard to restore peace in the crises zones. It is hard to be optimistic on this issue as more we try to integrate states in one union more there is disintegration from another union, which has the unavoidable results that end with terrorist action. Beside the globalization process, it is almost impossible to demolish this desirable achievement which is the superiority of one nation against the others.

Terrorism and Extremism

First of all, understanding extremism as itself is crucial for the explaining foundation of terrorism. As Martin (2003) mentioned that; 'An important step toward defining terrorism is to developed an understanding of the sources of terrorism. In order to identify these sources, one must first understand the important role of extremist as a primary feature underlying all terrorist behavior' (Martin; 2003: 28). Although it would see as a fabulous expression of beliefs,



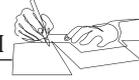
extremism is much more than just expressing the beliefs. Martin (2003) tried to explain that by saying that, as extremism is fabulous expression, it would not be explained by just dealing the occurrence of terrorism side of it. According to Martin (2003) 'On a scale of activist behavior, extremist can engage in such benign expression of their beliefs as sponsoring debates or publishing newspapers. Or they might engage in vandalism and other disruptions of the moral routines of their enemies' (Martin; 2003: 28).

Specifically, extremism refers to be radical in opinion with the area of political matters. In order to achieve political interest with the dominant beliefs, extremists became terrorists, who violently act through when their beliefs to be damaged. To illustrate the extremist behavior, we have already witnessing the actions, which were applied under the name of terror. For the first one and of vital important one, one can give the American Knights of the Ku Klux Klan. As Martin (2003) identified that 'The American Knights of the Ku Klux Klan (AK-KKK) were an activist faction of the KKK that operated mostly in the Midwest and East during the 1990s' (Martin; 2003: 29). Moreover they were well-known Klan for supporting racial supremacy.

To emphasize the common characteristics of violent extremists, Martin (2003) categorized the features into four parts; these are intolerance, moral absolutes, broad conclusions and new language and conspiratorial beliefs. With the help of these characteristics the origins of right-wing extremists would be analyzed in later parts of this work. As it is clear from the just names, all characteristics of above mentioned items had different of vital importance the foundation of terrorism under the extremism idea. Although all features essential to understand better of right-wing extremism, it is undeniable fact that the case for extremism in USA, broad conclusions is the best characteristics in order to explain the idea of being racial supremacist organization of right-wing extremism in the USA. In other words, as Martin (2003) identified that; 'Terrorists often believe these generalizations because in their minds they simply must be true. For example, ethno-nationalists frequently categorize all members of their opponent groups as having certain broadly negative traits' (Martin; 2003: 30). On the other hand, the characteristics of violent extremist, especially with new language and conspiratorial beliefs is the most effective one just by looking examples of the Zionist Occupied Government (ZOG) and Neo-Nazi rightist implementation of non-European races by calling them "mud people" (Martin; 2003: 30).

Extremism in the United States

In terms of the different types of terrorism and their various definitions in the American context, defining terrorism in the United States right-wing extremism was based on the domestic terrorist infrastructure, which brings us the domestic terrorism. In the light of this knowledge, terrorism in the United States by comparing to the rest of the world should not be underestimated as a former, because terrorism in the United States is not new concept for the literature. According to White (2003), '...domestic terrorism is older than the United States' (White; 2003: 204). White (2003) used the early works of Gurr in order to explain emergence of domestic terrorism in the United States. Moreover, White (2003) claimed that

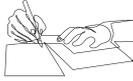


as Gurr explanations was clear America was to exposed to have numerous terrorist activities in order to have not only political gains, but also maintaining the economic mobility by control over the labors. In other words, 'Despite the American paranoia about radicals, terrorism in the nineteenth century was primarily aimed at protecting that status quo and the economic development' (White; 2003: 205). On the other hand it is undeniable fact that labor radicals would be seen as dangerous extremists to behave violently. Also labor movements would be the example of the source of labor violence of early US terrorism in 19th century.

With respect to historical explanations of US terrorism emergency, the frontier mentality is the most significant aspect to indicate the real origins of the extremism in the USA, by foundation of USA. 'The frontier had its own special form of violence. As the frontier expanded, the laws of the United States trailed far behind. Settlers developed their own brand of makeshift justice. At times, this type of justice spilled over vigilante activities' (White; 2003: 205). With the help of the change in the American context of terrorism in 1960s there was shift from the idea of nationalism and radical politics brought about the domestic terrorism. Significantly, as White (2003) used Gurr (1988) classification of domestic terrorism, these are vigilante, insurgent and transnational terrorism.

Since all three types of domestic terrorism was mainstream approaches in order to evaluate violent actions, the right-wing extremism would be the part of the vigilante terrorism. To define vigilante terrorism, White (2003) used Gurr quotation that 'Gurr indicates that the growth of right-wing extremists is indicative of vigilante terrorism' (White; 2003:206). Furthermore it is essential to say that although vigilante terrorism was a new form of domestic terrorism, the main idea of vigilantes are still to adopt status quo to return like in the earlier period. At that point, it is crucial to distinguish that the right-wing terrorism by specifically or by generally domestic terrorism was distinctive from their foreign counterparts. The distinctive characteristics of US domestic terrorism comes from the reactions of the American public. In other words, revolutionary group even it supports to progress, the violence of revolutionary groups was not supported by the American public. Moreover, because of the rejection of American public, the achieving popularity of violence of the revolutionary groups almost would be impossible even they had some sympathetic audiences. Furthermore, 'United States revolutionary terrorists ended up as small bonds of social misfits who had very little impact on the political system. As a result, the United States has been spared the excesses of revolutionary terrorism' (White; 2003: 206).

In order to reach origins and the nature of extreme right-wing terrorism which was cited by White (2003) in United States Brent Smith (1994) had good reflections to stating that the roots of resurgence of right-wing terrorism. According to Smith, distinction between left-wing and right-wing terrorism shows that the unique nature of the right-wing terrorism. While, left-wing terrorists based on the Marxist assumptions and they wanted to economic status quo, so they had symbolic targets of capitalism, right-wing terrorism is totally claimed the anti-Marxist and religious assumptions. Indeed, it can be argued that hav-



ing religious and anti-Marxist body made right-wing terrorism less effective, less devastating by comparing to left-wing terrorism. Furthermore, 'Left-wing terrorism has posed the largest, most sustained and most serious threat to the US state. However, a number of right-wing terrorist groups have a long provenance in the US' (Lecture Notes: Right-wing Militias and Terrorism in the US; 1).

In the light of this information, right-wing terrorism in the US would be distinguished. To adopt the right-wing terrorism in the US, there should be three main aspects in terms of analyzing the existence of it. Analytically the history of rising right-wing terrorism in the US refers to origins of Ku Klux Klan, which is the most numerous organizations by supporting right-wing extremism in the US. As White (2003) said that post World War 2 era was the milestone for having actual international terrorism. Thus, most of the Americans claimed that terrorism as a result of antigovernment and anticolonial movements did not related with the America; it was almost entirely happened in other places. Although the idea of terrorism was like this, there was a change for approaches to terrorism in the late 1980s. 'This attitude gradually began to shift in the late 1980s, as homegrown extremists copied the tactics of foreign terrorist groups' (White; 2003:220). On the other hand, Michael (2003) pointed out that, the creation of anti Masonic Party was the main effects for developing right-wing terrorism in US by historically. He explained this bywords; 'The historical emergence of extreme right-wing movements in the US to the creation of the Anti-Masonic Party in the early nineteenth century' (Michael; 2003:40). In addition to that White (2003) believed that the event, which was called Oklahoma Bombing, indicated that the United States had suffered and most probably in future going to be suffered a devastating terrorist attack under the pressure of extremism. Despite the fact that, Oklahoma City Bombing was occurred of recent date, right-wing extremism ideology and violent political behavior is nothing new. Especially, after the Revolutionary War (1775-1784) because of the wrong attitude of federal government exercising taxing on the whiskey production was the starting point for the rebellion in Western Pennsylvania, which would be violent political behavior. With this respect the ongoing events, which were "Know-Nothing", American Civil War, Agrarian failures, prepared environment for rising extremism. Since it was clear from the examples, 'emerged in a time of economic depression which displaces groups from their established status' (Lecture Notes: Right-wing Militias and Terrorism in the US; 3). Although all these examples about economic reasons and social reasons for rising right-wing extremism was emerged mostly for a reaction of left-wing extremism. As White (2003) supported that 'After the turn of the century, though mainstream Americans came to believe that the left posed a greater threat to democracy... As a result, right-wing extremist organizations grew' (White: 2003; 222). To put differently, right-wing terrorism reacted left-wing terrorist action with regards to supreme democracy, and their reaction was helped to wake of the Civil War, which is Ku Klux Klan (KKK).

Right-wing Terrorism in United States

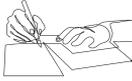
To review to origins of right-wing terrorism in US, it can be said that by chronologically, Revolutionary in the 1775 to 1784 was the first attempt to have this



kind of extremism. Then 1800s was referred to the idea of "Know-Nothings". In the process followed wake of the Civil War, became milestone just because of the extremist atmosphere in World War 1, in 1914 to 1918. On the other hand, according to modern right-wing extremism, Ku Klux Klan grew after World War 2 in 1939 to 1945, and its aftermath was referred to midst of the depression. Finally, Oklahoma Bombing was the modern violent origins of right-wing terrorism in the US.

In terms of the nature of right-wing terrorism in United States, it is essential to mentioned that, the right-wing terrorism not only is considered as a domestic terrorism but also has into religious terrorism sphere. In spite of the fact that, the most urgent characteristics of nature have been adopted by right-wing terrorism, 'it was characterized by the fundamentalists interpretations of religion, radical patriotism, and a belief that economic woes were the result of a worldwide conspiracy of international bankers' (White: 2003; 222). It is controversial topic to explain that, the nature of the right-wing terrorism was based on racial supremacy; however this racial supremacy not only was justified religious means of Christian Identity, but also supported that the Jews are the one superior racial in order the controlling banking. As it can be understood from the above explanations, right-wing terrorism have treated by considering "quasi-religious rituals and penchant for symbolism", which symbolize the aggressive of citizens. On the other hand, it is also appropriate to claim that by sociologically having a clan identifying, whether religious or economic name of, Christian identity helped to rise of the ethnocentrism. At that point, it is indisputable facts that, with the help of the promoting Protestant supremacy, Christian identities was the binding and strengthen factors for the nature in localized violence of right-wing terrorism. Satisfyingly, White (2003) with the help of the reference of Michael Barkun (1997) explained Christian identity and its role in the growth of extremism by words; 'Christian identity, grew from the extremist perspective. Starting with a concept called Anglo-Israelism or British Israelism, American right-wing extremists saw white Americans as the representatives of the lost tribes of Israel' (White: 2003; 222).

To adapt to difference between modern right-wing resurgence and the traditional right-wing extremism, starting point should be around the 1984 with respect to nature of right-wing terrorism. Although it seems that the modern right-wing resurgence differs from the actions before the 1984, the reality was different from the reflection of it. Again, right-wing extremism whether modern resurgence or not the milestone did not change through the time has already changed. The most common characteristics, of course, were coming from the belief in God, and then domination of belief in conspiracy. For this respect one can argue that, when comparing left-wing extremism and right-wing extremism, left-wing militia terrorism is less well-organized than the right-wing extremism. Since, right wing extremism had focused on charismatic leader, with regards to belief in God, conservative assumptions and traditional grounds. At that point, it is that the because of the depending charismatic leader with regards the nature of right-wing extremism right-wing terrorist groups in the US tend to be short-lived ephemeral.



Among the religious nature of the right-wing extremism, economic reasons were effective to modern right-wing resurgence. With the help of the feeling that the losing economic status most of the supporters of right-wing militia were started to movement in order to suppress the idea of disappearing of the American dream. White (2003) explained these; 'Followers feel they are losing economic status because sinister forces are conspiring to swindle them out of the American dream' (White: 2003; 223). Having all these above information, in order to be clearer, Communism was the primary conspiratorial force, however after the World War 2 and mostly the fall of the Soviet Union, the notion of United Nations began to have role as a major force. According to extremists; 'The extremist right believes a conspiracy of Jewish bankers works with the United Nations to create a New World Order. Finally, right-wing extremism continues to embrace patriotism and guns. They want to arm themselves for a holy war' (White: 2003; 223). For this purpose it can be supported that, right-wing militia terrorism is a reflection of United States society, in the name of violence, people also wanted to have terrorist attacks just because of the pressure. Moreover, as it can catch up with the other characteristics of the nature, which is penchant for symbolism was symbolized the aggressive of citizens.

In order to explain objectives of right-wing terrorism in United States properly, we should deal with the largest right-wing terrorist groups in United States, which is Ku Klux Klan. To explain the objectives of right-wing terrorism, initially we have to explain the nature of Ku Klux Klan. Specifically, Ku Klux Klan is a racial supremacist organization. According to White (2003) 'The Ku Klux Klan, had been the brainchild of Confederate cavalry genius General Nathan Bedford Forrest' (White: 2003; 222). More precisely, as White (2003) claimed that creating an antiunionist organization had been the main aim for Bedford Forrest in order to prevent Southern culture and traditions. By starting from this information, the aims and objectives of other terrorist groups like IRA or Red Bridges. For the right-wing militia terrorism in general or especially by Ku Klux Klan aimed to have protection for existing rights for social groups. In addition to that as Martin (2003) identified that the Ku Klux Klan by 'Historically the Ku Klux Klan and its supporters used vigilante communal violence as the preferred model for its terrorism' (Martin: 2003; 328). Their objectives for using violence would be characterized by different styles. As Martin (2003) clarified that, not every men, who belongs the Klan, is terrorist, however, racial confrontation would always be considered Klan movement.

'In order to understand the nature of Klan violence, it is instructive to survey the historical progression of the movement' (Martin: 2003; 329). In the light of this quotation we can divide Klan into two major eras, which also reflects the objectives of right-wing terrorism in United States. For the first era, in the line orientation of Nathan Bedford Forrest, the main objectives were the action against the independent slaves, which is directly related with the notion of extreme nationalism. Actually, Klan did not want to adopt having heterogeneous population in United States. At this point for the first era it can be said that, right-wing terrorism is a reflection of the US society. For the second era, in 1915, right-wing terrorism with regards to KKK activities, started to have moved forward the idea

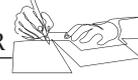


that Christian fundamentalists. Moreover, some of them claimed with the help of the Christian fundamentalism, Jewish people killed because of they are fundamentalist Christian on the base of bible. For this respect, it professed that because of the birth-place of Ku Klux Klan, which is Pulaski, I believe that the place had big role for rising the Christian identity term, because as most of the people known Pulaski is a town of churches.

All in all, in the light of this knowledge, the foundation principle of right-wing terrorism with regards to Ku Klux Klan would be classified bywords: patriotism, justice, humanity, protection, preservation of real law and good government and the establishment of white supremacy forever. In a higher sense, their most crucial objectives and aims is to protecting to American constitution in any government. That is why in some sense their terrorist attacks were called democratic, because they got legitimacy. Especially, in Northern side, objectives of right-wing militia terrorism were focusing on the democratic states. In addition to that it is also considerable to mention that, unconditionally getting legitimacy was made the right-wing terrorist groups in the US tend to be short-lived because of the US policy also tended to be right-wing.

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CHAPTER
3

SENTIMENT INDEX, STOCK INDEX RETURN AND VOLUME IN TURKEY: VOLATILITY AND CAUSALITY

N.Serap VURUR¹

1.Introduction

There are many studies conducted in traditional finance which consider the market efficiency hypothesis and the rational expectation hypothesis. Studies in the field of behavioral finance believe that investors may be irrational; thus, investors' psychological factors or cognitive bias could affect their investment decisions. Kahneman and Tversky (1979, 1992). Baker and Wurgler(2007) told that Investor sentiment can be defined as beliefs regarding future cash flows and investment risks that are not justified by the information available .

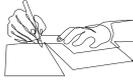
Expectations toward future are one of the psychological factors that influence investment decisions. Investors' expectations about the economy are measured through confidence indices. Confidence is related to the optimism and pessimism in the economy of consumers and producers. The confidence levels of individuals about the economy have a significant impact on their economic activities such as production and expenditure. Consumers tend to spend more when they rely on financial conditions. The impact of this spending trend for producers is seen as an increase in production and inventory levels. According to Baumohl (2012), while investors' positive thoughts about the economy are reflected as an increase in the stock market, stock markets tend to decrease when they are worried about the economy.

Otto (1999), Collins (2001), Fisher and Statman (2002) show that confidence indices can be used as a variable that may affect stock markets. However the question of whether the confidence in the economy give rise to stock Exchange market or increase in stock exchange market boost the confidence in the economy remain unanswered clearly. Does stock return and trade volume effect confidence or confidence is being affected by stock market? These are the questions which will be answered in this study.

2. Literature

The studies examining the relationship between the indices which reflect the investor expectations (consumer confidence index, real sector confidence index and economic confidence index) and the studies which are examining the shares are available in the literature are summarized in this section.

The use of confidence indices as a variable that may affect the share markets is first studied by DeLong (1994), Otto (1999), Collins (2001), Fisher and Statman (2002), Fisher and Meir(2003).



The relationship between consumer confidence and stock prices was first investigated in the USA by Otto (1999) and the effect of changes in stock returns on consumer confidence was found. Fisher and Statman (2002) examined the relationship between consumer confidence index and stock returns in the US. They found that consumer confidence index was positively related to stock prices.

In the studies conducted in the literature, the question of whether the confidence in the economy give rise to stock Exchange market or increase in stock exchange market boost the confidence in the economy remain unanswered clearly. Qui and Welch (2006), Bandopadhyaya and Jones (2006), Shemelling (2009), Hsu et al. (2011), Uygur and Tas (2014), Salhin (2016), found a direct relationship between confidence and return. Bremmer (2008), Beltan and Durre (2003), Chen (2011), Ferrer (2016), in their work found that the return affected confidence.

Kandır(2006), Korkmaz and Çevik(2009), Topuz(2011), Kose and Akkaya(2016), Eyüpoğlu(2017) and Vurur and Diler(2018) studied the relationship between market confidence indeces and return in Turkey. Kandır(2006), Kose and Akkaya(2016), and Eyüpoğlu(2017) found the direct relationship from confidence to return in their studies. On the other hand Vurur and Diler (2018), Topuz(2011) and Korkmaz and Çevik(2009) found the direct relationship from share returns to confidence index.

Turkey's first study to investigate the effect of stock return to confidence was conducted by Kandır (2006) who used the data which covers the period of 2002 (2) -2005 (6). This study was carried out with the addition of size premium, value premium and ISE GDS index return variables together with confidence index. In particular, the consumer confidence index is found critically important factor for financial sector stocks.

Korkmaz and Cevik(2009) investigated the relationship between real sector confidence index and stock returns with E-Garch and dynamic causality analysis. As a result, they have found that stock returns affect the real sector confidence index positively. And the increase in real sector confidence index decreases the volatility of stock returns.

Topuz(2011) found a one-way relationship from stock returns to consumer confidence through granger causality analysis.

Kose and Akkaya(2016), for the period 2007 (1)-2016 (3), the changes in the BIST100 Return Index and the general trend, employment, order, and investment expectations between the last 3 months has found the bidirectional Granger causality. In addition, one-way Granger causality was found from BIST100 return index towards the exchange rate expectations sub-index and from the finished goods and orders to BIST100 return index respectively.

Eyüpoğlu(2017), found that there is a long-term relationship between economic confidence index and stock market indices by using peer integration method through Engle-Granger method. Furthermore, BIST 100, BIST Industrial and BIST Services indices are found to be the Granger cause of the economic confidence index.

Vurur and Diler (2018), investigated the existence of a cointegration relationship between BIST 100 index and Consumer and Real Confidence indices by ARDL approach and it was concluded that Bist 100 index return affected the real sector confidence index through todo Yamamoto causality analysis.

3.Methods

3.1.Granger Causality

Tests of Granger causality (Granger, 1969, 1988) have become a standard step when analyzing linear systems of time series. The concept of causality was developed by Granger (1969) in order to determine the relationship between the variables (cause-effect relationship). Granger causality test detects a correlation between the current value of one variable and the past values of another variable. To test the linear Granger causality between two variables, such as X and Y, a VAR model is estimated as follows (Gujarati, 1995):

$$Y_t = \alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i Y_{t-i} + \sum_{j=1}^m \beta_j X_{t-j} + u_{1t} \quad (1)$$

$$X_t = \alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i X_{t-i} + \sum_{j=1}^m \delta_j Y_{t-j} + u_{2t} \quad (2)$$

m ; is the lag order. The u_{1t} and u_{2t} error terms are error term. The equation (1) shows the causality from X to Y and the equation (2) shows the causality from Y to X. H_0 hypothesis in equation (1); If $\beta_j = 0$, X is not the cause of Y; H_1 hypothesis; If $\beta_j \neq 0$, X is the cause of Y. H_0 hypothesis in equation (2); If $\delta_j = 0$, Y is not the cause of X; H_1 hypothesis; If $\delta_j \neq 0$, Y is the cause of X. If H_0 is rejected, i.e. at least one of β_{12j} s is not equal to zero, then it suggests that the past value of X has a significant linear predicative power on the current value of Y. It normally denotes that X Granger causes Y, and vice versa.

3.2. Causality in Variance Test

Granger-causality tests are traditionally conducted in means. However, causality-in-variance becomes especially relevant in high frequency data. Different from the traditional Granger causality test that focuses on the mean changes, the causality in variance test is used to examine the conditional volatility dependence between two variables (Li et al. 2008). Basically, Cheung and Ng (1996) 's causality test on the basis of variance is based on the adaptation of the definitions of Granger (1969) to the relationships between the variances of the relevant variables. X and Y are two stationary and ergodic time series and $I_t = \{X_{t-j}; j = 0; Y_{t-j}; j \geq 0\}$ get the relevant sets of information. According to Cheung and Ng (1996), if $E[(X_{t+1} - xt_{t+1})^2 / I_t] \neq E[(X_{t+1} - xt_{t+1})^2 / I_t]$, the variance of Y_t variable $X_{t+1} - it$ could be said to be the Granger cause. Causality in variance test can be

used to study the general pattern in volatility transmission. Volatility could be transmitted between markets where returns are either statistically uncorrelated or exhibit no causality in means. This study employs Lagrange multiplier(LM) based on causality in variance test by Hafner and Herwartz(2006) to assess the existence and direction of dynamic volatility transmission between confidence index, BIST100 return index and volume.

To test the null hypothesis of no volatility spillover, the procedure is followed as:

$$\varepsilon_{it} = \xi_{it} \sqrt{\sigma_{it}^2 (1 + N_j' \pi)}, N_{jt} = (\varepsilon_{jt-1}^2, \sigma_{jt-1}^2)' \tag{1}$$

where ξ_{it} and σ_{it}^2 are respectively the standardized residuals and the conditional variance (volatility) for the series i ; ε_{jt-1}^2 and σ_{jt-1}^2 are respectively the squared disturbance term and the conditional variance for the series j . The null hypothesis $H_0: \pi = 0$ is of non causality and the alternative hypothesis $H_1: \pi \neq 0$ states that causality exists. The Gaussian log-likelihood function of ε_{it} is used to get the score as $x_{it}(\varepsilon_{it}^2 - 1)/2$ where x_{it} are the derivatives of the likelihood function in terms of GARCH parameters. The following test statistic is then used for the volatility spillover test:

$$\lambda_{LM} = \frac{1}{4t} \left(\sum_{t=1}^T (\varepsilon_{it}^2 - 1) N_{jt}' \right) V(\theta_i)^{-1} \left(\sum_{t=1}^T (\varepsilon_{it}^2 - 1) N_{jt} \right) \tag{2}$$

$$V(\theta_i) = \frac{S}{4T} \left(\sum_{t=1}^T N_{jt} N_{jt}' - \sum_{t=1}^T N_{jt} X_{it}' \left(\sum_{t=1}^T X_{jt} X_{it}' \right)^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T X_{jt} N_{jt}' \right), \tag{3}$$

$$S = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T (\varepsilon_{it}^2 - 1)^2 \tag{4}$$

The asymptotic distribution of the test statistic in Eq.(2) depends on how many indicators of miss-specification there are in N_{jt} . Since in the λ_{LM} equation there are two such indicators, the statistic has a chi-square distribution with two degrees of freedom asymptotically. Rejecting the null hypothesis implies volatility spillover from series j to series i . Similar steps enable us to test causality from i to j .

4. Empirical Results

Our empirical study is performed using daily data of the Istanbul -share market in Turkey from January 4 th, 2010 to August 31,2018. The paper also focuses on the effects of confidence index on stock returns and trading volume. The economic confidence index used as representative of trust is explained on a monthly basis. However, daily data is needed to determine the volatility spread. Therefore,

monthly data is converted to daily data in the Eviews program by using quadratic method. All variables are provided by the Central Bank of Turkey Republic. Data processing is completed using E views 9.

The first step in the analysis was to ascertain whether the series are stationary, which is a necessary condition for time series analysis. The descriptive statistic and unit root results are shown table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and unit root tests.

	Return	Confidence	Volume
Mean	0,25960	-0,000101	0.044237
Median	0,080000	-8,50E-05	-0,79000
Maximum	6,900000	0,043635	187,9400
Minimum	-11,06000	-0,051180	-127,0400
Standart Dev.	1,423398	0,003405	24,16509
Skewness	-0,532368	-0,989704	0,499788
Kurtosis	6,771461	76,34878	9,719512
Jarque-Bera	1392,40	488145,9	4184,356
Probability	(0,0000)	(0,0000)	(0,0000)
Unit Root Test			
ADF Test	-47,62937 (0,0000)	-7,482784 (0,0000)	-24,00917 (0,0000)
PP Test	-47,67661 (0,0000)	-55,34825 (0,0000)	-223,5015 (0,0000)

Notes ; ADF and PP tests are adopted for testing the null hypothesis of a unit root in the series. The intercept is included in the testing equation, and the lag length of the unit root models is selected by using the Schwarz information criterion. The entry in parenthesis stands for the p-value.

When the series are examined, it can be seen that the skewness values according to Table 1 have a negative value for confidence and return series and the distribution is skewed to the left. Volume series is skewed to the right. When the kurtosis values are examined, it is seen that the return series is less flat than the other series. According to the statistics of skewness and kurtosis, it is observed that the series do not comply to the normal distribution. This is investigated with the Jarque-Bera test statistic. According to the test statistic results, it is observed that the 1% significance level does not normally distribute.

Since the absolute values of the t values obtained for the ADF test are greater than the absolute values of the critical values of the significance levels of 1%, it is seen that the all series has no unit root, that is, they are stationary at the level values of the series. The Phillips Perron test also supports the ADF test statistic.

Because of the series being stationary at the level, Granger causality analysis was used to obtain the Var model by using the level values of the series and then the test statistics were obtained by applying the required parameter restrictions. Granger causality test, there is no causal relationship between the variables . As

seen in Table 2, for both directions and for all variables, the null hypothesis is not rejected as a result of granger causality test. In other words, none of the confidence, BIST100 return and BIST 100 trading volume don't affect each other.

Table 2. Granger Causality Test between confidence, return and volume

Null Hypothesis		F statistics	Prob.
Confidence	BIST100 Return	1.50625	0.1398
BIST100 Return	Confidence	1.0096	0.4297
BIST100 Trading Volume	Confidence	1.21150	0.2831
Confidence	BIST100 Trading Volume	0.81882	0.5988

4.3. Causality in Variance Test

Hafner and Herwartz (2006) causality-in-variance test is carried out and the results are shown in Table 3. The results of variance analysis differ from the results of Granger causality test. According to the results of analysis of variance, there is a causal relationship found between economic confidence and both BIST 100 return and trading volume.

According to causality in variance results a significant causal relationship was found between economic confidence and BIST 100 return index and trading volume. However, the relationship between BIST100 return and trading volume was not determined by the economic confidence index.

Table 3.Result for causality in variance test.

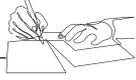
	LM-stat	p-value
Spillover from Confidence to BIST100 Return	14.790*	0.0006*
Spillover from BIST 100 Return to Confidence	2.240	0.3263
Spillover from Confidence to BIST100 Trading Volume	11.299*	0.0035*
Spillover from BIST100TradingVolume to Confidence	0.223	0.5988

***, ** and * indicate respectively statistical significance at the 1, 5 and 10 percent levels.

5. Conclusion

The classic view is that identifies sentiment- driven investors as noise traders and irrational. However, investor use the sentiment information (Chau et.al.2016). This paper examines the relationship between stock market and confidence in Turkey over the years 2009(1)-2018(8). Empirical tests focused on the impact of sentiment either on the mean or variance in stock returns.

In this study the prospects BIST 100 return index and trading volume relationships with that of the relationship between the confidence index in Turkey's economy was also investigated. Pre-study expectations; that the expectations of the economy are in a positive relationship with the stock markets. Because the increase in confidence; consumption, production and firms' investment decisions positively affect. Increased confidence is also returns to the financial markets both share return and trading volume will be reflected



As investors' confidence in the market increases, tendency to trade in financial markets will increase. The results obtained in our study supports this case in Turkey. On the other hand, empirical and theoretical studies in the literature indicate that the positive developments in financial markets will increase the confidence of the investors in the market and provide more trading volume.

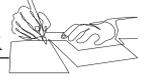
Data were obtained from the Central Bank of Turkey. Data were examined with Granger causality and causality-in-variance test developed by Hafner and Herwartz (2006). As a result of Granger causality analysis, causality relation between confidence and return and trading volume has not been determined. However, causality relationship between confidence and both return and transaction volume was found in causality in variance test. The direction of the relationship is in line with expectations, from confidence to return and trading volume. The findings are consistent with the literature. Qui and Welch(2004), Bandopadhyaya ve Jones (2006) Shemelling (2009), Hsu vd. (2011), Uygur and Tas(2014), Salhin (2016),Kose and Akkaya(2016), Eyüpoğlu(2017). The study contributes to the literature in terms of showing that confidence has an effect on the trading volume in the market. At the same time, it is thought that the confidence indices will have an effect on the BIST100 index and give an idea to the short and medium term portfolios.

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**CHAPTER****4****EXAMINING THE MEASUREMENT
CHARACTERISTICS OF DASS-42 SCALE
USING RASCH ANALYSIS****Meral YAY¹****1. Introduction**

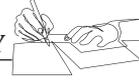
According to scientific researches about depression, anxiety and stress-related diseases are predicted to be the second most common disease in the next to decades. Therefore, the number of researches on mental illness is increasing day by day. Sometimes it is hard to know if what you are experiencing is depression or unhappiness. These are normal emotions that help us to warn, protect and act. It is also an indication that you are healthy. When these feelings become excessive, ongoing, distressing or interfere with daily life it means that there is a problem. It is very difficult to deal with negative emotions caused by mental disorders. But persons must learn to live by eliminating the psychological and physical consequences of these negative consequences.

Depression can be described as having negative effects on the person's body, thoughts and emotions and it is generally characterized by the experience of sadness (Johnson and Indvik 1997). It has been shown that depression can be treated by 70 – 80 % using clinical methods. Anxiety is a psychological condition related to fear and apprehension. If a person feels fear and panic, even after the anticipated event continues to feel at a level that adversely affects quality of life, the person may be told of the existence of an anxiety problem. Anxiety might often start without any problems or signs of illness, and more or less everyone might have encountered such anxiety throughout life. It is possible to describe stress as a whole of the physical, mental, emotional and behavioral reactions that a person gives when she/he feels uneasy and under pressure. The difference between anxiety and stress is that stress is a reaction to a threat in a situation but anxiety is a response to stress.

Many studies have been done on depression anxiety and stress. The measurement characteristics of the scale used in these studies were analyzed using different methods. One of the most important scales in which these three important emotional states are studied together is the Depression Anxiety and Stress Scale (DASS-42) developed by Lovibond, P. F. & Lovibond, S. H. (1995). The purpose of this section is to examine the psychometric properties of the DASS-42 scale with the Rasch measurement model. This section, which is the product of a long-term research, will contribute to the evaluation of the scale from a different perspective.

1 The permission was obtained from Prof. Dr. Peter Lovibond to use the DASS-42 questionnaire form.

This study was supported by the Mimar Sinan Fine Arts University Scientific Research Project Unit.



2. Rasch Measurement Model

Rasch models, developed by George Rasch in 1960, have a wide application area especially in psychological research (Lai et al. 2003). The Rasch model which has become so often used due to the awareness of mental health over the last 10 years aims to be able to do a scaling which is basically objective, correct and common language. It has a great importance to act according to an international standard in the evaluation of outcomes of scales used in psychological measurements. Therefore, the measurement tool and structure can use a common scale to evaluate the important results regardless of their structures. For example, it is not possible to use the parametric statistical methods to assess the outcome when most of the data used in the health field are thought to be on an ordinal scale. In addition, there are some situations where it is necessary to use the Rasch analysis. For example, if the intervals between the categories of the items are not equal, the Rasch analysis should be preferred because it is not right to subject the scores given to the categories to arithmetic operations (McHorney et al. 1997). The analysis of using raw scores will prevent accurate results because the categories related to the items are not in equal difficulty. Accordingly, when interpreting the results, it is necessary to have the same exchange interval, common origin and unity to compare the item categories and the scores for the persons. Therefore, the most important reason of preferring Rasch analysis which uses logarithmic transformation in scale evaluation is that interval metrics can be transformed and all arithmetic operations can be done on transformed points.

Rasch analysis, which is used as a solution tool for measuring psychometric properties measured at the ordinal scale, is an analysis that can be applied when the survey items are converted to a total score. It separately locates persons and items on a common logit metric, with the mean item location set at zero logits (Eklund et al. 2009). Rasch scale is based on a mathematical model and it is expressed as a function of the change in a person's ability to respond to items. The model, that uses values devoid of measurement errors related to persons rather than raw scores, has certain advantages. For example, the Rasch model allows to create a response variable by gathering raw scores of items with different difficulty levels. In doing so, instead of assigning a weight to the response variable, it involves categorizing it. It is possible to list the situations that the Rasch model serves:

- it helps to develop a measurement tool for data
- it converts the data to make it safe to use for descriptive and parametric statistics
- it provides meaningful guidance to researchers
- it also allows persons to be able to identify metrics with substance tools and compare persons to each other in this way
- it aims to create a simpler structure by removing items that overlap and cause difficulties in the model. In doing so, it aims to achieve more reliable results by using fewer items (Embretson and Hersberger 1999).

Rasch model can be valued according to the number of facets it contains: two

faced and many faced models. In this section two faced Rasch model was used to analyse the psychometric properties of the DASS-42 scale. In the two faced model only items and persons are used to measure the variability. But in the many faced model in addition to these two measurement level other sources of variability are used such as gender, education level or marital status (Plonsky 2015). Rasch model has a separation according to the structure of the item used in the scale. If the item has two or fewer answer options, the dichotomous Rasch model is used to analyse the properties of the scale. When item in a scale has 3 or more options, then the polytomous version of Rasch model is used (Tennant and Conaghan 2007). The Rasch model was first introduced by George Rasch in 1960 and then developed by Andersen in 1995 for the polytomous data (Andersen 1995). The model relies on a logistic function of the relative difference between the person and the item, and defines its structure by using the probability of the person who answers the category.

The log odds of a person being rated in category h over the previous category $h - 1$ is modelled in polytomous Rasch model as a function of the person's ability and item's difficulty. X is a data matrix and there are persons $v = 1, 2, \dots, n$ on the row and the items $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ on the columns. X_{vi} indicates a unit in the matrix with row " v " and column " i ". Each category I_i has category number $h = 1, 2, \dots, m_i$ and $P(X_{vi} = h)$ is the probability of being rated in category " h " for X_{vi} . Polytomous model was derived by Andrich (1978) subsequent to derivations by Rasch (1960) and Andersen (1977) and it can be expressed as in Eq. 1. (Linacre 2010):

$$P(X_{vi} = h) = \frac{e^{(B_v - D_i - F_h)}}{1 + e^{(B_v - D_i - F_h)}} \tag{1}$$

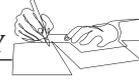
The simplest polytomous model was derived by the Andrich (1978) and it was expressed in the logit-linear form as in the Eq. 2.:

$$\log(P(X_{vi} = h)/P(X_{vi} = h - 1)) = B_v - D_i - F_h \tag{2}$$

In the left side of Eq.2. presents the linear transformation of the raw scores into interval-based measures. In the right side of the equation presents each observed rating as the probabilistic result of three interacting components: B_v is the person ability; D_i is the item difficulty; F_h is the Rasch-Andrich threshold located at the point of equal probability of categories h and $h - 1$. In this study, the person's ability with a low score indicates that the psychometric status is so good. In other words, the higher the person's ability, the worse the psychological state. Score for the depression, anxiety and stress are in normal range 0-9 for depression, 0-7 for anxiety and 0-14 for stress. Values above these ranges indicate the degree of the problem from mild to extreme (Lovibond and Lovibond 1995).

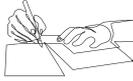
2.1. Assumptions and Some Criterias for Rasch Measurement Model

The Rasch model requires some assumptions about the data and it relies on measurement requirements. If the data fit the Rasch model, i.e. if the items work invariantly and if they properly categorised, the person measures provided by the Rasch analysis are linear and do not depend on the distribution of the per-



sons in the sample (Andrich 1989). In order to determine whether a given Rasch model is suitable, it must fulfill some requirements related to unidimensionality and local independence. Unidimensionality is an indicator that the items in the model can be measured in the same dimension and it can be examined with principal component analysis of the residuals. According to the principal component analysis, unexplained variances in the first contrast greater than 2.0 eigenvalue indicates the presence of a second dimension. In the other hand less than 2.0 eigenvalue indicates the acceptable evidence for unidimensionality and the low likelihood of a second dimension. The first contrast is the component that explains the largest possible amount of variance in the residuals (Linacre 2012). Besides Principal Component Analysis, overall model fit can be used to assay the model for the unidimensionality. On the other hand local independence is another requirements for fitting the model. In a Rasch-scaled model, responses to one item should not influence responses to another item. High correlations between the standardized item residuals indicate a violation of the assumption of local independence by the corresponding pair of items. If the assumption of local item independence is violated, any statistical analysis based on it would be misleading. If the observed correlation is relatively large, it is suggested that the pair of items have something more in common than all of the items have in common with each other (Christensen and Kreiner 2013). For the local independence assumption Hambleton et al. (1991) suggested a chi-square test to identify local independence between two items. The procedure consists of constructing a 2x2 table for two items using the correct and incorrect answers of persons at the same level of ability. If $\chi^2 < 3.84$, there is a presumption of local independence with 95% confidence and then "local independence" is declared (Hambleton et al. 1991). Another way to assess the local independence is to use the correlations among item residuals. In this study chi-square evaluation was used to utilise the assumption.

There are some criteria that can be used to evaluate the Rasch measurement model. These are separation index, reliability and fit statistics. Separation index gives an estimate of the spread of items or persons and it is a sign of how well you distinguish between persons and items. It is calculated separately for persons and items. The person separation index is based on the estimated locations of the persons which are non-linear transformations of the raw scores. A person separation index of 1.5 represent an acceptable level of separation. To quantify internal reliability, a Person Separation Index (PSI) was calculated for each subscale. In the Rasch analysis, it is necessary to study with larger samples if the PSI is below the values that should be successful in separation, then the test needs more items if the separation success of the items is below the required values. Rasch analysis provides so-called person separation indices and item separation indices; the former reveal how well a set of items separates persons measured, and the latter reveal how well a sample of people is able to separate the items (Wright and Stone 1999). Separation index values can range from "0" to infinity, and higher values indicate better separation and it represents the proportion of the observed variance considered to be true. The larger the index, the more distinct levels of functioning can be distinguished in the measure. Linacre suggests that item separation indices of "3.0" or greater are desirable (Linacre 2012). Low



item separation implies that the person sample is not large enough to confirm the item difficulty hierarchy of the instrument. In terms of person separation, an index of 1.5 is acceptable, 2.0 is good, and 3.0 is excellent (Duncan et al. 2003). Low person separation with a relevant person sample implies that the instrument may not be sensitive enough to distinguish between high and low performers. More items may be needed.

Reliability is not a value related to the quality of the data. When the reliability of items and persons is high there is a high probability that persons (or items) estimated with high measures actually do have higher measures than persons (or items) estimated with low measures. On the other hand if the researcher wants to achieve a high item reliability, he/she needs a test with a large item difficulty range and/or a large sample of persons. Low item reliability indicate that the sample size is too small to establish an item difficulty hierarchy. Removing some of the items required by the measurement may reduce reliability, while removing some of the items may increase reliability. Reliability is assessed just like Cronbach's alpha and reliability ratios for items and persons range from "0" to "1.0". Reliability increases as the ratio obtained approaches "1.0". On the other hand reliability is close to "1.0" if the items' difficulties and the persons' abilities are fairly distributed between the categories and the error rate is low (Kyriakides et al. 2006). The difference between Cronbach's alpha and PSI is Cronbah's alpha is calculated based on raw scores but PSI is calculated these raw scores based on nonlinear transformations.

If the data set shows a large deviation from the Rasch model, the incompatible persons and items removed from the dataset using fit statistics (Boone and Noltemeyer 2017). It is possible to determine the validity of the predictions and the appropriateness of the data using the fit statistics. The difference between the expected and observed responses in the model is defined as residual and the fit statistics are normalized mean squares of these residuals. Infit statistics are used in order to assess unexpected answers and outfit statistics are used to evaluate values that are sensitive to distant unexpected answers. The quality control limit for both fit statistics ranges from "0.5" to "1.5" (Wright and Linacre 1992). If the mean value of the infit and outfit mean squares is approximately "1.0" and the fit values are between "0.5" and "1.5", the data set is expressed as appropriate for the measurement (Linacre 2012). However, if the fit mean square values are out of this range, the standardized fit values are checked and it is said that standardized fit values of "2.0" or greater do not fit the model. If misfit persons or items are observed, the iterative process recommended by Linacre is applied (Linacre 2010). The first step in the solution process is to remove the misfit persons or items from the analysis. In the next step, the same operations are repeated and the process continues until the most suitable model is obtained. If the infit and outfit statistics are within the desired range, this is an indication that the model is unidimensional (Wright and Linacre 1992).

2.2. Participants and Sample Size

Data were obtained from 316 participants. A pen and paper version of the DASS-42 was conducted to the person who was living in Istanbul and the mea-

surement instruments of the Rasch model were discussed. Each participant was given equal chance to participate in the survey and simple random sampling was used in the sample selection. I would like to thank all my students who did a pen and paper survey. The sample size was adequate for the Rasch measurement model analysis in this study. According to parameters defined by Linacre (1994), a sample size of 243 persons may be sufficient to provide 99% confidence of the person and item estimates being within $\pm 0.5 \text{logits}$ (Linacre 1994).

2.3. The Structural Characteristics of Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale (DASS-42)

DASS questionnaire is composed of three 14 items for each subscales: depression-anxiety and stress. It was originally developed for the aim of measuring the distinctive features of these subscales. Each item is scored on a 4-point Likert scale, ranged from “0” to “3”. “0” indicated the symptom “did not apply to me at all” and “3” indicated the symptom “applied to me very much or most of the time” in the questionnaire. Total scores on the DASS-42 were obtained by summing the scores for each item of the scale. It showed a good reliability, with Cronbah’s alpha reported at 0.94 for depression, 0.87 for anxiety and 0.91 for stress (Antony et al. 1998). The DASS-42 was translated to Turkish by Uncu (Uncu et al. 2007) and was showed the reliability, the construct and convergent validity of the Turkish version of it by Bilgel and Bayram (Bilgel and Bayram 2011) and Yilmaz, Boz and Arslan (Yilmaz et al. 2017), respectively.

3. Application of DASS-42 scale

In the analysis participants were included to complete a pen and paper version of DASS-42 living in Istanbul and the Rasch model of measurement instruments was discussed. There were 192 females and 124 males and the mean age was 29.09 (ranges from 18 to 67 years old) years with 12.474 standard deviation. According to DASS-42 cut-off scores by Lovibond and Lovibond, 11.1% had mild, 13.3% had moderate, 56.3% had normal, 8.5% had severe and 10.8% had very severe for depression subscale. In addition 12.0% had mild, 15.8% had moderate, 48.1% had normal, 13.3% had severe and 10.8% had very severe for anxiety subscale and 17.1% had mild, 13.3% had moderate, 54.1% had normal, 13.0% had severe and 2.5% had very severe for stress subscale. Table I. shows the demographic characteristics of the participants in this study. Ministep version of Winsteps was used to analyze the Rasch topics: validity of the assumptions, reliabilities, person-item maps and fit statistics.

Table I. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Variable	Categories	Frequencies(%)	Mean(sd)
Age			29.09(12.474)
Gender	Male	192(60.8)	
	Female	124(39.2)	
Education	Primary School	37 (11.7)	
	High School	64 (20.3)	
	Undergraduate	192 (60.8)	
	Graduate	23 (7.3)	

Marital Status	Single	219 (69.3)	
	Married	92 (29.1)	
	Divorsed	5 (1.6)	
Depression			16.26(31.46)
Anxiety			14.94(8.95)
Stress			9.68(7.88)

3.1. Unidimensionality and Local Independence

Unidimensionality and local independence of the data set tested in terms of suitability for Rasch analysis. A principal component factor analysis was run on the standardized residuals of the 14 items, with factors rotated to an orthogonal structure for depression, anxiety and stress scales respectively. Eigenvalues were obtained as 1.65, 1.87 and 1.96 respectively and the first contrast explains the largest amount of variance residuals respectively 65%, 78% ve 82% for the three subscales. These results indicates that the assumption of unidimensionality was provided because of all the eigenvalues lower than 2.0. The other assumption for the suitability of the data set to the Rasch model was local independence and it was tested the chi-square suggested by Hambleton in this study. Chi-square values were calculated to test the validity of hypothesis for each subscale. All chi-square values are lower than 3.84 and the local independence was apparently assured in this dataset at this ability level for pair of items. These values are 1.59, 1.24 and 1.73 for the depression, anxiety and stress subscales respectively and all the chi-square values are lower than 3.84 as a result the null hypothesis of local independence is not rejected, the “local independence” is declared in this study. On the other hand PCA Eigenvalues for the unidimensionality and c^2 values for the local independence for each subscale can be shown as in the Table II.

Table II. PCA Eigenvalues and Chi-square for Depression, Anxiety and Stress Subscales

	PCA Eigenvalues (variance in first contrast %)	Chi-Square; p values
Depression	1.65(65%)	$c^2 = 1.59 ; p = 0.127$
Anxiety	1.87(78%)	$c^2 = 1.24 ; p = 0.094$
Stress	1.96(82%)	$c^2 = 1.73 ; p = 0.163$

3.2. Fit Statistics, Separation Index and Reliability

The infit and outfit statistics were evaluated separately for each subgroup and all the results for each subscale were illustrated in Table III., Table IV. and Table V. respectively.

Table III. Infit and Outfit Statistics for Depression Subscale

Overall			Removal items 11 and 14			Removal item 4 (final)		
Item Number	Infit Statistics	Outfit Statistics	Item Number	Infit Statistics	Outfit Statistics	Item Number	Infit Statistics	Outfit Statistics
11	1.91	2.33	4	1.69	1.87	9	1.31	1.35
14	1.55	1.57	10	1.26	1.83	5	1.30	0.79
10	0.93	1.43	6	1.27	0.71	10	1.26	1.21
4	1.37	1.42	11	1.20	1.06	6	1.23	0.88
13	1.11	0.75	12	1.16	0.76	11	1.22	0.88
6	1.09	0.59	7	1.11	0.74	7	0.86	1.05
12	1.09	0.94	3	1.02	0.86	3	1.04	1.01
3	1.01	0.88	8	0.80	0.86	4	0.89	0.74
7	0.95	0.67	2	0.75	0.83	2	0.75	0.84
2	0.69	0.86	9	0.82	0.74	8	0.79	0.76
9	0.77	0.63	5	0.78	0.61	1	0.63	0.70
5	0.70	0.53	1	0.63	0.56			
8	0.66	0.67						
1	0.60	0.56						

Table IV. Infit and Outfit Statistics for Anxiety Subscale

Overall		
Item Number	Infit Statistics	Outfit Statistics
8	1.34	1.45
14	1.30	1.34
11	1.17	1.32
13	1.28	1.19
2	1.12	1.00
4	1.02	1.09
10	1.05	1.06
1	0.89	1.05
5	1.04	0.79
6	1.04	0.97
3	0.99	0.95
7	0.92	0.72
12	0.89	0.60
9	0.58	0.59

Table V. Infit and Outfit Statistics for Stress Subscale

Overall			Removal item 13			Removal items 12 and 6		
Item Number	Infit Statistics	Outfit Statistics	Item Number	Infit Statistics	Outfit Statistics	Item Number	Infit Statistics	Outfit Statistics
13	1.95	6.49	12	1.23	1.95	11	1.39	1.50
6	1.38	1.30	6	1.63	1.74	3	1.28	1.40
14	1.39	1.49	14	1.0	1.41	1	1.21	1.21
12	1.24	1.46	3	1.1	1.36	9	1.19	1.21
3	1.21	1.44	10	1.18	1.19	10	0.90	1.10
10	0.57	1.12	11	1.13	1.10	7	0.96	0.88
1	1.07	1.10	1	0.84	1.09	14	0.92	0.85
8	1.00	0.90	8	1.07	0.83	8	0.85	0.90
11	0.55	0.98	2	0.92	0.73	2	0.87	0.80
2	0.89	0.82	7	0.81	0.73	4	0.76	0.86
7	0.88	0.78	9	0.81	0.80	5	0.75	0.69
9	0.60	0.79	4	0.78	0.74			
4	0.74	0.71	5	0.69	0.61			
5	0.40	0.62						

In the evaluation for the depression subscale, the infit values of items 14 and 11 were found to be 1.91 and 1.55, respectively and these values were outside the control limits as in Table III. Once these items were removed, the analysis was repeated and the reliability over the entire model increased from 0.69 to 0.76 and the item separation index increased from 1.60 to 1.65. When analyzing the model fit values again, the item 4 with the infit value of 1.69 was removed from the model and all the infit and outfit values were found to stay in the range from 0.5 to 1.5. For the final model with the reliability was found 0.81 for the items and this value indicates that reliability was very good and sample size was enough for item difficulty hierarchy. When analyzing the infit and outfit values in the item analysis made for the anxiety subscale, all the infit and outfit values were found to stay in the range of 0.5 to 1.5, so that the model was not reduced. According to the results of the item analysis for the stress subscale, item 13 and items 12 and 6 were taken out respectively in the model considering the fit statistics.

Linacre suggested that item separation indices of 3 or greater are desirable but in this study item separation index was found 1.87 and this value expresses that a sample of person was not be able to separate the items. But the most important point to note here that the item separation index value increased as the miss fit values were removed from the model. On the other hand the person separation index was found 2.11 for the final model indicated that a set of items separates the persons at excellent level for the depression subscale. The reliability was found 0.72 for the person and it indicates that the sample size of the persons' was enough to analyze the Rasch model for the depression subscale. The item reliability of the anxiety subscale was 0.85 and the item separation index was 2.43. On the other hand the person reliability was 0.70 and the person separation index was 1.65. When these values are evaluated from the model point of view it was seen that the ability to represent the model of the anxiety subscale was low. After removing misfit items from the model, the item separation index was 2.62; there was no significant change in items' reliability. Item separation index seemed to be at a better level when compared to depression subscale and the person separation index for the final model of stress subscale were found

2.15. This values was greater indicates that a set of items separates the persons at excellent level for the stress subscale. The person reliability value of the stress subscale obtained as a good level “0.82” for the final model. The Cronbach alpha values were found 0.96, 0.86 and 0.84 for the subscales respectively depression, anxiety and stress, which exceeded the acceptable level of 0.8 (DeVellis 2003). For all subscales, it can be said that the Cronbah’s alpha values were large enough. All the results for separation index and reliability can be seen as in Table VI.

Table VI. Separation Index, Reliability and Cronbach’s Alpha Values for Depression, Anxiety and Stress Subscales

	Separation Index		Reliability		Cronbach’s Alpha
	Person	Item	Person	Item	
Depression					0.96
Overall	1.51	1.60	0.67	0.69	
Removal items 11 and 14	1.66	1.65	0.71	0.76	
Removal item 4 (final)	2.11	1.87	0.72	0.81	
Anxiety					0.86
Overall	1.65	2.43	0.70	0.85	
Stress					0.84
Overall	2.06	2.44	0.81	0.86	
Removal item 13	2.09	2.53	0.81	0.86	
Removal items 12 and 6 (final)	2.15	2.62	0.82	0.87	

3.3. The Person-Item Map

The person-item map is a ruler with left-hand column locates the person ability and right-hand column locates the item difficulty. It measures difficulty levels of items along the same continuum of person ability levels and according to the map the items located at the top part of it are the most difficult and the persons near these items have a greater ability. The items located in the bottom part of the continuum are the easiest, and the persons located close to these items are the ones with less of an ability.

The Person-Item Map was obtained for final model of all subscales in Min-istep version of the Winsteps. As shown in Figure 1, persons were on the left hand and persons ability ranged from -4.2 to -0.18 for the depression scale; the item difficulty ranged from -0.36 to 0.89 logits. According to the map the more easier items need to be added to questionnaire. It has been observed that the persons were not homogeneously distributed to the items and the bottom of the map was completely empty. In other words Figure 1 reveals that the items have not a good fit to the measurement model, indicating weak mutual consistency in the responses of the 316 persons located at different positions on the scale, across 11 items. The person-item map (Figure 2.) for the final model of the anxiety subscale is examined, the opposite is observed in the depression. Persons ability ranged from -3.4 to 1.01 logits and the items difficulty from -3.9 to 1.9 logits. This results indicate that greater severity of the person need more difficult

items to explain the ability. For the final model of the stress subscale the results are similar to those obtained in depression. Persons' ability ranged from -4.2 to -0.3 logits and items difficulty ranged from -0.30 to 0.99 logits as in the Figure 3. Greater severity of the person need more easier items to explain the ability.

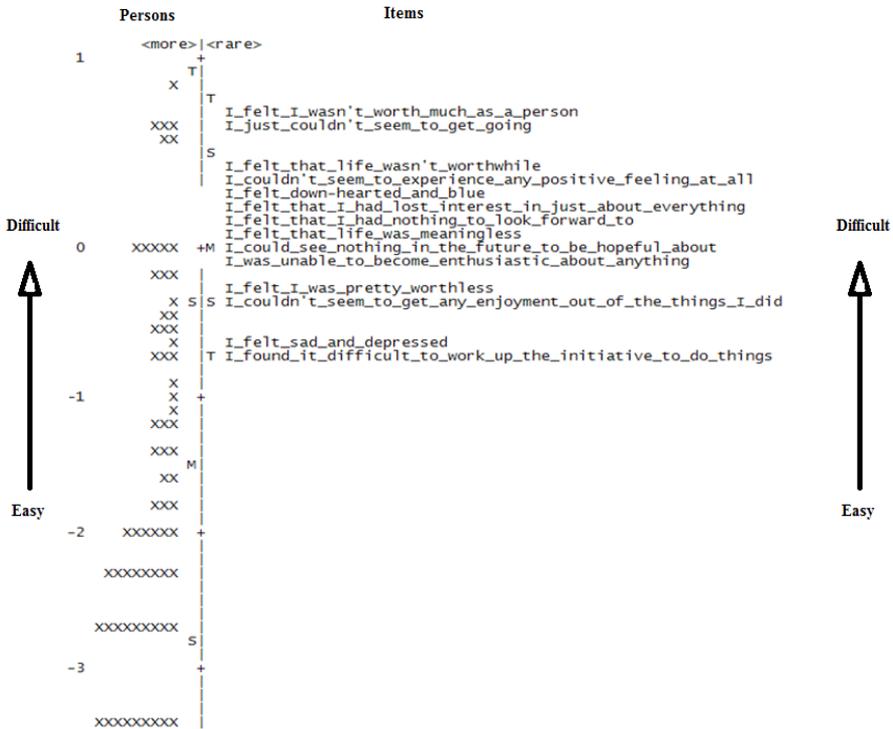


Figure 1. Person-item Map for Final Model of Depression Subscale

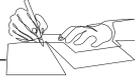


Figure 2. Person-item Map for Final Model of Anxiety Subscale



Figure 3. Person-item Map for Final Model of Stress Subscale



4. Discussion

In this section, an application of DASS-42 scale in Istanbul province was analyzed with Rasch measurement model. Initially, it has been shown that the data set provides the assumptions of unidimensionality and local independence. Results indicate that the assumption of unidimensionality is provided because of all the eigenvalues lower than "2.0". For the local independence assumption chi-square values were calculated to test the validity of this hypothesis for each subscale. All chi-square values are lower than 3.84 and the local independence was apparently assured in this dataset at this ability level for pair of items. The data set provided both assumptions and it was suitable for the Rasch measurement analysis.

A Rasch analysis was applied to DASS-42 scale to examine the psychometric properties. For depression subscale, the data were analyzed with the whole sample ($n=316$) and all its 14 items together. But some fit statistics were not in the range of 0.5-1.5, the items 11, 14 and 4 were removed from item list and the final model person and item separation index values were found to be acceptable for the depression subscale. It has been observed that the most difficult item to be answered by a person is the item 14 and the simplest one is the item 1. When the person-item map is examined and the difficulty level is taken from bottom to top, it can be said that there is a need for items with less difficulty in order to get healthier answers. According to the map the more easier items need to be added to questionnaire. It has been observed that the persons were not homogeneously distributed to the items and the bottom of the map was completely empty. When the person-item map is evaluated for the depression, it is said that the number of people with greater ability is lower and these people are faced with items with high level of difficulty. It was seen that a large number of people did not respond to items with low difficulty level. When the data set is analyzed it has been observed that all fit statistics are within bounds and that no item has to be removed from the data set for the anxiety subscale. When the person-item map for the anxiety subgroup is examined, it can be said that the level of difficulty is collected in negative values and therefore, items with higher difficulty level are needed for anxiety subscale. In the analysis of stress subgroups considering fit statistics, item 13 were disabled in the first stage. In the second phase, items 12 and 6 are disabled and the final model is obtained in which all the fit statistics are within the desired range. When the person-item map related to the stress subscale is examined, the difficulty level of the items is very high and it can be said that homogeneous distribution cannot be observed when the distributions in the person-item map ruler are examined. Easier items are needed to interpret the stress subscale with Rasch measurement model.

According to the results obtained in the analysis of the DASS-42 scale on the participants living in Istanbul the effectiveness of the measure can be increased by the changes to difficulty level of the items. So that a more homogeneous structure can be achieved on the scale in terms of persons and items. It is clear that the items will have a more homogeneous structure with changes to the difficulty level and that its usefulness will increase. The measurement properties of the DASS-42 scale should not be used to assess the mental illness of persons living

in Istanbul. The result of this research that the frequently used scales are not suitable for all communities and The DASS-42 scale cannot use to measure of the psychometric properties of the participants. It is recommended to examine the measurement features before applying the scale to the participants. Increasing the number of the participants may be a way for the suitability of the scale.

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CHAPTER
5

THE IMPACTS OF GLOBALISATION ON THE IMPROVEMENT OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP: A CASE OF TURKEY

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INTRODUCTION

The issue of Globalisation as a theoretical context and an object of research has become intriguing for many researchers in different fields over the last three decades. Neo-liberalism stands out as dominant ideology and policy stance for contemporary capitalist system. In this regard, Thatcher (UK), Regan (US), and Özal (Turkey) were political actors that of the key representatives of 1970's and early 1980's of the right wing. Contemporary capitalism is not only means of economic expansion, but also technological progress (Kotz, 2000).

Describing entrepreneurship as the driving force in the capitalist economy's, this paper discovers, from a literature review of standpoint, the influence of globalisation on the expansion of the entrepreneurship in the country. The significance of the research is based on the connection between globalisation and neoliberal politics, so meanwhile how the modern capitalism is intertwined with the development of entrepreneurship.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

As an ideology, Neoliberalism basically refers to various types of free market and removal of welfare models and state regulations. Hence, privatisation and deregulation policies are the necessary instruments of neoliberal policies in the economy. Within the scope of this doctrine; Individualism and liberty consist of two salient values. Therefore, the essence of the ideology is based on individualistic self-interests, entrepreneur values and consumerism which are all stated within the philosophy (Shultz 2007). It meant to be a switch from Keynes to Marks in other words free individual facilitates greater economic performance in the system. According to neo-liberal philosophy, efficiency, economic achievement, technical advancement together with distributional justice enable greater economic in this notion (Kotz 2000).

This work addresses, what is the relation among global capitalism, neo liberal politics and development of entrepreneurship. A road map is introduced consisting of three layers defining implications to be integrated in the literature. First part describes the role of neo-liberal politics within contemporary capitalism. The second part suggests that the connection between globalisation and neo-liberal politics. Third part relates to the role of globalisation on the improvement of entrepreneurship in Turkey and how it relates to economic expansion of the country' within modern capitalism. Describing entrepreneurship as the driving



force in the capitalists' economy's, this paper discovers, from a literature review of standpoint, the influence of globalisation on the governance of intuitions in Turkey and its direct effect on development of entrepreneurship in the country.

2. Neo-liberal Politics and its immediate effect on Contemporary Capitalism

Neoliberalism appears to be an economic theory and political attitude. The ideology of the theory is based on Adam Smith's praised study, *The Wealth of Nations* (1776). The theory suggests that unregulated free market accelerates the ideal of free individual choice and this leads to accomplishment of economic performance in relation to efficiency, economic expansion, technical advancement and distributional justice. Between mid 1930's and mid 1970's a new interventionist path took place of classical liberalism. It was clearly underlined that capitalism prevails under the condition of substantial state regulation (Mamadov and Hasanov, 2016). The state and market are attached to one another as an institute. The state has a role of organising of the commonwealth as a crucial institution. Markets are, on the other hand, has a rivalry nature as an institute and conducted by the state. Since the 18th century, liberalism is in conflict with the autonomous state, and neoliberalism has appeared to be the sovereign ideology starting from 1980's onwards.

The significant challenge to global capitalism is that as the government democratized, government' decision making power is limited (Kask 2014). This is largely because, contemporary liberalism's values contradict with the merits of state socialism. The table stated below highlights the common grounds for Neoliberalism and Classical Liberalism.

Table 1: Common grounds for Neoliberalism and Classical Liberalism.

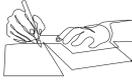
Civil liberty, political freedom and economic freedom
Individualism and self-reliance
Limited governmental role
Free market, freedom of speech, religion and rule of law
Law taxes, no tariff , free trade
Exclusion of government intervention from people's lives

Source: Author's Survey

It is significant to state that, unlike Classical liberalism, Modern liberalism has come to realisation that government control is essential in order free market conditions to be viable.

3. Relation between neo-liberal politics and globalisation

Although there are a few type of globalisation prevails in the system, this piece of work focusses on capitalist globalisation together with economic globalisation. Initially, Economic globalisation promotes enlargement and consolidating international trade and hedging. Similarly, capitalist globalisation indicates international implementations within different peripheral (Manning 1999 and Sklair 2006). In this sense, it is worth to mention the pioneers of advocators of



this philosophy in dissimilar spheres are Thatcher, Reagan and Özal. Those legendary technocrats embodied the free market economies in to their own lands in 1980's onwards. They have all the speeded the roots of laissez-faire economies by means of privatisation as the sole option against **State Socialism** in their own territories.

US has imposed neoliberal policies on the rest of the World via International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank, and World Trade Organisation (WTO) straight after World War II. Additionally, European Union and North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) are also promoters of this school of thought as an institute (, The Thistle, 20016).

Table 2: The Incidents that triggered Global Capitalism

Inspired by Marks and Adam Smith,
1970's capitalist crises, 1970's oil prices,
The emergence of Trans national Cooperation (TNC),
Transformation of Third World through Global Capital Project

Source: Author's Survey

Consumption without necessary income to purchase is a highlighting catch phrase within the context given. Having explained the causes of Global Capitalism, it is important to state the general principles of Social Liberalism so as to comprehend the relations between that of adjacent issues. Therefore, Table 3 as given below points out the emergence of related key issues.

Table 3: The emergence of some of the key issues involved in Social Liberalism

Access to modern and high standard of living
Fair distribution of wealth and power
Economic equality to certain degree
Responsibility of one another
Productive economy by efficiency and effectiveness
Concern about environmental degradation, global consumerism, accountability, transparency
Social and Economic inequalities

Source: Author's Survey

The following section investigates the relation between modern capitalism and the development of entrepreneurship in Turkey and how they are intertwined within the context.

4. The role of globalisation on the improvement of Entrepreneurship in Turkey

In the context of Global Capitalism, the USA has imposed on Neo-liberal policies via IMF AND World Bank right after World War II. Initially, the application of Marshall Plan in Europe and in the same way the implication of Truman's Tenet in Turkey and Greece seem to be an altruistic exercise of the US government. Not long afterwards, it was realised that it was infect the hidden agenda of the USA. Apparently, the underlying reason of the economic assistance in different part



of the world was indeed to create a market for American Capital Goods. By the introduction of these Marshall Plan and Truman's Tenet, the USA has initiated an American Plan in order to consolidate Economic Capitalism throughout the world (The Thistle 2017).

After the adjustment of Neoliberal policies as a political attitude in the country, as a reformer politician Özal has initiated a progression period in the territory between 1980's and 1990's. As means of his revolutionary approach, Turkey has laid on alterations in political, cultural, economic life. (Oniş, 2006) Through free market transition process, national state has diminished its role in the economy. The enforcement of this political stance by Özal through 1980's, it seemed to be an uplift to crises which Turkey has gone through in 1970's, just like the other counterparts all over the world. The fundamental idea behind this concept was to prevent efficiency and effectiveness problems deeply rooted within the system through neoliberal policies. Needless to say, the exercises of the state government in Turkey seemed to be incompetent to figure out the difficulties that citizens go through in the system of public management.

Therefore, the increase in the number of entrepreneurs in Turkey are the result of implemented neoliberal policies. This is largely because entrepreneurs should be unrestricted as an innovator in free market environment to exchange goods, services or labour not necessarily in national boundaries. Exchanging voluntarily in the free market environment is the vital activity. There should be a big layer of private sector in the economy which indicates that considerable number of entrepreneurs account for business world rather than public sector technocrats. The connection among entrepreneurship, and the development of this concept through European Aid Programs reflects implementation of Neo-Liberal Policies within the country. Additionally, Entrepreneurship is ensured via innovation of new products in order to carry out Economic Capitalism.

5.Conclusion:

The introduction of Neo Liberal policies to Europe was in line with proposal of Marshall Plan and Truman's Tenet. It even dates back to Adam Smith' great master piece "The Wealth of Nations". Restructuring Europe or Turkey through imposed Aid Programmes was clearly had nothing to do with American Altruism. On the contrary, Aid Programs have embodied Economic Capitalism principles by means of Global Capitalism's instruments in different part of the world.

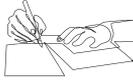
Obviously, a holistic approach is necessary to be compatible in social science to synchronise different frameworks which are explained in a fragmented fashion in different fields. Empirical research should be carried out to comprehend diverse connections in these interrelated issues.

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INDUSTRY 4.0 DIGITAL ERA: IS IT A MILESTONE OR AN END?

Fisun YÜKSEL

Introduction

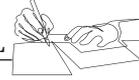
The fourth industrial revolution is described as a switch from traditional way to digital way in manufacturing and marketing process. The competitive advantage of China, having a cheap labour force, seems like a substantial threat to Europe in the short run. To eradicate such dependency Europe has dispatched production process to his own landscape through industrial revolution 4.0., in the context of technical know-how.

New paradigm seems like a radical conversion in technical know-how, in the big data environment speed, flexibility, and productivity terms have been fundamentally underlined. The physical and time distances do not exist any longer between human being and machines. In this research, the impacts of Industry 4.0 will be discussed from the theoretical point of view in marketing and consumer behaviour disciplines. This paper will present a state of the art review of Industry 4.0 based on recent developments for practitioners.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Nowadays business World is up against vigorous challenges in big data environment of swift decision-making for advanced efficiency and transparency. Manufacturing systems are unprepared to cope with big data due to the lack of smart analytical tools. Germany has taken up a leading role in the way of transformation towards 4th industrial revolution. Industry 4.0 (Lee, An Kao and Yan; 2014)/ Therefore, Industry 4.0 is described as future vision in the high-tech strategy of the German government that pertains to information and communication. More specifically, Kagermann introduced such notion in 2011 and backed up by German National Academy of Science and Engineering in 2013. Such development is followed by Industrial Internet Consortium (ICC).

Technologies like Cyber- Physical Systems, Internet of things, Physical Internet and Internet of Services to achieve high degree of flexibility in production higher productivity services through real time monitoring and diagnosis, and a lower waste rate of material in production are some of the key issues discussed within the concept. (Herman 2016, Coşkun, Gencay, Kayıkçı, 2016). Industry 4.0 is a kind of strategic venture which has a leading role in industrial IT. And hence, many global brands have already embarked on embracing their industrial infrastructure to fulfil the necessities of the Industry 4.0 (Mc Kinsey and Co, 2015). In the light of this phenomenon, the global operators of this revolution such as of Bosh, Siemens, Apple, Samsung have already adjusted their applications in accordance with this advancement. (Stock and Soliger 2016). Table 1 briefly points out the relevant issues with in this concept.

**Table 1:** Some of the key issues involved in the fourth Revolution. 4.0

Digital Technologies
Cloud computing
Big data
New industrial internet applications
3D Printing
Robotics
Smart factories,

Source: Authors's Survey

The underlying reason of this revolution is to eliminate the cutting edge manufacturing of China in comparison to Europe and Germany. As such, overwhelming advantage that creates a leverage in the benefit of China whereas creates dependency between China and the rest of the World, notably for Europe and the USA.

This study addresses why the industry 4.0 has emerged within competitive business World. Second, the applications of this paradigm will be introduced. Finally, the reflection of this revolution on marketing and consumer behaviour discipline will be presented.

2. Big Data Environment

Big data includes more than analytical and process-based data. It also contains videos, social networking conversations, medical scans, sensor networks, search indexes, environmental conditions. Big data environment refers to reconciliation of different data forms in terms of source and types to increase insights to the concerned question in different disciplines. How efficiently and effectively data can be gathered or what part of collected data is beneficial for the organisation goals in big data environment? These are some of the key questions regarding the usage of the information throughout the research.

To arrange and manage large amount of data for a new type of analysis requires different level of proficiency. In other words, Big data calls for boosting diverse skills in the enterprise together with reviewing goals and priorities of the institution not only in the context of the information management but also in their field.

Table 2: What does Big Data Entails for Industries

Processing huge amount of data
Flexible and quick decision-making
Increased productivity and effectiveness in their activities of enterprises
Vast amount of data processed by contemporary data bases
Scalable data analytics (analysis)
Smart Data

Source: Author's Survey

Reflection of 4.0 Industry on Marketing and Consumerism-1

The reflection of industry 4.0 paradigm is on the marketing concepts are three fold. First; virtual and physical systems are associated that is the creation of rela-



tionship between human and machines. Second, it creates cheap production and distribution for supply side and responds to customer needs quickly and hence being more compatible between customers and producers. (Odabaşı 2017; Ersoy 2016). Finally, some examples of Potential Outcomes of 4.0 on Marketing Discipline is summarised in Table 1. Notably, it would be worthwhile to mention implantation of microchips in to human body in order to save next generation' lives despite being controversial. In the same way, adaptation of watchdog agents into monitoring equipment, software and systems to prevent and predict failure will be a catchphrase for many enterprises in different disciplines.

Table 3: Potential Outcomes of Digital Era, 4.0 on Marketing and Consumerism

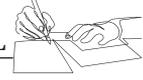
Microchips implanted in human bodies to facilitate daily routines
Next generation of Chips save lives by monitoring health and fitness
Adaptation of watchdog agents in anticipating and hindering failure
Human machine cooperation
Increase in product complexity
Rapid decision making in service management
Individualised production
Productivity through reduced waste
Augmented reality
Cyber Security Risk
Vertical integration in marketing, sales, planning and production
Horizontal integration in raw material, suppliers, producers, logistic, customer
Fast and Cheap production and distribution
Creation of customer satisfaction
Digitalisation as a mega trend
Dissapperance of several jobs
Creating new jobs
Gaining competetive advantage
Reducing production cost
Change of industrial landscape
Creating a digital value chain
Shorter innovation cycles

Source: Author's Survey

Conclusion

The launch of th's digital era represents a milestone in development of Information Management. As it requires different kind of skills, knowledge and position along with different features and comprehension as far as the significance of the revolution is concerned . This fourth level of upheaval is expected to run up side down of the rules of the competition in different industries.

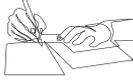
Firms or institons need to allign their attitudes in relation to this advancement in order to keep up with the pace of phenomenal shift. Some school of thought stressess that there will be losers and winners as a result of this remarkable breakthrough. It is largely because there will be dissapperance of labour intensive jobs notably in service industry as artificial intelligence is expected to



replace human being. For those who are geared up to this revolution far more likely to benefit most as they fullfil all the neccessary conditions to be viable in big data environment.

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ROLE OF BRAND APPLICATIONS IN CREATION OF BRAND LOYALTY AS A VIRTUAL EXPERIENCE MARKETING PRACTICE: A STUDY ON VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

Sinem YEYGEL ÇAKIR¹, Gonca KÖSE²

Introduction

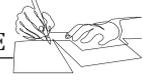
The globally widespread and integrated digital use of technological developments has triggered a social and economic transformation. In today's digital age and extremely dynamic market environments have made concepts like innovation, sustainability, customer experience, etc. into a staple of brand management. In such an environment, the ability of brands to establish a sincere communication with their target audiences is directly proportional to the real experiences they provide to their target audiences based on their ability to be unique, innovative and creative, and to exceed the routine. The transformation in the form of the competition approach of brands towards the experience they provide for their target audiences' forces brands to become innovative. Therefore, creating digital tools and digital ideas has become unavoidable for brands that have to completely make over their marketing strategies for virtual customer experience under influence of digital transformation. In this context, it is seen that a substantial number of brands are using brand applications, which constitute domains of virtual experience, to keep pace with digitalising lifestyle and to attract or capture their target audience in this virtual environment. The goal of brand applications is to provide unique and lasting experiences to their target audiences, to ensure the audience enjoys the experience and be remembered with positive connotations as a brand providing solutions suitable for expectations. How kind of virtual experience a brand provides through their application and how this experience makes the target audience feel has a significant effect on loyalty of the target audience who are prominent with their unending expectations and unending desire for more.

Concept of Experience

In recent years the concept of experience has become one of the foremost concepts offered by brands and demanded by consumers. In this environment where digitalisation infuses every aspect of life, easy access to information technologies, unlimited demands and expectations of consumers, as well as their satisfaction and decision making functions are related to their direct and indirect experiences with the brand. At this point, taking idiosyncratic dynamics of digital environment into account, it can be said that brands continue their contest for attention of the consumer on this field of experiences they provide. The phe-

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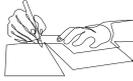
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nomenon of experience, which has become a subject of market research as well as a part of daily life practices for the consumer, is defined by Turkish Language Society as the conscious or unconscious acquisition of personal accumulation or information which results in acquisition of knowledge and skills (www.tdk.gov.tr, 2018). Mannell defines experience as personal and prominently qualitative information (Mannell, 1984: 14), while Oh *et al.* posit experiences from the viewpoint of consumer must be fun, interesting and lasting memories of consumption (Oh, Fiore and Jeoung, 2007: 128). Replacing functional values by providing mental, emotional, cognitive, behavioural and relational values (Kabadayı, 2014: 203-217), experience is also defined as a phenomenon based on customer participation (O'Sullivan and Spangler, 1998), which affects the consumer emotionally, physically, intellectually and spiritually (Mossberg, 2007). According to Pine and Gilmore (1998), who contributed to integration of the experience concept in contemporary marketing literature as a concept comprised of having the consumer live through emotion and emotional factors (Oral and Yetim, 2014: 472), define experiential consumption as permanent establishment of a mutual interaction in consumption cycle in the mind of the consumer. The experience the consumer lives through during consumption, as seen through the viewpoint of the consumer, forms the basis of the value they afford to the business (Pine and Gilmore, 1998: 98). According to Brakus *et al.* the consumption experience is multi-dimensional: it comprises hedonic dimensions like emotions, fantasies and happiness as well as logical dimensions related to products and services which emerge during consumption (Brakus *et al.*, 2009: 53). Based on the definitions mentioned up to this point, each point of connection directly or indirectly established with existing products, brands and services is deemed as an experience from the viewpoint of the consumer. So, a positive valuation of the brand and related experience by the consumer will strengthen the feeling of trust toward the brand and create a strong basis for brand loyalty.

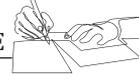
Experiential Marketing

A characteristic feature of today's marketing economy is the prominent role of brand experience providing added value to the brand. In scope of the changing marketing discipline, the latest name of this characteristic emerges as experiential marketing. In this era when communication between brands and target audiences is easier than ever before, this provides an approach which can keep target audience interest and excitement alive. As the type of brand investment with the largest return rate (Özmen, 2016: 298) experiential marketing focuses on values which delight the consumer in order to instil loyalty towards the product/service and the brand, as well as catering to the five senses of sight, touch, smell, hearing and taste, focusing on values which will make the consumer happy (Bati, 2013: 9). First suggested by Alvin Toffler (Toffler, 1970) the concept of experiential marketing and experiential economy provides the consumer with the opportunity to establish relationships and interactions with brands, products and services through emotional pathways, according to the International Experiential Marketing Association (IXMA). In this context, experiential marketing is comprised of brand, product and service experiences of existing customers which help increase sales and strengthen brand image and brand recogni-



tion (Varinli, 2012:152). On the other hand, Schmitt (1999) defines experiential marketing as the act of purchase of products/services of a business or brand by customers in result of various stimulations and experiences (Artuger *et al.*, 2014: 107-111). According to Yuan and Wu, experiential marketing can be defined as a marketing tactic which envisions total physical environment and transaction process design by businesses in order to provide customers with various experiences (Yuan and Wu, 2008: 388). Rather than functional properties and benefits of the product, experiential marketing is focused on understanding experiences of the consumer. Experiences reveal which properties are enjoyed by the consumer (Tenekecioğlu *et al.*, 2009: 265). On the other hand, experiential marketing can also fulfil consumer needs including self-realisation, search for aesthetics and beauty, symbolic meaning, being different, enjoyment, fantasy, creativity and emotional needs, through activities enjoyable to the consumer (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982: 138). In other words, providing a total consumption experience comprising of pre-purchase and post-purchase stimulations designed for the consumer (Berry *et al.*, 2012: 87), experiential marketing is implemented to ensure brand loyalty by creating an emotional relationship between the brand and the consumer, providing experiences enjoyable for the consumer which also speaks to emotions of the consumer (Küçüksaraç and Sayımer, 2016: 76). According to Williams, experiential marketing represents a new marketing idea. Feeding purchasing processes of customers with more positive approaches and thus motivating customers in this direction, experiential marketing aims to provide data on purchasing decisions of customers through real and tangible experiences (Williams, 2006: 485-486). Experiential marketing aims to create positive connotations regarding the brand and its products in the consumer by speaking to five senses of sight, hearing, touch, taste and smell as much as possible and providing unique and enjoyable experiences, based on the premise that humankind are sensual creatures (Ertemel, 2016: 41). Experiential marketing means experiences deeply established in human mind or unforgettable memories. This idea can comprise the quality of experience in the modern consumption environment, and through the consumption process consumers emphasize their own experiences. Thus, emotional and impactful sensations can provide the opportunity to intensify the desire to buy in consumers and help increase added value of products (Lee, Hsiao and Yang, 2010: 356). The purpose of experiential marketing is to create a total holistic experience, while at the same time providing experiences with sensorial, emotional, cognitive, behavioural and relational qualities (Tsaour *et al.*, 2006: 50). At this point, it would be beneficial to summarily explain dimensions of experience from the viewpoint of this study.

- **Sensorial Experiences;** focus on the senses. In addition, sensual experiences stimulate enjoyment, excitement and aesthetic satisfaction through senses (Yang, 2009: 249). For example, considering a hotel in regard of sensual experiences, the aesthetics of the hotel, being decorated objects and statues made of ice, and its ambient temperature being unconventional, can provide a virtual and tactile experience (Deligöz, 2016: 37- 39).
- **Emotional Experiences:** Providing target audiences with emotional experiences is one of the goals of emotional marketing. Emotional market-



ing provide an experience which resorts to hidden feelings and emotions of the customer in order to strengthen emotions like pride, joy, etc. in relation to the brand and create positive emotional experiences (Tsaour *et al.*, 2006: 50). Emotions which help create deep emotional ties between the consumer and the products and help increase consumer loyalty constitute a core quality of consumption experiences (Rajogopal, 2015). In other words, emotional marketing focuses on hidden feelings and emotions of customer in order to create emotional experiences. For example, a customer engaging a business providing consulting services will have an emotional experience when they get professional and satisfactory answers to their questions (Yetiş, 2015: 93).

- **Cognitive Experiences:** According to definition of Schmitt, cognitive experience module consists of attracting attention of consumers and stimulating thought in them by using striking elements (Schmitt, 1999: 13). Creating the feeling of different experiences due to its intriguing quality (Srinivasan, 2010: 195), cognitive experience stimulates the consumer to rethink and cultivate creativity (Yang, 2009: 249), as well as encouraging them to think intellectually and creatively to provide problem solving experiences (Schmitt and Rogers, 2008: 117).
- **Behavioural (Actual) Experiences:** The aim in providing actual experiences for the customer is to create long-term behavioural changes and to provide experiences arising from interaction with other people (Akyıldız, 2010: 36). Practices like product placement in movies or TV series or casting role models with a reliable image in public eye to act in promotion-announcement advertisement for products/services in order to try and change behavioural habits of people are observed when creating such actual experiences (Güney and Karakadılar, 2015: 137). Another example can be a bank determining the needs of a customer with limited time and developing and offering internet banking services accordingly (Günay, 2008: 66).
- **Relational Experiences:** This branch aims to create and offer experiential elements which reflect own identity and feelings of belonging of the consumer in result of their connections with other individual, social communities (gender, profession, ethnic root, lifestyle, etc.) and social elements (nationality, culture, etc.) (Yu and Ko, 2012: 10). The need for social identity and the desire to belong help consumers' example relational experiences. The consumer can have experiences according to the identity they decide they wish to a part of (Yetiş, 2015: 94). Brand communities can be shown as an example of this. Riding a Harley Davidson symbolises a free spirit and it is a life style. Users of Harley Davidson products build close relationships and display the social dimension of the experience established on the brand (Schmitt and Rogers, 2008: 119). In their advertisements Harley uses the slogan "If you ride a Harley, you're in the brotherhood, if you don't, you aren't" (Schmitt, 1999a: 173).

In light of the information up to this point, it is possible to conclude that



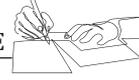
positive brand experiences of the consumer is one of the most important yields in competitive power in today's environment of unavoidable competition. Consumer expectations and thus experiences which constantly change through developing technology and lines of communication forces the brands to always renew themselves and act ever faster. To this end, it is very important for the brands to capture experiences which can attract and intrigue consumers and reflect their lifestyle, and to offer these experiences to the consumer on time.

Virtual experiential marketing

If it is discussed on individual and social basis, the digitalisation of the world day by day has affected people's communication styles, consumption habits, business and social lives deeply. Today, consumers can access their desired brands anytime and anywhere and they can share their thoughts and experiences about the brand in the desired platforms. The most important reflection of this situation to the brands is that these brands are inevitably able to design successful virtual experiences in compliance with developing technologies for target audiences. The investment to be made by brands for these experiences includes all kinds of technologies (virtual reality, product visualization technologies, mobile technologies etc.) that offer an environmental experience enriched by visual and audio tools, together with the Internet and all channels involved. The investment to be made by brands for these experiences comprises the internet, all channels included in it (websites, social media, online games, internet ads etc.) and all kinds of technology (virtual reality, product visualization technologies, mobile technologies etc.) that provides an environmental experience enriched with audio-visual aids and produces a spiral (immersive) experience (Köleoğlu and Çolakoğlu, 2018: 21). Therefore, all these developments have led to the taking into account the experiences in virtual environments in order to influence consumer behaviour (Bahçecioglu, 2014). Virtual experiential marketing is based on interfaces that replace real-world experiences. For this reason an electronic virtual environment can connect with consumers, stimulate emotional reactions by offering them unique experiences and finally it can support companies to provide competitive advantage and create consumer loyalty. (Chen et al., 2008:1). In this sense, it is possible to accept virtual experiential marketing as a product of experiences in the physical, cognitive and emotional processes in various virtual environments.

Relationship between Brand Applications and Brand Loyalty

Today, one of the most indispensable rules for brands is to be able to adapt to the digital transformation that creates a great effect in marketing sector. Brands that always want to take competitiveness a step further must integrate new digital technologies to both communication and production and marketing processes in the fastest way. In this digital age, the shortest way that brands use to reach their consumers is their application as one of the virtual experiential tools. Brands produce their own applications for mobile phones, tablets and other mobile devices and create a new mode of communication. Developing designs according to this new mode of communication and appearing in mobilization process are perceived as a necessity for brands (The Brand Age, 2017).



Applications have become an inseparable part for both parties in terms of providing experiences that facilitate the life of the consumer and enabling the increase of positive emotions for the brand. In an environment where the consumer experiences of unlimited products and services are freely circulated, the most distinctive features of the brands depend on the provision of unique emotional and functional services to their customers by the applications they create, and in doing so, to what extent they make their customers feel special and to what extent the experience they offer is real. In this respect, the brands need to consider user-oriented and be open to the implementation when creating their applications and it should turn into a service where the customers feel the functionality as they experience the applications (Demir, 2017: 55). It is a fact that the applications, which are correct and pertinent, solve an important problem of the target audience, and have a good perception management (design, colour, functionality, ease of use, practicality, speed, etc.), will increase the sense of loyalty to the brand to that it belongs (Ak, 2017: 56). Consistency in the statements and actions of the brands, the continuity of the emotional satisfaction provided by this experience to the consumers will strengthen the loyalty to the brand through applications.

Importance and Purpose of Research

Providing the active participation of the target audiences in an environment where the digitalisation takes place gorgeously and making them feel good and making their virtual experience process unique by creating unique applications contribute to the perception of brands more intimate and realistic before the target groups. From this point of view, the applications are the virtual communication language that brands establish with their consumers and are also technological opportunities used to make the lives of consumers easier; to ensure the continuity of their interaction with the brand and to develop positive emotions. Through their applications, brands can offer their customers unique sensorial, emotional, cognitive, behavioural, relational experiences and can understand their expectations better and provide unique brand experiences to their consumers. In this context, it has been aimed to find out what brand applications most preferred by the target audiences as virtual experiential marketing instrument and to discover in what experiential aspects these applications affect the loyalty sense of the target groups.

Method and Limitations of Research

In this study, depth interview technique, one of the qualitative research methods, was used. Depth interview is a process in which information and sense are built as a result of mutual efforts of people on both sides of the interaction (Hostein and Gubrium, 2004: 141). Johnson (2002: 106) describes the word deep in the depth interview as an attempt to understand all aspects of daily activities, events and places in which the interviewee included in real life. The reason why this research method is preferred is that it provides detailed information about feelings, thoughts, perceptions, experiences, attitudes and habits of the participants. The population of the research is Dokuz Eylul University Bergama Vocational School and the research sample consists of the employees working in the academic and administrative staff of the school. Depth interview is performed



with 18 people in total. 7 of them are academicians and 11 of them are staff in administrative units. Within this context, the limitations of the research are that the results of the research cannot be generalized from the findings obtained through depth interviews conducted within a certain period of time and that the research has been carried out only with the vocational high school employees. In determination of the participants, purposive sampling method was used and homogeneous distribution of the participants was taken into account. The interviews were carried out in the meeting hall of the Bergama Vocational School on 26 - 27 October 2018. Each interview lasted approximately 20 minutes. Before the interview, all participants were informed about the aim and content of the study, and the interview was recorded.

Research Findings

In the findings obtained as a result of the research, it was aimed to learn what brand applications are available on the smart phones of the participants. Afterwards, the participants were asked to list their favourite brand applications and it has been tried to find out clues about how their sensorial, emotional, cognitive, behavioural and relational experiences about brand applications affect the loyalty feelings. 8 questions were asked to the participants. Paper and pencil were also given to the participants to write down their answers to some of the questions. The answers of the participants to the questions were transferred without any change.

Question 1: What are the current brand applications on your mobile phone? Can you please write the applications you remember?

A.I. Google, Instagram, Snapchat, Hepsiburada, Twitter, Youtube, Turkcell Hesabım, Cepte Teb.

S.S. Hepsiburada, Garanti Cep, Instagram, Telegram.

U.T. Garanti Cep, İş Bankası Cep, Ziraat Mobil, Sahibinden.

M.D. Sahibinden, Letgo, I Movie, Instagram

P.İ. Maçkolik, İşcep, Yemeksepeti, Pupy Mobile, Instagram.

R.Y. Ziraat Mobil, Google, Vodafone Yanımda, Spotify, Facebook.

Ü.G. Instagram, Ziraat Bankası, Cepte Teb, Gitti Gidiyor.

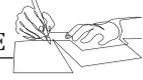
Y.Y. Instagram, Akbank Mobil, Ziraat Mobil, Çiçeksepeti.

M.G. İş Cep, All-in, CepteTeb, Trendyol.

D.E. Morhipo, N11, Çiçeksepeti, Yemeksepeti, Gmaps, Hepsiburada, Garanti Cep, Cepte Teb, Halkbank ve Bonus Flaş.

F.S. Ziraat Mobil, Cepte Teb, Turkcell Hesabım, Instagram.

S.G. Cepte Teb, İş Cep, Sahibinden, Ziraat Mobil, Letgo, Dominos Pizza, Trendyol, Hepsiburada, Instagram, Yandex, Twitter, Facebook.



F.G. Facebook, Youtube, Instagram, Hepsiburada.

E.T. Ziraat Mobil, Yapı kredi Mobil, GNC Turkcell, Facebook.

U.S. Facebook, Instagram, Yemeksepeti, Yapı kredi Mobil, Youtube.

K.D. Ziraat Mobil, Facebook, Cepte Teb, Garanti Cep, Akbank Cep, Instagram.

B.T. Yemeksepeti, Sahibinden, Ziraat Mobil, Cepte Teb, ModaCruz.

O.Ö. Türk Telekom, Letgo, Instagram, Facebook, Zara, Trendyol.

Question 2: How many applications do you have on your phone? Can you sort your favourite applications from 1 to 5?

A.I. There are 13 applications on my phone. Although I do not use them all equally, these are the most common ones: Cepte Teb, Google, Instagram, Turkcell Hesabım, Youtube.

S.S. I have 5 applications. I don't use them very much. Therefore, I don't have a favourite application. I usually do my shopping from Hepsiburada. That's why I think I use it the most. After that, I prefer to use Garanti Cep, Instagram and Telegram.

U.T. I usually like downloading apps. I have a total of 21 applications. Among them, I love Sahibinden. Although Instagram takes a lot of time, it is placed on the second. Also, I carry out my bank transactions via Garanti Mobil, İş Bankası Cep, Ziraat Mobil.

M.D. I have 7 applications. I use social networks a lot. That's why I can say Instagram is in the first place. I can even say that I don't like any other application other than Instagram. I use Sahibinden and Letgo from time to time.

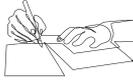
P.İ. I have 13 applications. Among social networks, I use Instagram the most. I do my monetary transactions with the applications of banks such as İşcep and Garanti Cep. Another application I use is Yemeksepeti.

R.Y. I have 15 applications. Since I work, it is very practical to do bank transactions from my phone instead of going to the bank. I work with 3 banks, so I use bank applications the most. After Ziraat Mobil, Cepte Teb, Garanti Cep, then comes Google Vodafone Yanımda, Spotify, Facebook.

Ü.G. I have 12 applications. I would like to directly say that Instagram, Ziraat Bankası, Cepte Teb, Gitti Gidiyor are among my favourites. If there are brands which attract my attention, I download the app directly but if I don't like it, I delete it immediately.

Y.Y. I have 8 applications. Youtube has become an important brand. After that, I can rank Instagram, Ziraat Mobil, Çiçeksepeti.

M.G. I don't like the fullness on my phone. That's why I have 5 applications. As a woman, I think Trendyol is a beautiful app, I love Falcı very much even though it is not a brand. Then comes İş Cep and CepteTeb.



D.E. I have 70 applications. I cannot count them one by one; but I can generalize. Bank applications are in the 1st place, social networks in the 2nd, Google Maps in the 3rd, Music applications in the 4th, games in the 5th place.

F.S. I have 20 applications. Instagram is in the first place for me. I find Twitter, Gitti Gidiyor, Hepsiburada and Cepte Teb successful.

S.G. I have totally 24 applications. Of course I don't use them all actively. Mostly I use bank applications as bank transactions save time. I don't love them all equally. I love İş Çep the most, I find Cepte Teb successful. Apart from these, Sahibinden, Google, Investing are among my favorites.

F.G. I have 4 applications other than the applications of my phone itself. I don't know whether it's a brand, but I think Whatsapp is one of the best applications of all times. It is also my favorite. After that, Facebook, Instagram, Markafoni and Morhipo are beautiful applications.

E.T. I have 17 applications. Instagram is very successful, so it ranks first. İş Çep, Yapıkredi Mobil, Sahibinden are among my favourites.

U.S. I have 11 applications. I love using Twitter. I find Yemeksepeti very successful. Among the bank applications, Yapıkredi Mobil and İş Çep are also nice to use.

K.D. I have 32 applications. Actually, I like most of them. I think the best application among social networks is Instagram. That's why I'd say it's my favorite. Then, Ziraat Mobil, Cepte Teb, Garanti Cep, İş Çep, Hepsiburada are among beautiful and favorite applications.

B.T. I have 6 applications. I can give you my first list. Yemeksepeti, Sahibinden, Ziraat Mobil, Cepte Teb, ModaCruz.

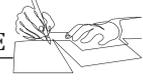
O.Ö. I have 20 applications on my phone, although I don't use them actively. I use Türk Telekom's online transactions. Youtube, Letgo can follow the ranking. I also love the Zara brand, I have recently discovered its application and I liked it very much. I enter it and check the models almost every day.

Question-3: How do you find your favorite brand applications visually-aesthetically? (Colour, sound, design, etc.)

A.I. I find some of my favourite applications beautiful and sufficient in terms of colour and design. For example, Cepte Teb has a green colour which I love very much, it mainly reminds me of the brand directly. Also, when you have cash inflow into your account in Cepte Teb, it directly notifies you with cash sound. It is great.

S.S. I have not evaluated applications in this respect since I have not downloaded so many applications as I mentioned in the previous question. I use Hepsiburada because I love shopping. Its colour is orange which is exciting, entertaining, sympathetic to me. The application is also very successful in terms of design. Also, Garanti Cep is green. It appeals to both my eye and ear.

U.T. Since I love applications, I can say that I found almost all of them visually - aesthetically successful. First of all, it is incredibly beautiful that everything is at your fingertips and you have the chance to buy or to do whatever you want



from far end of the world. Sahibinden is a very successful application and it has been designed so well that everything is extremely simple, directing and it offers unlimited options on everything. If I remember correctly, its colour is yellow, so it is remarkable. Also, İş Cep is my irreplaceable one. Its colour is blue, so it directly provides confidence.

M.D. I never looked at the issue in this respect, but when it comes to Instagram, it is aesthetically successful. The colour of Sahibinden is yellow. I would prefer blue. So, this is actually something that can be changed and improved from person to person.

P.İ. Instagram's logo is stunning and I can spot it directly among the apps on my phone, so I don't need to seek to find where the application is. İş Cep is the bank with an ideal colour for years, I find it successful in every respect. Apart from these, Yemeksepeti is very good and its application is red. It directly gives energy and succeeds in reflecting itself.

R.Y. Since I mostly use bank applications, I can only comment on them. The colour of both Cepte Teb and Garanti Cep, for example, is green and they are very similar to each other, which causes me to confuse. Therefore, I think that one of the two should differentiate its application.

Ü.G. I find them visually and aesthetically beautiful, they also appeal to both my eye and ear. They are all very remarkable.

Y.Y. I think they all use colours that are compatible with their brands. This is something very right. But what is important to me is not how aesthetically it looks, but how comfortably it is used.

M.G. I find Trendyol more attractive because it is the irreplaceable application for me and I know it is orange because I love it very much. I find the bank applications I use successful in terms of colour, design and aesthetics.

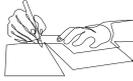
D.E. I think all applications I use provide a visual integrity.

F.S. There are applications that I like visually and aesthetically. I also like them because most of them are recognized worldwide. For example, Instagram and Twitter are both wonders of design.

S.G. My previous ranking and the ranking I will make now will be different when I evaluate them only visually-aesthetically. First of all, one of the points I consider is that the application works safely and properly. But of course I can say that I find most of them sufficient in terms of both their colours and designs.

F.G. I find them quite simple, elegant and beautiful. They are also able to remind us of themselves constantly, since the colours they use on the phone, on the internet, on television, on everywhere are always the same.

E.T. What can I say about that? All brands are very smart and they know how to impress us. For example, banks like Yapı kredi and İşbankası do not determine their colours randomly. That applies to Sahibinden as well. I evaluate in terms of what I use and almost all of them are perfect.



U.S. They are all easy, eye-catching and practical.

K.D. I have never looked at it from this point of view. When I think of the colours of my favorite applications, Cepte Teb's color is green and İş Cep is blue. Hepsiburada is orange. The fact that I can remember them now also shows that all these brands have chosen successful colours.

B.T. I can generalize it to all because I don't use too many applications. They are all very good in terms of visual aesthetics, I like them all.

O.Ö. They are all very successful in terms of colour. I'm spending too much time and sometimes even unnecessary time in applications because I like apps, therefore I sometimes lose track of time.

Question- 4: How do you evaluate your favourite brand applications in terms of use?

A.I. It is very efficient in use, but I am looking for speed and practicality in some transactions. There are times when I can't find these.

S.S. It gives me the opportunity to do everything I want, and I can easily find everything I'm looking for. From this point of view, I can say that it is very comfortable.

U.T. I find it qualified in terms of use. There is no problem as long as they are fast and functional. Of course, it is also very important for them to be reliable.

M.D. I think they are all successful, and I'm sure that if they are not easy to use, the brands will detect this and make their applications more useful.

P.İ. I am content with all of them. The most important thing for me is to ensure reliable use since we make transactions with our personal data through applications. Therefore, security is critical. I also look for their being fast and practical.

R.Y. Obviously, I think the applications are useful when used properly. I expect them to be innovative in applications instead of repeating themselves and keep applications up to date.

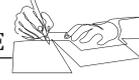
Ü.G. It depends on for what purpose you use an application. I usually want to use apps that offer me practical solutions, i.e. applications that will make my life easier.

Y.Y. They are all very successful in terms of use.

M.G. They are fast and safe, I have had no problems with use so far. If I had problems, if I did not like the use of an application which is hard to use, I would probably remove the application from my phone.

D.E. They are all very useful, they give confidence to their customers at the same time.

F.S. First of all, it is an important criterion for me to be fast. They also need to be reliable. All the applications I use now meet my requests.



S.G. They are all reliable, convenient, useful and quality applications.

F.G. They are very easy to use and comprehensible. I gladly use all of them.

E.T. I find most of them safe except some. I don't have any hard time using them, I don't strive to make a transaction for minutes. Therefore I find them very useful and comprehensible.

U.S. While some applications are so simple and straightforward, others are so complex. I can't keep any application I find complicated on my phone. Yemek Sepeti is my favourite in terms of use.

K.D. I love using all applications as long as they are fast and safe.

B.T. I think they are all very successful, very fast and practical. Regular updates are also good.

O.Ö. Since all of the applications I use are applications of the brands I trust, I love and use them with peace of mind.

Question- 5: How do you evaluate your favourite brand applications in terms of content?

A.I. Of course, each application has different content; because each of them has a different field of activity. From a contextual point of view, logos are one of the most prominent elements. Some of them are extremely detailed so I have the opportunity to do everything.

S.S. I think they have the content to meet all my needs. Google is a significant brand and advanced in contextual aspect.

U.T. I find some applications weak in terms of content and some unnecessary. If it enables me to do what I want to do, it is contextually sufficient for me.

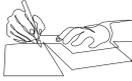
M.D. They are all successful contextually. For example, they provide the opportunity to use in foreign languages, the services they provide are adequate, and there are also content about the campaign and various promotions.

P.İ. The most up-to-date information is always at your hand. It is possible to reach the content in every subject. Therefore, I personally find all of them sufficient and successful.

R.Y. In my opinion, the richer the content of a brand application, the more successful the application is. It's also great to have quick access to every content.

Ü.G. If we talk about the contents of social networks, I can say that everything is thought and designed to socialize. The content of bank applications such as Cepte Teb is sufficient in terms of providing practical solutions.

Y.Y. Of course, I find the content of brand applications which do not give me the opportunity to do everything inadequate. The important thing is to be able to do everything easily before quitting the application. For this reason, brands must have a rich content.



M.G. The contents are explicit, clear and useful. I wouldn't use them if they weren't so.

D.E. There are inadequate applications in terms of content. For example, Cepte Teb does not give you the opportunity to make all kinds of bank transaction, but it still does my job. On the other hand, I love Morhipo very much, because its content is very rich and the problems are solved with regular updates.

F.S. What is clear to me is that if I find an application unsatisfactory in its content, then it becomes useless for me, which is why I remove it. There is no problem as long as I have access to everything in the application.

S.G. Any content in which every detail is considered, which addresses the target, which is not complicated and which will not bore me is adequate for me. The applications I use have the features that I have just mentioned.

F.G. There are some applications that I want them to be richer in contextual terms, but when I think about the ones I use, they are all adequate.

E.T. What I'm most uncomfortable with in applications is the meaningless ads that come up when I do something. Unless they exist, I don't have a contextual problem. Regular updates are made.

U.S. It allows me to reach all kinds of information easily. It contains lots of information. They are all sufficient in terms of content.

K.D. Yemeksepeti is the one I find the richest in terms of content. The fact that it provides me to order from anywhere closest to me is just great. Overall, I find all of them sufficient.

B.T. They have already thought about everything for me. That's why there is no application that I find contextually deficient.

O.Ö. I have come across unnecessary content in social networks especially recently. Therefore, I use them less. Others meet my purpose of use so I find them sufficient.

Question 6- What kind of associations do these applications evoke about the brand? Can you express it with 3 words?

A.I. Sense of satisfaction, reputation, a certain style.

S.S. Power, utilitarian, attractive.

U.T. Trust, popular, leader.

M.D. Value, trust, quality.

P.İ. Charm, self-confidence, power.

R.Y. Success, up-to-date, fun.

Ü.G. Trust, original, stable.

Y.Y. Different, radical, quality.

M.G. Prestige, image, trust.

D.E. Innovative, creative, valuable.

F.S. Assurance, usefulness, respectability.

S.G. Ageless, trust,

F.G. Power, image, sincerity.

E.T. Trust, trust and trust.

U.S. Quality, success, respectable.

K.D. Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, innovation, reputation.

B.T. Innovation, difference, trust.

O.Ö. Success, quality, power.

Question- 7: What do you feel when you use your favourite brand applications? In other words, how these brands make you feel?

A.I. I generally enjoy using the applications I like because they meet my needs.

S.S. There is no doubt in my mind since I use them confidently. I use them all with pleasure.

U.T. I use my favourite applications when I'm bored or depressed. They give me energy. Sometimes they can be my best friend.

M.D. I quite enjoy using them because some applications give me an opportunity to fun.

P.İ. I have never had a situation that made me miserable or caused me to think badly so far. On the contrary, I usually enjoy using the application.

R.Y. Some make life easier, so they are enjoyable, but some can be time-consuming. However, they make me feel good in general.

Ü.G. They are ideal for leisure time. For example, Gittigidiyor application gives me great pleasure. Some evoke very dynamic and inspiring emotions.

Y.Y. They make you feel special and important. It's just that clear.

M.G. They make me feel good if they serve my purpose; however, if they let me do what I want to do or find what I'm looking for, then I get nervous.

D.E. The feeling it gives is directly proportional to the service it offers. It makes me feel special and good.

F.S. I'm in love with most of them since I like using all applications that I find adequate. So, I feel happy and good.

S.G. I enjoy quite a lot while using the application. As long as it doesn't betray my trust, and gives me practical solutions, that means we have a good relationship.

F.G. They all make me feel good. They make me happy.



E.T. I usually enjoy using them. I only get nervous when I have a problem because the app isn't updated. Another thing that bothers me is the ads. I'm very mad at the ads popping up during the transactions.

U.S. Generally it is good for boredom.

K.D. Thanks to these applications, I can play games, I can do shopping, I do my bank transactions easily. That's why I quite enjoy using them.

B.T. I feel good. If my energy is low, some applications motivate me. They give me energy.

O.Ö. I learn new things from some applications, which makes me very happy. Therefore, I have never experienced a bad feeling because of an application. I love it all, I use them confidently.

Question-8: To what extent does a brand application in virtual platform influence your brand loyalty? Can you explain?

A.I. Application is a tool; however if it gives me confidence, it is a reason on its own to attach for me. There is no point in being virtual.

S.S. Even the application is a virtual media, it will increase my loyalty as long as I don't have bad experience because it constantly reminds me of the brand. In other words, the application should not be underrated.

U.T. If I like a brand and trust it, I download the application on my telephone and I continue to use it. In other words, I maintain my brand loyalty, thus it affects a lot.

M.D. An application doesn't influence my brand loyalty that I will feel for the brand. However, if the application is pretty good, it may make me love the brand more.

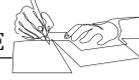
P.İ. Applications reflect the brand image. The application of a brand with a good image affects me positively too. Namely, in brief the applications are absolutely so significant.

R.Y. The application of every brand I think is high quality, fast and useful is enough to attach me.

Ü.G. Each application creates a personal perception. The brands make feel like they designed an application that are thought only for me. Even though this perception is not real, something draws my attention to the brand.

Y.Y. My loyalty that I will feel for any brand is something beyond the benefit that the application provided me with. For instance, having a car of Audi brand will ensure me to be perceived as a rich, high quality, flamboyant person, therefore I focus on the feeling that the brand creates in me. I can download the application to my telephone today and I can delete it tomorrow. I think this is not a criterion.

M.G. It definitely affects my loyalty; because even I am beginning to advertise the application of the brand that I like and the brand I appreciate on my own and I encourage others to download the application of that brand.



D.E. The application is working properly and it offers practical opportunities and if it can be fast, my loyalty continues. However, even it's not me, a bad experience that someone else has can make me give up on that brand very quickly.

F.S. It is enough to make me feel high quality and precious for the continuous loyalty to a brand.

S.G. For me, it is a crucial thing for a brand to be deep-rooted. Because each application of deep-rooted brands gives me confidence, my loyalty will automatically increase.

F.G. The application is a tool of the brands and they constantly ensure the accession to us, I find this very wise; but there are too many brands and applications and so which one will we get connected, I think it is too difficult.

E.T. I don't think that I am loyal to any brand sincerely; I have endless respect to the people who are loyal and stay loyal. A brand also ensures to become accessible with its application, that's all.

U.S. Actually, the applications give me opportunities to get to know that brand more. The more I get to know, I love or I don't. Therefore, my loyalty increases or completely disappears.

K.D. The applications are tools which reflect the energy, power, prestige of the brand. If I can feel these in that application, these feelings also make me feel good too. However, bad, negative experiences have impacts on me, any negative situation that I experience may lead to giving up on that brand by me.

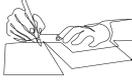
B.T. I love applications of all brands on my telephone and I use all of them nearly every day, thus I think I am extremely loyal to them.

O.Ö. If a brand gives confidence and makes you feel important, care about its customer, each application of that brand will create a positive perception in me and this situation will affect my loyalty.

Conclusion and Evaluation

The change as a gaining of digital era has been proceeding swiftly. The change-over of the economic activities, lack of boundaries of competition, shifting of marketing to the consumer and experience to be offered to consumer obliged the differentiation in marketing and sales strategies in virtual media. Especially the fact that some brands failed to make digital conversion in marketing strategies has shaken their positions. Hence, it has become inevitable for brands to give positive experiences to their consumers with the opportunities offered by change through ensuring required digital adaptation. Consumer experiences consist of starting point of present-day marketing strategies. The consumers can express the experiences offering by brands in all platforms they can and they can become channelled in the development of a positive-negative perception related to the brand.

Thus, the brands began to make a sense for consumer with the experiences they provided. For this reason, the brands in accord with brand image, which are able to provide positive experiences that their consumers will persistently remember, will be able to success to be one step ahead in the competition. The



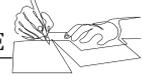
revolution encountered in mobile world coupled with especially digitalisation interests the brands deeply; because the ability to reach target audience in the fastest way at any moment anywhere has become extremely simple. The brands can easily reach to their target audience via the applications which was specifically developed; they can also provide unique virtual experiences through their applications in order to maintain continuity of relations.

The applications which are downloaded to the smartphones are designed in a quality that can deepen consumers' point of view in respect of aforementioned brands and if these can lead to virtual experiences which enrich consumers, the loyalty of relevant consumers to the brand will be also affected positively. In this study; the fact that whether the applications developed by the brands affect the emotion of loyalty regarding brand in consumers or not, if they do, to what extent do they affect were examined. In the study, the interview was thoroughly carried out with 18 people in total and some inferences were tried to be reached in the meaning of sensorial, emotional, cognitive, behavioural and relational experiences when the findings are evaluated.

First of all, the participants were asked to write what brand applications they use without looking at their telephones. It is remarkable that the participants have written social network applications such as Instagram, Facebook and Twitter, bank applications like Cepte Teb, İş Cep, Ziraat Mobil, Garanti Cep, Akbank Cep; applications of the brands like Yemeksepeti, Youtube, Hepsiburada, Gittigidiyor, Turkcell Hesabım. The participants have written at least 4 and at the most 12 brand applications, as this situation has shown significant results with regard to that they were able to remember the applications of brands. The qualities of virtual experiences provided to the users by relevant applications may also specify that they are satisfactory applications having impact within the context of frequency of use.

Another question posed to the participants is; the total number of applications on the mobile phones of the participants. Moreover, the participants were asked to order the best-loved applications from 1 to 5. Although the best-loved applications of the participants who have applications as minimum 5 and as maximum 70 are different, the striking balance factor is that the participants mostly preferred social network and bank applications. While the brand application which takes place near the top in social networks is Instagram, the applications of Cepte Teb, İş Cep and Garanti Cep are the best-loved applications.

Hepsiburada, Gittigidiyor, Sahibinden and Trendyol have also taken their places in the best-loved applications. Later, the participants were asked to evaluate how they find the brand applications they love in terms of visuality and aesthetics. While a significant part of the participants stated that they find the applications of the brand they love successful in terms of visuality – aesthetics, the most notable point is that the participants remember the corporate colours of the brands in the correct way. Some of the participants remembered that the green colour for Cepte Teb, blue colour for İş Cep, orange for Hepsiburada, yellow for Sahibinden are used and they stated that these colours the brands use is not coincidence. Some participants have mentioned that the evaluation of brand ap-



plications in terms of visually-aesthetics has no importance; the thing which is important is about the benefits offered by the applications and ease of use.

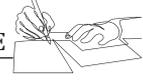
Another question posed to the participants is; how they evaluate the applications of brand in terms of usage. While the better part of the participants have stated that the applications ensure safe usage; they have also expressed that available applications are easy, handy and practical. A great majority of the participants have stated that they find brand applications sufficient as contextual. On the other hand, the participants were asked to express with three words how the brands create associations in themselves. The participants have explained the associations regarding the brands with the expressions such as confidence, power, dignity, innovation, quality, creativity, quality etc. Participants were asked what they felt during using brand applications. The participants have stated that they use the applications they love and trust with pleasure, while some has fun and some applications are inspirational and some makes them feel special and important. Some participants have mentioned that a negative experience that the participant or someone else had / will have will cause them to move away from the brand.

Lastly, the participants were asked to what extent a brand application in virtual media affects their brand loyalty and the most notable answers were received in this point. Some participants have stated that the applications are tools for the brands. Some participants have stated that they download the applications of the brands they love and trust and therefore they maintain continuity of brand loyalty. While some participants have stated that it is enough for the application to be high quality, useful and fast for the loyalty that they will feel for the brand; some participants have emphasized that loyalty improves since the applications create a private perception. While some participants have indicated that for loyalty it is a powerful factor for brand to be deep-rooted, some has indicated that they are affected by positive energy provided with the applications of brands and this attracts them to the brand more.

In summary, the participants take brand applications into consideration; and they pay special attention to that how brands express themselves and what experiences they offer through their application. In this circumstance, the creation and maintenance of loyalty in target audience depend upon various experiences. It is inevitable in terms of brand loyalty that the brand applications appeal to eye and ear, provide positive experiences, arouse curiosity and make people think, provide experiences related to sense of belonging to be stiffened. The unique experiences which are more functional, analyses expectations in a good way, solution oriented, beneficial and practical, private can directly affect the loyalty emotion related to the brand in target audience. Besides the fact that the digital media of the applications is designed for private structure, the applications have importance for users to be designed and used for a purpose that can be integrated into daily life and provided benefit. Furthermore, the update of the participants is also crucial with regard to perform its function effectively. The significance of update has also importance from the point of maintenance of user satisfaction and satisfaction to be created by application.

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THE EMERGENCE OF A NEW DISCIPLINE: A BRIEF HISTORY OF PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

Ayşe ALTIPARMAK¹

What is Psycholinguistics?

Psycholinguistics, as the name suggests, is a scientific discipline that stands at the intersection of psychology and linguistics. However, psycholinguistics is more than that when its areas of investigation are taken into consideration. Psycholinguistics mainly covers psychology and linguistics but is also related to many other sciences, such as developmental psychology, cognitive psychology, computer modelling, language teaching, neuroscience, and language pathology. Regarding this, Aitchison (2007: 2) points out that psycholinguistics is a monster with an endless number of heads and that there is no limit to the different dimensions of a subject to be investigated in psycholinguistics. Field (2004: ix, xi) states that psycholinguistics goes to the heart of what we do with language and provides insights into how we assemble our own speech and writing and how we understand those of others; into how we store and use vocabulary; into how we manage to acquire a language in the first place and into how language can fail us, and emphasises that a broad view of the discipline might embrace all of the following:

- a. Language processing: including the language skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening and the part played by memory in language.
- b. Lexical storage and retrieval: how we store words in our minds and how we find them when we need them.
- c. Language acquisition: how an infant acquires its first language.
- d. Special circumstances: the effects upon language of (e.g.) deafness, blindness or being a twin; conditions such as dyslexia or aphasia (the loss of language after brain damage).
- e. The brain and language: where language is located in the brain, how it evolved and whether it is a faculty that is unique to human beings.
- f. Second language acquisition and use.

Psycholinguistics, therefore, as Scovel (1998: 4) has emphasised is the use of language and speech as a window to the nature and structure of the human mind. Psycholinguistics establishes the link between language and mind. Altman (2006: 1) defines psycholinguistics as an endeavour to uncover the mental processes that are implicated in the acquisition, production, and comprehension of language. According to Altman, just as psychology is the study of the control of behaviour, so psycholinguistics is the study of the control of linguistic behaviour.

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Similarly, Warren (2013: 4) describes psycholinguistics as the study of the mental representations and processes involved in language use, including the production, comprehension, and storage of spoken and written language.

In another definition, Cowles (2011: 2-3) primarily describes linguistics as the scientific study of language and psychology as the scientific study of human behaviour and cognition, and states that the union of these two fields is principally concerned with the processing and knowledge representations that underlie the ability to use language and how they relate to other aspects of human cognition. In short, she suggests that psycholinguistics asks the question: How is it that people are able, moment-by-moment, to produce and understand language? And, by extension, how do children come to this ability? How and why is it sometimes impaired after brain damage? Cowles also expresses that the term 'psycholinguistics' is a misleading term for the inclusion of the contributions of about half a dozen other fields of scientific research at a very low level. According to her, to truly get to the bottom of how language works, we need expertise not only from linguistics and psychology but also from other scientific fields such as neuroscience and computer science.

At this point, the question of what areas of study a psycholinguist deals with comes into mind. Cutler et al. (2005: 1-2) define what it means to be a psycholinguist :

'One must have interest in how language structure relates to language use. This does not exclude a primary bias to one or other of the two underlying sets of research issues. Thus a psycholinguist can be primarily a psychologist, ultimately concerned to understand and explain the mental structures and processes involved in the use of language. But to be properly a psycholinguist, such a psychologist needs also to be concerned about why language has certain universal characteristics, how it can vary in language-specific ways and how these aspects of structure impinge upon the way language is processed. Likewise, a psycholinguist can be primarily a linguist, whose ultimate concern is with the patterning of language itself; but such a linguist needs also to be interested in patterns evident in language performance and the reasons for those patterns, and needs to be open to evidence from laboratory studies involving highly controlled processing tasks. Still, other sets of research issues may be primary- anthropological. But in any case, a psycholinguist is concerned with the relationship between language and its use.'

This is also emphasised by Aitchison (2007: 1-2) as follows:

'Both psychologists and linguists can be classified as social scientists, so in one way their approach has long been similar. All social scientists work by forming and testing hypotheses. Psychologists and linguists sometimes differ. Psychologists test their hypotheses mainly by means of carefully controlled experiments. Linguists, on the other hand, test their hypotheses mainly by checking them against spontaneous utterances.'

Ekmekçi (1995) refers to the methodological difference between linguists and psycholinguists and indicates that linguists establish theories about linguistic structure, but do not discuss how and in what way these structures are used



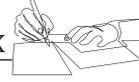
and how they are understood and remembered. However, the main purpose of psycholinguists is to obtain explanatory information about language behaviours and language acquisition from these linguistic descriptions. Therefore, psycholinguists try to test or observe the accuracy of the linguists' hypotheses in a controlled social environment.

History of Psycholinguistics

Psycholinguistics could be considered as a fairly young science, but it is possible to say that psycholinguistics, which is based on the foundation on which language and psychology research is based, is at least as old as psychology and language studies. Traxler and Gernsbacher (2006) base their written history of psycholinguistics up to the Idea Theory, in which Plato suggested that the basis of real knowledge could only be found in the world of ideals. Cowles (2011: 5) notes that the language and mind-related interest dates back to thousands of years ago, with a documented history of language study going back 2,500 years and spread across many cultures (including India, China, Mesopotamia, and Greece) and documented interest in the mind and knowledge (the foundations of psychology) also dates back to at least as early as language study.

Levelt (2013: 19-20) suggests that psycholinguistics has four different roots. According to this; the first linguistic root, which was triggered by the discovery of the Indo-European language family in the late 18th century, was based on the studies of the scientists questioning the origins of language, such as Johann Gottfried Herder, Dietrich Tiedemann, James Burnett, Lord Monboddo, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, and Wolfgang von Kempelen, who invented the first-ever speaking machine. Levelt states that the emergence of this root is closely related to the transition from the Enlightenment Period to Romanticism and the emergence of historical-comparative linguistics in this period. The second root, also based on the end of the 18th century, was the empirical study of language in the brain which became an advanced science in the second half of the nineteenth-century, especially after the discoveries of Paul Broca and Carl Wernicke. According to Levelt, the third root of psycholinguistics was based on the empirical studies of language acquisition of children. This research area had been of interest from time to time since Rousseau first published his work 'Émilie' in 1762, but became the subject of systematic empirical study after Taine and Darwin published their biographical developmental notes in 1877. The fourth and youngest root consisted of the budding experimental and speech error approaches to the language production and perception of normal adults. In this context, it is mentioned that Franciscus Donders's experimental discovery and manipulation of 'mental processing speed' in 1865 provided the foundation for a new research paradigm in experimental psycholinguistics, 'mental chronometry', the measurement of reaction times, and it was widely applied in the world's first psychological laboratory in Leipzig, which Wilhelm Wundt established in 1879. Another point mentioned by Levelt was Rudolf Meringer's pioneering the modern analysis of spontaneously produced speech errors by the late 1890s.

In accordance with this, Freud's work, in which he paid tribute to Rudolf Meringer's study 'The Psychopathology of Everyday Life' (1901) could be con-



sidered as an important pioneering work for contemporary psycholinguistics. In 'The Psychopathology of Everyday Life' Freud (1975) introduced the idea that has come to be known as the Freudian slip, one type of which is the slip of the tongue. Freud had particular ideas about the genesis of speech errors and little concern for the form they took. However, those he reported largely conform to modern notions of what speech errors should sound like (Ellis, 1980: qtd. in Traxler and Gernsbacher, 2006: 4).

However, as mentioned by Levelt (2013: 19), during the most of the nineteenth century 'psychology of language' was not a coherent, shared notion, and the term did not appear at all till the late 1890s. Levelt emphasised that Heymann Steinthal, who had set out to formulate such a discipline as an auxiliary science for linguistics, usually spoke of 'philosophy of language' and even when this was taken into account, the origins of many branches of psycholinguistics as an empirical science were based on the latter half of the nineteenth century.

As reported by Blumenthal (1987: 314), the specialised study of language in the 19th century was already generations old, and the younger linguistic scholars of the day sought to revitalise language studies by importing a newer scientific style of empiricism and quantification into the discipline. The new psychologists such as Wilhelm Wundt were eager to oblige and even to claim that language could be explained only on groundwork of psychological principles, and soon-to-be influential language scholars in attendance at Wundt's lectures included Bloomfield, Mead, Saussure, and Boas. Wilhelm Wundt's book on language 'Die Sprache' with 1,367 pages by its 1913 edition, covered a number of topics that are still very much relevant in current psycholinguistics, including child language acquisition, sign language, language perception, and grammatical structure. He viewed the sentence as a key unit of language and sought to show how universal characteristics of human information processing, like attention and memory, would influence its production and comprehension (Cowles, 2011: 14). Therefore, it is possible to state that throughout the history the interest in language and psychology has proceeded simultaneously.

According to Cowles (2011: 15), although Wundt's work was a preliminary study of contemporary views and topics on psycholinguistics, his influence gradually diminished after World War I, and Bloomfield, once a proponent of Wundt's approach, had turned to behaviourism instead by 1933 when he published his book called Language.

As stated by Altman (2001) and Levelt (2013), the term 'psycholinguistic' was introduced in 1936 in J. R. Kantor's 'Objective Psychology of Grammar' to refute the idea that language reflected any form of internal cognition or mind. After that, the term was not used much till the publication of Kantor's student Nicholas Pronko's article Language and Psycholinguistics: A review covering a broad and diverse set of experimental, statistical, and phonetic approaches to language phenomena in 1946 to draw attention to 'the essential psychological features of linguistic happenings'. The term soon became widely accepted. Levelt (2013) emphasised the importance of the use of the term 'psycholinguistics' for the first time to denote an interdisciplinary field of study that could be theo-



retically coherent although Kantor's work adopted a behavioural framework. It is possible to state that the theory of behaviourism, which ignores the effects of mental processes in explaining human behaviours, became influential in the field of linguistics with the publication of Skinner's 'Verbal Behaviour' in 1957 and it was regarded as one of the most important steps in explaining the language processing processes with behaviourist theory.

As the understanding of the repetition of linguistic behaviours reinforced was insufficient to account for all the observed linguistic behaviours, the influence of the mental processes on language processing came to the fore again, and the foundation of psycholinguistics in the modern sense was laid in the 1950s. John B. Carroll, a psychologist who attempted to establish the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis using psychological techniques, and John W. Gardner, another psychologist who played a leading role in setting up the seminars, hoped that the reunion would have profound implications for problems in education had an active role in the initiation and organization of the seminars that brought together psychology and linguistics (Traxler and Gernsbacher, 2006: 4).

In a seminar held in the summer of 1951 under the auspices of the Social Science Research Council in Cornell the United States, the understanding of psycholinguistics, which cuts the fields of psychology and linguistics, has come to the fore to explain the linguistic processes, and this understanding continued in another seminar within the same scope held at Indiana University in 1953. The proceedings of the latter seminar named 'Psycholinguistics: A Survey of the Theory and Research Problems' were published in 1954 in two journals that, separately, served the linguistics and psychology by a group of scientists working on the relations between linguistics and psychology, and following its publication, the term 'psycholinguistics' became a firmly accepted term in the scientific world (Altmann, 2001, Harley, 2013, Levelt, 2013). The proceedings were so influential in the emergence of the field of psycholinguistics that Diebold (1965) called them the 'charter' of emerging discipline (qtd. in Levelt, 2013: 10).

Harley (2013: 9) emphasised that Francis Galton's research on word associations (1879) and Meringer and Mayer's study of the slips of the tongue (1895) were also remarkable psycholinguistic studies analysing the psychology of language following modern psycholinguistic methods although the term psycholinguistics was not used directly in them. Fernández and Cairns (2011: 20) stated that when the term psycholinguistics became common in the 1950s, the main purpose of linguists was to classify the observable aspects of language, and their method of analysis was to listen to the speakers of the language, figure out what the phonological units were and then classify them further into higher-level categories. This method fit in well with the views of language held by psychologists, which were that speech was simply a type of motor behaviour exhibited by people, and acquisition in the child was thought to be the process by which correctly associated speech behaviours were built up by rewarding the desired ones and failing to reward the undesired sequences. Behaviourists believed that this system of learning, known as conditioning, was common to all organisms and that all organisms learned everything the same way.



There were controversial studies with the behaviourist view adopted at that time. Fernández and Cairns (2011) count the linguist Edward Sapir's 'The Psychological Reality of Phonemes' (1949) and the psychologist Karl Lashley's 'The Problem of Serial Order in Behaviour' (1951) in this context. Levelt (2013) stated that the year 1951 could be regarded as a hinge in the history of psycholinguistics since three landmark events—(1) the Interdisciplinary Summer Seminar in Psychology and Linguistics, which was held at Cornell University, (2) the publication of George Miller's *Language and Communication* which reviewed the state of the art in the psychology of language and communication and (3) Karl Lashley's paper 'The problem of serial order in behaviour' which was regarded by Levelt as the first frontal attack on the traditional behaviourist associative-chain theories of serial behaviour—took place in that year. In addition to these three important events, Levelt defined Howes and Solomon's discovery of the word frequency effect (words that were frequent in language use were more easily recognised in a tachistoscope than less frequent ones) and Noam Chomsky's teacher Zellig Harris's 'Methods in Structural Linguistics' which was relevant for psycholinguistics in terms of Harris's claim that his procedures would ultimately allow for a generative grammar to psycholinguistics as the other important events that indicated the year 1951 was a fruitful year for the field of psycholinguistics.

The emergence of the 1950s as a productive period for psycholinguistics was strongly related to the influences of the Second World War. As noted by Levelt (2013), American and British defence research in electronic communication systems greatly advancing both the mathematics and the human psychophysics of signal transmission, a new interdisciplinary community crystallising around the study of human communication related to this defense research, the worldwide need to take care of brain-injured war veterans and the resulting international community in aphasiology established over the 1950s all triggered the development of the psycholinguistics.

By the end of the 1950s, there was the 'cognitive revolution' and the cooperation between George Miller and Noam Chomsky transformed the young science into a mentalistic 'generative' psycholinguistics, initially testing the 'psychological reality' of transformational grammar, then by and by unfolding into our present science (Levelt, 2013: vi). It is possible to say that in the contemporary sense, psycholinguistics has consolidated its place in the scientific world with the work of American linguist Noam Chomsky called 'Syntactic Structures' (1957). Chomsky's theory of the generative grammar and the view of linguistics in this study has had a great impact not only in the field of linguistics but also in the field of psychology and has played a very important role in strengthening the position of psycholinguistics as a scientific discipline. One of Chomsky's critiques of a very important proponent of behaviourism theory, Skinner's verbal behaviourism in his book 'Verbal Behaviour' (1959) has been considered as one of the most influential studies in the history of psycholinguistics. Chomsky (1959) objected to the claim of behaviourists that children acquired a good deal of their verbal and nonverbal behaviour by casual observation and imitation of adults and other children and emphasised the role of an innate capacity to handle information in certain specific ways. Altmann (2006: 3) noted that although Chomsky's beliefs

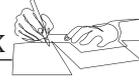


did not amount to a theory of psychological process, but to an account of the linguistic structure, they were very important in terms of the history of psycholinguistics since he reintroduced the mind and specifically mental representation, into theories of language.

Fernández and Cairns (2011: 21-22) emphasised that reflections of Chomsky's contradictory ideas with behaviourism in terms of the language phenomena on the psychological aspects of language and language acquisition attracted the attention of some psychologists including George Miller (1965) immediately, and these psychologists pioneered the attention of the psychological community to Chomsky's ideas. In 1961, the linguist Sol Saporta published a volume, titled '*Psycholinguistics: A Book of Readings*'; sponsored by the Social Science Research Council's Committee on Psychology and Linguistics, and the volume included papers by Chomsky and Miller as well as by more traditional linguists and psychologists. This publication ignited an intellectual battle that raged for more than a decade in the scientific world, and consequently, an entirely different understanding of language became accepted, as it was in the behaviourist movement before, one different from the view that had united linguistics and psychology in the middle of the century. According to Fernández and Cairns, although various oppositional views still exist at the onset of the twenty-first century, it is clear that both fields predominantly accept the Chomskyan view of language as an abstract system represented in the mind or brain that is unique to the human species, develops in the maturing infant and underlies but is only indirectly related to physical speech.

Altmann (2006: 4-5) mentioned that the 1970s saw enormous growth in psycholinguistics. Advances were made across a wide range of phenomena, including the identification of both printed and spoken words, the reading process, sentence comprehension (with much of the emphasis on the resolution of ambiguities of the 'garden path' kind) and the mental representation of texts, and emphasised there was a 'spurt' in the number of publications by suggesting that it would be wrong to attribute all this advancement to the influence of Chomsky in psycholinguistics in the 1950s, and the advent in the 1950s of the digital computer, and the 'mind-as-compute' metaphor had a subtle but pervasive influence on both psycholinguistics and the study of cognition generally.

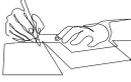
Altmann (2006:5) also stated that some influences of the digital computing revolution were direct, with researchers building computer simulations of mental behaviour in relation to the Artificial Intelligence domain, and others were indirect, coming to psycholinguistics via philosophy. One such example was Jerry Fodor's Modularity of Mind hypothesis from 1983. Altmann interpreted this hypothesis by following the assumption that there were two alternative ways of theorizing about the mind: One was to assume it was incredibly complex and that multiple sources of information interacted in multiple ways, and the other was to assume that it could be broken down into a number of modules, each of which performed some particular function and was 'blind' to the workings of the other modules. It was stated by Altmann that this hypothesis had considerable influence in psycholinguistics, and for a time (the mid-1980s to early 1990s), hypotheses were evaluated according to whether they were modular or



not. In 1986, David Rumelhart and Jay McClelland published 'Parallel Distributed Processing' which described a range of connectionist, or neural network, models of learning and cognition, and marked a 'coming of age' for connectionism. It was, for many researchers in psycholinguistics, their first introduction to a wide range of research in this emerging field. Of particular interest were the facts that 'knowledge' in connectionist networks was encoded as patterns of connectivity distributed across the neural-like units, and 'processing' was manifest as spreading patterns of activation. Although the emergence of connectionism has offered a powerful theoretical tool, its emergence has also polarised sections of the psycholinguistic community between 'connectionists' on the one hand and 'symbolists' on the other. This polarisation is not unique to psycholinguistics, however, but pervades the study of cognition more broadly. The 1990s saw a boom in research into the neural substrate of language, in part due to the increased availability of neuroimaging technologies (predominantly PET and fMRI, with EEG and more recently MEG also proving influential). It also saw increased research into the relationship between language and action. About the same time that increased attention was focussing on neuroimaging, new techniques for studying language and its effects on action were also being developed. The monitoring of eye movements as participants listened to commands to manipulate objects in front of them, or as they listened to descriptions of events that might unfold within the scene before them (one can view language-mediated eye movements as central to the relationship between language and action because eye movements signal overt shifts in attention, and because attention to something necessarily precedes (deliberate) action upon it) could be considered as one of these techniques that psycholinguists commonly use today. The full influences of connectionism, statistical learning, embodied cognition and the neuroscience of language will continue to be seen in psycholinguistics, and there is no doubt there are already developments in 'neighbouring' fields of study (e.g. the computational sciences and non-cognitive neurosciences) that will also have an impact but have yet to emerge as quantifiable influences on psycholinguistics (Altmann, 2006: 6-7).

As emphasised by Cowles (2011: 17), starting in the late 1980s and early 1990s, there was a renewed interest in psycholinguistics as a joint venture between linguists and psychologists, and these days many researchers were trained in both disciplines as well as the other disciplines mentioned above. Today, this interest continues to increase.

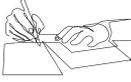
According to Traxler and Gernsbacher (2006: 8), for future studies, there are two issues that are important, unresolved and relate directly to the primary goal of psycholinguistics in elucidating psychological mechanisms of language use. The first issue concerns the range of language use addressed by the subject. The modern era of psycholinguistics has concentrated almost exclusively on one kind of language use: namely, that associated with monologue settings. Yet, the most natural and basic form of language use is dialogue: Every language user, including young children and illiterate adults, can hold a conversation, yet reading, writing, preparing speeches and even listening to speeches are far from universal skills. Therefore, the researchers feel that a central goal of psycholinguistics of the fu-



ture should be to provide an account of the basic processing mechanisms that are employed during natural dialogue. The second issue they consider also concerns scope, but in this case in relation to the more conventional topic of reading comprehension and the extent to which standard psycholinguistic approaches do justice to the complexity of texts that people read in everyday life. They suggest that in both cases the issue is about taking seriously how language processing in the psycholinguistic sense relates to the wide range of uses to which language may be put.

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CHAPTER
9

CONTROL SELF-ASSESSMENT WITH SPECIFIC FOCUS ON INTERNAL CONTROL AND INTERNAL

Seyhan ÖZTÜRK¹

INTRODUCTION

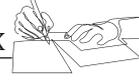
In today's conditions, in order for the businesses to maintain their existence and to ensure competitive advantage, it is vital to establish internal control and internal audit units for preventing possible faults, determining probable risks, and taking necessary precautions. Many researchers and institution managers have begun to attach great importance to internal control and internal audit activities, which have become increasingly important for the public sector as well. In this point, control self-assessment approach, which is a part of the internal control structure and introduced as a new concept, has gained importance in parallel with the increasing importance of the issue.

Basically, control self-assessment is defined as a methodology, in which a group comprised of the managers or the employees of the institution evaluates the sufficiency of the risk management and control processes of the institution. Essentially, it can also be expressed as self-evaluation of the businesses. Businesses, which do not want to content themselves with the evaluation of their control processes by the internal and external audits, make their risk management and control processes subject to self-assessment via work-groups comprising of the relevant personnel. Owing to the activities of internal audit, internal control, and particularly control self-assessment, the businesses take necessary steps for maintaining their existence in a healthy manner by detecting their (if any) deficiencies and faults.

As the conclusion, it is observed that there are successive relations among the concepts of internal control, internal audit, and control self-assessment. It is because the existence of an effective internal control enables reaching to the institutional goals, provides sustainability, creates value, and develops the institution; besides, it means to help internal audit perform its functions better. On the other hand, the control self-assessment, which is expressed as a process that examines and evaluates the effectiveness of the internal control, provides convenience for the internal control to focus on its supportive function for the internal audit.

In this context, the objective of this descriptive study is to define the three vital concepts in detail, and to evaluate their interactions and relations among themselves. Besides this main objective, with this study, which is comprised of a vast literature review of Turkish and foreign sources, it is aimed, even at the least, to contribute to the literature.

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1. INTERNAL CONTROL

In the globalizing world, based on growing businesses and increasing number of their activities, administrative supervision is provided through creating an effective inner control structure within the business and by performing the supervision activities through this structure (Haftacı, 2016: 67).

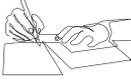
Control concept, in a general sense, is defined as measuring the business success and determining to what extent this success reached to the predetermined objectives (Keskin, 2006: 12). Businesses conduct the control function through the internal control system established within the business structure. In this point, internal control includes all of the measures approved and applied in order to protect the assets of the business, to examine the accuracy and reliability of the accounting data, to increase the productivity of the activities, and to encourage commitment to the predetermined management policies (Türedi, 2012: 28).

Internal controls are the elements designed by the executives, managers, and personnel in order to provide a reasonable assurance within the scope of the business processes. These controls are crucial because of their functions such as efficient and productive conduct of activities, reliable production of financial reports, and compliance to the legal regulations (Uzun, 2009: 61). Actually the importance of internal control is generated from its objectives, which can be listed as such: protecting the assets of the institution, provision of the accuracy and reliability of the accounting data, increasing the efficiency and productivity of the business activities, providing the compliance to the business policies and legal regulations, and ensuring to reach the predetermined goals and objectives (Kızılboğa & Özşahin, 2013: 222).

Internal control, which is an indispensable part of business management, is a system comprised of the actions and activities based upon the continuity of the business activities (Kızılboğa & Özşahin, 2013: 221).

Control is basically one of the primary functions of the business, which performs its functions through the internal control system established within the business. Internal control system supports the management in reaching well-timed, exact, and correct data, minimizing the cases of fault and deceit, conducting the works in a setting of maximum trust, and operating without interruption (Atmaca, 2012: 196). It also emerges as a process, which is established to provide the necessary trust in execution of these functions, influenced by the entire personnel (Erdoğan, 2001: 51).

It is the solid internal control system that underlies the trust for the business. The objectives of the internal control system are comprised of reliability of the financial reporting, efficiency of the business activities, and compliance to the laws and regulations. In cases, where the possibility decreases for the business management to directly control the business activities, this negativity can only be removed by establishing and managing an effective internal control system. A well functioning internal control system makes crucial contributions to both internal and external audit activities (Kurnaz & Çetinoğlu, 2010: 36).



The characteristics of internal control, which define its meaning, can be listed as follows (Kurt & Uçma, 2013: 83):

- Internal control is a process.
- Internal control is influenced from the employees.
- Internal control is not an absolute assurance, it only provides a reasonable assurance.
- Internal control can be harmonized to the business structure.

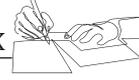
A well-functioning internal control system prevents the management from taking wrong decisions and from resource waste by restraining possible cases such as important faults, deceits, and corruptions in the business. Additionally, it helps the external investors and interest groups to take healthier decisions by providing a reasonable assurance to the financial statements (Kızılboğa & Özşahin, 2013: 223).

In order to reach the policies and objectives prescribed by the strategies determined by the management, internal control system starts functioning with the planning of the management processes and division of responsibility. The assurance of the effectiveness during the implementation of the planned management processes and responsibilities is provided by the internal controls. The revision and evaluation of sufficiency of these internal controls are performed through internal audits (Uzun, 2009: 60-61). Therefore, existence of an effective internal control system performs also a decreasing function in the audit costs by restricting the extent of the audit that the auditors will conduct (Kızılboğa & Özşahin, 2013: 223).

In a broad sense, the internal control system comprises of the internal audit systems; in a strict sense, it is comprised of control activities apart from audit activities and other elements (Aksoy, 2008: 87).

Internal audit rather aims at developing and enhancing the internal control system by evaluating its sufficiency and efficiency. Therefore, the meanings of sufficiency and efficiency concepts for the auditor are quite important. "Sufficiency" of the internal control system is the qualitative and quantitative entity of the measurement mechanisms of the internal control systems developed against the risks. By the "efficiency" of the internal control system, the evaluation of the compliance of the activities of the institution to the policy, plan, program, and legal regulations is implied (Özeren, 2000: 20). In this regard, the internal control system provides the accuracy and reliability of the information, while the internal audit system tests the accuracy and reliability of the information and informs the management. Compliance to the regulations, plan, and program is ensured by the internal control; while the control of the compliance is performed within the scope of the internal audit function. While efficiency and productivity is ensured through the internal control system, it is the responsibility of internal audit to add value to the institution by encouraging efficiency and productivity (Önder, 2008: 29).

If the internal control structure of the business is in a good level, the domain of the audit activities become narrower, their durations diminish, and audit risk and audit cost significantly decrease. On the contrary, if the internal control sys-



tem is not in a good level, the domain of the audit activities expands, the durations increase, and audit risk, in other words, the possibility of a wrong judgment of the auditor in the audit report increases; thus, the cost of the audit increases as well (Haftacı, 2016: 76).

Internal audit and internal control are different from each other concerning their objectives, scopes, features and roles. What they have in common is that they are complementary for each other, related with the internal structures of the businesses. Internal audit is within the internal control; however, it plays a role that evaluates the internal control, in other words, like a mirror for it. For example, internal control ensures the institution to function according to the predetermined objectives; while the internal audit supports reaching those objectives and determines to what extent the objectives are reached (Önder, 2008: 28). Therefore, it can be mentioned that internal audit, is a vital but different part of the internal control (Haftacı, 2016: 81).

No matter how deliberately planned, none of the internal control mechanisms can definitely provide assurance for revealing and preventing faults and negativities. Therefore, it is obvious that the management should regularly observe and check the efficiency of the internal control structure of the business. Thus, a good internal auditor has to recognize and evaluate the control mechanisms in the business. One of the basic functions of the internal audit is to contribute to the healthy functioning of the internal control mechanisms. Despite his/her task and authority, an internal auditor is not responsible for the bad financial management and the management of the internal control settings. As the conclusion, the success of the internal audit is under the responsibility of the internal auditors, and the success of the internal control is under the responsibility of the managers (Kurnaz & Çetinoğlu, 2010: 39-40).

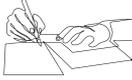
2. INTERNAL AUDIT

Audit, in general sense, is defined as a systematic process, which examines the compliance of certain economical activities to the predetermined criteria and neutrally collects/evaluates evidence in order to report the results to the relevant segments (Başpınar, 2005: 35).

Socially, the concept or the activity of audit is defined as an evaluation conducted to comprehend whether all kinds of activities of people comply with the predetermined social and individual rules (Kurnaz & Çetinoğlu, 2010: 11).

In this context basic characteristics of audit can be listed as follows (Yalancı, 2006: 4-5):

- **It is a systematic process:** The audit is comprised of logical and planned procedures.
- **Neutrally collecting and evaluating the evidence:** Being unbiased and impartial while assessing the conformity of the activities to the predetermined criteria.
- **Data about economic activities and related events:** The data presented by businesses or individuals, which are the main issue of the audit.



- **Predetermined criteria:** Standards, rules, and generally accepted accounting rules to be used in the assessment of the data.
- **Reporting the results:** The compliance degree between the declared information and the developed criteria is stated with a report. Announcement of the results may have an increasing or decreasing influence on the reliability of the declared information.

Being one of the five basic functions of the management, audit plays an important role for successfully maintaining the business life. Audit function follows the functions such as planning, organization, guiding, and coordination; however it healthily functions over the integration of these four functions. It both provides a feedback for the management activity and functions as an important management tool contributing to the business structure to have a more dynamic condition. In this respect, audit becomes conspicuous as a management activity under the responsibility of management (Aslan, 2010: 64).

Audit and control concepts are mostly used as if they have the same meaning; however, the control process is performed during the activities being run in the businesses and it focuses on the transactions at that current time period. As per audit, it comprises the transactions of the past. Audit is generally conducted independent from the business process and by experts; while control is conducted within the system and by the personnel, who are included in the process. Therefore, if there is not an effective control in a business, it is not possible to mention an effective audit within this business (Yurtsever, 2008: 16).

In all areas, where people are active, there is a need for an additional examination by an independent person to determine the accuracy and reliability of the information and claims declared (Kurnaz & Çetinoğlu, 2010: 11). Thus, audit, in a sense, means examination of the complete business by a third party. Within the scope of audit process, internal control systems and accounting systems of the business are examined in detail, and deficiencies and faults, if any, are determined. Since the results of the audit process are reported to the business, the business has the chance to observe the deficiencies and faults and correct these, providing a continuous improvement in the system. In this respect, audit has an external detection function over the personnel and, in a sense, an educative function (Başpınar, 2005: 37).

Having various classifications, audit activity is separated into three groups based on the status of the performers. These are: *independent audit*, *internal audit*, and *public audit*. It is possible to explain these as follows (Yurtsever, 2008: 11):

- **Independent Audit:** This is the auditing activity, which is provided either through professional auditing services or via individual experts working alone.
- **Public Audit:** This is the auditing service provided by the auditors working under public organizations. This kind of auditing units, which are established and organized within various governmental institutions, provide monitoring and auditing functions for governmental or private businesses concerning their compliance to laws, regulations, economic



policies of the state and public interest.

- **Internal Audit:** This is the auditing activity, which generally supports the managers of an organizations in performing their responsibilities effectively and productively, that is conducted by individuals, who assume the tasks of a staff cadre.

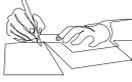
Internal auditing is an assessment function, which is established within the business, in order to provide service to a business, examine and assess its activities. It is defined as a control activity examining the effectiveness and sufficiency of other internal controls (Sevim & Eliuz, 2007: 62). Although it is established within the business, internal audit provides an independent and impartial assurance to the parties. The basic role of an effective internal audit is to provide assurance to the management concerning the management of important risks and concerning effective functioning of internal control (Bozkurt, 2014: 24).

Internal audit stands for an action of trust and consultation developed to add value and improve the commercial activities of the businesses. In order to evaluate and improve the effectiveness of processes related with risk management, control, and management, it contributes to the realization of the business objectives by means of a systematic and disciplined approach. The focal point of the recent definitions of internal audit moves towards an added-value rather than an assurance, and it attempts to get close to a standardized approach with a high professional identity (Nagy & Cenker, 2002: 130). From this definition, the final status of the businesses and technology due to the big change they experience is understood. It is no more expected from internal auditing to stay behind and make detections after something happen, it is expected rather to take a step further and make estimations, and reveal not only the risks but also the opportunities. Internal auditing is discussed to be an activity of value adding and improving rather than examination and assessment (Yılançı, 2006:7).

Internal audit is an auditing activity, which is conducted by the staff cadre of the business and whose results are reported within the business. In this audit, financial or non-financial, all of the activities are examined together, assessed and the results are reported to the business administration (Kurnaz & Çetinoğlu, 2010: 18).

In the internal audit, the main objective is to help the executives and board members to fulfill their responsibilities in the most effective way. In line with this objective, internal audit becomes responsible for providing information to the administration concerning the sufficiency and efficiency of the internal control structure and the quality of its success level (Sevim & Eliuz, 2007: 62-63).

One of the main functions of the internal audit is to contribute to the healthy functioning of the business internal control structure. Therefore, internal audit's responsibility for the internal control is of particular importance. Internal auditors have a vital role in effective functioning of internal control and in making regular assessments about its effectiveness. Since the structure of an internal control in a business is stated to be the most important and basic concept for the internal audit mechanism to comprehend, internal auditors should recognize



and assess the internal control mechanisms in a good level (Yılanıcı, 2006: 14).

3. CONTROL SELF-ASSESSMENT (CSA)

Monitoring, or in other words, observation activity, which is among the components of the internal control system, is conducted in two ways: *continuous monitoring* or *independent assessments*. Independent assessments are also divided into two parts as *internal auditing activities* and *control self-assessment (CSA)*. Therefore, one of the methods for evaluating the sufficiency of internal control system is CSA.

Developed in 1987 in Canada, this method was widely used in particularly private sector. Businesses, which do not limit themselves with auditing their internal control structure by means of internal and external auditing services, make self assessments over the risk management and control processes of the organization via work-groups comprised of personnel from the lowest to the highest level in the business. This method, which aims at providing a reasonable assurance for the realization of business objectives, is designed for evaluating the risks and existing controls for a certain issue, and according to the results, to develop appropriate courses of action for the organization to reach the objectives. In this context, it is an internal control and risk assessment method, which can be implemented both within the context of internal audit activities and independent from the internal audit activities (Erkek, 2014: 109).

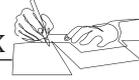
CSA method is defined as an assessment method, which is designed by the department managers and the entire personnel active in the same departments, in order to reach the business objectives and manage the risks on the way for these objectives. This process is generally conducted under the supervision of either internal auditors or quality management specialists (Özbilgin, 2008: 103).

CSA approach, which is conducted within a designed and documented standard framework and which continuously encourages for development, is accepted as a process that is applicable and assessable through the effectiveness of the internal control system (Kurnaz and Çetinoğlu, 2010: 113).

CSA is emerged as an independent assessment activity providing the productivity of continuous observations. In the simplest sense, CSA can be explained as a self-evaluation of the business either on a unit-basis or as a whole. Here, the aim is to create a trust concerning the realization of the entire business objectives (Keskin, 2006: 24-25).

CSA method is the inspection of the internal auditing in order to discuss the risks encountered in the realization of the business objectives and predictions concerning these risks. Additionally, CSA is also implemented in order to detect the risks and controls within the system, activity, and unit that are inspected by the internal auditors. In this process the internal auditors function as an educator, but they do not involve in the process (Önce & İsgüden, 2012: 47).

CSA is not only more than a strategy, it represents a unique structure. In fact, it encourages the process owner to take responsibility for reaching the objectives by simply complying to the departments, units, activities, and briefly, to each job



unit. Simply put, it can be expressed as a preventive maintenance that is applied regularly, which ensures handling the problem before it emerges in the businesses (Dickens, Hara & Reisch, 2010: 5-6).

CSA, which is a highly powerful approach and highly complied with governance, institutional management, and internal control agenda, is defined as an approach that supports the managers and internal auditors for both evaluation and development of the control procedures in a business by means of techniques such as self-assessment questionnaires and workshops. CSA integrates the business objectives and risks to the control procedures. Therefore, at times, it is titled as Control Risk Self-Assessment (CRSA) as well (Pickett, 2006: 157).

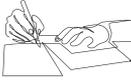
Within the context of abovementioned issues, basic characteristics of CSA method can be listed as follows (Bakshi, 2004: 3):

- It is a method.
- It comprises both the personnel and the owners of the process.
- Its aim is to ensure the business to reach its objectives.
- It decreases the burden of the audit function.
- It ensures the initial verification of the internal controls.
- It increases the verification frequency of the controls.
- It includes detection and improvement of controls and improvement of weak controls.

CSA, which is accepted as an effective way for the businesses to develop the business processes and internal control systems, emerges as a unique means for the operation personnel, internal and external auditors to make assessments of internal control system and risks, as well. Businesses prefer using CSA since it is vital in improving their own internal control settings, and some other reasons stated below (Yeoh & Roslan, 2008: 4-5):

- To encourage the creation of a deliberate risk culture between the business management and personnel, and a focus on continuous improvement,
- To discover the control weaknesses causing the business success, bolster them up, and make plans to their further improvement,
- To emphasize successful applications and opportunities that might be influential,
- To avoid from repetition of data and effort by standardizing the same functions being implemented in more than one location,
- By integrating the personnel training programs with the CSA, to inform the personnel concerning the results of a failure to comply with the procedures and policies,
- To ensure focusing on necessary fields by minimizing the time and efforts spent by the internal auditors for data collection about the business departments.

This provides the technical business personnel and the auditors to focus on



high-risk fields, thus, ensuring the traditional auditing activities to concentrate on these fields. It particularly ensures auditors to comprehend business activities better and evaluate natural risk and control risk with more accuracy. In this way, audit inefficiencies are prevented and auditing activities are conducted easier (Gilbert & Engle, 2005: 48).

The use of CSA in the businesses makes various general contributions for the different departments as follows (Kurnaz and Çetinoğlu, 2010: 117):

- It provides cost-efficiency,
- It ensures the annual evaluation of the entire internal control system,
- It helps to solve most important problems of managers,
- It uses opinions and concepts that not only the auditors but also managers understand better.

As is understood from the abovementioned issues, CSA implementation becomes a means of detection playing a key role in the assessment of the internal control system. The method is effective both in detecting important cases and in preventing the high level measurement costs (Dietz & Snyder, 2011: 35).

Briefly stated, CSA, which takes center stage as an effective tool for the businesses for continuous improvement and development of their internal control systems and business processes, is approved as important for different audit types, as well. It is because while a big proportion of the data obtained through this method is used by the internal audit department for fulfilling the internal audit objectives, it is used by the independent auditors in detection of the soft controls, which are an important part of the internal control system (Foh, 2000: 9).

4. CONCLUSION

Although recent changes in the management perception, globalization, technological developments, and legal regulations have created important opportunities for the businesses, they have brought along a group of risks and negativities. These developments once again bring into question the effectiveness of the internal control and relevant internal audit systems of the businesses. Therefore, the importance of the concepts of internal control and internal audit in our country and in the world has been started to be understood better and the due importance has been attached.

It is obvious that in a business, there is a fast and powerful relation between the internal audit and internal control, which is an important and different part of it. It is because audit supports the management in managing how to reach to the best internal relationships among the controls within the business and to the best component within the entire internal control system. Therefore, the internal audit has a special importance for the internal control.

In order to ensure the internal audit, monitoring activity, which is one of the five components of internal control system, is performed in two different ways such as *continuous monitoring activities* and *independent assessments*. Evaluation of the internal control or institutional risk management by the executives or per-

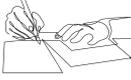
sonnel is classified as the *non-independent assessments*. As per CSA, it emerges as one of the most important methods approved in this field. This method is an internal control and risk assessment means applied by the management as a part of internal audit activities or *independent from* internal audit activities. By using a standard control framework, this method aims to evaluate the possible risks concerning the businesses, their strong and weak controls or needed ones, and to develop courses of action appropriate to the results.

CSA, which means the participation of the entire personnel including the management to the assessment mechanism, is not only a process, by which the capacity, competence, performance, strengths and weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the businesses can be revealed, but also an advantageous implementation, which presents important information and opportunities to the top management to improve the negativities.

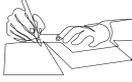
In this context, internal control, internal audit, and CSA, all of which have successive relations, are discussed in this study. As the conclusion, a well-designed internal control structure based on the relations among themselves not only prepares the settings for an effective audit, but also provides advantages for the business by decreasing the scope and cost of the audit activity. In this point, the CSA method, which is defined as the self-evaluation of the business, comes into prominence as a new and effective concept used in evaluation of the internal control system as well.

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CHAPTER
10

INTELLECTUAL PORTRAYALS OF THE
JEWS DURING OTTOMAN-RUSSIAN
WAR OF 1877-78

Kezban ACAR¹

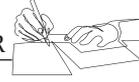
Many scholars such as John D. Klier, Joshua Kunitz, Louis Greenberg and I. Michael Aranson agree that Russian anti-Semitism intensified in the 1870 s.² Among the reasons for the growth of anti-Semitism in the 1870s in Russia, they point out economic-social tensions caused by the early industrialization and the growing chauvinistic nationalism. They argue that Ottoman-Russian War of 1877-78 also fanned the anti-Semitic sentiments in Russia.³

First, the War inflamed patriotism and Pan-Slavism while calling the loyalty and patriotism of national minorities, especially of the Jews, into question. Secondly, due to economic activities of Jewish contractors and firms, such as Greger, Gorvits, and Kogan and Company, which provided food provisions for the Russian Army, the War renewed the theme of Jewish exploitation. Finally, the Russian defeat at the peace table despite the military victory, owing mainly to British military threats and diplomatic efforts, caused anger and frustration among Russian intellectuals. Especially conservative Russian intellectuals, such as Dostoyevsky, directed their anger and criticism at the British Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli, who was of Jewish origin, and his coreligionists in Russia.

The military defeats, such as Ottoman defeat of Russians in Pleven during the War and the diplomatic defeat at Berlin Congress that gathered in June of 1878 to change terms of San-Stefano that were favorable to Russia, also contributed to the rise of anti-Semitic sentiments among liberal and conservative intellectuals. Also, during the Berlin Congress, Disraeli's emphasis on the need to improve the rights of minorities, including the Jews, in newly independent Balkan states like Romania, and the campaign of some Jewish organizations, like *Alliance Isra'elite*

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- 2 Shmuel Ettinger, "Jew-Hatred in its historical context," in *Anti-Semitism Through the Ages*, edited by Shmuel Almog, translated by Nathan H. Reisner, Pergaman Press: Oxford, 1988, 11, John D. Klier, *Imperial Russia's Jewish Question, 1855-1881*, Cambridge University Press, 1995, 392. Joshua Kunitz, *Russian Literature and the Jew: A Sociological Inquiry into the Nature and Origin of Literary Patterns*, New York: Columbia University Press, 1929, 95, Shmuel Almog, *Nationalism and Anti-Semitism in Modern Europe, 1815-1945*, Pergaman Press, 1990, 33, Louis Greenberg, *The Jews in Russia: The Struggle for Emancipation*, Schocken Books: New York, 1976, 99, I. Michael Aronson, *Troubled Waters: The Origins of the 1881 Anti-Jewish Pogroms in Russia*, University of Pittsburg Press, 1990, 42.
- 3 Aranson, 42, Greenberg, 99, Simon M. Dubnow, *History of the Jews in Russia and Poland from the Earliest Times until the Present Day*, translated from the Russian by I. Friedlaender, Volume II, From the Death of Alexander I until the Death of Alexander III (1825-1894), Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America, 201, Klier, *Imperial Russia's Jewish Question*, 392.



Universelle, to obtain greater civil rights for Jews increased anti-Semitic feelings. As a result of these developments during and after the Ottoman-Russian War, as John Klier puts it, “internally, Jews were perceived as a disloyal, alien element within the patriotic Russian society. Externally they were linked to the foreign foes of Russian national interests.”⁴

In this paper, I show how anti-Semitism found vivid expression in both conservative and liberal wartime literatures. The core of my evidence is consisted of the reports of war correspondents, especially of Nemirovich-Danchenko, who reported the war action for a newly founded Saint-Petersburg daily, *Nash Vek* (our Century) and N. Maksimov, who reported the war for *Otechestvennie Zapiski*. Also, I examine writings by conservative Russian intellectuals, such as N. P. Platonov Gliarov, Fedor Dostoyevsky, Konstantin P. Pobedonostsev.

The examination of writings of conservative intellectuals shows that their anti-Semitism had more dimensions. Dostoyevsky’s, Gliarov’s and Pobedonostsev’s anti-Jewish sentiments derived not only from their patriotic feelings that the war fanned, but also from their strong religious sentiments and conservative political views. The examination of writings of liberal intellectuals shows, however, that they based their views of the Jews mainly on economic activities of Jewish companies and contractors on the front. It needs to be underlined that portrayals of the Jews in conservative and liberal literature during the Ottoman-Russian War in many ways reflected in general anti-Semitic sentiments in Russian society. In the 1870s, anti-Semitism was not only an intellectual, ideological, or religious concept, but was a larger concept with its social and economic dimensions, inflecting majority of Russian people.

There was growing economic and social tension in the 1870s deriving from conditions associated with the Abolition of Serfdom and early industrialization, such as scarcity of land, high price of land, increasing population, poor living standards of both workers and peasants.⁵ After the abolition of serfdom, living standards of the Russian peasantry declined:

The peasants received less land than they had at their disposal previously and were required to pay dearly for it. They were heavily taxed, being especially hard hit by the government’s excessive use of indirect taxation on articles of everyday necessity. Peasant indebtedness—mainly to kulaks and petty merchants for loans and to the government for redemption dues and taxes-increased constantly after 1861. The villagers were forced by economic circumstances to enter the capitalist market and sell their produce, often at unfavorable price. Thus peasants had to sell their surplus

4 Klier, *Imperial Russia’s Jewish Question*, 395.

5 Richard Pipes, *Russia Under the Old Regime*, Collier Books: Macmillan Publishing Company, New York, 1974, 161, Terence Emmons, “The Peasant and the Emancipation,” in *The Peasant in Nineteenth-Century Russia*, Ed. By Wayne S. Vucinich, Stanford University Press: Stanford, 1968, 42. Boris Mironov, “The Russian Peasant Commune after the Reforms of the 1860s,” in *The World of the Russian peasant: Post-Emancipation Culture and Society*, Ed. By Ben Eklof and Stephen Frank, Unwin Hyman: Boston, 1990, 28.



produce during the autumn, when prices were lowest, in order to pay their redemption dues, direct taxes, and other debts; later in the year, when prices were higher, they often found they had to take loans. Many were forced to off the land altogether, to become wage laborers in agriculture and industry. A very large portion of the peasants' grain was exported to Western Europe as part of the government's plan to pay for industrialization. Consequently, it used to be thought, the great majority of the peasants suffered from chronic land hunger, especially when struck by crop failure, which was not an infrequent phenomenon.⁶

Also, while land that peasants could use was becoming less and less, the number of Russian peasantry was increasing. The population in Russia continued to grow rapidly after the Emancipation. It was about 73 million in 1861 and became about 98 million in 1880. A majority of this growth mainly took place in villages. Along with the population growth and the scarcity of land, the price of land increased. Thus, there was a frustrated rural population with perception of exacerbating conditions.⁷

Due to land scarcity and a high price of land, many peasants became wage laborers for landlords or kulaks, while many migrated to cities to find employment in industry, construction and transportation. Their situation was not better than that of those in villages. "Working conditions were wretched and the pay was poor, but industrial workers earned more than wage laborers in the countryside. Consequently, peasants responded quickly to the demand for factory hands, sometimes in such numbers that many were unable to find employment."⁸ Also, despite their new jobs and new lives in cities, the majority of urban workers still continued to see their villages as their home. "And even when the major ties to rural life were severed, the new industrial proletarians retained much of their peasant mentality and outlook. But at the same time they were forced to confront and adopt new modes of behavior, attitudes and values. This situation of upheaval and dislocation was a fertile breeding ground for frustration alienation and discontent."⁹ Feeling alienated due to their new lives and frustrated due to their poor living standards caused by the emancipation of serfdom and intensified by early industrialization in the 1870s, Russian peasants and workers were hostile to outside world.¹⁰ It was mainly the Jews that became the target of discontent and hostility of frustrated Russian people.

Many felt that the Jews either as contractors, creditors, or as tradesmen were exploiting them. The Jews' portrayals as exploiters found expression not only among Russian people, but also among intellectuals. In fact, Jewish exploitation of Russian people was the most common charge that both liberal and conservative Russian intellectuals made against the Jews during the Ottoman-Russian War. They argued that by selling food provisions to the Russian army during

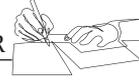
6 Aranson, 23.

7 Aranson, 25.

8 Aranson, 26.

9 Aranson, 27.

10 Pipes, 169.



the war, Jewish businessmen increased their wealth at the expense of Russian people. Or it was usually pointed out that through their activities in liquor trade or tavern keeping, the Jews not only intoxicated Russian peasants, but also exploited them. In fact, in the 1870s, there were some Jews who “earned large fortunes as lessees of the state liquor monopoly, railroad builders, financiers and subcontractors supplying the railroad industry, government contractors (roads, fortresses, army provisions), industrialists (especially foods, textiles, tanneries and distillers), exporters (especially grain and timber), and finance bankers.”¹¹ But, the majority of the Jews, like many others in Russian society, had their share from general impoverishment and poverty.

The Jewish population in the Pale of Settlement was growing while employment opportunities were shrinking.¹² Between 1800 and 1900, the number of Jews grew from 1 million to about 5 million. Even though the Jews were allowed to leave the Pale of Settlement and to trade in inner Russia, the jobs and opportunities both in the Pale of Settlement and in permitted area were not enough to absorb growing number of workers and tradesmen. Due to the growth in both Jewish and Russian population, there was great competition between Jews and non-Jews in factories and in trade.¹³

Also, the press played an important role in spread of anti-Semitism. By taking advantage of a rather relaxed censorship policies of Alexander II,¹⁴ many intellectuals, such as Jacob Brafman and Ivan Aksakov in the 1860s, and Fedor Dostoyevksy, N. P. Gliarov and others in the 1870s had chance to spread their anti-Semitic feelings among Russian people.¹⁵ Beginning as a response to the critique of the Jews by V. R. Zotov, the editor of *Illiustratsiia*, many intellectuals turned their attention to the Jewish question. Many, including Ivan Aksakov, agreed with Zotov that the sympathy liberal journals showed toward the Jews and their calls for the extension of the Jews’ rights were disgusting.¹⁶ In his articles in *Den*, Ivan Aksakov ridiculed liberal organs that, in his opinion, made calls for greater rights for the Jews in the name of civilization and religious tolerance. He argued that liberals showing sympathy toward the Jews were “violating and offending the right of life of voiceless masses [Russian people] in favor of a small group of loud and suppressing people [Jews].”¹⁷ He further criticized liberals or “progressionists” that enthusiastically supported and welcomed the new law giving the Jews important privileges. He wrote that the law allowing Jews with diploma to

11 Aranson, 38.

12 John D. Klier, “Russian Jewry on the Eve of the Pogroms” in *Pogroms: Anti-Jewish Violence in Modern Russian History*, Ed. By John D. Klier and Shlomo Lambroza, Cambridge University Press, 1992, 5.

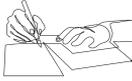
13 Aranson, 39-40, Klier, *Imperial Russia’s Jewish Question*, 287.

14 Daniel Balmuth, *Censorship in Russia, 1865-1905*, University Press of America: Washington, 1979, p. 1. Charles A. Ruud, *Fighting Words: Imperial Censorship and the Russian press, 1804-1906*, University of Toronto Press: Toronto, Buffalo, London, 1982, 94.

15 Klier, *Imperial Russia’s Jewish Question*, 311, Klier, *Pogroms: Anti-Jewish Violence*, 18.

16 Klier, *Imperial Russia’s Jewish Question*, 51.

17 Ivan Sergei Aksakov, *Polnoe Sobranie sochinenii I. S. Aksakova, Pol’skii Vopros I Zapadno-Russkoe Delo. Evreiskii Vopros. Statii iz gazet’ “Den,” “Moskva,” I “Rus.”* Tom Tretii, Moskva, 1886, 688.



become a doctor, magistrate, or candidate to work in all departments could be very dangerous since its limits were vague. Had they knew the meaning of the law in this sense, Aksakov maintained, even progressionists themselves, ardent supporters of the Jews, would not want to see the Jews occupying seats in senate, government council, in legislative councils, and chancelleries.

Aksakov further suggested that the Jews be allowed to practice “occupations where they could not subordinate Christians to themselves, where they might have influence on administration and the laws of Christian countries.”¹⁸ Aksakov also wrote that since they lived in Christian lands, the Jews should act like guests and should accept what the host provided for them.¹⁹ With these remarks, by defining the Jews as a dangerous group of people advocating opposition and animosity in Russian society and as a loud minority asking for unjustified and potentially dangerous rights, Aksakov contributed to the spread of anti-Semitism.

Jacob Brafman, a Jewish convert, too fanned anti-Semitism in Russia. In his book, *Kniga Kahala*, Brafman charged the Jews with separatism and fanaticism and pointed out their communal institutions or societies, such as *kahal* and *ter-em*, as the sources feeding their separatism and fanaticism.

Though, officially abolished in 1844, continued in reality to exist and to maintain a widely ramified judiciary (Bet Din), that it constituted a secret, uncanny sort of organization which wielded despotic power over the communities by employing such weapons as the *herem* (excommunication) and *hazakah* (the Jewish legal practice of securing property rights), that it incited the Jewish masses against the State, the Government and the Christian religion and fostered in these masses fanaticism and dangerous national separatism.²⁰

As Klier writes that due to more liberal censorship policies and thus due to increasing press activities, stronger anti-Semitism of the 1870s that expressed itself in 1871 pogrom and in war time writings was no longer a local phenomenon, but was a national development.²¹

Finally and more importantly, government policies toward the Jews that determined to a great extent the limits of Jews’ legal, social political and especially economic activities helped the rise of anti-Jewish sentiments in the 1870s and later occurrence of pogroms in the 1880s.²² Despite some reforms in economic, social, and legal status of the Jews during the early years of his reign, Alexander II was not much different from the earlier Tsars. Like his predecessors, Alexander II ultimately aimed for assimilation of the Jews and other minorities and therefore made some arrangements and brought some restrictions to the Jews’

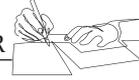
18 Aksakov, *Polnoe Sobranie Sochinenii*, 693.

19 Aksakov, *Polnoe Sobranie Sochinenii*, 690.

20 Dubnow, 188.

21 Klier, “Russian Jewry on the Eve of the Pogroms,” 18.

22 E. P. Semenov, *The Russian Government and the Massacres: A Page of the Russian Counter-Revolution*. Translated from the French with an Introduction by Lucien Wolf, Greenwood Press Publishers: Westport, Connecticut, 1972, 80.



rights when needed.²³ Even reforms that took place during the 1860s and eased the restrictions that Nicholas I made on the Jews' rights served ultimate goal of assimilating the Jews. Alexander II, who "tried using the carrot rather than the stick to promote Jewish assimilation,"²⁴ saw no danger to relax some of the existing restrictions on the Jews' legal status.

Also, government officials, such as Prince I. I. Vasilchikov, the Governor-General of the Southwest where prominently the Poles and Jews lived, and M. N. Muraev, the Governor-General of the Northwest region considered the Jews as possible allies to counterweigh the Polish influence. They encouraged the extension of the Jews' rights in order prevent them from falling under the influence of the Polish insurgents.²⁵ Also these statesmen, such as Muraev and Vasilchikov, saw the reforms or the extension of the Jews' residence, educational, and other rights, as a means of their russification.²⁶

For instance, juvenile conscription that was practiced since Nicholas I's reign was abolished in 1856 and Jews were made equal with others as far as military service was concerned. Also, with the laws issued in 1857 and 1858, the Jews' residence rights were extended and they were allowed to reside in frontier provinces in the West and in Bessarabia. According the Law promulgated on March 16, 1859 resolution was as follows:

The Jewish merchants who have belonged to the first guild for not less than two years prior to the issuance of the present law shall be permitted to settle permanently in the interior governments, accompanied by their families and a limited number of servants and clerks. These merchants shall be entitled to live and to trade on equal terms with the Russian merchants, with the proviso that, after the settlement, they shall continue their membership in the first guild as well as their payment of the appertaining membership dues for no less than ten years, failing which they shall be sent back into the Pale. Big Jewish merchants and bankers from abroad," noted for their social position, shall be allowed in Russia under a special permit to be secured in each case from the Ministers of the Interior and of Finance.²⁷

With this law, the government hoping to open the Russian interior to the Jewish capital extended the rights of permanent residence of some 'qualified Jews.' But the rest of the Jews still lacked complete freedom to travel and trade inner Russia.

The government extended the Jews rights of residence further with a new law on June 28, 1865. The law permitted "Jewish artisans, mechanics and distillers, including apprentices, to reside all over the Empire."²⁸ Even though they had

23 Salo Wittmayer Baron, *The Russian Jew Under Tsars and Soviets*, The Macmillan Company: New York, Collier-Macmillan Limited: London, 1964, 30-75.

24 Aranson, 34.

25 Klier, *Imperial Russia's Jewish Question*, 152-53.

26 Klier, *Imperial Russia's Jewish Question*, 158.

27 Dubnow, 170.

28 Dubnow, 170.



to produce a certificate from their trade unions testifying to their profession or qualities or passport from their native town in the Pale of Settlement, Jewish mechanics, artisans and etc. had still extensive rights of permanent residence and thus of trade throughout Russia. Also, Alexander II, with the emancipation act of 1861, freed 3 million Jewish serfs, along with Russian peasants. After the emancipation, the government, with the law of April 1862, gave the Jews the right to buy lands that were taken by Polish landlords.²⁹ In addition to the extension of the Jews' rights of residence, the government also extended the Jews' educational rights. For instance, the law of November 27, 1861 granted the Jews the entry into the civil service with a university degree. Similarly, another law dated September 6, 1862 authorized Jews to serve as headmasters of elementary and secondary state Jewish schools.³⁰

Despite these relatively liberal policies, the Jews never had complete equality, for Alexander II determined his policies by "practical or immediate necessity or growing demands for social and political change"³¹ rather than by his sincere belief in Jews' equality. As many scholars point out, Alexander II's reforms that brought some relaxation in Jews' legal status took a new turn in the 1870s.³² Affected by the growing anti-Semitism in the press and the Polish uprising of 1863, with which the Jews were associated, the Tsar took new measures to tighten the grip on the Jews. For instance, in 1870 the law of town government decreed that "only a third of the town representatives could be non-Christian and that no Jew was eligible for the post of mayor. [Whereas the judicial reforms of 1864 and *zemstvos*] stipulated no exceptions for the Jews, so that at least juridically they were on equal footing with the rest of the population."³³ Also, in 1873, all Jewish government schools were closed "because it was contented that they were permeated with a spirit of Jewish 'exclusiveness' and were nurseries of Talmudic orthodoxy."³⁴ The Jews faced new restrictions in the matter of military service as well. "On December 28, 1876, a law granted recruiting committees the authority to require police evidence to corroborate, whenever doubtful, the claim of Jewish recruits to exemption from military service for military reasons. The decree specifically stated that such corroborative testimony could be required only of Jews."³⁵ And on May 9, 1878, another law was issued making the military service for all Jews obligatory. Even though the latter regulations regarding military service can be considered as a consequence of war situation, all the restrictions imposed upon the Jews in the 1870s in general can be considered as a reflection of growing anti-Semitism on government's policies toward the Jews.

In addition to these developments, the Ottoman-Russian War of 1877-78 also contributed to the rise of anti-Semitism. The Ottoman-Russian War through its influence on the rise of nationalism and patriotism made some conservative Rus-

29 Dubnow, 302.

30 Klier, *Imperial Russia's Jewish Question*, 228-230.

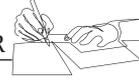
31 Greenberg, 87.

32 Greenberg, 87, Dubnow, 198, Aranson, 99.

33 Greenberg, 96.

34 Greenberg, 95.

35 Greenberg, 97.



sian intellectuals, such as Dostoyevsky, Pobedonostsev and Gliarov, even more critical of the national minorities, especially Poles and Jews. It is important to note, however, that there was more to their anti-Semitism. When writings of Conservative Russian intellectuals are examined, it is clearly seen that their anti-Semitism derived not only from their nationalism or patriotism, but also from their strong religious beliefs and conservative political ideas. While emphasizing Orthodoxy, patriotism and autocracy as the distinguishing characteristics of Russian national identity, conservative Russian intellectuals described the Jews as outsiders due to their Judaism, liberalism, and Jewish identity.

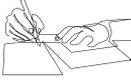
Pobedonostsev clearly expressed that the Jews were not a part of the Russian nation and the reasons for their non-Russianness were their liberalism, materialism, financial power and corruption that they used to exploit "helpless and economically dependent Russian peasants."³⁶ Pobedonostsev saw the Jews as alien and outsiders to the Russian nation also due to their influence over the liberal press. According to Pobedonostsev, the Jews, through their organ--liberal press--, called for the expansion of their and other national minorities' rights and thus ruined the harmony of the Russian nation. In his letter to Dostoyevsky in August 14, 1879, Pobedonostsev summarized the Jewish connection to liberal press, as well as socialism, and economic corruption more explicitly:

What you write about the Yids is completely just. They have engrossed everything, they have undermined everything, but the spirit of the century supports them. They are at the root of revolutionary socialist movement and of regicide. They own the periodical press, they have in their hands the financial markets, the people as a whole fall into financial slavery to them; they even control the principles of contemporary science and strive to place it outside of Christianity. And on top of all that--whenever anyone raises a question about them a shower of voices in favor of the Jews in the name of civilization and tolerance, of difference to faith. Among the Romanians and Serbs, and among us as well, no one dares to say a word about the simple fact that the Jews have won the ownership of everything. Even our press is becoming Jewish. *Russkaia Pravda* (Russian Truth), *Moskva* (Moscow), even *Golos* (voice) are Jewish organs, and the Jews have even closed their special journals, such as *Evrei* (Jews) and *Vestnik Evreev* (Jewish Herald) and *Biblioteka Evreiskaia* (Jewish Library).³⁷

The most influential solution to the Jewish question, to their exploitation of the Russian peasants, liberalism, materialism and socialism, Pobedonostsev believed, was their conversion to Orthodoxy. Even though he also pointed out a more nationalist education, a stricter censorship over liberal press, Pobedonostsev emphasized the conversion of the Jews as the chief means of their Russification. Especially after his disappointment in the support of the Balkan Slavs

36 Edward C. Thaden, *Conservative Nationalism in Nineteenth-Century Russia*, University of Washington Press: Seattle, 1964, 199, also, see, Brynes, 104.

37 Robert F. Brynes, *Pobedonostsev: His Life and Thought*, Indiana University Press: Bloomington, 1968, 205.



for the Ottoman-Russian War, Pobedonostsev emphasized the Orthodoxy more strongly as the main distinguishing characteristic of Russian national identity and also as the main tool of the Russification of the Jews. For Pobedonostsev, “the Jews were [Russia’s] great ulcer that penetrated everywhere”³⁸ and the most effective way to cure it was the conversion of the Jews to the Orthodoxy. For that, he pointed out to the Tsar the need for new churches and parish schools in the non-Russian parts of the empire.³⁹

Similarly, Dostoyevsky, under the influence of stronger nationalist sentiments that the Ottoman-Russian War injected, became strongly critical of the Jews during the 1870s and described them as alien and disloyal. As the reasons for his descriptions of the Jews as outsiders, Dostoyevsky pointed out the Jews’ alliance with the English and their support for the Turks against Russia, their strong nationality and religious sentiments and their capitalism, especially their exploitation of Russian peasants. With his emphasis on Jewish faith in the conquest of the world, Dostoyevsky implied that the source of Jewish exploitation was their religion. Dostoyevsky also emphasized the strong nationality of the Jews to explain why Russians disliked the Jews. Responding to a letter by a Jew, who blamed the author of having prejudices against the Jews, Dostoyevsky wrote that the Jews were the ones, not the Russians, who had prejudices and hatred toward other nations. Having faith in the dogma that they were the only true nation in the world, he maintained, the Jews looked down upon other nations and alienated themselves from them. Thus, Dostoyevsky pointed out Judaism as a source of Jews’ strong and harmful nationalist sentiments.

Dostoyevsky suggested that if instead of the Russians, the Jews were the majority, they would not permit Russians any rights. Instead, they would convert the Russians into slaves and then would “slaughter them to the last man, to the point of extermination.”⁴⁰ These hypothetical scenarios show that Dostoyevsky had a deep distrust and concern about the Jews. He believed that through their strong faith in their religion and nationality and their “disrespect” and “pitilessness”⁴¹ for everybody except for their own people, the Jews harmed and would continue to harm the Russian nation. Also, Dostoyevsky saw the Jews as outsiders because, he believed, that the Jews through their excessive greed and materialism were a threat to Russian and Christian ideals, such as “the sentiments of humanity, thirst for truth, Christian and national feelings and even those of national dignity.”⁴² Thus, by pointing out the Jewish exploitation, their strong national and religious sentiments and their influence on the British politics as the reasons for the Russian disdain toward the Jews, Dostoyevsky implied that the Jews themselves are the responsible for anti-Semitism in Russia.

Dostoyevsky wrote that a full extension of the rights to the Jews would not solve the problem unless “the Jewish people themselves prove their ability to accept and

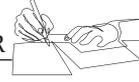
38 Byrnes, 205

39 Thaden, 200.

40 Fedor M. Dostoyevsky, *Diary of a Writer*, Translated and annotated by Boris Brasol, George Braziller: New York, 1954, 645.

41 Dostoyevsky, 649.

42 Dostoyevsky, 650.



make use of these rights without detriment to the native population.”⁴³ The extension of rights to the Jews, he maintained, would make the problem even more complicated because it would give the Jews greater opportunity to increase their economic power and thus better chance to exploit the Russian peasants more successfully.

Furthermore, Dostoyevsky argued that the extension of the rights would contribute to the rise of Russian hatred toward the Jews because the Russians, especially commoners, would feel betrayed when the Jews had greater rights while they were lacking them. Instead, he suggested that “brotherhood-complete brotherhood- on the part of both sides” as the best possible solution. He could not help asking however “to what extent good Jews [would] succeed and how far they [would] themselves be adapted to the new and beautiful cause of genuine brotherly communion with men who are alien to them by religion and blood.”⁴⁴ The sarcasm in his language while describing the Jews as “good” shows that Dostoyevsky himself did not believe that the Russians and the Jews would be brothers mostly because of their religious and racial differences.

Like Pobedonostsev and Dostoyevsky, N. P. Gliarov also became increasingly anti-Semitist during the 1870s. Even though Gliarov had anti-Semitic sentiments prior to the war, his articles dated 1878 show that his anti-Semitism dramatically increased during the war. He, too, pointed out Jews’ strong national and religious sentiments and their exploitation of Russian peasants as the sources of their non-Russianness. In his description of the nation, Gliarov wrote that “a nation is alliance formed for mutual protection of interests of different nations” and continued that, due to their different religious, political and economic interests, the Jews could not be considered as a part of Russian nation. Gliarov saw especially economic interests of the Jews as an obstacle to their alliance with the Russians because, he believed, the idea and habit of the “exploitation of foreign labor” and economic gains “on the account of others was soaked into the flesh and blood of the Jews.”⁴⁵ Thus, Gliarov, like Pobedonostsev and Dostoyevsky, saw economic interests of the Jews and more specifically their exploitation of Russians, as the main reason for their non-Russianness. As an example of the Jewish exploitation and interests, Gliarov pointed out their economic activities in Russian borderlands and wrote in his article dated 1871 that:

Jews are grabbing everything in their hands not only by sterilizing the borderlands, but also sucking juice out of them, while eating away the strength of their population. They always take, but bring nothing; neither capital nor labor neither industry. They have only one skill, shrewdness.⁴⁶

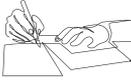
With their shrewdness, Gliarov referred to the role the Jews’ intermediary role between producers and customers and as creditors. By selling the produces,

43 Dostoyevsky, 653.

44 Dostoyevsky, 653.

45 N. P. Gliarov-Platonov, *Evreiskii Vopros v Rossii, Sostavleno na Osnovanii Statei i Pisem Giliarova-Platonova*, S. Peterburg, 1906, 13.

46 Gliarov-Platonov, 41.



such as bread, at extremely higher prices than their original price, he maintained, the Jews, “nationwide citizens,” created a cobweb for the peasants “from which unfortunate peasants can come out [only] as destroyed and beaten.”⁴⁷ Thus, Gliarov with this statement not only expressed his indignation at the Jews due to their intermediary role between producers and the peasants, but also his opposition to the extension of the Jews’ residential rights. By calling the Jews as “nationwide citizens,” Gliarov implied that due to their expanded rights of residence, the Jews actively participated in local economies at the expense of local populations.

Besides their harmful economic activities, Gliarov-Platonov described the Jews as outsiders because, he believed that, the Jews, through their complaints about their ‘supposedly’ worsening economic conditions and through their demands for greater rights, disturbed the social harmony and order. He wrote that in contrast to their complaints, the Jews enjoyed many rights in Russia:

They have complete freedom of their beliefs; enjoy the right of self-administration. They also have the right to free themselves (thanks to the self-administration of Kigali) from some taxes –through concealment of the real number of people- and war obligations. [Due to these rights, the Jews] are almost all-powerful. They are the state in the state.⁴⁸

Regarding the source of the Jews’ power, Gliarov-Platonov pointed out once again the rights and privileges that the Jews had such as easy access to merchant certificates, freedom to travel and trade in a large area of the Pale settlement. To eliminate their increasing power and harm to the Russians, Gliarov-Platonov suggested, the Russian government should no longer expand the rights of the Jews. Besides their threat to social and economic order, the Jews should not be granted any further rights, because, Gliarov-Platonov maintained that the Jews contributed to the establishment and later development of the Russian nation “[neither [through their] blood nor their labor.”⁴⁹ With this, Gliarov-Platonov probably referred to the lack of the Jewish participation in Russian army and also to the Jewish economic activities in borderlands those, in his opinion, were means of the Jews’ exploitation of the Russians.

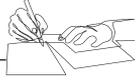
In order to prevent the Jews from doing so, he maintained, that the Russian government needed to make an operation on the rights of the Jews: “Covered with dust, the Jews point out their economic problems and [it forms] a danger of disintegration. [Therefore], surgical operations, even therapeutic operations, are necessary, especially in [Jews’] dietary and hygienic organs in order to make them, like corpses, not have any appetite for economic gains.”⁵⁰ In this statement, it is not clear what Gliarov-Platonov meant with surgery in the Jews’ dietary organs, but it is highly possible that he pointed out the need to restrict the Jews’ rights. Also, it is highly possible that in this paragraph, Gliarov-Platonov, with his

47 Gliarov-Platonov, 41.

48 Gliarov-Platonov, 46

49 Gliarov-Platonov, 17.

50 Gliarov-Platonov, 41.



emphasis on the Jewish threat to social order, referred to Jewish socialism rather than capitalism.

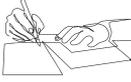
From all these arguments, it can be concluded that prior to the Ottoman-Russian War of 1877-78, Gliarov-Platonov had strongly negative thoughts about the Jews. His views of the Jews changed dramatically, however, from negativity to a strong dislike during the Ottoman-Russian War. Gliarov-Platonov's more negative view of the Jews was especially explicit in his articles regarding the economic activities of the Jewish companies supplying provisions for the army. In his article dated 1878, he wrote that as a result of the failure of Russian suppliers to provide food provisions for the army, the Jews, with "their special distinguishing dexterity,"⁵¹ took the matter in their hands.

In his another article dated 1878, referring to the activities of the in the borderlands, Gliarov-Platonov argued that the Jews, due to their privileges given by the law to trade in Russian borderlands and because of their 'business skills,' were becoming increasingly harmful to local populations. Therefore, he wrote that the Russians should take a more radical step, such as extermination of them, to prevent the Jews from harming the Russians. Referring to the Jews' economic activities in Novorusskii, Gliarov-Platonov wrote that: "[Jews] are cockroaches and bedbugs and we, [Russians], still don't think of the extermination of these sons of Israel. Wherever you see two Jews, you will see thousands of them tomorrow."⁵² Thus, from 1871 to 1878, not only Gliarov-Platonov's perceptions of the Jews became negative, but also his solutions to the Jewish question became more radical. In 1871, Gliarov-Platonov saw the "operation on the dietary organs of the Jews," (in other words, the restrictions on the rights of the Jews), as a solution to their exploitation of Russian people while in 1878, he pointed out the extermination of the Jews. If the Russians did not exterminate them, he further wrote that the Jews would spread all over Russia and ruin it. In this dramatic change in Gliarov-Platonov's solutions to the Jewish question, there is no doubt that the Ottoman-Russian War played a significant role. With stronger nationalist sentiments that the war aroused, Gliarov-Platonov and other conservative Russian intellectuals, such as Dostoyevsky and Pobedonostsev, saw the national minorities, especially the Jews, as outsiders and considered them as a threat to both external and internal interests of Russia. Also, due to their stronger patriotism, they came to believe that the Russian government or the Russians should take more radical steps, such as the Pogroms, to eliminate the Jews' ills.

In addition to conservative Russian intellectuals, some liberal Russian intellectuals, such as Nemirovich-Danchenko and N. M. Maksimov also described the Jews as outsiders. Unlike Dostoyevsky, Pobedonostsev and Gliarov-Platonov, on the other hand, Maksimov and Nemirovich-Danchenko specifically pointed out the Jewish exploitation and capitalism as their distinguishing characteristics. In other words, they saw the Jews as outsiders and alien to the Russian nation, not due to their religion and strong nationality, but specifically due to their economic activities. Also, Maksimov and Nemirovich-Danchenko, unlike Dostoyevsky, Po-

51 Gliarov-Platonov, 39.

52 Gliarov-Platonov, 38.



bedonostsev and Gliarov-Platonov, charged the Jews with the exploitation of Russian people due to their personal observations on Jewish companies at war front during the Ottoman-Russian War. Therefore, in Nemirovich-Danchenko and Maksimov's writings, the influence of the war on the Jews' negative portrayals is more explicit than in those of Dostoyevsky, Pobedonostsev and Gliarov-Platonov.

In his report from the European front, Nemirovich-Danchenko accused the Jews of taking advantage of war conditions and exploiting Russians. He wrote that by taking advantage of the decree of April 9, 1877, which gave control of the food supply for the army to Jewish companies such as Greger, Gorvits and Korgan, the Jews caused some of the army's problems, such as the delay of food provisions. He wrote that the Jews, due to their disorganized and corrupt company, did not deliver the food supply for the 11th Corps on time. By making the army wait for four days in Galatsa and Brailov, Romanian towns close to the Russian-Romanian border, the agents of the company caused a setback for the army. He wrote that due to the delay of the agents, soldiers "had to eat from the first day of the campaign the sugar reserves that were supposed to be consumed in the hottest times of the campaign."⁵³ Thus, Nemirovich-Danchenko saw the Jews as a source of trouble rather than of assistance to the Russian army.

Having recognized the inefficiency and sluggishness of the Jewish Company, he maintained, some Russian commanders, such as Vainovskii, commander of the 12th Corp, tried to leave it out of the matter and to provide food provisions through independent entrepreneurs. Due to the loud cries and complaints of the Jews who saw the independent entrepreneurs as a threat to their economic interests, the commander of the Russian army announced that all arrangements and agreements with separate and individual entrepreneurs were illegal. He also banned his soldiers from complaining about the Jewish Company. According to Danchenko, by taking advantage of this new decree, the Jews strengthened their positions and made profits through their control over the amount and price of the food provisions.⁵⁴

As the campaign continued and Russian troops advanced further into Romania, Nemirovich-Danchenko's views of the Jews became more explicitly negative. In his observations on Ploeshti, another Romanian town, where he saw many Jews in the bazaars, Nemirovich-Danchenko wrote that the Jews were not only corrupt and greedy, but also "parasites" that lived on the profit they made from local people and the Russian troops. Due to the strong business skills of some Romanians, however, he maintained that some parts of Romania, especially "Wallacia and the whole southern part of the principality, except for Galatsa, was free from "those parasites."⁵⁵ At the beginning of the campaign, Nemirovich-Danchenko limited his critique of the Jews mainly to the descriptions of the Jewish Company and its agents in Romania. As the Russian troops advanced into the Balkans and started suffering difficulties and even defeats, Nemirovich-Danchenko's descriptions of the Jews became even more critical and negative. He no longer saw the Jews only

53 Vasilii Ivanovich Nemirovich-Danchenko, *God Voiny: Dnevnik Russkogo Korrespondenta, 1877-18*, tom III, S. Pet, Izdanie P. P. Soikina, 1878, 5.

54 Nemirovich-Danchenko, t. 3, 6.

55 Nemirovich-Danchenko, t.3, 11.



as greedy and corrupt parasites, but also as capitalist and unpatriotic people that through their speculation on food provisions played a major role in the difficulties and thus failure of the army.

Nemirovich-Danchenko depicted the Jewish Company, with its 22, 000 members, including its agents, bureaucrats, marketeers and contractors, like bedbugs that spread throughout the war front and exploited those surrounding it. He became even more indignant at the Jews when the Russian army had a major setback against the Turks in Plevin in September 1877. He wrote that due to their exploitation of the Russian army, “so far the only victorious ones are the Jews,”⁵⁶ because of the millions that they made on the Russians. Even immediately after the war, he maintained that the Jewish capitalists, bankers, and contractors continued to make profits at the expense of the Russians and Balkan Slavs, especially Bulgarians. To support his argument, Nemirovich-Danchenko gave detailed descriptions of some Jewish capitalists, such as Adolph Levi and A. M. Varshavskii.

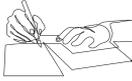
By introducing himself as the agent of the Jewish company in charge of food supplies and even though he had a phony contract, Adolph Levi bought a great deal of barley, wheat, and hay at really low prices. Then, he turned to the “naive Don Cossacks” and ordered them, together with Bulgarians, to carry all that wheat, barley and hay from village to the town for free.⁵⁷ Finally, the same Adolph Levi sold the bread that was made of the wheat he obtained from Bulgarians and other food provisions at much higher prices to the Russian troops. Also, he charged for the transportation of food provisions 10% more than the amount on the contract. When the reports of Turnova and Sistova gubernias reached the commander of the Russian army at Russian headquarters, Nemirovich-Danchenko maintained that Adolph Levi had already robbed about ten Bulgarian villages. By the example of Adolph Levi, Nemirovich-Danchenko portrayed the Jews as “greedy” and “cunning people,” who took advantage of the naivete and patriotism of those who made sacrifices for the Russian army and robbed them.

Nemirovich-Danchenko described Varshavskii as another an example of the greediness and disloyalty of the Jews. He wrote that by taking advantage of the needs of the Russian army during the war, such as transportation of the food supplies, “this cunning Odessian,” Varshavskii, made a great amount of money from the Russians. After having presented his examples of Levi and Varshavskii and underlined the profit they made at the expense of the Russian army, Nemirovich-Danchenko concluded, “it would be foolish to ask of [the Jews] patriotism, conscience and moderation in their demands.”⁵⁸ Nemirovich-Danchenko saw the

56 Vasilii Ivanovich. *God Voiny: Dnevnik Russkogo Korrespondenta, 1877-18*, Tom Pervii, S. Peterburg, 1879, 139.

57 Nemirovich-Danchenko, t. 1, 140.

58 Nemirovich-Danchenko, t. 1, 141. In order to show how the agents of the Jews were mainly concerned about their interests and gains and therefore how they neglected the needs of the Russian army, Danchenko presented several examples of the problems that the Russian troops had with the supply of the food provisions. He wrote, for instance that, in several parts of the army, soldiers had to feed themselves with sweet corn and sugar for several days due to the lack of bread and other food supplies while in Sistova and Zimlitsa excessive food supplies were left to rotten.



Jews as outsiders who lacked any patriotism and any sympathy toward the Russian army and Russians and connected the Jews' lack of patriotism, not to their nationality and religion, but mainly to their capitalism and greed. Similarly, in response to the Jews' complaints in the press about their misperceptions by the Russians, Nemirovich-Danchenko argued that the Jews were not poor and offended, as they argued. He found it scandalous that the Jews still called themselves poor and offended "while robbing silently those who die in their army posts. It is not enough for them to grab the millions, blood and sweat of our people."⁵⁹

Even after the Russians strengthened their position in the Balkan and defeated the Turks in October 1877, Nemirovich-Danchenko continued to criticize the Jewish contractors for their exploitation of the Russian army:

What a fortune these agents of the company are making here-at the war front. The Jews who came here without pants, in their long trousers, having profited off the army have already made thousands of rubles in weeks and tens of thousands of rubles in months, and in six months, they were counting their hundreds of thousands of rubles.⁶⁰

With this paragraph, Nemirovich-Danchenko not only underlined his conviction in the harm that the Jews caused to the Russians through their exploitation and capitalism, but also expressed his increasing anger and dislike toward them. He expressed his stronger disdain for the Jews also by describing them as the "thieves" whom "the Russian nation will make pay for all their robbery and exploitation."⁶¹ Nemirovich-Danchenko once more emphasized that the Jews were not a part of the Russian nation due to their exploitation of Russian people. To become a part of the Russian nation, he suggested in another report that the Jews had to prove their "patriotism, [idealism,] and honesty."⁶²

Maksimov agreed with Nemirovich-Danchenko on his descriptions of the Jews. Like Nemirovich-Danchenko, Maksimov described the Jews as greedy who made profits by taking advantage of war conditions. Unlike Nemirovich-Danchenko, Maksimov did not write explicitly that due to their greed the Jews were not a part of the Russian nation. Through his descriptions of both Jewish and Russian entrepreneurs that he met on his way to the front at the beginning of the war, Maksimov even argued that Russian entrepreneurs were as greedy as the Jews, but they did not know how to make money as the Jews did. He wrote further that the Russian entrepreneurs were so concerned about making money in the war front by either opening an inn or restaurant, "they talked about neither the Turks, nor the campaign laying ahead, neither about past campaigns, nor Slav brothers or necessity to help them. They thought about only one thing: How, what, where [they could make money.]"⁶³

By the time the Russian troops arrived in Romania and the Russians started dealing more and more with the Jews, along with the Romanians, to meet their

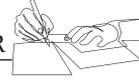
59 Nemirovich-Danchenko, t. 1, 142.

60 Nemirovich-Danchenko, t. 1, 211.

61 Nemirovich-Danchenko, t. 1, 21.

62 Nemirovich-Danchenko, t. 1, 142.

63 Nemirovich-Danchenko, t. 1, 252.



needs, such as food provisions and accommodation, Maksimov's perceptions of the Jews changed. For example, in contrast to his earlier descriptions in which he did not see the Jews' greed as a danger to the Russians, Maksimov emphasized that due to their ambition and concerns for economic gains, the Jews, through their speculation on food prices in Romania, caused damage to the Russian army. He wrote that upon the arrival of the Russian troops in Romania, the Jews "started creeping in there and buying huge stocks of breads." As a result of this, he maintained that "the bread prices rose rapidly and thus hit local people and Russian troops in their pockets."⁶⁴

Similarly, he wrote that despite the complaints by soldiers and local people about the extremely high prices of food provisions, the Russians, especially commanders, took no significant step to prevent it. "Our delicacy reached such a level that," he wrote "we looked through our fingers at [the rise on prices], while Jews, along with Romanians, robbed our soldiers. There were cases when the Jews and Romanians exchanged francs with a great amount of the loss of money to the soldiers. Besides this they charged 1 or 2 francs for only exchanging the coins. For the exchange of the gold with silver coins, the Jews took 5% or 6% commission from soldiers."⁶⁵ Maksimov, under the hard conditions that the war caused, began to see the Jews as harmful people.

Conclusion

It is obvious from the evidence presented that in the 1870s, anti-Semitism in Russia increased. In the rise of anti-Semitism, in addition to exacerbating social and economic conditions, anti-Semitic propaganda in the press and government's suppressing policies toward the Jews, the Ottoman-Russian War of 1877 played an important role. Writings of Russian conservative and liberal intellectuals on the war serve as evidence to the wartime anti-Semitism. The Ottoman-Russian War, through its problems, such as lack of organization in the supply of food provisions, which burdened Russian army throughout campaign and also through its influence on the rise of patriotism, contributed to the increase of anti-Semitism among conservative as well as liberal Russian intellectuals. The increase of anti-Semitism is evident in Dostoyevsky's specific references to the Jewish influence on the British and, in general, on European politics. A stronger anti-Semitism is also visible in Gliarov-Platonov's articles dated 1878 that, in contrast to those written in early 1870s, suggest the extermination of Jews as an ultimate solution to the Jewish exploitation and capitalism. In addition, Pobedonostsev's later activities in Holy Synod and his greater emphasis on the necessity of the conversion of the Jews to the Orthodoxy show how Pobedonostsev, like some other Russian intellectuals, became increasingly nationalist and thus anti-Semitic during and aftermath of Ottoman-Russian War.

Also, liberal intellectuals had anti-Semitic sentiments, but their anti-Semitism was not as strong as that of conservative intellectuals. Derived mainly from atmosphere and conditions that the war created, Nemirovich-Danchenko and Maksimov came to question loyalty of the Jews and concluded that, the Jews

64 N. Maksimov, "Za Dunaem," *Otechestvennie Zapiski*, no. 4, 1878, 269.

65 Maksimov, "Za Dunaem," 269.



through their economic facilities on the front were harmful to the Russian nation. Unlike Dostoyevsky, Pobedonostsev and Gliarov-Platonov, whose anti-Semitism had political, religious and nationalist tones, liberal Russian intellectuals' anti-Semitism remained focused specifically and solely on the Jews' involvement in war economy. In other words, they described the Jews as outsiders, not due to their strong nationality or religious beliefs, but exclusively due to their exploitation of the Russians on the front. In any case, writings of both conservative and liberal intellectuals show that the Jews were perceived as outsiders that Russians could easily exclude from the Russian nation and blame for problems that derived mainly from their own mistakes and neglect.

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CHAPTER
11

**THE IMPORTANCE OF THE TBILISI
NERSISYAN SCHOOL
FOR ARMENIANS 1824-1924**

Melek SARI GÜVEN¹

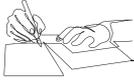
Introduction

19th century for Armenians, it was a period in which social and cultural activities developed in the political plane. Including to establish a political identity, Armenians have lived in this period developing and maturing intellectual movements with the help of churches, diaspora and schools. 19th century in which political, economic and social balances change all over the world was a different century for the Armenian society too. In the first quarter of this century, the printing houses in Tbilisi (Georgia), Moscow (Russia), Istanbul (Turkey), Smyrna (Turkey) and Madras (India) were the leading centers of Armenian culture and literature. The periodicals, books and other printed materials published in these centers appear to be factors affecting the social and political lives of Armenians. This development formed the idea of Armenian nation and nationalism and which is thought to be an instrument for the political independence of a nation. It has brought together Armenians living in different countries and directed the Armenian people to political movements. Especially in the regions of Transcaucasia and Russia with Armenian population, this development has shown itself through educational institutions. Although it was aimed to give a religious education in the Armenian schools that started to be opened in the 19th century, this tendency was replaced by science, language, literature, natural sciences and art. The Armenians, who were educated in these schools, were the names that shaped the Armenian political movements and worked to create a national identity. The opening of Armenian education centers and the initiation of political movements in Tbilisi, which is the social and political center for Armenians in the early years of the 19th century, is important for the Armenians to gain a political identity. Tbilisi Nersisyan School, which is one of the most important and effective for the Armenians, is one of these educational centers. Tbilisi Nersisyan School, one of the most well-known Armenian schools in Tbilisi in the 19th century, was founded in 1824 under the leadership of Nerses Ashtaraketsi in Tbilisi. This school, which continued for a hundred years, has a great place in the educational, cultural, social and political activities for the Armenians.

1.1. General Situation of Armenians throughout the 19th Century in Caucasia

By the end of the 19th century, the number of Armenians around the world is estimated to be approximately 3.5 million. The majority of the Ottoman Empire, Russia and Iran; the rest of the Armenians living in around 20 countries were living in many parts of the world. This has continued for centuries. Armenians

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living in Eastern Anatolia, Cilicia, Azerbaijan and Isfahan Region lived in small groups among Turks, Circassians, Azeris, Georgians, Persians, Arabs, Assyrians, Chaldeans. 100,000 Armenians were in Iranian territory. There was something that all Armenians knew about, which was not their own homeland. There was an Armenian population from Tabriz (Iran) to Tbilisi (Georgia) that spread from Van (Turkey) to Istanbul (Turkey). The educated Armenian population was generally located at the intersection of international trade routes. Armenians living in cities such as Isfahan (Iran), Marseille (France), Amsterdam (Netherlands), Madras (India), Istanbul (Turkey), Smyrna (Turkey), Cairo (Egypt) and Tbilisi (Georgia) gave great importance to education. They educated the Armenians living in the Ottoman Empire with the help of trained people and tried to liberate and organize them². Armenakan Party (Արմենական կուսակցություն)³, Hunchak Party (Սոցիալ Դեմոկրատ Հնչակյան Կուսակցություն)⁴ and Dashnak Party (Դաշնակցություն)⁵ were established as a result of these efforts and became the first step in the starting of a political organization of the Armenians.

The printing press⁶ and press played an important role in the formation of national consciousness and nationality in Armenians. As Boynerian points out, the first periodicals belonging to the Armenians were published by Harutyun Shmavonyan (Հարություն Շմավոնյան)⁷ Madras in India. The newspaper Azdarar (Ազդարար) published by Shmavonian, who is regarded as the founder of Armenian journalism, was the first Armenian newspaper to be published⁸. Azdarar (Ազդարար) was firstly published in 1794 in October. It is related with the life

2 Anahite Ter Minassian, “1876-1923 Döneminde Osmanlı İmparatorluğu’nda Sosyalist Hareketin Doğuşunda ve Gelişmesinde Ermeni Topluluğunun Rolü.”, *Osmanlı İmparatorluğu’nda Sosyalizm ve Milliyetçilik (1876-1923)*, Derleyen Mete Tunçay ve Erik Jan Zürcher, İstanbul 2014, s. 166.

3 Armenakan Party (Արմենական կուսակցություն). It was founded in 1885. Armenians say that this party is their first political party. It was founded by Mıgırdıç Portakalyan and a group of his students. The center of the party was Van. (Louise Nalbandian, *The Armenian Revolutionary Movements: The Development of Armenian Political Parties Through the Nineteenth Century*, University of California Press, 1963, pp. 67, 96.)

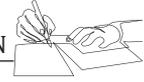
4 Hunchak Party (Սոցիալ Դեմոկրատ Հնչակյան Կուսակցություն). The Hunchak Party, founded in Geneva, Switzerland, in 1887. It is the second political party of the Armenians. Hunchak Party aimed to liberate to Armenia under the organisation of the Ottoman Empire and to establish a socialist regime. “Hunchak Party.” *Encyclopedia of the Modern Middle East and North Africa*. *Encyclopedia.com*. (September 7, 2018). <http://www.encyclopedia.com/humanities/encyclopedias-almanacs-transcripts-and-maps/hunchak-party>

5 Dashnak Party (Դաշնակցություն). It was founded in 1890 in Tbilisi.

6 Shahamir Shahamiryán founded the first Armenian printing house in 1772 in Madras.

7 Harutyun Shmavonyan (Հարություն Շմավոնյան). He was born in Shiraz (Iran) in 1750 and died in 1824. He was founder of the first Armenian periodical, Azdarar (Ազդարար). He founded the second Armenian printing house in Madras in the year of 1789. (Հայ Մշակույթի Նշանավոր Գործիչները, 5-18-րդ դարեր: Երևանի համալսարանի հրատարակություն: Երևան, 1976, էջ 553)

8 Avedis Boynerian, “The Importance of the Armenian Evangelical Churches For Christian Witness in the Middle East”, Volume 89, Issue 352, *International Review of Mission*, 2000, p. 76.



of the Armenian community of India. And also there were historical documents, announcements, spiritual speeches, stories, poems, fables, congratulations and other news. In addition to Armenian, there were Arabic and Persian writings in the newspapers. However, the publication life of this newspaper was short. Only 18 numbers were published⁹.

In the first quarter of the 19th century, the opening of the Armenian printing houses in Moscow, Tbilisi and Istanbul centers and thousands of books and dozens of periodicals were published. In this period, Russia's influence in Transcaucasia¹⁰ influenced the intellectual life of the people living in that region. Because there is a curiosity and interest against the Russian language and literature. As a result, in the 1820s, translations were made from famous Russian writers such as Pushkin, Krilov and Lermonov, and these works were reproduced in print shops. Moreover, Russian-Armenian dictionaries and the publication of Russian grammar books have also made it easier for Armenians to understand Russian literature and the socio-economic and political development in Russia. At the beginning of the 19th century, the important points of Armenian cultural progress were Madras (India), Calcutta (India) and Tbilisi (Georgia). Armenians in India with rich British capital have translated the books from English into Armenian with the influence of Western European thought and contributed to the enlightenment of the Armenians there. His translations from Voltaire, Julius Cesar, were published in Madras, a printing house in 1818. In later years, there are translations from Shakespeare and Molier¹¹. Therefore, the British thinkers and their works have an influence on the Armenians living in India. Russian literature and Russian thought have an impact on Armenians living in the Caucasus.

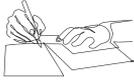
1.2. Educational Activities of Armenians in the 19th Century of the Caucasia

According to Stepanyan, the foundations of the cultural existence of the Armenians in Caucasia were based on the Armenian intellectual accumulation created during the 19th century. The cultural awakening, which had already started earlier among the Armenians, continued throughout this century and has developed rapidly especially in the Caucasus. The structure that triggers and nourishes cultural awakening has been the establishment of Armenian educational institutions and its activities. The Ağababyan School, which was established in Astrakhan in the early 19th century, was opened for the education of Armenian

9 Մելք Յակոբ Մեսրոբ , Հայերի Հնդկաստանում, ամենսահին ժամանակներից մինչև այսօր, Ասիական կրթական ծառայություններ, 1937, p. 597.; Ankakh Independent News, Vahe Antanesian, October 16, 2011.

10 At the beginning of the 19th century there was a Russian edition of the Caucasus. Russian colonization appeared because of the Russian-Ottoman; Russian-Iran wars. In this period, there were migrations of Armenians to Karabakh and Nakhichevan in the Caucasus. These places were under the Russian rules. In addition to these centers Baku and Tiflis became an important centers of Armenian cultural, economic, education and political activities.(Zaur Gasumov, *Historical Dictionary of Azerbaijan*, Rowman&Littlefield Publishing Group, 2018, p.35.)

11 Ստեփանյան, ԱղայանԺ.Պ.,ԱռաքելյանԲ.Ն., խմբագ. ՀայԺողովրդի Պատմություն 1974. Երեվան: ՀՍԳԱՊԻ, 1974: pp. 560-561.

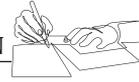


children. After this school, the Lazaryan School was established in Moscow and started its educational activities. However, the most important school established during this century was the Nersisyan School in Tbilisi in 1824. The establishment of schools in the Armenian colonies¹² takes place in Transcaucasia and Russia, where the Armenian population is densely located, away from the territory of the Ottoman Empire, where they live as the Motherland. In the 19th century, there were political formations in this cultural movement initiated by Armenians in the Caucasus. Armenians considered enlightenment through education as the best way to establish the political autonomy of a nation. The cultural awakening caused by this situation aimed to focus on national ideals and to combine the leading forces of the nation by serving the intellectual and political rapprochement of the Armenians living in different countries. According to Armenian writers, one of the most important problems faced by Armenian politicians was not being able to perform enlightenment movements with the help of educational institutions in Armenians under the yoke of foreigners. According to them, the Armenian people were oppressed and could not communicate with literature. This prevented them from reaching their national ideals. Armenian writers also wanted to serve the intellectual and political convergence of Armenians living in different countries. They believed that in this way they could unite the leading forces in the places where they lived¹³.

With the change of historical conditions since the end of the 19th century, there was a need for opening new schools suitable for time. At the beginning of the 20th century, the Church's influence on the education system weakened. Special attention has been paid to worldly subjects and new teaching methods have been used. In 1810, the Armenian merchant Nikogayos Agababyan founded the Agababyan School in Astrakhan. Although it was owned by the Armenians when the school was founded, it was officially opened in 1822. The students were predominantly Armenian children, but the language of instruction was largely Russian. More than a decade after the school's inauguration, trainer Serovbe Patkanian took part here. The other school opened after the Agababyan School was the Lazaryan School opened in Moscow in 1815. This school was opened with the means provided by the well-known businessmen in Russia and the Lazarians who were landowners. The first aim of the Lazaryan School was to educate Armenian intellectuals; the other aim is to train trained artists and qualified specialists in the eastern languages. Another goal for the founders of the school is to strengthen communication with the eastern countries and to work to end the backwardness of Eastern civilizations. The Lazaryan School attracted and trained students from the Caucasus, Armenia and even India. Lazaryans and the Board of Trustees of the school have been supported for the education of poor and orphaned children. Translation and independent textbooks of the school were read; Many of the teachers working on Armenian Culture have taught here.

12 For Armenians, the word *quq* (colloquial) means colony. This word is in the Armenian dictionary: 1. A country exploited and exploited by the imperialist state. 2. The people of the colonial country. 3. Where the homeland, country, region and immigration are settled. 4. Places for detainees and hostages. 5. (collective, metaphorical) The population of the colonized country. 6. Immigration. (Bararan.online)

13 Ստեփանյան, 559.



Some of these teachers are Harutyun Alamdarian, Stepan Nazaryan, Mikayel Nalbandian, Sımbat Şahaziz and Mıkırtıç Emin. At the same time the Lazaryan School was a great center of oriental studies. The graduates of this school worked in various magazines and newspapers. There were many Russian orientalists. The Lazaryan School was regularly organized in the 1830s. In the early 19th century, the Armenian population was in Crimea and schools were opened there. Between 1858 and 1871, Halibyan Boys' College was one of the most famous educational centers of the time¹⁴.

1.3. Training Activities of the Armenians in Tbilisi

Tbilisi plays an extraordinary role in the educational lives of Armenians. In early XIX century there were a few small schools here. In 1814, Nerses Ashtaraketsi was a leader in Tbilisi and wanted to establish a training center close to Armenia. In 1815 he opened a school in Van, one of the spiritual centers. In this school he studied Mesrop Tağiadyan, Haçatur Abovyan and Stepanos Nazaryan. However, the most important Armenian school in the South Caucasus during the nineteenth century was the Nersisyan School opened in Tbilisi by Nerses E. Ashtaraketsi in 1824. Both Lazaryan and Nersisyan School were the centers where Armenian secular literary language was developed. After the first thirty years of the 19th century, Armenian schools were also found in other provinces. Schools were founded in 1830 in Shushi, in 1831 in Ahaltshay, in 1832 in Yerevan, in 1837 in Nakhchevan and in 1847 in Alexandrovol in 1837, Shushi and Astrakhan Episcopal schools were established in Yerevan. These schools were supposed to prepare clergy, so they first accepted the children of the clergy. Then this rule was removed. Initially the lessons were told in Russian. In these schools, the domination of the church spirit was important. The place and importance of the Prelacy schools increased in the years 1870-1880. Gradually, the language of education began to be translated into Armenian. The Episcopal School of Yerevan played an important role in the intellectual and social development of the people of Ararat Valley¹⁵.

In 1874, the Gevorgyan School was opened in Echmiadzin. There was an education in this school that included many different branches, including Armenian studies. There were important clergy, academics and artists. Women's schools started to be opened in the 1860s, Yerevan Gayanyan in 1866. Yerevan and Tbilisi Gayanyan received a secondary school title in a short time. The first high school in which Western Armenian was spoken was opened in Istanbul in 1838 under the name of Sıkyutar School. The largest training center for Armenians was the Mesropian School, which was established in Smyrna in 1799. In 1834 and 1836, Muradian and Rafaelyan schools were opened with the help of the wealthy Indian Samvel Murad and Edvard Rafayel. The first one opened in Paris, the second in Venice. In 1870, the Muradian School moved to Venice and formed the Murad-Rafayelyan United School under the supervision of the Mekhitarist Monastery. In 1821, the world's most famous educational center was the Mardasirats School in

14 Հ, Մարգարյան. “Դպրոցը XIX դար-XX դարիսկիզբ.” Armeniaculture.am. Institute for Armenian studies of YSU. web. December 17, 2017:

15 Ibid. Մարգարյան.



Calcutta. The Central School, founded by Patrik Nerses Varjapetyan, operates in Istanbul. The most popular educational institutions in Armenia The Sanasaryan School in Karin in 1881 and the Central, Agricultural and Yeramian Schools in Van.1889 The highest religious institution in Armaş monastery in Istanbul¹⁶.

In the 19th century, among the most prominent Armenian schools of Tbilisi were the schools of Nersisyan, Gayanyan and Mariamyan-Hovnanayan. Among these schools, the most important for the Armenians was the Nersisyan school¹⁷.

2.1. The Nersisyan School

Nersisyan School was founded in Tbilisi in 1924 under the initiative of Nerses Aştaraketsi, the leader of the Armenian Diocese of Tbilisi. On the occasion of the Russo-Iranian War of 1828, Ashtaraketsi assisted Russian General Paskevich along with Armenian General Madatoff. Upon the defeat of the Shah of Iran, Abbas Mirza, Erivan, Echmiadzin and Nakhchivan moved to Russian rule. The Armenians were then promised an autonomous government by Russia and hundreds of Armenians migrated to Russia. After this settlement, Armenians directed their attention to educational activities. Lazaryan College in Moscow in 1816; Nersisyan College was opened in Tbilisi in 1824¹⁸.

The initial foundation of the Nersisyan School was to provide spiritual education. The first three years of the school opened in the first year of the five class 360 students reached five classes. The school, which gave thousands of graduates during its 100 years of existence, has been an important unit for the preservation and development of the Armenian culture. The number of students in the school, which has existed as Tbilisi Armenian College between 1826-1837, has reached 360 students. Harutyun Alamdarian, who was the first inspector of the school, is a well-known pedagogue and politician. The Alamdarian contributed to the development of the school by improving the moral and educational rules of the school. The school, which was rebuilt in 1743 with the Secondary School Program, was the beginning and development point of the Armenian education and enlightenment movement. In 1924, the school gave its last 25 graduates. In various years, school inspectors were Gabriel Patkanian, Petros Shantyan, Stepanos Nazaryan, Sedrak Mandinyan and others. Among his famous teachers were Leo, Hakob Manandyan, Stepan Lisitsyan, Gabriel Sundukyan, Ghazaros Aghayan, Tserents, Perch Proshyan, Manuk Abeghyan and others. Nersisyan School is the unit where Eastern Armenian periodicals started. In 1846-47, the first Armenian newspaper *Caucasus* was published with the support of the high school graduates and high school graduates Hakob Karenyan and Hakob Arghunyan. The Nersisyan School was a suitable center for the continuation of Armenian press broadcasting activities. Thanks to the magazines, newspapers and books published in this center, it was possible to develop and develop the Armenian culture¹⁹.

16 Ibid. Մարգարյան.

17 Այվազյան (զվի. իմբազիր) և ուրիշներ, Երևան, Հայկական հանրագիտարանի հրատ., Հ.1, Արայան-Ղուշյան, 2005, 19.

18 Kevork A. Sarafian, *History of Education in Armenia*, The Laverne Leader, California, 1923, pp. 237-238.

19 Ibid. Մարգարյան.



The poet and public figure Harutyun Alamdarian was the inspector of this school, but after his departure in 1837 his school system broke down. The school has become psychopathic. The school went up in the years of 1851-1857 with the arrival of Petros Shanchiyan. New courses have been added to the school curriculum. These; natural sciences, general history and French. In addition, corporal punishment is also prohibited. In 1861, the school was administered by a board of trustees elected by the people. This progress has spread throughout all Armenian schools. Many students, including Khachatur Abovyan and Stepanos Nazaryan, continue their education in Russian and European universities. Graduates of the Nersisyan School made great contributions to the development of different areas of Armenian culture²⁰. The school has a great honor and popularity not only among Armenians of Tbilisi but also among Armenians all over the world. The necessary initiatives were initiated. 8 million dollars have been allocated for the reconstruction of the building. Tbilisi Caucasus will be used by Lyceum after the construction of the school is completed²¹.

The students who graduated from here were the people who had continued their education at the German University of Dorpat and formed new ideas for the Armenians and made them popular among the people.

2.2. Graduated Armenians from the Tbilisi Nersisyan School

Among the Armenians who graduated from the Nersisyan School, there are names from many fields including historians, writers, writers, military commanders, architects and artists. If we give examples from these names; Haçatur Abovyan, Stepanos Nazaryan, Perç Proşyan, Derenik Demirciyan, Anastas Mikoyan, Gurgen Sevak, Karo Halabyan, Mikayel Mazmanian, Avet Avetisyan, Gabriel Sundukyan, Nikol Agbalyan, Sogomon Tehleryan, Stepan Sabah Gülyan are among the graduates of this school. Gazaros Aghayan and Hovannes Tumanyan are two non-graduate students who studied in this school²². Tumanyan was educated in this school for three years, but could not graduate due to financial difficulties and had to drop out of school²³.

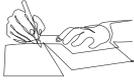
Haçatur Abovyan (Խաչատուր Աբովյան) was born in 1809 in Kanaker. He is an educator, a poet and a writer. He is one of the graduates of Nersisyan school who is an advocate of Armenian modernization and enlightenment. After studying at the Nersisyan School in 1824-1826, he was appointed to the Nersisyan School as an inspector in 1848 after working at various monastic schools and Dorpat University. Many of his short stories, poems and literary works, are the most famous novel of Armenia, *The Wounds of Armenia*. In this novel of Abovyan Armenian, Iran, Turkey and the Armenian relations with Russia and describes their efforts to build their own troops. According to Abovyan, language, belief and education are the most important elements to protect a nation. For this reason, Abovyan created products by attaching importance to these feelings in his

20 Ibid. Մարգարյան.

21 Anatoly Lunacharsky, "Nersisian School". *Revolyu. Online*. March 25, 2018.

22 "Ներսիսյան դպրոց." Հայկական Հանրագիտարան. Encyclopedia Online. 2010. web., March 25, 2018.

23 "Тбилисская Неделя", tbilisi.media. web., September 09, 2018.



Works. Abovyan, in the Armenian records, is known as the founder of the Armenian literature and the great illuminator²⁴.

Stepanos Nazaryan (Ստեփանոս Նազարյան) was born in Tbilisi in 1812. He was a friend of Haçatur Abovyan, who was educated at the Nersisyan School in 1824-1829 and studied at the same school during those years. After working as an educator in several institutions during his lifetime, he also served as an inspector in the Nersisyan School, like Haçatur Abovyan. Stepanos Nazaryan, who tried to get the Armenians to fight against the Turks and to formulate an independent state, made informative studies for the Armenians. Nazaryan also emphasized the importance of language like Abovyan²⁵.

Perç Proşyan (Պերճ Պրոշյան) is a journalist, writer, novelist, educator and poet who was born in 1837 in Ashtarak. Proşyan graduated from the Nersisyan School in 1856, and in 1859 he began teaching at the Nersisyan School. After serving as a teacher, Perç Proşyan served as an inspector. Proşyan, who took the example of Haçatur Abovyan as a writer, in 1879 wrote his novel *The Bread Problem*. Proşyan, who wrote articles on Armenian village life, women's education and national-religious fields, had an important place among the Armenians as an author of Armenian realistic novels. Proşyan, who died in Baku in 1907, wrote many short stories, newspapers and novels²⁶.

Derenik Demirciyan (Դերենիկ Դեմիրճյան) was born in 1877 in Akhalkalaki. Derenik Demirciyan is a novelist, translator, poet and playwright. He is one of the graduates of Nersisyan School. Her most important novel is *Vardanank*, a book about the Armenian-Persian Wars. Based on the historical events of the 5th century, this novel provides information about the events in the Persian and Byzantine circles. Demirciyan also wrote children's books and stories for children. Demirciyan, who has been awarded several literary prizes, lost his life in 1956²⁷.

Anastas Mikoyan (Անաստաս Միկոյան) was born in 1895 in Sanahin. Mikoyan was educated at the Nersisyan School and then attended a school under the Armenian Church. Mikoyan, who lived as a Soviet Armenian revolutionary and statesman, had many administrative duties during the Soviet period. He was a strong supporter of Lenin and Stalin. Before taking an active part in politics, he worked on liberalism and socialism. He died in Moscow in 1978²⁸.

Gurgen Sevak (Գուրգեն Սևակ) was born in 1904 in Tbilisi. After studying at the Nersisyan School, he studied history at the Armenian State University. Gurgen Sevak, who contributed to modern Armenian and linguistic studies, has written many articles and books. He has taught at Yerevan State University and other

24 “Khachatur-abovyan”. Find Armenia. Culture, Literature. web., June 20, 2018.

“խաչատուրաբովյան”. Anunner. biograpahe, web., March 19, 2018:

25 Անանուն Դ., Ռուսահայերի հասարակական զարգացումը XIX դարում (1800-1870), հ 1, Բաքու, 1916:

26 Հայկական Սովետական Հանրագիտարան/ՀՍՀ, հատոր 9, էջ 400.

27 Nishan Parlakian, S. Peter Cowe (Edited). *Modern Armenian Drama: An Anthology*. Columbia University Press. 2001, էջ.256-257.

28 Միկոյան. Անաստաս Հովհաննեսի. (հայերեն): vii. Երևան: Հայաստանի Գիտությունների Ակադեմիա: 1981: էջ 542.



universities. Gurgen Sevak, a member of the Esperanto Academy from 1971 until his death, died in Yerevan in 1981²⁹.

Garo Halabyan (Կարո Հալաբյան) was a Soviet Armenian architect and academic born in Ganja in 1897. Garo Halabyan graduated from the Nersisyan School in 1917 and completed the Moscow School of Painting, Sculpture and Architecture in 1929. He has realized many successful projects both in Yerevan and Stalingrat. He died in Moscow in 1959³⁰.

Mikayel Mazmanyanyan (Միքայել Մազմանյան) was born in 1899 in Tbilisi. He graduated from the Nersisyan School in 1918. Many of the projects designed and developed by Mikayel Mazmanyanyan, an architect with a medal of honor. He also made plans for various districts of Yerevan and these plans were put into practice³¹.

Avet Avetisyan (Ավետ Ավետիսյան), born in 1897, is an Armenian film artist. She studied at the Nersisyan School. Avet Avetisyan, who started working with an Armenian Drama Group in 1919, acted in 28 Armenian films. She has also starred in plays and documentaries. She has received the Order of Lenin, People's Artist of the Soviet Union, and State Prize of the Soviet Union³².

Gabriel Sundukyan (Գաբրիել Սունդուկյան) was born in 1825 in Tbilisi. After graduating from the Nersisyan School, Gabriel Sundukyan, who studied at Saint Petersburg State University, is the founder, writer and playwright of the Armenian theater³³.

Nikol Ağbalyan (Նիկոլ Աղբալյան) was born in 1875 in Tbilisi. After completing the Nersisyan School, he graduated from Moscow State University. Between 1919 and 1920, he served as the Minister of Education and Culture of the Republic of Armenia (Iarı 20ա19աւն bal). Nikol Ağbalyan prepared a five-year compulsory education program in Armenia during his ministry and intended to build 900 schools. However, only 22 schools were opened. These schools with 5162 students and 283 teachers were opened in Dilican, Karakilise and Alexandropol. Ağbalyan tried to disseminate the training program which was formed without discrimination on the basis of age, race and gender. On 26 December 1919, Ağbalyan, who declared Armenian as the official language of Armenia, aimed to gather the old manuscripts of the Armenians together³⁴.

Artashes Abeghian (Արտաշէս Աբեղյան), born in 1878, is a philologist, historian and educator. She studied at the Tbilisi Nersisyan School and later on in Germany. In 1919 he worked in the Nersisyan School. In 1922-1945, he founded the

29 Ա.Վ.Գրիգորյան. «Գուրգեն Սևակ». (Ծննդյան 80-ամյակի առթիվ). Պատմաբանասիրական հանդես №1. 1984: էջ 59-67.

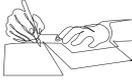
30 https://ky.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Karo_Halabyan&oldid=5451335

31 Ովոլի. Հայեր. Կենսագրական հանրագիտարան. հատորերկրորդ. Երևան, 2007:

32 “Ավետ Ավետիսյան”. arm-cinema. web., August 28, 2018.

33 Agop J. Hacikyan, Gabriel Basmajian, Edward S. Franchuk (Edited), The Heritage of Armenian Literature: From the Eighteenth Century to Modern Times. Wayne State University Press. 2005.

34 Titizian, Maria. “Lessons from the First Republic.” Asbarez. May 29, 2013, web., August 28, 2018.



Department of Armenian Studies at the University of Munich. During the Second World War he was a member of the Armenian National Council established in 1942 in Berlin. It aimed at the liberation of Armenia from the Bolshevik yoke and Russian sovereignty, and the reconstruction of Armenia's political autonomy³⁵.

Garó Halapian (Կարո Հալապյան) is an architect who graduated from the Nersisyan School. Yervant Kochar (Երվանդ Քոչար) is a sculptor who graduated from the Nersisyan School. Sogomon Tehleryan (Սողոմոն Թեհլերյան) was born in 1897 in Erzincan. A student of the Nersisyan School, Tehleryan continued his education in Serbia. He is a member of the Armenian Revolutionary Federation. At the beginning of World War I, he participated in the Andranik procession. He participated in the formations that acted to establish the Armenians' own state³⁶.

Stepan Sabah Gülyan (Ստեփան Սաբահ Գուլյան) was born in Nakhichevan in 1861. Having studied at the Tbilisi Nersisyan School, Gülyan was appointed as the Director of Nakhichevan Schools, where he focused on revolutionary ideas. He went to Paris for higher education and studied Political Science in Paris and later became the chairman of the Hinchak Party. He defended the independence and integrity of the Hinchak Party; He rejected the American mandate for Armenia. After 1915, he went to America and published magazines there³⁷.

Conclusion:

The 19th century has been a century of cultural, socio-economic, political and ideological transformations for the Armenians living in the Ottoman Empire. The reflections of the ideological formations brought by this century and the future centuries will be seen as concrete. One of these examples is the implementation of the Armenian Nation Regulations in 1863. With this regulation, the participation of the people in the church and community works was provided for the Armenians. The educated Armenians, who came to high positions in the Ottoman Empire, were the Armenians who led the process of establishing the order. Following the currents in Europe and studying in Europe, the efforts of the Armenians in shaping the place they lived and raising public awareness gave results in this way. The aim of these intellectual movements involves the desire to make arrangements for the Armenians from the state, rather than initially establishing a complete independence and an Armenian State. This demand came along with the means that nourished it as a result of the ideas that matured and flourished throughout the 19th century. The most important of these tools was the printing-publishing activities that facilitated and accelerated the printing press. Rapidly printed periodicals, translation works, announcements and other publications have been a field where Armenians developed, disseminated, and regulated intellectual movements. In the following period, the increase in the number of schools and the increase in the number of schools established. Schools opened in many places from India to the Caucasus have served for the Armenians living in those regions. First of all, the education system programs in schools, which undertook

35 Հայ գրատպություն և զրքարվեստ հանրագիտարան , Երևան, «Հայկական Հանրագիտարան Հրատարակչություն», 2015, էջեր 9-1120.

36 Ովովէ. Հայեր. Կենսագրական հանրագիտարան.հատորերկրորդ.Երևան, 2007:

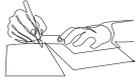
37 Arşiv Belgeleriyle Ermeni Faaliyetleri 1914-1918 Cilt III, 5).



a religious mission, have changed and diversified by taking science and other social sciences over time. It is seen that in the 19th century, when the schools were opened in areas such as women's education and children's education, the Armenians opened schools in the Caucasus, not only in theology but also in these areas. Especially Tbilisi became an important center of education and culture for Armenians and a large number of schools were opened there. The most important school for students in Tbilisi was the Tbilisi Nersisyan School. This school, which continued for a hundred years, was important not only for Armenians but also for Armenians living outside Tbilisi. After completing their education, the young people in this school went to the centers in Russia or Europe and continued their education and became important figures for the Armenians. For the Armenians, the young people who are educated and educated people have started to work for the education of the next generation and the people. The authors supported this process with the novels, stories and columns in the newspapers they wrote and realized the Armenian nationalism to contribute to the Armenianization process of the Armenians. The Armenians who graduated from the Tbilisi Nersisyan School, which were briefly described above, have a great contribution to the cultural awakening and the process of the stateization of the Armenian nation. In today's Armenia, each of the Armenians who graduated from the Nersisyan School the fact that the name is given to a street, to a museum, to a school confirms this.

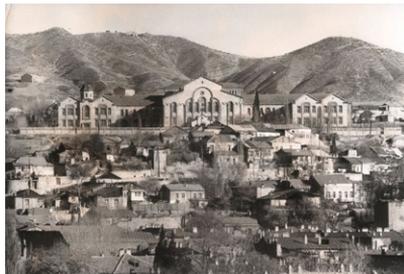
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EMPOWERMENT OF WOMAN IN ACADEMIC LIFE, AND OBSTACLES WHICH PREVENT EMPOWERMENT OF WOMAN AND TRANSPARANT OR GLASS OBSTACLE CONCEPT AND GLASS CEILING CONCEPT

Emine ÖZTÜRK¹

Introduction

The primary subject of this research is the empowerment of women in academic life and the removal of transparent obstacles such as glass ceiling and glass cliff that face women, and secondary subject is to reveal the economic, social and cultural qualities of gender inequality that have caused radical changes in our social life, understanding gender inequalities and to create awareness about this issue in order to contribute to its solution.

First of all if we start from this point of view, concept of empowerment, we need to make a correct definition of the concept. "Empowerment means that all men and women can control their lives, identify their own agendas, acquire skills (or ensure that their skills and knowledge are accepted), increase their self-confidence, and solve problems. Empowerment is both a process and a result." ²

In order to be able to explain this issue better, first of all, it is useful to mention women and education on the basis of gender in Turkey. Starting from this point of view, first of all, we need to define gender.

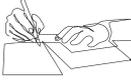
- **Gender:** Express socially determined roles and responsibilities of woman and man. Gender is a concept of how society sees, perceives, thinks, and expects us to behave, as women and men, not because of biological differences.³

Another concept related to the subject is the concept of social sex role. Now it will be good to define this concept.

- **Social Sex Role:** To adopt the behaviors appropriate to the roles expected from man or woman in society.⁴

It is the gender equality concept, the last and most important concept about

- 1 Prof. Dr., Department of Sociology of Religion, Philosophy and Religious Studies, Theology Faculty, Kafkas University
- 2 http://weprinciples.org/files/attachments/TR_WEPs_2.pdf, Date of access: 20.02.2018.
- 3 Özbay, Haluk-Öztürk, Emine; *Adolescence*, İletişim Pub., İst., t.y., (Supplement of Yeni Yüzyıl Newspaper:), page.21-22 And see also: <http://www.friesian.com/apa-pro.htm>, F. Carolyn Graglia, *Domestic Tranquility, A Brief Against Feminism*, Spence Publishing Company, Dallas, 1998.
- 4 Özbay -Öztürk; *Adolescence*, page.21-22.



gender. The definition of this concept can also be as follows.

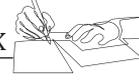
- **Gender Equality:** Not to discriminate about using opportunities, the allocation and use of resources and getting services because of the gender.⁵

“The concept of gender is a very comprehensive concept with many definitions. This concept tells us that womanhood and manhood are socially established and learned patterns. When we talk about studies about gender, it is not meant just to “include women too”, but also to be aware of the different sexual orientations and needs in the studies and to take account of discriminatory attitudes towards these. The gender-based division of labor not only differentiates men from women, but also influences their access to social resources and makes them unequal. This inequality is strengthened by various discrimination and obstacles based on gender; it becomes a serious obstacle to the economic, political and cultural development of not only women but also the entire society. Gender inequality and discrimination in Turkey; has serious impacts to every area of life, from education to working life, from health to participation of decision mechanisms. This inequality does not only affect women and girls, it also obstructs the democratization and development of the country seriously at the same time. According to the 2010 Turkey Millennium Development Goals Report (Binyıl Kalkınma Hedefleri) (MDG); they attract attention to inequalities related to geographic and gender differences obstructs reaching MDGs and it is necessary to give particular importance to encouragement of gender equality and providing empowerment of woman in Turkey. It has been understood that the major gap about inequality is related to women’s participation in decision-making processes and in the labor market. According to the Gender Inequality Index, Turkey is ranked 77, between 138 countries, about the areas of differences based on gender, sexual health, empowerment and participation in the labor force.”⁶

The ability of individuals to work effectively in society is primarily related to the appropriate training for the job. This depends on the effective use of the right to education by women. The use of women’s rights to education is an issue that has come to the fore of societies with feminism. *“Feminism in philosophical sense, after the woman’s treated badly during almost the entire European history, being assumed as witches and being burned, even forbidding her to touch the Bible, and being taken away their many rights such as inheritance, divorce, property; and The Age of Enlightenment, the French Revolution and the Declaration of Human Rights did not give the women what they expected, is a philosophical school or theory that has emerged from the declaration of natural rights for women to seek their rights in the 19th century but divided into many different branches until the 21st century. The sociological definition of feminism is as follows: Feminism, takes its inspiration from the declaration of natural rights; that women and men should have all the rights they have in the public arena, that men and women should make a division of labor within the family, that family planning and the establishment of appropriate environments for the work of women in the workplace should be*

5 Özbay -Öztürk; *Adolescence*, page.21-22; And see also: <http://www.friesian.com/apapro.htm>, F. Carolyn Graglia.

6 Özaydınlık, Keşer; **“At The Basic of Gender Women and Education in Turkey”**, *Sosyal Politika Çalışmaları Magazine*, C:14, ISSUE: 33, July-December/2014, p. 94-95.



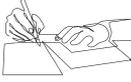
prepared; is a social movement that supports environmental and peace movements in this framework and a social movement that has been a pioneer in many social changes in the last two hundred years and a social case that is subject to sociological researches due to the actual efforts of its representatives.”

“Education, which is prerequisite for a productive and quality life and modern society, is a key concept about orientation to the rapid change and development process in today’s world. For this reason, the quality of the education, given to the individuals of a society, has great importance in terms of including all segments of the society. Education has an important role about maintaining the individual’s life, self-improvement, being a member of society and meeting the needs of living in harmony with society. This situation makes this a current issue that the need and right of every person to be educated. Being a right owner is one of the criteria that makes a person a real one. Freedom of a person is possible with the full and equal use of his/her rights. While nobles and wealthy people, who has the ruling power, had human’s right to education, the thought of educating the people began with the French Revolution of 1789. The right to education in a more detailed sense is recognized in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the United Nations, in the basic principles of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and Council of Europe, in the Paris Treaty on Human Rights Helsinki Document, and in the documents of the Conference on Security and Cooperation In Europe There are various problems in the society related to the use of the right to education and various obstacles can be encountered. Maybe the most important of these obstacles are gender inequality and / or gendered attitudes.”⁸

“In the vast majority of countries in the world, it seems that governments generally do not include women’s issues and women’s interests in their main development policies. Even in many countries, there are still laws that deny equality between men and women. According to UNICEF Reports, today, discrimination, especially against women, is undeniable. Discrimination against women begins with the family and society enabling less opportunities for girls than boys, in childhood, due to social and cultural stereotypes. Boys have a more advantageous position in terms of care given by parents both in general health care and in terms of education. It is a fact that women can not take the same place as men at every layer of society. One of the main reasons for this situation arises in the problems of women’s education. Throughout history, problems with women’s education have taken place in almost every country near the top. In 21th century, in Turkey, it can be said that this situation is not very different for women. Women coming from behind of men in education should be determined in terms of a healthy society, balanced and consistent family structure. In Turkey, despite all efforts, there are inequalities related to women in many areas, especially in education. These inequali-

7 Öztürk, Emine, *Feminist Theory and Turkish Women in Historical Period*, Gece Kitaplığı Yay., Ankara, 2017, page.14-15.

8 Özaydınlık, “**At The Basic of Gender Women and Education in Turkey**”, page. 95-96.



ties attracts the attention in every level of education. “9

As we come to the main subject of this study; “the problems women face in academic life mostly and obstacles in women’s academic life”, these can be expressed in short terms as follows.

1- The first obstacle, in front of women, in their academic life is: Women are considered as a sexual object or a servant of men by their own family in Turkey and in the world.

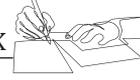
2- The second obstacle, in front of women, in their academic life is: The current social system codes women with the understanding that women are created to serve men, instead of understanding of that she has to discover her purpose through her life from childhood to her death and to use science as an instrument in this regard

3- The third big obstacle, in front of women, in their academic life is: The women are married off at a young age and their husbands usually puts invisible transparent obstacles in front of them instead of supporting her.

4- The fourth big obstacle, in front of women, in their academic life is: The women are surrounded by invisible transparent obstacles and glass ceilings in academic life.

Now it is useful to look at the exact definition of this transparent obstacle, the glass ceiling and the glass cliff terms and what they mean. “The concept of glass ceiling was first used by Hymowitz and Schellhardt in the Wall Street newspaper in 1986 and described it as a transparent obstacle preventing women to have higher management levels. Later, many definitions were made about the glass ceiling, which was the subject of many researches. The glass ceiling is an invisible and unbreakable obstacle that prevents women from rising to higher levels within the business. The glass ceiling concept refers to artificial obstacles created by attitude-related organizational prejudices or patterns that prevent women from reaching senior management positions and this concept used to summarize the comedowns of business women who are willing to move forward in their work and realize that they are prevented by unseen obstacles. Starting from these definitions, it can be said that the glass ceiling means that female workers can only come to a certain stage and be prevented from being able to get promoted to up or top management because of precisely unidentified reasons and prejudices, and in a sense, to be kept away from the administrative staff. According to the data of the ILO investigating the genders of the workers in the administrative staff, although the share of women in managerial positions continues to increase, it is seen that the rate of increase is slower than that of men. Even in the women-focused sectors where the female managers are expected to be more, it seems

9 Özaydınlık, “At The Basic of Gender Women and Education in Turkey”, page. 96.



that many men have risen to managerial positions. “¹⁰

This is the concept of the glass ceiling, now let’s see other concepts related to the subject. “Except for the glass ceiling analogy, the analogies used to describe the invisible obstacles that women face in their working lives have been tried to be explained with various concepts. Each of these concepts has different names depending on the quality and source of the career obstacles that women face. These concepts are: Glass walls, glass cliffs, bamboo curtains, maternal walls, tokenism (false compromise), queen bee syndrome. “¹¹ But, we will explain glass wall and glass cliff of these concepts. Because other concepts will both make bigger the volume of the study and digress it in different directions.

The first one of these concepts is glass wall term. “Glass wall metaphor describes the occupational discriminations that prevent or restrict women from taking part in certain jobs or departments. These invisible glass walls cause women to do certain types of work within the organization or stay within certain professional categories. For example, in a large-scale business, women are less likely to be involved in key management positions related to funding and product development. Career paths of female managers in the formation of glass walls are also influential. Women are usually at lower levels of the administrative levels. Especially they are positioned in departments that are considered as non-strategic, such as human resources and management, instead of top management. Glass walls continue their presence within the organization when they create obstacles in front of the change of organizational culture and when the skills required to perform the tasks in a particular section are not valuable in another section.”¹²

The glass wall term here is actually the most appropriate term to describe all the transparent obstacles. Indeed, all other terms related to the subject are terms derived from this concept. The following figure, which is in the master’s thesis of Eda Fındık, will make it better understood what the glass ceiling and the glass cliff mean.

10 Fındık, Eda; *The Impact of Work-Family Conflict on Glass Ceiling Syndrome: A Research on Business Hotels*, Nevşehir Hacı Bektaş-ı Veli University, Institute of Social Sciences, Master of Tourism Administration, Unpublished Master Thesis, Adviser: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Nilüfer Şahin Perçin, Nevşehir, July/2016, page: 26.

11 Fındık, *The Impact of Work-Family Conflict on Glass Ceiling Syndrome: A Research on Business Hotels*, page: 27-28.

12 Fındık, *The Impact of Work-Family Conflict on Glass Ceiling Syndrome: A Research on Business Hotels*, page: 28.

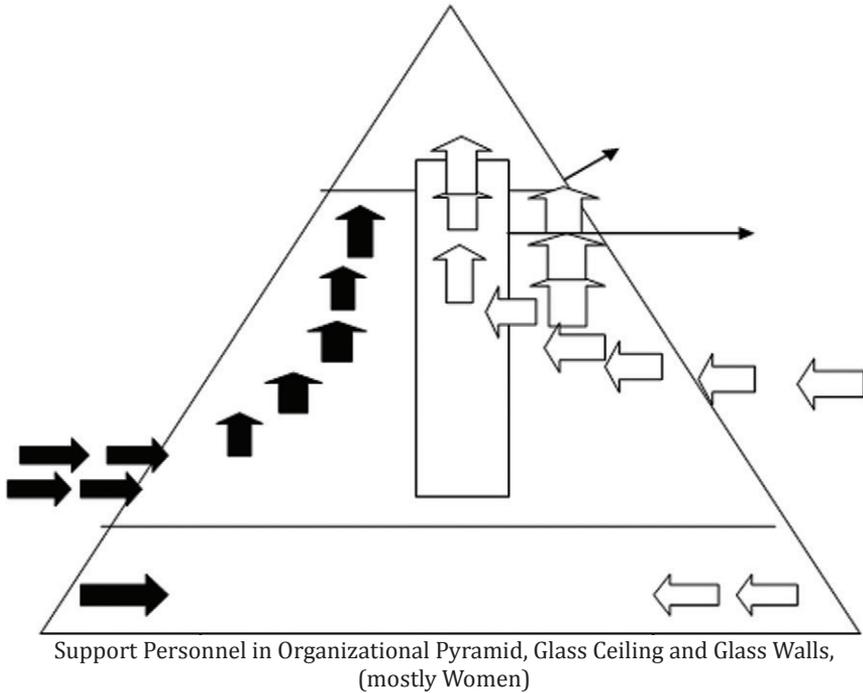
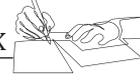


Figure -1: Glass Ceiling and Glass Walls in Organizational Pyramid

Now let's look at the definition of the glass cliff concept. "The concept of glass cliff refers to that; women who break glass ceiling usually fail because of the challenges and risks they face when they assigned to the sections facing crisis. The glass cliff also refers to the obstacles faced by women compared to men, such as the glass ceiling. Studies related to leader and leadership usually focus on personal and individual differences. However, in the emergence of the glass cliff, the existing situational conditions are influential. It is seen in the literature that men and women are assigned to management positions under different conditions. One of these conditions is company performance. Women are usually promoted to administrative levels in situations of general financial crisis or when the company has deteriorated. Therefore, women take the lead in problematic organization conditions and insecure periods. For this reason, it can be said that these positions are glass cliffs for women. In this case, the performance of women is perceived as inadequate and their future achievements are also being damaged. Contrary to this, men are assigned to the sections where they will be successful and it is easier to be assigned to higher positions in the future."¹³

In terms of revealing the table of this situation clearly and transparently in Turkey, by using the statistics of Turkish Statistical Institute (TÜİK), and because they are current statistics, it will be better to tell what is the situation of women

13 Fındık, *The Impact of Work-Family Conflict on Glass Ceiling Syndrome: A Research on Business Hotels*, page: 29-30.



in academic life and educational life based on official statistical data.

First table about the subject is the table showing the population by age group and sex, based on the official data of 2016 and 2017 we obtained from the official web page of TurkStat.

TABLE -1: Population by age group and sex, 2016, 2017

Population by age group and sex, 2016, 2017						
Yaş grubu Age group	Toplam Total		Erkek Male		Kadın Female	
	2016	2017	2016	2017	2016	2017
Toplam- Total	79 814 871	80 810 525	40 043 650	40 535 135	39 771 221	40 275 390
0-4	6 459 295	6 481 849	3 314 542	3 326 591	3 144 753	3 155 258
5-9	6 337 444	6 340 769	3 253 345	3 254 177	3 084 099	3 086 592
10-14	6 129 043	6 210 870	3 147 133	3 188 333	2 981 910	3 022 537
15-19	6 623 319	6 526 587	3 400 443	3 351 043	3 222 876	3 175 544
20-24	6 365 723	6 456 510	3 247 764	3 294 336	3 117 959	3 162 174
25-29	6 246 041	6 231 542	3 169 360	3 163 889	3 076 681	3 067 653
30-34	6 310 411	6 296 924	3 196 645	3 189 075	3 113 766	3 107 849
35-39	6 494 333	6 560 696	3 275 175	3 308 413	3 219 158	3 252 283
40-44	5 634 317	5 740 819	2 833 655	2 891 799	2 800 662	2 849 020
45-49	4 748 514	5 055 154	2 412 875	2 556 364	2 335 639	2 498 790
50-54	4 756 244	4 675 455	2 381 640	2 349 139	2 374 604	2 326 316
55-59	3 715 736	3 966 727	1 855 171	1 977 328	1 860 565	1 989 399
60-64	3 342 948	3 371 238	1 636 510	1 651 215	1 706 438	1 720 023
65-69	2 412 537	2 511 904	1 132 464	1 188 986	1 280 073	1 322 918
70-74	1 680 492	1 737 267	763 121	784 614	917 371	952 653
75-79	1 202 050	1 249 185	512 607	533 757	689 443	715 428
80-84	809 325	801 676	336 206	330 240	473 119	471 436
85-89	401 758	434 833	136 238	152 317	265 520	282 516
90+	145 341	160 520	38 756	43 519	106 585	117 001

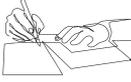
TÜİK, İstatistiklerle Kadın, 2017

TurkStat, Women in Statistics, 2017

Kaynak: TÜİK, Adrese Dayalı Nüfus Kayıt Sistemi (ADNKS), 2016, 2017

Source: TurkStat, Address Based Population Registration System (ABPRS), 2016, 2017

“In Turkey, in 2017, the male population was 40 million 535 thousand 135 people, and the female population was 40 million 275 thousand 390 people. In other words, 50.2% of the population were males and 49.8% were females. This proportional balance between women and men has changed in favor of women in the 65 and older age group because women live longer. 44% of the population



in this age group were men and 56% women. ¹⁴ “The life expectancy at birth in females is 80.7 years. Life tables, according to the results of 2016; life expectancy at birth, Turkey in general is 78 years, 75.3 years for men and 80.7 years for women. In general, it was seen that women live longer than men and that the life expectancy difference at birth was 5.4 years.”¹⁵ As the situation is understood according to age and sex, it is useful to look at the level of education.

Our second table about the subject is the table showing the population of men and women who have completed at least one education level based on official data from 2008 to 2017, which we have taken from the official website of TurkStat.

TABLE -2: Educational attainment of the population by sex, 2008-2016

Educational attainment of the population by sex, 2008-2016				
[25+yaş-age]				
				(%)
Yıl Year	Toplam Total	Erkek Male		Kadın Female
2008	81.1	89.8		72.6
2009	82.7	90.8		74.8
2010	85.2	92.6		78.0
2011	86.5	93.5		79.6
2012	87.0	93.8		80.3
2013	87.3	94.0		80.8
2014	87.8	94.3		81.5
2015	88.3	94.7		82.0
2016	88.9	95.1		82.8

TÜİK, İstatistiklerle Kadın, 2017

TurkStat, Women in Statistics, 2017

Kaynak: TÜİK, Ulusal Eğitim İstatistikleri Veri Tabanı, 2008-2016

Source: TurkStat, National Education Statistics Database, 2008-2016

Bilinmeyenler dahil edilmemiştir.

Unknowns are not included.

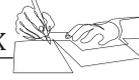
Yabancılar kapsama alınmamıştır.

Foreigners are not included.

“The proportion of women completed at least one educational level was 82.8%. In Turkey, in 2016, the proportion of those who were 25 years of age or older and completed at least one educational level in the total population was 88.9%, this proportion was 95.1% for men and 82.8% for women. If the gender equality index value, which represents the relative size of the gross schooling rate for girls to the gross schooling rate for boys, is equal to 1, it means that there is an equality between girls and boys. If the gender equality index value is minus

14 <http://www.tuik.gov.tr/PreHaberBultenleri.do?id=27594>; Date of access: 09.04.2018.

15 <http://www.tuik.gov.tr/PreHaberBultenleri.do?id=27594>; Date of access: 09.04.2018.



1, it shows that there is inequality in favor of boys; if the gender equality index value is greater than 1, it shows that there is inequality in favor of girls. When the gender equality index is examined according to the teaching type; In 2016, the primary school student gender equality index was 1.009, the secondary school gender equality index was 0.943, and the higher education gender equality index was 0.964. When the gender equality index is examined according to the years; higher education gender equality index has been constantly increasing since 2008 in favor of female students."¹⁶

Third table about the subject is the table showing gender equality index. And the table confirms the above data.

TABLE -3: Gender parity index of the gross enrolment ratio in primary, secondary and tertiary education, 2007-2016^{<?>}

cinsiyet eşitliği endeksi ⁽¹⁾ , 2007-2016			
Gender parity index ⁽¹⁾ of the gross enrolment ratio in primary, secondary and tertiary education, 2007-2016			
Yıl Year	İlköğretim Primary education	Ortaöğretim Secondary education	Yükseköğretim Tertiary education
2007	0.964	0.858	0.880
2008	0.979	0.890	0.801
2009	0.989	0.886	0.834
2010	1.004	0.897	0.862
2011	1.004	0.933	0.874
2012	1.018	0.942	0.881
2013	1.023	0.946	0.892
2014	1.018	0.954	0.902
2015	1.019	0.956	0.905
2016	1.009	0.943	0.964

TÜİK, İstatistiklerle Kadın, 2017

TurkStat, Women in Statistics, 2017

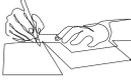
Kaynak: Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı, Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri Örgün Eğitim Yayını, 2007-2016

Source: Ministry Of National Education, National Education Statistics Formal Education, 2007-2016

(1) Cinsiyet eşitliği endeksi, kız çocuklarının brüt okullaşma oranının, erkek çocuklarının brüt okullaşma oranına olan göreceli büyüklüğünü ifade etmektedir. Endeks değeri 1'e eşit ise, kız ve erkek çocukları arasında eşitlik, 1'den küçük ise, erkek çocukları lehine eşitsizlik, 1'den büyük ise kız çocukları lehine eşitsizlik olduğunu gösterir.

(1) Gender parity index value expresses the relative size of the female students gross schooling rate to the male students gross schooling rate. If it is equal to 1, this means there is equality between male and female students, If it is smaller than 1, it shows inequality on behalf of male. If it is greater than 1, then it shows inequality on behalf of female.

16 <http://www.tuik.gov.tr/PreHaberBultenleri.do?id=27594>; Date of access: 09.04.2018.



The fourth table about the subject; is the table shows the proportion of professors by gender with the data between 2007-2016 . .

TABLE -4: Proportion of persons among tertiary education lecturers or professors by sex, 2007-2016

Proportion of persons among tertiary education lecturers or professors by sex, 2007-2016			
Yıl Year	Toplam Total	Erkek Male	Kadın Female
2007	100.0	59.9	40.1
2008	100.0	59.0	41.0
2009	100.0	58.7	41.3
2010	100.0	58.4	41.6
2011	100.0	58.4	41.6
2012	100.0	58.2	41.8
2013	100.0	57.8	42.2
2014	100.0	57.4	42.6
2015	100.0	57.1	42.9
2016	100.0	56.9	43.1

TÜİK, İstatistiklerle Kadın, 2017

TurkStat, Women in Statistics, 2017

Kaynak: YÖK, Yükseköğretim İstatistikleri, 2007-2016

Source: CHE, Higher Education Statistics, 2007-2016

“The proportion of female professors / lecturers in higher education is 43.1%. According to the results of higher education statistics; In 2007, the proportion of male professors / lecturers is 59.9%, female professors / lecturers is 40.1%. In 2016 this proportion became 56.9% for men and to 43.1% for women.”¹⁷ As you can see, within years, the numerical difference between female and male faculty members has changed in favor of women and the number of female faculty members has increased by 3%.

Now three tables will be given below and the three interpretations will be made together in a long paragraph. Because these data must be evaluated together.

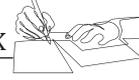
The fifth table about the subject has some selected data based on sex.

TABLE -5: SELECTED DATA BY GENDER, 2016¹⁸

Seçilmiş göstergeler	Toplam	Erkek	Kadın
Okuryazar olmayan nüfus oranı (25+ yaş)	5,1	1,6	8,5
Yükseköğretim veya fakülte mezun nüfus oranı (25+ yaş)	16,5	18,8	14,2
İstihdam oranı (15+ yaş)	46,3	65,1	28,0
İşgücüne katılım oranı (15+ yaş)	52,0	72,0	32,5
Genç işsizlik oranı (15-24 yaş)	19,6	17,4	23,7

17 <http://www.tuik.gov.tr/PreHaberBultenleri.do?id=27594>; Date of access: 09.04.2018.

18 <http://www.tuik.gov.tr/PreHaberBultenleri.do?id=27594>; Date of access: 09.04.2018.



The sixth table about the subject shows the percentage distribution of employment by sex and economic activities between 2007 and 2016.

TABLE -6: Percentage distribution of employed population by sex and economic activities, 2007-2016

Percentage distribution of employed population by sex and economic activities, 2007-2016									
[15+yaş-age]									
(%)									
Ekonomik faaliyetler-Economic activities									
Yıl Year	Tarım-Agriculture			Sanayi-Industry			Hizmet-Service		
	Toplam Total	Erkek Male	Kadın Female	Toplam Total	Erkek Male	Kadın Female	Toplam Total	Erkek Male	Kadın Female
2007	23.5	16.8	42.7	26.7	30.4	16.1	49.8	52.8	41.2
2008	23.7	17.1	42.1	26.8	30.8	15.7	49.5	52.1	42.3
2009	24.6	18.1	41.6	25.3	29.1	15.3	50.1	52.7	43.1
2010	25.2	18.3	42.4	26.2	30.3	15.9	48.6	51.4	41.7
2011	25.5	18.7	42.2	26.5	31.1	15.2	48.1	50.3	42.6
2012	24.6	18.4	39.3	26.0	30.7	14.9	49.4	50.9	45.8
2013	23.6	17.8	37.0	26.4	31.1	15.3	50.0	51.0	47.7
2014	21.1	16.1	32.9	27.9	32.4	17.1	51.0	51.5	50.0
2015	20.6	15.9	31.4	27.2	32.0	16.2	52.2	52.1	52.5
2016	19.5	15.5	28.7	26.8	31.6	15.9	53.7	53.0	55.4

TÜİK, İstatistiklerle Kadın, 2017

TurkStat, Women in Statistics, 2017

Kaynak: TÜİK, İşgücü İstatistikleri, 2007-2016

Source: TurkStat, Labour Force Statistics, 2007-2016

The seventh table about the subject shows the proportion of part time employees in employment between 2007 and 2016 by sex.

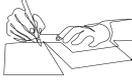
TABLE -7: Proportion of employed working part-time by sex, 2007-2016

Proportion of employed working part-time by sex, 2007-2016				
[15+yaş-age]				
(%)				
Yıl Year	Toplam Total		Erkek Male	Kadın Female
2007	8.1		4.4	18.6
2008	8.5		4.8	19.0
2009	11.3		6.6	23.8
2010	11.7		6.9	23.8
2011	12.0		6.8	24.7
2012	12.0		6.9	24.4
2013	12.5		7.2	24.8
2014	11.7		7.1	22.6
2015	10.9		6.7	20.6
2016	10.3		6.5	19.1

TÜİK, İstatistiklerle Kadın, 2017

TurkStat, Women in Statistics, 2017

Kaynak: TÜİK, Hanehalkı İşgücü Araştırması, 2007-2016



Source: TurkStat, Household Labour Force Survey, 2007-2016

“Women’s employment rate is less than half of men. According to the results of household labour force survey; In 2016, the proportion of the employees, 15 years of age or older, in Turkey, is 46.3% , this proportion is 65.1% for men, for women it is 28%. When the labor force participation rate was examined according to educational level, it was seen that as the level of education increased, women participated more in the labor force. The labor force participation rate of illiterate women is 15.2%, the labor force participation rate of women who is educated until high school is 27.2%, the labor force participation rate of high school graduated women is 33.6%, the labor force participation rate of vocational or technical high school graduated women is 41.4% ,the labor force participation rate of higher education graduated women is 71.3%. According to TURKSTAT data; women employment is highest in the service sector. According to the results of household labour force survey; When the employment rate by sex and economic activities is examined in 2016, total employment rate in agriculture sector was 19.5%, male employment rate was 15.5% and female employment rate was 28.7%. In the industrial sector, the total employment rate was 26.8%, the men employment rate was 31.6%, and the women employment rate was 15.9%. The total employment rate in the service sector was 53.7%, 53% for men and 55.4% for women. The part time working status of women in employment was 3 times that of men. According to the results of household labour force survey; in 2016 the proportion of part-time workers in employment is 10.3% in total, 6.5% for men and 19.1% for women. “¹⁹ As you can see, the highest labor force participation rate is 71% of college or university graduated women, followed by 44% technical high school graduates, 34% high school graduates and 27% graduated until high school. As the level of education increases, it is seen that women are more involved in the labor force. Since women employment is three times higher than men employment in part-time work, this indicates that a serious exploitation about women’s work is still going on.

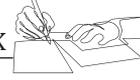
After evaluating these three tablets together, it will be useful to look at the table, which is the most critical and most vital table that gives evidence **of the existence of glass ceiling, glass cliff, glass wall and all other transparent obstacles in society, showing the women manager ratio.**

The eighth table about the subject shows the proportion of individuals who have managerial positions by sex between 2012 and 2016.

TABLE -8: Proportion of the individuals who have managerial positions by sex, 2012-2016

Proportion of the individuals who have managerial positions by sex, 2012-2016				
Yıl Year	Toplam Total	Erkek Male	Kadın Female	(%)
2012	100.0	85.6	14.4	
2013	100.0	83.4	16.6	

19 <http://www.tuik.gov.tr/PreHaberBultenleri.do?id=27594>; Date of access: 4/9/2018



2014	100.0	84.5	15.5
2015	100.0	85.6	14.4
2016	100.0	83.3	16.7

TÜİK, İstatistiklerle Kadın, 2017

TurkStat, Women in Statistics, 2017

Kaynak: TÜİK, İşgücü İstatistikleri, 2012-2016

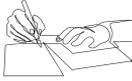
Source: TurkStat, Labour Force Statistics, 2012-2016

“The proportion of women in management positions in Turkey was 16.7% in 2016. According to the results of household labour force survey; the proportion of women in senior and mid-level management positions in companies was 14.4% in 2012 and 16.7% in 2016.”²⁰ According to the above data of TURKSTAT, there has been a very slight increase of 2% in women manager rate in four years. And there is a glass cliff of 66.6% between the number of male managers and the number of female managers. It is almost impossible to talk about the equal and free life of women in a society unless this glass cliff is cleared. Because women’s sensibility must touch every business environment and everywhere, and women’s sensitivity must be involved in it so that you can talk about the equal and free life of a woman in a society. Besides, “it is a fact that studies should be made by all parties who is responsible for the improvement of women’s social and economic position and improvements should be made in areas pointed out by negative indicators.”²¹

What we told until now is determination of the situation. Now, what is the situation in the world and what can be done to empower the woman in academic life. It will be useful to mention this. “Empowerment of woman is today considered to be not only about gender equality, but also one of the main means of achieving sustainable development, economic growth, and even peace and security. Concordantly, it should not surprise us that empowerment of women is often takes place on the agenda of experts, politicians and decision-makers along with their political, economic and social aspects. Many institutions, organizations and non-governmental organizations discuss empowerment of women in different contexts. In addition to these national and international efforts, various aspects such as economic, social and political aspects of the issue attract the attention of the academy and the media, and the empowerment of women is the subject of many researches and studies. This interest brings pluralism with it and the approach difference and what “empowerment” means, in a word, definition, about the women’s empowerment subject. Eventually, each group has their own way to start with a definition in the framework of their needs and priorities of their own working area In response to this diversity of definitions, it is not easy to make a comprehensive but free from ambiguity definition that will provide a conceptual framework for the current work. At this point, Kabeer’s definition of empowering women can be adopted as a definition; “a process in which people deprived of the ability to make life-related strategic choices have acquired this ability.” This definition, at the same time, directly and indirectly includes the essential ele-

20 <http://www.tuik.gov.tr/PreHaberBultenleri.do?id=27594>; Date of access: 09.04.2018.

21 <http://www.tuik.gov.tr/PreHaberBultenleri.do?id=27594>; Date of access: 09.04.2018.



ments of women's empowerment, which come to the fore related to this subject in theoretical and empirical literature. These elements can be listed as the right to have the power to direct their own life inside and outside the home, to have choices about life and to choose freely, the right to access opportunities and resources, and self-respect.²²

"One of the most comprehensive and ambitious studies about women's empowerment in terms of its goals and objectives as well as its geographical scope, undoubtedly, is in The Millennium Development Goals of the United Nations. In 2000, the Millennium Development Goals, with concrete and measurable commitments, were identified in order to functionalize the common values and principles in the Millennium Declaration agreed at the United Nations Millennium Summit. One of the eight Millennium Development Goals, for which the United Nations' 193 countries are parties, planned to be implemented until 2015, is "Empowerment of Women's Position and Improving Gender Equality."²³

"In line with this goal, three indicators have been set:

1. Gender Ratio in Primary, Secondary and Higher Education
2. Ratio of Women Working as Paid in Non Agricultural Sectors
3. Ratio of Women Deputies in Parliament²⁴

"One of the most important elements about empowerment the position of women in social, political and economic areas is education. In this study, primarily, the developments within the scope of the first indicator will be first examined, which aims to increase the schooling rate of female students, and as a result, to eliminate gender inequality in primary, secondary and higher education. Within the scope of this indicator, the goal of the United Nations is to "remove gender inequalities in primary and secondary education, preferably until 2005, and at all levels of education until 2015". For this purpose, the party countries have made many studies individually or with the United Nations, some of which have been successful and have brought those countries closer to the Millennium Development Goals. The 2005 targets were not fully achieved, but, generally, significant progress has been made about gender equality in primary and secondary education."²⁵

"The Millennium Development Goals do not have such a comprehensive framework with extremely limited aims and indicators on gender equality and the empowerment of women. As a result, even if the Millennium Development Goals are fully achieved, if no other measures are taken, there is probably no real progress about the empowerment of women."²⁶

Last table; shows the current number of academicians by their duty accord-

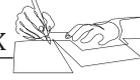
22 Zihinoğlu, Özge, *The Empowerment of Women and Education*, Global Politics Trends Center, İstanbul Kültür University, January, 2013, page:1.

23 Zihinoğlu, *The Empowerment of Women and Education*, p: 1-2.

24 Zihinoğlu, *The Empowerment of Women and Education*, p: 2.

25 Zihinoğlu, *The Empowerment of Women and Education*, p: 2.

26 Zihinoğlu, *The Empowerment of Women and Education*, p: 6.

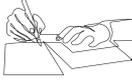


ing to the data of 2016-2017 Academic Year, in Turkey.

TABLO:9-2016-2017 EĞİTİM VE ÖĞRETİM YILI VERİLERİNE GÖRE, GÖREVLERİNE GÖRE TÜRKİYE'DE MEVCUT AKADEMİSYEN SAYISI<?>

PROFESÖR		
PROF		
M	F	T
15602	6933	22535
DOÇENT ASSOC PROF		
M	F	T
8921	5282	14203
YARDIMCI DOÇENT ASST PROF		
M	F	T
20185	14467	34652
ÖĞRETİM GÖREVLİSİ INSTRUCTOR		
M	F	T
12056	9367	21423
OKUTMAN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTOR		
M	F	T
3653	6146	9799
UZMAN SPECIALIST		
M	F	T
1903	1871	3774
ARAŞTIRMA GÖREVLİSİ RESEARCH ASSISTANT		
M	F	T
22607	22714	45321
ÇEVİRİCİ TRANSLATOR		
M	F	T
7	13	20
E.Ö.PL. EDUCATION AND TEACHNG PLANNER		
M	F	T
24	12	36
TOPLAM TOTAL		
M	F	T
84958	66805	151763

There are a total of 151763 academicians in Turkey, according to the table above. 84598 of them are women and 66805 are men. That is to say, there is a difference of nearly 20,000 between the number of female and male academicians. In addition, 15602 of these academicians are male and 6933 are female professors. While the number of male associate professors is 8921, the number of female associate professors is 5282. As you can see and these numbers shows that in Turkey, the number of female academicians and educators are far less than



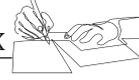
men. These numbers need to be increased more and women should be strengthened. "The most basic way to remove the social exclusion of women, in order for their existence the labor market, is to provide equal opportunity in education. In addition, in general, it is necessary to establish conditions to ensure equal opportunity in all areas of education and vocational technical knowledge in vocational education. The increase of schooling in secondary education in the 20th century has led to an increase in the number of women in higher education. Unfortunately, we did not see the same increase at women's rising to decision-making positions. Serious steps have been taken to ensure equal opportunity in education, in Turkey. But, when we look at quantitative data, inequalities among the disciplines of education are still unresolved, and steps have not been taken at the same level, especially in top positions in employment in public institutions."²⁷

"Gender discrimination lies behind women's discrimination against their counterparts in terms of employment and promotion in their working life. Within the scope of gender discrimination, gender and biological sex of women are associated. In this context, tasks, responsibilities and occupations that women can assume are reduced to certain categories. Discrimination based on sex has been adopted for labor of women and men because of gender discrimination. In this discrimination, women's labor in favor of men is made invisible, causing social problems to emerge in society. However, it is expected that the concept of gender should be the concept, which lost its influence mostly, in the higher education institutions, which are institutions where justice, sharing, participation, equality and freedom should be protected the most."²⁸

But when we examine Turkey it appears that female academicians have been discriminated against in the workplace and have not been able to get rid of their traditional role which society provided them. Besides, as in other fields, the academic field, which is considered as an example in terms of fair employment, requires more work from the male colleague in order for the woman to be promoted. Even within the scope of such an understanding, women are prevented from promoting to senior positions. In fact, the other factor that causes gender discrimination is the woman herself. The woman does not choose to be more active in her work life, removing these roles, which are provided by society. Apart from gender discrimination, there are many other underlying reasons of women not being able to promoting administrative positions in higher education institutions. These reasons are; lack of adequate policy to encourage women to lead, lack of any ethical rules about gender equality in the relevant legislation, lack of balance between women and family in work life (role conflict), lack of mechanisms supporting the balance between family and work, lack of cooperation between women and lack of mentor, male dominant culture dominates academic life, women's leader role models are few in number and ineffective, women are not candidates for executive positions resulting in lack of self-confidence, struggle and resistance. In addition, the factors that prevented women from reaching decision-making mechanisms in the higher education administration, UNESCO

27 Tahtalioğlu, Hava, "The Effects of Glass Ceiling Syndrome on Women in Higher Education Institutions in Turkey", *Niğde University Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences Magazine*, Niğde, 2016, C:XIX, Issue:2, p: 98.

28 Tahtalioğlu, "The Effects of Glass Ceiling Syndrome on Women in Higher Education Institutions in Turkey", p: 98-99.

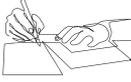


conducted in 1993, are; discrimination in appointment and promotion practices; dual role taking; family attitudes; career interruptions, cultural stereotypes, alienation from male culture, glass ceilings with hidden criteria for the advancement of women, family and friends support, having a disabled child, divorce, administrative obstacles, interiorisation of women's ability not to be able to come managerial positions or in other word to accepts it. As you can see, in the higher education institutions, glass ceiling syndrome has been gathered around three factors: individual, social and organizational. As in other institutions, in higher education institutions, these factors create an invisible barrier between female academicians and senior positions.²⁹

"In order to ensure the developing and changing world order in the higher education system, it is necessary for the women to be brought into the academic system and kept in the system. In fact, on the basis of this situation, there is ideally assessment of human resource. For this reason, in order to ideally assess the human resource, which is inactive because of many reasons, created by the women who is on the ground of gender discrimination, it is necessary first to make legislative regulations and to improve the existing regulations. The first expectation within these improvements is the full equality of opportunities in the education sector. However, only increasing the number of educated women can not solve this problem. The concept of gender equality should be placed more effectively in the curriculum of education together with the mechanisms that provide the increase of educated and conscious women. For this purpose; government, Turkey Grand National Assembly (TBMM) and the Ministry of Education (MoNE) have important responsibilities. First of all, this issue should be included in the government programs and on the agenda of the TGNA (TBMM). Afterwards, MoNE (MEB) should make changes in the relevant education curriculum to adopt the concept of gender equality. The Council of Higher Education (CoHE) is another institution that will determine the legal ground. CoHE (YÖK) should ensure that female employees are supported for leadership positions by acting more effectively in establishing the legal basis. In addition, legal grounds should be established in universities to support female employees both institutionally and individually. Again, academic studies in this context should be developed and struggle with discrimination. Regulations should be made having regard to these studies, about the creation of public policies and the implementation of legal regulations by the relevant institutions. In addition to these applications to provide gender equality, it is necessary to develop part-time or home office (home or remote) applications, strengthen the economy to facilitate women's home life, establish the Academy Women's Union, and ensure that women take active role in the law-making process. In order to reach leadership positions, it is also necessary for girls to be educated at an early age, role models must create awareness, and mentor practices must be developed. It is also necessary to take measures such as taking precautions to eliminate social prejudice, representation of women in academic or administrative commissions proportionately, getting special training for women's development of leadership skills, getting women into formal and informal networks, encouraging women to become managers."³⁰

29 Tahtaloğlu, "The Effects of Glass Ceiling Syndrome on Women in Higher Education Institutions in Turkey", page 98-99.

30 Tahtaloğlu, "The Effects of Glass Ceiling Syndrome on Women in Higher Education Institutions in Turkey", page 99-100.



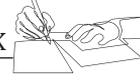
"Women's, not being ambitious for leadership positions, seeing their job in the background because of the family duties defined for them, and the role conflict between family and job, are the individual obstacles they put into their career path on their own. Because of these obstacles, the secondary path chosen by academician women as a solution to the dilemma between their family and their work is to be single. It is necessary to establish systems in which the obligations of the home, family and individual (especially the elderly, patient and infant) are shared by the husband and / or the state and removal of these reasons that affect the employment and position of the woman in the work life. It should also be considered to develop vocational rehabilitation programs by the state that will support the career development and help the fight against glass ceiling syndrome."³¹

"To be a successful manager; it is necessary to have organizational vision to be well adopted, to have positive relations with the personnel and the relations must strengthen the personnel, and to create opportunity to develop learning organization culture. The conditions for being an executive leader depend on these; the development of leadership style and potential, being optimistic, individual self-reliance, personal opinion being important and being open to different opinions, knowing well their strengths and weaknesses.(Özmen, 1999: 265). So, there is a need for organizations that strengthen and learn about their personnel at both institutional and national scale. Whether the individual is a woman or a man, he/she must not be deprived of senior positions if he/she has the qualities of being a manager and a leader. It is necessary to organize trainings to educate the managers who do not ignore the corporate mission and vision while being open to innovation and who keep the personnel in the foreground for the more effective adoption of economic, social and political developments, which are gaining intensity through globalization, and for the implementation of these changes as soon as possible."³²

"Although the women are in the business world for years in Turkey, still they are exposed to discrimination both in employment and promotion. However, it is expected that the women who reach the necessary ability will be involved in the business world after the legislative regulations about the right of education and the equality in opportunities are made. But, the situation is not so simple when you look at the application examples. Because there are other problems under these basic problems. One of these problems is the 'glass ceiling' fact, which is especially effective on women and is often faced by all the employees from time to time. The glass ceiling is invisible and artificial barriers that causes employees to be subject to discrimination in both employment and promotion. As it is generally accepted, the glass ceiling is the interruption of career processes with invisible barriers for various reasons, even though the individuals are aware of the senior duties. Three factors which are among the reasons of discrimination and which are often mentioned as the causes of glass ceiling syndrome are remarkable. These factors are individual, social and organizational factors. From time to time, all employees feel these factors that are effective in the formation

31 Tahtalioğlu, "**The Effects of Glass Ceiling Syndrome on Women in Higher Education Institutions in Turkey**", page 100.

32 Tahtalioğlu, "**The Effects of Glass Ceiling Syndrome on Women in Higher Education Institutions in Turkey**", page 100.



of glass ceiling syndrome. However, because of these factors, women are pushed into secondary position in business life or withdrawn from work life, relatively to the opposite sex. Because of these factors women are often faced with glass ceilings in the private sector and public institutions. There are very few women who overcome these invisible, hard and artificial obstacle. The glass ceiling, which causes women to be subject to discrimination, has a particular importance of being handled in universities. Because universities are institutions in which justice, participation and equality are expected to be or should be expected. Therefore, it is unacceptable for the institutions with these characteristics to push the individual to the secondary plan only because of his / her gender. In this study, in fact, despite the fact that they also receive qualified education, the general situation of female academics, especially the quantitative situation in senior administrative positions, has been observed, in Turkey, in higher education institutions where qualified and technical education is provided or tried to be provided.”³³

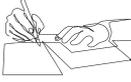
In addition to these, in 2015, Council of Higher Education (YÖK) organized for the first time the Gender Equality Sensitive University Workshop, in this workshop, in order to eliminate discrimination due to gender inequality, the main chapters are addressed and solution offers proposed to overcome the glass ceiling by evaluating factors that cause women to be subject to discrimination. Considering these solution offers by practitioners, will provide to put into practice the benefits of such activities. In order to overcome the glass ceilings on female academics, individual, organizational and social factors must be reconsidered as well as the need for such studies. In addition, academic studies that offer solution proposals to these factors need to be shared with students, who are willing to take the first steps towards their careers, in various symposium, meeting and educational programs. It is considered that such seminars presented to the students and the employed personnel will prevent individual reluctance about their promotion to senior positions, as a sign of learned helplessness, role conflict and gender stereotypes for women. Thus, the woman will be able to overcome any obstacles in front of her, as she has identified career stages as conscious and willing and have the necessary qualifications and knowledge for senior positions. Therefore, due to many reasons such as the increase in the number of women overcomes the obstacles, their effectiveness within the administrative system, and so on, the individual, social, cultural and organizational values forming invisible barriers will lose their validity. Because every woman who overcomes these barriers is a sign that glass ceilings, which are seen as impassable, can actually be overcome.”³⁴

Result

As a result, we can say that; to be able to mention women’s equality and freedom in a society and to be able to mention a healthy social life in the same society, it is necessary to be able to mention a fairly division of labor and a fairly authority

33 Tahtaloğlu, “**The Effects of Glass Ceiling Syndrome on Women in Higher Education Institutions in Turkey**”, page 100-101.

34 Tahtaloğlu, “**The Effects of Glass Ceiling Syndrome on Women in Higher Education Institutions in Turkey**”, page 101.



and responsibility distribution between men and women. However, in the Turkish academic community, we talk about the superiority of nearly 20,000 male academics between men and women. In addition, when we look at the statistics about women's taking place or not in administrator positions, we see that male managers have a rate of 83% and female managers have only 16%. This shows that women take part in business life but often they are not given the opportunity to rise to the administrator positions. It is impossible to talk about the freedom and equality of women, without overcoming these transparent obstacles, glass walls and glass ceilings that women face in business life. The solution of these problems will be with a conscious and planned effort. And the solution of these problems is not something to do in a day. Because social problems occur over time, they are resolved over time. Because social problems are not mechanic, they are dialectics and they occur in time. This study is an assessment about the subject, the solution of the subject will be discussed with other studies.

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**RECALCULATION OF OPEN MARKETS
INDEX WITH AN ALTERNATIVE
APPROACH****Ömer Faruk RENÇBER¹****Introduction**

The development levels of the countries were measured by the abundance of economic assets until the 1960s. In this case, GDP per capita - still considered to be one of the most important economic indicators - indicates the development level of a country (Gürses,2009: 341). Particularly after the World War II, the views that GDP per capita would increase with the increase in industrial and commercial capacities, and the countries would also develop, were adopted (Rençber, 2017: 85). For this purpose, the countries strove to produce and commercialize more. However, the level of openness of countries in the international trade, in other words, the degree of globalization of countries is constantly being debated.

This situation, which is described as foreign openness in the literature, is generally measured by comparing the ratio of import and export amounts with the GDP. However, it is argued that the indicators used in most of the studies on this topic should be different. Zhang et al. (2015), Parashar (2015), Tekin (2012), Manole and Spatareanu (2010) are some of the supporters of this argument.

The ICC is of the opinion that infrastructural facilities affecting trade directly or indirectly, and implemented policy factors, as well as import/export values of foreign openness of countries, should also be included in the measurement (OMI,2017:5). For this purpose, an index called the Open Markets Index (OMI) have been published by ICC every 2 years, since 2011. The index is the most important and comprehensive index regarding the measurement of trade openness of countries. The objectives of calculating the index are stated as follows (OMI,2015:4):

- To rank the countries from the best to worst according to their openness to trade,
- To examine the trade performances of the countries under 4 factors and to show law-makers shortages related to their countries.

For these purposes, the trade openness is calculated for 75 countries, and the index contains sub-indices of trade openness, foreign direct investment, trade policy and infrastructure.

In this study, as an alternative to OMI, a new index has been developed called OMI_2 including 166 countries for the year 2016 by adding taxation and legal rights indicators. In the calculation of the index, the TOPSIS method was ap-



plied, which is one of the multi-criteria decision-making techniques. The main purposes for applying this method are, to make the countries compete with each other and to rank them according to their best-worst conditions.

1. Literature Review

In the literature, foreign trade openness of countries is prominent as a frequently discussed topic. The studies in this field are generally based on measuring the relationship between trade openness and different indicators, rather than calculating a new index. Summaries of some similar studies have been included in this section.

In their study, Waugh and Ravikumar (2016) examined the levels of trade potential of countries according to trade flexibility, sharing and income levels. As a result of the study, they have stated that the cost of trade in countries with low-income is high, and their trade potentials are relatively weak compared to that of rich countries. At the same time, they found a negative relationship between trade openness and trade costs. Crowdhury et al. (2016) examined the relationship between exchange rate policy and fiscal discipline, and regarding these, the role of trade openness. According to the authors, the general acceptance of the fixed regime requires more fiscal discipline, and also some arguing that the free-floating regime is more disciplined. As a result of the study where the developed and developing countries were examined, they concluded that the fiscal discipline was higher in countries whose openness to trade were low. Parashar (2015) examined the factors affecting the inflow of foreign direct investment regarding China and India. In the study, they measured the inflow of foreign investment by utilizing factors such as market size, infrastructure, the opportunity cost for investors, trade openness, growth rate, policy change and inflation. As a result of the implementation, it has been stated that the size of the market in the inflow of foreign capital for both countries, also the low wages in China, and the policy reforms in India play an important role.

In his study, Sahin (2015) examined the measurement methods of foreign openness. The author compared several measuring techniques and stated that there were techniques that are quite different regarding this matter. He stated that, because of these differences, it was difficult to classify the countries in terms of foreign openness.

Sachs and Warner (1995) measured the foreign openness of a country by using variables such as customs tariffs, non-tariff barriers, policy and exchange rate regime. With this aim, they developed a scale and evaluated those meeting the criteria as closed. At the same time, it is prominent among the important studies in this field since it includes quantitative variables as well as qualitative variables.

Edwards (1998) measured the foreign openness by using the Sach-Warner openness measure, outward orientation index, Learner's openness index, tax rates in trade, customs tariffs and import variance indices. Rose (2005) examined the foreign openness in seven categories with criterion based on trade shares, trade flows, tariffs, non-tariff barriers, qualitative criteria, composite indices and price-based criteria. Semancikova (2016) studied the effects of countries' trade

openness and trade performance on macroeconomic indicators. Accordingly, he reached to the conclusion that trade policy played an important role in the economic growth. Eris and Ulasan (2013) examined the relationship between long-term economic growth and trade openness in their study. In the study where Sachs and Warner trade openness index was used, they stated that they had not concluded that it was directly related to long-term economic growth.

2. TOPSIS Method

TOPSIS (Technique for Order Preference by Similarity to Ideal-Solution) method is one of the multipurpose decision-making techniques based on comparing and ranking the decision units with each other according to certain criteria. The method was originally proposed by Hwang and Yoon (1981) according to the logic closest to the ideal point and farthest from the negative solution. TOPSIS method is applied in six steps (Omurbek and Kinay, 2013:349); firstly, a matrix is created in which alternative decision units (countries in this study) and variables (indicators) are included, during the application of the method. Then, data is normalized. Technique used in this step may vary, and the equation applied in this study is as follows.

$$x_{normal} = \frac{x_{ij}}{\sqrt{\sum x_{ij}^2}} \tag{1}$$

The normalized data is multiplied by the weights, and then the maximum and minimum solution points are determined. In this step, the variables desired to be minimum (taxes, tariffs, document density used in this study) were re-evaluated with the following equation, and then the maximum and minimum solutions were obtained.

$$x = 1 - x_{normal} \tag{2}$$

After determining maximum (the best) and minimum (the worst) solution points, distances between these points are determined for each decision unit. In this step, the Euclidian Distance Approach is used. The formula used to measure the distance from the positive and negative solutions in this step is as follows.

$$S_i^+ = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (x_{ij} - x^+)^2} \quad \text{for positive solution} \tag{3}$$

$$S_i^- = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (x_{ij} - x^-)^2} \quad \text{for negative solution} \tag{4}$$

In the last step of the method, the relative proximity value to the ideal solution is calculated. The formula used in this step is as follows;



$$C_i = \frac{s_i^-}{s_i^- + s_i^+} \quad (5)$$

The C_i score obtained is evaluated as the superiority score of that decision unit. This value is between 0 and 1, and the order of superiority is ranked from high to low.

3. Open Markets Index (OMI)

The Open Markets index is measured as an indicator of the foreign openness level the countries have, and the level they integrate with the global economic forces in the international trade. In OMI, published by the International Chamber of Commerce since 2011, countries are evaluated in 4 different categories. These are trade openness, trade policy, openness to foreign capital and trade infrastructure. Indicators and weights used in the calculation of the index are as in the table below.

Table 1: Sub-Indices and Indicators Used in Calculation of OMI

Sub-Indices (Weight)	Indicators (Weight)
Trade Openness (35%)	Trade to GDP Ratio (33.3%)
	Merchandise and services imports per capita (33.3%)
	Real Growth of merchandise imports (33.3%)
Trade Policy Regime (35%)	Applied Tariffs (60%)
	Total Tariffs (20%)
	Non-tariff measures AD (10%)
	Efficiency of border administration (10%)
Openness to FDI (15%)	FDI (50%)
	FDI Welcome Index (50%)
Infrastructure (15%)	Logistic Performance Index (60%)
	Communication Infrastructure (40%)

According to the table, in OMI calculation, it can be seen that trade and policy implemented have high weights; indirectly, they are added to the calculation with low weight to the effective variables. In the scope of the index, 75 countries were examined and the arithmetic average method was methodologically used. At the same time, the countries are classified according to their index scores as follows: too weak (score:1-1.99), below average (score:2-2.99), average (score:3-3.99), above average (score:4-4.99), and the most open (score:5-6).

4. Indicators Used in the Alternative Index Calculation

In the study, similar to the OMI published by the ICC, four sub-indices for the year 2016 and including 166 countries were developed, and then an alternative general market openness index was calculated. The new index that is created is named OMI_2. The indicators and weights used in calculation of the index are as in the table below.

Table 2: Indicators and Sub-Indices Used in the Study

Sub-Index (Weight)	Indicators	Weight
Trade Openness (35%)	Merchandise Trade (%GDP)	25%
	Service Trade (%GDP)	25%
	Trade (%GDP)	25%
	Imports Growth	25%
Trade Policy Regime (35%)	Total Tax Rate	15%
	Applied Tariff Rate	15%
	Binding Coverage	15%
	Ease of Doing Business Index	15%
	Strength of Legal Rights Index	15%
	Documents to Import	10%
	Taxes on International Trade	15%
Openness to FDI (15%)	GDP Growth	25%
	GDP per Capita	25%
	Gross Fixed Capital Formation (GFCF)	25%
	Inflows of FDI	25%
Infrastructure (15%)	Logistic Performance Index	40%
	Information and Technology Development Index	35%
	Quality of port infrastructure	25%

When the two tables above are compared, it can be seen that the indicators used are generally similar. However, unlike OMI, the general import growth rate and the share of imports of goods and services were handled separately in the measurement of the trade openness sub-index. Indices such as taxation index, strength of legal rights index and ease of doing business index were added in the calculation of the trade policy index. The foreign capital sub-index has been examined with nearly the same indicators. As for the infrastructure measurement, unlike OMI, general information and communication technology development index and port quality variables are added.

4. 1. Trade Infrastructure

Trade infrastructure; in an economy, infrastructures like logistics and information means that there is a market access in the economy. There are many studies in the literature indicating that there is a positive relationship between infrastructure and trade openness (Kumar, 2012),(Asidu, 2002), (Loore and Guisinger, 1995), (Parashar;2015). In this respect, it can be considered that trade can, technically, be easily carried out in countries with developed infrastructures. The trade infrastructures of the countries have been measured with logistics performance index, information and communication technology development index and quality of port infrastructure index indicators. The Logistics Performance Index is published by the WB every two years. Accordingly, countries are examined in terms of customs procedures, logistics infrastructure, international shipments, quality and competence of logistics services, ability to track/follow shipments and timely delivery of shipments to the buyers. According to index,



countries are evaluated and ranked by experts according to their logistics infrastructures.

Information and Communication Technologies Development Index; A country having a strong information infrastructure can mean that it has a strong connection with the world and that trade can, technically, be easily carried out. According to the index, countries are examined according to ICT access, usage and competence topics. Technological infrastructure in the country is examined with access, the ratio of people that can have access with use, at which level people adapted to the technology with competence. Quality of Port Infrastructure; Sea transport is important for easy trade between markets. The data set shows the level this service is provided in countries with ports, and the ease of access to the closest port for the countries without a port.

4. 2. Trade Openness

In the literature, trade openness is described as foreign openness at the same time. Foreign openness indicates the degree of integration of an economy with global forces (Sahin,2015). There are many different calculation techniques in this field. Trade openness is generally measured as the ratio of total imports and exports to GDP (Parashar,2015). The indicators used in this study are end product trade, general trade rate, service trade, and import growth rate. The rate of imports of goods and services is measured by the amount of import per capita. Imported goods and services indicate the economic value of all goods and services received across borders. This value consists of fees arising from services such as value of goods, freight, insurance, transport, travel, copyrights, license fees, as well as communication, construction, financial, information, institutional, personal, and public services. Overproduction, large market size, and low import per capita are expected in highly populated countries. The import per capita in a country is mainly associated with the obstacle level in trade. However, there are many studies claiming that the rate refers to trade inflow or outflow rather than trade openness (David,2007), (Frankel and Romer,1996). Trade rate (%GDP) is obtained by comparing the value of exports and imports (nominal) of goods and services with the added value of domestic production (gross). Trade of goods as a denominator of GDP is obtained by dividing total goods imports and exports by GDP. The rate generally reflects the importance of international trade relative to economy. It is frequently used when measuring the foreign openness of a country. However, in some studies, it is argued that non-traded products should be removed from the calculation, and the real trade rate should be used (Alcala ve Cicone,2004). Import growth rate can provide information about the future vision of the market in the country. It can be said that market openness is higher in countries where import growth is high than in conservative countries.

4. 3. Trade Policy

Nature and appropriateness of policies implemented in countries play an important role in initiation or execution phases of international trade. In this respect, especially low taxation, easy and simple customs bureaucracy process shows the level that trade can be carried out in the country. In the literature,

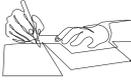


there are many studies pointing out that the market openness is high in countries where trade is politically relevant (Blomsrom and Kokko,2003), (Schneider and Frey,1985), (Taylor,2000). The indicators used in the calculation of this index are as follows;

Total Tax Rate helps measure the amount of taxes and obligatory contributions to be paid by the enterprises after allowances and exceptions allowed as part of commercial profit are calculated. Applied Tariff Rates are simple arithmetic means of the rates applicable to all products subject to calculated tariffs for all traded goods. The fact that the tariffs are low means that the cost of customs procedure is low and the trade is facilitated. Binding Coverage can be defined as the percentage of product lines that have an agreed limit. Doing Business Index an index that shows how easy it is to set up a business. It is published annually by the WB and examines all the processes necessary for business establishment. Assurance of Legal Rights Index measures the level of guarantee and bankruptcy laws protect the rights of loanees and creditors and thus the degree they make credit usage easier. Required Document for Import shows the intensity of all the bureaucratic processes necessary for import. The abundance of paperwork shows that the market openness of the country is low. Taxes in International Trade include import taxes, export taxes, profits of export or import monopolies, exchange profits and foreign exchange taxes.

4. 4. Foreign Direct Investment

Global FDI flows technology transfer plays an important role in the global production networks of major economies and local businesses. It can be seen that FDI is generally measured by market size, wage rate, economic order, growth rate and total resource amounts. There are many studies in the literature indicating that the FDI is positively related to these variables (Schneider and Frey, 1985), (Durham, 2004), (Dadush et al. 2000), (Parashar, 2015). In this study, the FDI has been measured by GDP growth, GDP per capita, Gross Fixed Capital Formation (GFCF), and FDI inflow. GDP growth rate is based on market prices and GDP annual growth rate fixed local currency. GDP is obtained by adding goods taxes to the total value created by resident producers in the economy, and by subtracting subsidies not reflected in the value of goods. The calculation is made without deducting the amortization of semi-finished products and depletion and degradation of natural resources. GDP is the monetary value of total goods and services produced in a country and GDP growth rate reflects the intensity of the trade and the market size of the country. Per capita GDP is obtained by dividing the gross domestic product amount by the number of mid-year population. GDP is obtained by adding goods taxes to the total value created by resident producers in the economy, and by subtracting subsidies not reflected in the value of goods. The calculation is made without deducting the amortization of semi-finished products and depletion and degradation of natural resources. GFCF assesses the relative importance of FDI for domestic investment. Compared to higher economies, the FDI inflow has a relatively greater effect on growth prospects of economies whose saving/investment levels are low.



5. Implementation

In this section, the countries have been evaluated according to their infrastructure, trade openness, trade policy and foreign direct investment developments. For this purpose, TOPSIS method used for ranking the decision units according to their superiority was applied. Afterwards, the general market openness index was obtained by using the calculated sub-indices. The newly created index is named OMI_2. The data sets were obtained via the official websites of the World Bank, the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), International Technology Union (ITU), and the World Trade Organization (WTO).

5.1. Purpose and Scope of the Study

The purpose of the study is to rank the countries by using the open markets index and TOPSIS method according to their components. Thus, there are two types of statistical and economic purposes of the study and these are;

- From the economic aspect; Creating an index including almost all of the countries and examining the openness levels of the markets of the countries,
- From the statistical aspect; applying the TOPSIS method to a different area, and determining its level of ranking the decision units correctly.

Due to deficiencies in the data sets of some countries, the study includes 166 countries and covers the year of 2016. Since OMI is published every 2 years, there wasn't a calculation for 2016. The results are compared with the 2015 and 2017 OMI reports and rankings. The fact that the newly developed index only covers 2016 can be interpreted as a limitation.

5.2. Review of Countries According to Their Commercial Infrastructures

Commercial infrastructure developments of the countries were measured by logistics performance, port infrastructure quality and information communication technology development indices. In this section, countries are ranked according to their level of development in their infrastructures directly related to trade. The variables in the calculation were mainly taken from Table 3. Afterwards, the countries were separated into three categories: high, medium and low open; and logistic regression analysis was applied in order to determine the reliability of the rankings. The obtained ranking results are as shown in the table below.

Table 3: Commercial Infrastructure Development Scores and Rankings of the Countries

HIGHLY DEVELOPED			MEDIUM DEVELOPED			LOW DEVELOPED		
Rank	Country	Score	Rank	Country	Score	Rank	Country	Score
1	Netherlands	0.999	57	Slovakia	0.621	112	Ghana	0.261
2	Hong Kong China	0.997	58	Argentina	0.61	113	East Timor	0.254
3	Singapore	0.993	59	Kuwait	0.607	114	Uzbekistan	0.253
4	Belgium	0.987	60	Dominica	0.599	115	Cambodia	0.25



5	Finland	0.985	61	Palau	0.576	116	Guyana	0.242
6	United Kingdom	0.982	62	Jordan	0.575	117	Samoa	0.223
7	Sweden	0.98	63	Bulgaria	0.569	118	Venezuela	0.222
8	Germany	0.978	64	Mexico	0.54	119	Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.22
9	USA	0.976	65	Russia	0.539	120	Guatemala	0.217
10	Denmark	0.975	66	Azerbaijan	0.531	121	Senegal	0.215
11	UAE	0.972	67	Egypt	0.527	122	Paraguay	0.211
12	Japan	0.967	68	Romania	0.525	123	Tanzania	0.208
13	Norway	0.955	69	Lebanon	0.495	124	Burkina Faso	0.19
14	Canada	0.955	70	Ecuador	0.49	125	Gambia	0.19
15	France	0.954	71	Mauritius	0.489	126	Armenia	0.187
16	Spain	0.948	72	Montenegro	0.474	127	Bangladesh	0.187
17	Ireland	0.944	73	Morocco	0.469	128	Benin	0.186
18	Korea	0.944	74	Kazakhstan	0.461	129	Vanuatu	0.184
19	Macau, China	0.941	75	Brazil	0.442	130	Ethiopia	0.175
20	Luxembourg	0.936	76	Belarus	0.43	131	Niger	0.171
21	Iceland	0.934	77	Serbia	0.423	132	Liberia	0.168
22	Australia	0.931	78	India	0.421	133	Sudan	0.168
23	Switzerland	0.926	79	Namibia	0.417	134	Solomon	0.162
24	New Zealand	0.919	80	Vietnamese	0.404	135	Dem. Rep. of the Congo	0.157
25	Estonia	0.918	81	Kenya	0.399	136	Mongolia	0.156
26	St. Kitts and Nevis	0.918	82	Costa Rica	0.399	137	Uganda	0.152
27	Qatar	0.918	83	Grenadines	0.398	138	Mali	0.141
28	Bahrain	0.876	84	Macedonia	0.393	139	Madagascar	0.14
29	Austria	0.865	85	Jamaica	0.391	140	Belize	0.138
30	Lithuania	0.865	86	Georgia	0.39	141	Gabon	0.13
31	Portugal	0.86	87	Dominica	0.382	142	Nigeria	0.124
32	Latvia	0.844	88	Peru	0.379	143	Nicaragua	0.109
33	Malaysia	0.843	89	Iran	0.376	144	Togo	0.109
34	Malta	0.832	90	Grenada	0.372	145	Central Africa	0.107
35	Italy	0.831	91	Maldives	0.37	146	Nepali	0.106
36	Israel	0.828	92	Swaziland	0.37	147	Burundi	0.104
37	Slovenia	0.816	93	Indonesia	0.365	148	Rep. of the Congo	0.103
38	Saudi Arabia	0.78	94	Ivory Coast	0.362	149	Equatorial Guinea	0.098
39	Greece	0.773	95	Albania	0.354	150	Bolivia	0.09
40	Panama	0.767	96	Colombia	0.349	151	Myanmar	0.089
41	Antigua and Barbuda	0.761	97	Ukraine	0.346	152	Zimbabwe	0.087
42	South Africa	0.757	98	Sri Lanka	0.343	153	Malawi	0.086
43	Czech Republic	0.756	99	Lucia	0.333	154	Cameroon	0.084
44	Croatia	0.756	100	Rwanda	0.33	155	Angora	0.081
45	Brunei	0.753	101	Philippines	0.327	156	Chad	0.076
46	Chile	0.751	102	Tonga	0.325	157	Kyrgyzstan	0.075
47	Oman	0.74	103	Moldova	0.311	158	Sierra Leone	0.071
48	Poland	0.728	104	Botswana	0.303	159	Bhutan	0.07
49	Seychelles	0.724	105	El Salvador	0.297	160	Lesotho	0.053
50	China	0.724	106	Honduras	0.292	161	Afghanistan	0.053
51	Cyprus	0.721	107	Tunisia	0.291	162	Zambia	0.051
52	Uruguay	0.716	108	Iraq	0.283	163	Tajikistan	0.05
53	Turkey	0.705	109	Mozambique	0.273	164	Haiti	0.04
54	Hungary	0.659	110	Pakistan	0.269	165	Mauritania	0.03
55	Bahamas	0.658	111	Algeria	0.267	166	Laos	0.029
56	Thailand	0.653						



According to the table, Netherlands, Hong Kong, Singapore, Belgium, Finland and United Kingdom are in the top rankings; and Afghanistan, Zambia, Tajikistan, Haiti, Mauritania and Laos are in the bottom rankings according to their commercial infrastructure developments for 2016. The development scores range from 0.999 to 0.0289, and accordingly, it can be said that the countries differ significantly in terms of infrastructure development.

The rankings of ICC Open Markets Index and the countries it is compared to, show a great similarity with the results in this study. For example, Hong Kong, Netherlands, Germany and Sweden are in the top rankings in both calculations. However, since the calculations were made for 75 countries in the study carried out by the ICC, and for 166 countries in this study, the countries in the last rankings differ. In the logistic regression analysis, the classes of the countries were applied as output and the variables were applied as input. According to this, it has been concluded that the countries are 98.8% correctly classified. It is estimated that, out of the two countries that are incorrectly classified, while the trade openness level of Pakistan was medium, it was actually low; the trade openness level of Ghana was low, it was actually medium.

5. 3. Trade Openness Index and Ranking of Countries

As the trade openness index was created, the trade of goods and services, total trade rates and the import growth rates were taken into account in the GDP. The variables in the calculation were weighted according to Table 3, and following the ranking process, the countries are separated into three categories. Afterwards, the logistic regression analysis was applied in order to determine the reliability of the classification.

Table 4: Scores and Rankings of Countries According to Trade Openness Index

HIGH OPENNESS			MEDIUM OPENNESS			LOW OPENNESS		
Rank	Country	Score	Rank	Country	Score	Rank	Country	Score
1	Luxembourg	0.6030	57	Armenia	0.0606	112	Argentina	0.0361
2	Malta	0.3871	58	Iraq	0.0604	113	Liberia	0.0356
3	Hong Kong China	0.3245	59	Albania	0.0603	114	Italy	0.0355
4	Singapore	0.3101	60	Lesotho	0.0593	115	Ivory Coast	0.0354
5	Ireland	0.2721	61	Swaziland	0.0585	116	Turkey	0.0349
6	Zambia	0.2653	62	Thailand	0.0580	117	Nepali	0.0343
7	Malawi	0.2577	63	Vincent and Grenadines	0.0562	118	Paraguay	0.0336
8	Sierra Leone	0.1726	64	East Timor	0.0562	119	Panama	0.0334
9	United Arab Emirates	0.1514	65	Austria	0.0559	120	Greece	0.0330
10	Mali	0.1482	66	Belarus	0.0557	121	Guatemala	0.0330
11	Seychelles	0.1456	67	Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.0555	122	Afghanistan	0.0329
12	Vietnamese	0.1429	68	Senegal	0.0548	123	Botswana	0.0324
13	Zimbabwe	0.1424	69	Oman	0.0542	124	Myanmar	0.0311
14	Maldives	0.1422	70	Mauritius	0.0539	125	Tanzania	0.0308
15	Belgium	0.1215	71	Israel	0.0539	126	Angora	0.0308
16	Cyprus	0.1209	72	Azerbaijan	0.0531	127	India	0.0303



17	Slovak Republic	0.1100	73	Lebanon	0.0528	128	Canada	0.0296
18	Montenegro	0.1026	74	Costa Rica	0.0527	129	El Salvador	0.0286
19	Estonia	0.1023	75	Bahamas	0.0525	130	Bhutan	0.0274
20	Hungary	0.1006	76	Solomon Islands	0.0525	131	Peru	0.0264
21	Kitts and Nevis	0.1001	77	Guyana	0.0520	132	Jordan	0.0263
22	Antigua and Barbuda	0.0966	78	Pakistan	0.0511	133	Lao PDR	0.0261
23	Iceland	0.0959	79	Madagascar	0.0496	134	Australia	0.0259
24	Netherlands	0.0955	80	Rwanda	0.0493	135	Ethiopia	0.0258
25	Slovenia	0.0923	81	Burkina Faso	0.0493	136	United States of America	0.0256
26	Cambodia	0.0880	82	Kuwait	0.0492	137	Gabon	0.0253
27	Philippines	0.0869	83	Sweden	0.0484	138	Chile	0.0252
28	Grenada	0.0868	84	Dem. Rep. of the Congo	0.0480	139	Central African Republic	0.0248
29	Venezuela	0.0867	85	Germany	0.0479	140	Samoa	0.0242
30	Lithuania	0.0865	86	Portugal	0.0474	141	Equatorial Guinea	0.0242
31	Czech Republic	0.0831	87	Brunei	0.0474	142	Cameroon	0.0237
32	Dominica	0.0813	88	Sri Lanka	0.0471	143	Kazakhstan	0.0236
33	Morocco	0.0807	89	Vanuatu	0.0461	144	Algeria	0.0235
34	Mongolia	0.0788	90	Mauritania	0.0458	145	South Africa	0.0230
35	Mozambique	0.0780	91	Finland	0.0454	146	Bolivia	0.0226
36	Belize	0.0771	92	Kyrgyz Republic	0.0453	147	Uruguay	0.0220
37	Switzerland	0.0764	93	Korea.	0.0448	148	Uzbekistan	0.0217
38	Macedonia	0.0744	94	Tajikistan	0.0445	149	Indonesia	0.0213
39	Serbia	0.0742	95	Togo	0.0445	150	Egypt	0.0211
40	Moldova	0.0713	96	Honduras	0.0427	151	Sudan	0.0211
41	Latvia	0.0708	97	Tunisia	0.0426	152	Japan	0.0208
42	Lucia	0.0705	98	France	0.0411	153	Russian Federation	0.0202
43	Ukraine	0.0704	99	Dominican Republic	0.0410	154	China	0.0181
44	Palau	0.0697	100	United Kingdom	0.0408	155	Kenya	0.0176
45	Bulgaria	0.0693	101	Tonga	0.0407	156	Gambia	0.0162
46	Ghana	0.0693	102	Benin	0.0405	157	Colombia	0.0152
47	Georgia	0.0686	103	New Zealand	0.0402	158	Uganda	0.0148
48	Macau, China	0.0665	104	Jamaica	0.0401	159	Nigeria	0.0147
49	Poland	0.0655	105	Norway	0.0397	160	Bangladesh	0.0140
50	Croatia	0.0650	106	Iran	0.0389	161	Chad	0.0131
51	Malaysia	0.0648	107	Burundi	0.0385	162	Ecuador	0.0107
52	Denmark	0.0639	108	Spain	0.0385	163	Brazil	0.0094
53	Romania	0.0637	109	Haiti	0.0380	164	Saudi Arabia	0.0087
54	Bahrain	0.0637	110	Namibia	0.0380	165	Rep. of the Congo	0.0076
55	Qatar	0.0628	111	Mexico	0.0361	166	Niger	0.0067
56	Nicaragua	0.0611						

In the table, in terms of openness to trade, Luxembourg, Malta, Hong Kong,



Singapore and Ireland are in the top rankings; Ecuador, Brazil, Saudi Arabia, the Republic of Congo and Niger are in the lower rankings. The scores range from 0.6030 to 0.0067, and also, these values show that there is a significant difference between the countries in terms of trade openness.

When compared with the ICC Open Markets Index, Singapore, Hong Kong, Malta and Luxemburg are in the top rankings according to both calculations. Similarly, Nigeria, the United States and Greece are in the lower rankings, while Pakistan was in the last rank according to OMI. This difference may be attributed to the differences of the indicators that were used. According to the logistic regression analysis, all of the countries are correctly classified. This shows that the method applied in the ranking process is reliable.

5. 4. Trade Openness Index and Ranking of Countries

The foreign direct investment were measured by GDP growth, per capita GDP, GFCF, and foreign capital inflow variables. After being ranked, the countries were classified according to three categories. Afterwards, the logistic regression analysis was used in order to determine the level of correct classification.

Table 5: Scores and Rankings of Countries According to Foreign Direct Investment Index

HIGH OPENNESS			MEDIUM OPENNESS			LOW OPENNESS		
Rank	Country	Score	Rank	Country	Score	Rank	Country	Score
1	Qatar	0.4842	57	Ukraine	0.3019	112	Iraq	0.2337
2	Hungary	0.4675	58	Rwanda	0.2997	113	Mozambique	0.2306
3	Ethiopia	0.4348	59	Botswana	0.2978	114	Greece	0.2290
4	Luxembourg	0.4303	60	New Zealand	0.2938	115	Ecuador	0.2258
5	Hong Kong China	0.4181	61	Canada	0.2927	116	Nicaragua	0.2248
6	United Arab Emirates	0.4081	62	Spain	0.2924	117	Philippines	0.2239
7	Dem. Rep. of the Congo	0.3735	63	Iceland	0.2917	118	Jamaica	0.2220
8	Kuwait	0.3696	64	Portugal	0.2908	119	Colombia	0.2219
9	Slovak Republic	0.3675	65	Costa Rica	0.2882	120	Sri Lanka	0.2201
10	Saudi Arabia	0.3674	66	Cambodia	0.2850	121	Antigua and Barbuda	0.2187
11	Vietnamese	0.3636	67	Tajikistan	0.2847	122	Albania	0.2170
12	Georgia	0.3607	68	Austria	0.2846	123	Angora	0.2164
13	Russian Federation	0.3587	69	Finland	0.2833	124	Palau	0.2148
14	Lithuania	0.3549	70	Mauritius	0.2822	125	Iran	0.2142
15	Belarus	0.3547	71	Azerbaijan	0.2817	126	Bangladesh	0.2139
16	Malta	0.3529	72	Uzbekistan	0.2808	127	El Salvador	0.2090
17	Singapore	0.3528	73	Macedonia	0.2804	128	Kenya	0.2089
18	Ireland	0.3499	74	Lesotho	0.2804	129	Dominican Republic	0.2087
19	Oman	0.3490	75	Chile	0.2801	130	Sudan	0.2078
20	Maldives	0.3475	76	Bosnia	0.2767	131	Venezuela	0.2066
21	Bulgaria	0.3461	77	Namibia	0.2765	132	India	0.2061
22	Netherlands	0.3438	78	Nigeria	0.2718	133	Honduras	0.2002
23	Macau, China	0.3432	79	Moldova	0.2711	134	Morocco	0.1999



24	Latvia	0.3402	80	Malaysia	0.2694	135	Chad	0.1984
25	Vincent and Grenadines	0.3347	81	Bahamas	0.2690	136	Malawi	0.1961
26	Kazakhstan	0.3346	82	Argentina	0.2688	137	Togo	0.1919
27	Jordan	0.3342	83	Bolivia	0.2680	138	Tonga	0.1913
28	Equatorial Guinea	0.3337	84	Swaziland	0.2676	139	Pakistan	0.1911
29	Bahrain	0.3336	85	Korea, Rep.	0.2663	140	Bhutan	0.1902
30	Czech Republic	0.3323	86	Turkey	0.2629	141	Thailand	0.1883
31	Estonia	0.3321	87	Italy	0.2621	142	Tanzania	0.1882
32	Panama	0.3294	88	Dominica	0.2619	143	Seychelles	0.1882
33	Cyprus	0.3288	89	Gabon	0.2595	144	Afghanistan	0.1871
34	Montenegro	0.3263	90	Tunisia	0.2580	145	Liberia	0.1868
35	Romania	0.3228	91	Lao PDR	0.2570	146	Solomon Islands	0.1858
36	Brunei Darussalam	0.3190	92	Uruguay	0.2549	147	Ghana	0.1831
37	Kyrgyz Republic	0.3176	93	Brazil	0.2549	148	Mongolia	0.1798
38	Slovenia	0.3173	94	Egypt	0.2546	149	Nepali	0.1774
39	United Kingdom	0.3170	95	Samoa	0.2497	150	Vanuatu	0.1761
40	China	0.3165	96	Mexico	0.2496	151	Indonesia	0.1756
41	Denmark	0.3154	97	Algeria	0.2495	152	Senegal	0.1672
42	Sweden	0.3153	98	Mauritania	0.2495	153	East Timor	0.1667
43	Belgium	0.3143	99	Belize	0.2483	154	Niger	0.1628
44	Croatia	0.3136	100	Myanmar	0.2462	155	Cameroon	0.1624
45	Poland	0.3135	101	Zambia	0.2459	156	Burkina Faso	0.1576
46	United States of America	0.3127	102	Lebanon	0.2453	157	Ivory Coast	0.1568
47	Germany	0.3127	103	Rep. of the Congo	0.2441	158	Central African Republic	0.1509
48	South Africa	0.3118	104	Lucia	0.2440	159	Mali	0.1463
49	Norway	0.3100	105	Grenada	0.2423	160	Uganda	0.1460
50	Israel	0.3090	106	Guatemala	0.2418	161	Zimbabwe	0.1383
51	Serbia	0.3083	107	Guyana	0.2398	162	Benin	0.1360
52	Switzerland	0.3069	108	Armenia	0.2382	163	Madagascar	0.1347
53	Australia	0.3047	109	Kitts and Nevis	0.2381	164	Burundi	0.1345
54	Japan	0.3033	110	Paraguay	0.2365	165	Haiti	0.1314
55	Sierra Leone	0.3023	111	Peru	0.2350	166	Gambia	0.1295
56	France	0.3023						

According to the table, Hungary, Ethiopia, Luxembourg and Hong Kong have the highest direct foreign investment index; and Benin, Madagascar, Burundi, Haiti and Gambia have the lowest rankings. The scores range from 0.4842 to 0.1295, and this value also indicates that the countries have more similar characteristics in terms of foreign investment than in other indices.

The obtained results in this section are significantly similar to the ICC OMI ranking. However, Ethiopia is in the last order according to OMI while it is in the top rankings in this study. The rankings for other countries are generally similar; however, Qatar which has the best score, is not included in the OMI study. It can



be said that the differences in the general order of the countries are due to the fact that the study includes more countries and more variables. According to the logistic regression analysis, the correct classification rate was found to be 95.8%. The misclassified countries are; while the trade openness levels of Japan, Sierra Leone and France are high, they were estimated to be medium; the trade openness level of New Zealand is medium, while it was estimated to be high; the trade openness level of Guyana is medium, while it was estimated to be low; and, the trade openness level of Peru is low, while it was estimated to be medium.

5. 5. Trade Openness Index and Ranking of the Countries

Index of the development of policies related to trade was measured by total tax rate, applied tariff rate, binding coverage, the ease of doing business index, the breadth of legal rights index, document density required for import and the tax rates in international trade. Since it was desired that the some of the variables to be high, and others to be low, tax rates and document density variables were added to the calculation by being subtracted from the normalized value of 1. Based on this, the obtained results are as follows.

Table 6: Scores and Rankings of the Countries According to Trade Policy Index

HIGH OPENNESS			MEDIUM OPENNESS			LOW OPENNESS		
Rank	Country	Score	Rank	Country	Score	Rank	Country	Score
1	Venezuela	0.5099	57	Turkey	0.5074	112	Gambia	0.5061
2	Bahamas	0.5096	58	Uruguay	0.5074	113	Armenia	0.5061
3	Angora	0.5093	59	Equatorial Guinea	0.5074	114	Mauritius	0.5061
4	Brazil	0.5092	60	Benin	0.5074	115	Solomon Islands	0.5061
5	Argentina	0.5091	61	Kenya	0.5074	116	Serbia	0.5061
6	Pakistan	0.5091	62	Central African Republic	0.5073	117	Kyrgyz Republic	0.5060
7	Maldives	0.5090	63	Mali	0.5073	118	Norway	0.5060
8	Gabon	0.5089	64	Sri Lanka	0.5073	119	Spain	0.5060
9	Dem. Rep. of the Congo	0.5087	65	Ivory Coast	0.5073	119	Croatia	0.5060
10	Bangladesh	0.5086	66	Kitts and Nevis	0.5072	121	Lao PDR	0.5059
11	Tanzania	0.5086	67	Niger	0.5072	122	Honduras	0.5059
12	Grenada	0.5085	68	Morocco	0.5072	123	Cambodia	0.5059
13	Iraq	0.5084	69	Thailand	0.5072	124	Tonga	0.5059
14	Bolivia	0.5084	70	Seychelles	0.5071	125	Cyprus	0.5058
15	Algeria	0.5083	71	South Africa	0.5071	126	Rwanda	0.5058
16	Madagascar	0.5083	72	Sierra Leone	0.5071	127	Guatemala	0.5058
17	Dominican Republic	0.5082	73	Korea	0.5071	128	Albania	0.5058
18	Paraguay	0.5082	74	Uganda	0.5071	129	Malawi	0.5058
19	Sudan	0.5082	75	Ghana	0.5070	130	Switzerland	0.5058
20	Burundi	0.5081	76	India	0.5070	131	Ireland	0.5058
21	Tunisia	0.5080	77	Belarus	0.5070	132	Vanuatu	0.5058
22	Samoa	0.5080	78	Chile	0.5069	133	Sweden	0.5058
23	Egypt	0.5080	79	Malta	0.5069	133	Germany	0.5058
24	Chad	0.5080	80	Bhutan	0.5069	133	Lithuania	0.5058
26	Iran	0.5079	81	Burkina Faso	0.5069	136	Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.5057
27	Belize	0.5079	82	Nepali	0.5068	137	El Salvador	0.5057
28	Philippines	0.5079	83	Jamaica	0.5067	138	Moldova	0.5057
29	Ecuador	0.5079	84	Netherlands	0.5067	139	Ukraine	0.5056



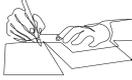
30	Mozambique	0.5079	84	Portugal	0.5067	140	Mexico	0.5056
31	Saudi Arabia	0.5079	84	Italy	0.5067	141	Finland	0.5055
32	Mauritania	0.5078	87	Botswana	0.5066	141	United Kingdom	0.5055
33	Haiti	0.5078	88	Mongolia	0.5066	141	Estonia	0.5055
34	Cameroon	0.5078	89	Namibia	0.5066	141	Czech Republic	0.5055
35	Ethiopia	0.5078	90	Swaziland	0.5066	141	Poland	0.5055
36	Vincent and Grenadines	0.5078	91	Indonesia	0.5066	141	Slovak Republic	0.5055
37	Jordan	0.5077	92	Iceland	0.5065	147	Palau	0.5055
38	Qatar	0.5077	93	Kazakhstan	0.5065	148	Hong Kong China	0.5054
39	Lucia	0.5077	94	Russian Federation	0.5065	149	Costa Rica	0.5054
40	Myanmar	0.5077	95	Panama	0.5064	150	Georgia	0.5054
41	Nigeria	0.5077	96	Luxembourg	0.5064	151	Singapore	0.5053
42	Kuwait	0.5077	96	Slovenia	0.5064	152	Macedonia	0.5053
43	China	0.5077	96	Greece	0.5064	153	Denmark	0.5053
44	East Timor	0.5077	99	Liberia	0.5064	154	Canada	0.5053
45	United Arab Emirates	0.5076	100	Japan	0.5063	155	Latvia	0.5051
46	Lebanon	0.5076	101	Vietnamese	0.5063	155	Bulgaria	0.5051
47	Azerbaijan	0.5076	102	Brunei Darussalam	0.5063	155	Romania	0.5051
48	Dominica	0.5076	103	Afghanistan	0.5063	158	Australia	0.5051
49	Antigua and Barbuda	0.5076	104	Uzbekistan	0.5063	159	Colombia	0.5051
50	Senegal	0.5076	105	Peru	0.5063	160	Montenegro	0.5050
51	Guyana	0.5075	106	Lesotho	0.5062	161	Hungary	0.5049
52	Nicaragua	0.5075	107	Belgium	0.5062	162	United States of America	0.5048
53	Bahrain	0.5075	107	France	0.5062	163	New Zealand	0.5047
54	Tajikistan	0.5075	107	Austria	0.5062	164	Macau, China	0.5038
55	Oman	0.5075	110	Israel	0.5062	165	Zambia	0.3968
56	Togo	0.5074	111	Malaysia	0.5061	166	Zimbabwe	0.3456

According to the table, the countries are ranked according to the development of the commercial regulations, and Venezuela, Bahamas, Angora, Brazil and Argentina are found to be the highest; the United States, New Zealand, Macau, Zambia and Zimbabwe are found to be the lowest ranked countries. The scores range from 0.5099 to 0.3456. Accordingly, it can be said that countries are similar in terms of trade policy openness.

When the results are compared with OMI, it can be said that there are significant differences between the two indices. It can be said that this is because the methods and variables used for evaluating the variables are different. The OMI ignores taxation policies in index calculation. Thus, it leads to differences in the rankings of the countries. According to the logistic regression analysis, all of the countries are correctly classified.

5. 6. Trade Openness Index and Ranking of the Countries

The General Market openness index are calculated by using commercial infrastructure, openness to trade, commercial policy and foreign direct investment-sub-indices. The obtained results and findings from the application carried out according to the table are as follows.

**Table 7: General Scores and Rankings of Countries According to OMI_2**

HIGH OPENNESS			MEDIUM OPENNESS			LOW OPENNESS		
Rank	Country	Score	Rank	Country	Score	Rank	Country	Score
1	Luxembourg	0.9435	56	Bahamas	0.8040	111	Mozambique	0.5940
2	Hong Kong China	0.9333	57	Seychelles	0.8038	112	Uzbekistan	0.5934
3	Qatar	0.9284	58	Bulgaria	0.7827	113	Pakistan	0.5821
4	United Arab Emirates	0.9266	59	Jordan	0.7824	114	Ethiopia	0.5819
5	Singapore	0.9209	60	Argentina	0.7812	115	Guyana	0.5790
6	Ireland	0.9164	61	Dominica	0.7748	116	Ghana	0.5764
7	Netherlands	0.9126	62	Thailand	0.7729	117	Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.5754
8	Macau, China	0.9093	63	Russian Federation	0.7691	118	Samoa	0.5712
9	Belgium	0.9045	64	Romania	0.7534	119	East Timor	0.5687
10	Malta	0.9042	65	Palau	0.7475	120	Guatemala	0.5663
11	United Kingdom	0.9042	66	Azerbaijan	0.7453	121	Venezuela	0.5629
12	Estonia	0.9042	67	Mexico	0.7401	122	Paraguay	0.5622
13	Sweden	0.9037	68	Egypt	0.7349	123	Rep. of the Congo	0.5618
14	Denmark	0.9036	69	Montenegro	0.7276	124	Armenia	0.5509
15	Germany	0.9028	70	Mauritius	0.7228	125	Tanzania	0.5501
16	United States of America	0.9026	71	Kazakhstan	0.7208	126	Senegal	0.5497
17	Lithuania	0.9008	72	Lebanon	0.7160	127	Bangladesh	0.5451
18	Norway	0.9007	73	Belarus	0.7084	128	Vanuatu	0.5360
19	Japan	0.8992	74	Ecuador	0.7070	129	Burkina Faso	0.5351
20	France	0.8981	75	Serbia	0.6941	130	Sudan	0.5343
21	Switzerland	0.8973	76	Brazil	0.6897	131	Liberia	0.5303
22	Bahrain	0.8973	77	Morocco	0.6892	132	Belize	0.5292
23	Australia	0.8967	78	Georgia	0.6873	133	Benin	0.5288
24	Canada	0.8949	79	Vincent and Grenadines	0.6861	134	Gambia	0.5287
25	Spain	0.8944	80	Namibia	0.6820	135	Solomon Islands	0.5273
26	Iceland	0.8934	81	Maldives	0.6768	136	Niger	0.5265
27	Finland	0.8931	82	Costa Rica	0.6751	137	Gabon	0.5262
28	Latvia	0.8920	83	Macedonia	0.6706	138	Nigeria	0.5254
29	New Zealand	0.8917	84	India	0.6648	139	Equatorial Guinea	0.5245
30	Korea	0.8847	85	Vietnamese	0.6595	140	Mongolia	0.5242
31	Portugal	0.8807	86	Swaziland	0.6544	141	Uganda	0.5147
32	Saudi Arabia	0.8799	87	Kenya	0.6537	142	Mali	0.5145
33	Austria	0.8796	88	Jamaica	0.6531	143	Sierra Leone	0.5121
34	Israel	0.8789	89	Peru	0.6502	144	Kyrgyz Republic	0.5105
35	Slovenia	0.8786	90	Grenada	0.6500	145	Nicaragua	0.5101
36	Kitts and Nevis	0.8717	91	Ukraine	0.6495	147	Malawi	0.5091
37	Malaysia	0.8695	92	Dominican Republic	0.6452	148	Bolivia	0.5086
38	Panama	0.8660	93	Iran	0.6436	149	Madagascar	0.5071
39	Italy	0.8634	94	Rwanda	0.6396	150	Myanmar	0.5040
40	Czech Republic	0.8634	95	Albania	0.6325	151	Togo	0.5034
41	Oman	0.8616	96	Colombia	0.6305	152	Nepali	0.4992
42	Brunei Darussalam	0.8582	97	Lucia	0.6290	153	Angora	0.4948
43	Croatia	0.8576	98	Sri Lanka	0.6275	154	Central African Republic	0.4947
44	South Africa	0.8573	99	Indonesia	0.6268	155	Lesotho	0.4938
45	Cyprus	0.8499	100	Botswana	0.6243	156	Zambia	0.4936

46	Hungary	0.8486	101	Moldova	0.6234	157	Tajikistan	0.4926
47	Poland	0.8474	102	Philippines	0.6213	158	Burundi	0.4906
48	China	0.8462	103	Ivory Coast	0.6205	159	Chad	0.4890
49	Chile	0.8449	104	Tonga	0.6105	160	Cameroon	0.4863
50	Greece	0.8339	105	Tunisia	0.6088	161	Bhutan	0.4848
51	Antigua and Barbuda	0.8273	106	El Salvador	0.6001	162	Laos	0.4777
52	Uruguay	0.8234	107	Iraq	0.5993	163	Mauritania	0.4777
53	Turkey	0.8218	108	Honduras	0.5954	164	Afghanistan	0.4769
54	Slovak Republic	0.8147	109	Algeria	0.5943	165	Zimbabwe	0.4749
55	Kuwait	0.8073	110	Cambodia	0.5942	166	Haiti	0.4622

The general market openness was examined and the results are in the table, and 10 countries with the highest performance are respectively Luxembourg, Hong Kong, Qatar, United Arab Emirates, Singapore, Ireland, Netherlands, Macau, Belgium and Malta. The lowest developed countries are Tajikistan, Burundi, Chad, Cameroon, Bhutan, Laos, Mauritania, Afghanistan, Zimbabwe and Haiti. The scores range from 0.9435 to 0.4622 in the general open markets index, and accordingly, it can be said that countries significantly differ from each other.

When the obtained results are compared with the OMI, it has been concluded that the rankings of the countries generally show resemblance to each other. For example, according to both indices, countries such as Luxembourg, Singapore, Malta and UAE are in the upper ranks. According to the logistic regression analysis, it has been concluded that all of the countries are correctly classified.

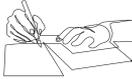
6. Conclusion

Indices including international economic topics are seen as a guide for countries. The main purpose of these indices is to compare and rank countries in a particular way. OMI, Human Development, Logistics Performance Indexes can be given as examples.

In this study, an alternative index to the OMI index, the OMI_2 index measuring market openness of countries has been developed. The differences of the newly created index from the original are, the fact that it includes 166 countries, taxation of countries, strength of legal rights, port quality and ease of doing business indices were taken into account in terms of the variables used, and methodologically, unlike the arithmetic average, the countries were ranked according to their superiority. Accordingly, as a result of the calculations, sub-indices indicating infrastructure, trade policy, foreign direct investment and trade openness were developed. Later on, the general market openness index (OMI_2) was developed by using these indices. Accordingly, the three countries with the best and worst scores from the obtained results are given in the table below.

Table 8: 3 Countries with Best and Worst Scores for Indices

Index		Ranking
Infrastructure	The best	Netherlands, Hong Kong, China
	The worst	Haiti, Mauritania, Laos
Trade Openness	The best	Luxembourg, Malta, Hong Kong
	The worst	S. Arabia, Republic of the Congo, Niger



Foreign Direct Investment	The best	Qatar, Hungary, Ethiopia
	The worst	Burundi, Haiti, Gambia
Trade Policy Openness	The best	Venezuela, Bahamas, Angola
	The worst	Macau, Zambia, Zimbabwe
Overall OMI_2 Score	The best	Luxembourg, Hong Kong, Qatar
	The worst	Afghanistan, Zimbabwe, Haiti

According to the table, it can be concluded that there is a similarity between OMI scores and trade openness scores. According to the results obtained with OMI_2, the countries in the top 5 ranks are ranked in the other indices as in the table below.

Table 9: *Rankings of the Top 5 Countries of OMI_2 in Other Indices*

Rank	Country	Infrastructure	Trade Openness	Foreign Direct Investment	Trade Policy
1	Luxembourg	20	1	4	151
2	Hong Kong	2	3	5	148
3	Qatar	27	55	1	38
4	United Arab Emirates	11	9	6	45
5	Singapore	3	4	17	151

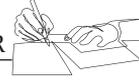
When the table is taken into consideration, the top five countries according to OMI_2 are in the top rankings in terms of infrastructure, trade openness and foreign direct investment; however, it can be seen that they are in the middle and lower rankings in terms of trade policy. This can particularly be attributed to high taxation. In this respect, it can be said that, in countries where trade rates and infrastructures are weak, law-makers want to attract investors to their markets by offering them political facilities. When the best and worst scores of the indices are compared, the obtained result is as shown in the table below.

Table 10: *The Highest and Lowest Scores in Indices*

Index	The Highest Score	The Lowest Score	Difference
Infrastructure	0.999	0.0289	0.9701
Trade Openness	0.6030	0.0067	0.5963
Foreign Direct Investment	0.4842	0.1295	0.3547
Trade Policy	0.5099	0.3456	0.1643
OMI_2 Score	0.9435	0.4622	0.4813

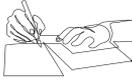
When the table is examined, it can be seen that the biggest difference between the countries is infrastructure. However, the countries are most similar to each other in terms of trade policy openness. According to these results, it can be said that the countries with low-level openness need to invest in infrastructure and the differences should be resolved, and they should pay attention to trade openness indicators to improve their overall market openness.

The purpose of the study is to create an alternative methodology regarding the measurement of market openness of countries. For the following studies, it is recommended to carry out a similar application through different methods and by including more years, and to compare it with the outputs obtained in this study.



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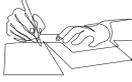
**PROACTIVITY ISSUE IN TURKISH
DISASTER MANAGEMENT****Ali EKŞİ¹****INTRODUCTION**

In recent years, disaster management is discussed over the concept of integratedness. The concept of integratedness has two dimensions. The first of these is the cyclic disaster management process comprised of the mitigation, preparation, response and recovery stages. The second dimension of the concept of integratedness expresses the taking of responsibility in all stages of disaster management by all public institutions and establishments, private sector, non-governmental organizations and the individual at both the local and national levels. Proactivity comes to the forefront in both dimensions of integrated disaster management. Rather than reactions to the damages that occurred during a disaster and recoveries that are planned afterwards, proactive disaster management is comprised of strategies determined for risk evaluations carried out before disasters take place for managing the risks in the best possible manner, being prepared for the damages that might take place after unavoidable dangers take place, preventing the damages that may incur during response stage and managing the additional risks that might develop as well as for preventing future disasters during the recovery stage.

Even though there is no direct legal regulation on disaster management during the Ottoman and early Republic period, 1882 Ebniye Law and 1930 Municipality Law contains various regulations on risk management and related public improvements. A regulation on disaster management was made for the first time following the Erzincan Earthquake on December 26, 1939 and the Law numbered 3773 and dated January 17, 1940 went into effect for relieving the damage in Erzincan. The Law numbered 4373 dated January 19, 1943 went into effect regarding the management of floods following the floods that took place in different regions of the country during the beginning of the 1940s which was the first time that proactive measures became a part of the agenda as risk management against floods. The law numbered 4623 which includes the first proactive measures against earthquakes went into effect in 1944 following the "Niksar-Erbaa", "Adapazarı-Hendek", "Tosya-Ladik" and "Bolu-Gerede" earthquakes in the beginning of the 1940s which included risk management regulations against earthquakes. Regulations with an impact on the corporate structuring related with disaster management started after the 1950s (Ertürkmen, 2006:43-44).

Turkey is located at a geographical region with intensive natural and human related disaster risk. Major disasters took place during both the Ottoman Empire period and in modern Turkey as well resulting in a corporate reform process for disaster recovery dating back about a century. However, these reforms have

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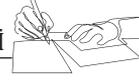
been developed in a reactionary manner following significant disasters rather than future oriented risk evaluations, meaning that they were not proactive but reactive. The 1999 Marmara Earthquakes became a new start in the country with regard to many disaster management related issues resulting in discussions on many unmanageable damage and disaster management related issues especially after the gulf earthquake. Proactivity issue was at the center of these discussions resulting in legislation and corporate structuring works to be carried out accordingly. However, the desired level of improvements could not be met despite all these reforms (Ekşi, 2013; 85).

When the disaster and emergency management corporate and legislation structure of Turkey is taken into consideration, it can be observed that the definition of disaster mostly covers natural disasters with an emphasis on earthquakes and that the structuring related with human related disasters is quite limited. Recently, studies on emergency and disaster management are ongoing with the establishment of new regulations and new institutions (Kadıoğlu, 2011:6; Yılmaz, 2011). This book section will evaluate the development process of corporate structuring and regulation basis of disaster management along with issues of proactivity experienced during this period together with the historical background. The study is important since no solution has been developed in Turkey with regard to the disaster management proactivity issue despite all related studies that have been carried out in recent years.

1. Risk Management and Mitigation Works

The first corporate structuring on risk management after the disasters that continued throughout the 1940s was the earthquake office established as part of the Ministry of Public Works in 1953. The name of the corporate structure was changed in 1955 as DE-SE-YA (Earthquake, Flood, Fire) and studies were conducted for reducing damages induced by natural disasters (Özmen et.al., 2005:2). The "Zoning Law" dated May 16, 1956 and numbered 6785 made it obligatory to carry out natural disaster risk evaluation when determining the locations for settlement. Taking the necessary precautions before and after natural disasters was included as part of the primary duties of the ministry in the law on the Foundation and Duties of Ministry of Development and Housing issued in 1958 thereby bringing forth a proactive understanding in disaster management for the first time. However, proactive works with good intentions were quite limited and they could not meet the demands at the time after which the society became weaker against disasters due to unplanned urbanization that took place in metropolises with increasing rural-to-urban immigration that increased during the sixties (Öztürk, 2003:51).

The focus was mostly on rescue and first aid services in the "Civil Defense Law" issued in 1958 with more emphasis on mobilization in disaster management rather than proactivity. General Directorate of Civil Defense was established after this law as part of the Ministry of Internal Affairs and provincial organizations were setup. Disaster management was built mostly on response and recovery works in the Disaster Law numbered 7269 which went into effect in 1959 thereby leaving out works on proactive risk management. The tragic damage



that occurred after the wave of earthquakes in the 1940s was forgotten before 20 years and disaster management slowly evolved into a reactive process once again. This continued until after the 80 coup after which the General Directorate of Natural Disasters was established in 1983 during the restructuring of the Ministry of Public Works thus forming a corporate structure that will deal with proactive risk management even if in a limited manner. Proactive actions such as determining the risky areas and taking the required preventive measures were included among the duties of the General Directorate (Statutory Decree numbered 180).

When works on proactive risk management and mitigation were evaluated with regard to local administrations, making emergency plans encompassing mitigation in cases of fire, industrial accidents, earthquake and other natural disasters became a duty of the ministries following the “Ministry Law” that went into effect in 2005. Similar responsibilities were also included in the Metropolitan Municipality Law which went into effect in 2004. The responsibilities of local administrations which are very important for proactive disaster management could only be defined in the related regulations during the 21st century. Carrying out risk management and conservation plans with a proactive understanding was included among the duties of the Ministry of Environment and Urban Planning General Directorate of Spatial Planning following the Statutory Decree on the Organization and Duties of the Ministry of Environment and Urban Planning which went into effect in 2011 (Statutory Decree numbered 644).

General Directorate of Planning and Mitigation was founded with a proactive perspective as part of the Prime Ministry in 2009 with the Law on the Organization and Duties of the Disaster and Emergency Management Administration (AFAD). General Directorate of Planning and Mitigation became responsible from carrying out country scale risk management and mitigation plans. It was important from a local perspective that provincial scale plans would be carried out by the Provincial Directorates of Disaster and Emergency Management. It was an important development with regard to proactive disaster management understanding that the same law gave authority to the Disaster and Emergency Management Administration for establishing cooperation and coordination with state institutions and organizations, non-governmental organizations and international organizations at all stages of disaster management (Law Numbered 5902).

Today, AFAD and the Ministry of Environment and Urban Planning are responsible from carrying out risk plans and establishing coordination in Turkey. Proactive actions such as determining the management strategies, establishing communication and early warning systems, carrying out training and drills, making and approving risk management and conservation plans are among the duties of these two institutions (Statutory Decree numbered 644). The Ministry of Environment and Urban Planning was given the duty for the transformation of areas under disaster risk into safe living areas with the “Law on Transformation of Areas Under Disaster Risk” numbered 6306 which went into effect in 2012. Municipalities have responsibilities on risk management at the local level. However, the fact that municipalities are obliged to take the opinions of the Ministry



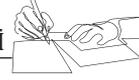
of Environment and Urban Planning when carrying out risk management related works has an adverse impact on the locality principle which is quite important in proactive disaster management understanding (Law Numbered 6306).

Even though there are important actions related with mitigation works as part of disaster management in Turkey, mitigation and risk management works in the corporate structure as well as in current regulations, they cannot be specified as proactive. The regulations do not include topics such as defining and classifying the risks, selection of prevention and mitigation strategies against the risks, continuous monitoring and evaluation of the risks which are all among the foundations of risk management and they also do not include the corporate structuring related with these actions. Moreover, there are significant shortcomings related with the participation of the public in decision making processes which is an important issue with regard to proactive risk management. Limited participation mechanisms such as Environmental Impact Assessment processes are built on informing people rather than making the public a part of the decision given regarding especially the investments that pose some risks. Another issue with regard to proactivity is the integrated approach towards disaster risks. Risk management studies are mostly focused on earthquake related studies and therefore risks related with other threats may be neglected (Erginöz, 2008:31).

2. Preparation Works

Various dangers are unavoidable regardless of how early risk management works related with disasters are carried out. Preparation works should be carried out with a proactive understanding in order to minimize the damage of such threats. The Disaster Law numbered 7269 does not include any provisions on certain preparations or planning works to be carried out with regard to disaster management. Whereas regions with a high risk of enemy attack, natural disaster, and big fire have been defined as “sensitive regions” in the Civil Defense Law numbered 7126 with responsibility given to the mayors for establishing a civil defense organization in these regions. However, significant shortcomings have developed with regard to the type of preparation works to be carried out by such civil defense organizations and how coordination will be established between institutions.

Cooperation and coordination between institutions that are important for proactive disaster management were first mentioned in the “Regulation on Emergency Aid Organization and Planning Principles for Disasters” numbered 12777 which went into effect in 1988. The regulation projected the carrying out of all preparation works against possible disasters by the “rescue and aid committees” to be established under the chairmanship of the mayor who had complete responsibility. “Prime Ministry Emergency Management General Directorate of Turkey” was established in 2000 with the Statutory Decree numbered 600 after the insufficiencies of the public government with regard to disaster preparation and response stages became evident and a matter of debate following the earthquakes in Turkey in the year 1999. Organization and coordination of preparation works for disasters were carried over to the Prime Ministry level with the establishment of this general directorate (Statutory Decree numbered 600).



A separate department for preparation works was not established with the law numbered 5902 when other department directorates related with different stages of integrated disaster management were being established as part of the corporate structure of AFAD. A clear assignment of duty was not made for works carried out to inform the public as well as for carrying out the required trainings and drills on disasters and emergencies which are among the important actions of proactive preparations works. Local organization was handed over to Provincial Directorates of Disaster and Emergency Management which work directly under the mayor; however responsibilities of local administrations were not defined clearly. Thus, significant issues related with the effective use of local resources have developed during proactive preparations works. There are no clear definitions in the related regulations on how local plans will be developed. The first important studies on national planning started in 2012 with the “National Disaster Response Plan” issued by AFAD. The preparation of local response plans which are very important for proactive disaster management could not be carried out effectively throughout the country following the national disaster plan (UAMP, 2012).

Insufficiency of the coordination between institutions during response is among the most important problem areas in the disaster management of Turkey. Corporate planning works for establishing coordination between response works continuously attract attention during restructuring procedures related with disaster management and new corporate structures are established. Disaster and Emergency Management High Commission (comprised of ministers) and Emergency and Disaster Coordination Commission (comprised of undersecretaries) are important establishments, however AFAD became part of the Ministry of Internal Affairs following the Presidential Decree numbered 4 which went into effect in 2018 after which the coordination level was decreased to the ministry level (Presidential Decree numbered 4). However, sufficient importance was not given to planning and coordination works that will encompass the capacity of local administrations at the local level despite all these works carried out with good intentions. Clear definitions on the expenses of preparation works were not included in the related regulation and all budgetary loads were left on AFAD the primary duty of which is actually to establish coordination in disasters. The structure of Disaster and Emergency Provincial Directorates which make up the provincial organization of AFAD was quite distant from establishing and continuing the local administrative and technical preparations (Güler, 2008:42; Hutton, 2012:2).

It is very important in proactive disaster management to carry out the organization and establish communication plans. A serious time pressure arises for communication during disasters thereby resulting in the need to establish a rapid, effective and proactive communication between the intervening corporate structures and the disaster victims. Inefficient disaster communication may result in many additional crises and may have a negative impact on the perception of trust between the disaster victims and the management thereby rendering the disaster unmanageable. Significant issues in disaster response may arise in Turkish disaster management when the two-way communication between the disas-



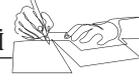
ter victims and the management is not sufficient and when the disaster victims cannot contact the administration in a timely manner. One of the most important issues in proactive disaster management is the information from the community apart from scientific data. Giving importance to the disaster victims along with the communication between the corporate structures is also important with regard to proactivity (Ekşi, 2013:98).

Another issue that is very important in proactive disaster management is a well-developed civil society structure related with disaster management and widespread voluntariness. The lack of a civil society structure that eludes issues of politics and tutelage disrupts the effectiveness of disaster management preparation works in Turkey. Insufficiencies and shortcomings in management capacity should be eliminated with the local capacity and the capacity of the volunteers especially during the first 72 hours of disasters. Inefficient use of the volunteer capacity in Turkey, the fact that volunteers are distant to actualization result in the inefficient use of this capacity despite the high motivation involved thereby having a negative impact on proactive disaster management (Ekşi, 2017:111).

3. Response Works

Proactivity is very important in response works for managing post-disaster damage, controlling any additional risks involved and the prevention of probable new crises to develop. Mayors have been given authority and responsibility in response activities as part of the law numbered 7269 and it has been indicated that important services for response such as rescue, health and accommodation will be given by “rescue and aid committees” to be established by the mayors (Law numbered 7269). While the law numbered 7126 indicates that it is obligatory for civil defense teams to take part in natural disaster and fire response activities. However, for many years it has not been possible to establish a proactive response organization with the responsibilities included in these two fundamental laws. It has been projected with the Regulation numbered 12777 which went into effect in 1988 that the coordination of emergency services during disasters will be under the responsibility of “rescue and aid committees” to be established in the provinces with mayors assuming the sole responsibility related with the response (Regulation numbered 12777). The coordination of “emergency management centers” that became an obligation to be included in state institutions and organizations for providing effective emergency support was given to the Presidency with the Statutory Decree numbered 600 which went into effect in 2000 (Statutoru Decree Numbered 600, item 4).

Whereas carrying out response activities and establishing coordination during times of disaster or emergencies was defined as the duty of AFAD Response Department Directorate with the Law numbered 5902 (Law Numbered 5902). The Response Department is responsible from establishing and managing disaster and response management centers in cities with the cooperation of state institutions and organizations. It is projected in the current regulations that the response activities shall be carried out by disaster and emergency management centers through the agency of the provincial directorates of disaster and emergency under the coordination of the response department. The national plan



published in December 2012 by AFAD has distributed the responsibilities via provincial directorates of disaster and emergency while neglecting the local capacity and local administrations (Ekşi, 2015).

It can be observed that four units have been established in the national plan under AFAD for response organization. These units are; “operation”, “data and planning”, “logistics and care”, “finance and administrative works”. The fact that the operation unit encompasses many state institutions and organizations results in proactivity issues as well as issues of coordination during response. Many state institutions and organizations along with non-governmental organizations take place in response duty. Therefore, the command and coordination of the response is of special importance. The inclusion of many institutions in the response activities brings up the importance of incident command during disasters. The fact that there is no incident command system related with disasters in Turkey and the lack of a common language and terminology among the institutions that will take part in the response activities have adverse impacts on proactivity in response (Ekşi and Çelikli, 2016).

The most important exam that disaster management in Turkey went through with regard to response was during the 1999 Marmara earthquakes. Issues of proactivity in response, capacity issues and the inefficient use of the already existing capacity rendered the disaster completely unmanageable. However, studies were carried out for establishing coordination at the upper executive level for solving the issues that took place at the response stage. This did not change in the national plan that was published in 2012 as well. Nevertheless, local organizations are very important for disaster response especially for incident command. The communication and interaction of response institutions during ordinary periods has a positive impact on proactivity during response. For this purpose, it is necessary to detect and solve the problems related with the operation of response institutions during ordinary periods of time, improve the communication and interaction of response institutions and to ensure that the ordinary period capacity is affectively transferred under extraordinary conditions (Ekşi, 2013:116).

Even though the proactivity issue in Turkish disaster management response organization seems like a local issue, the main problem is that responsibilities of organizations placed highest in the hierarch have not been defined clearly. Even though the main duty of AFAD was determined as establishing coordination in the law numbered 5902, the administration attracted attention as having the highest budget and growth among the administrative structuring. The fact that the administration took the main responsibility during the post-2011 Syrian wave of played an important role in this. Even though the purpose was determined as coordination during the administrative structuring and organization of the administration, the fact that at this point it has transformed into the most important executive institution in disaster management has resulted in rendering the institution ineffective in its main duty of coordination. Moreover, the response duty has been directed by the central organization rather than the local organization thereby resulting in the centralization of disaster management works and the move away from proactivity (Ekşi, 2015:118).



4. Recovery Works

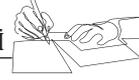
Recovery works cover the relieving of the damage caused by the disaster and rehabilitation works and are also important for preventing future disasters. Recovery works are among the first subjects defined in the Turkish disaster management regulations and thus take up a large space in the regulations. The law numbered 7269 which can be considered as the first disaster law covers the recovery works that should be carried out mostly after a disaster. However, the recovery works are limited only to natural disasters in this law. Recovery works and related appointments of responsibility for incidents other than natural disasters and especially earthquakes have been neglected in this law. While AFAD Recovery Directorate was appointed responsible for the coordination of nationwide recovery works with the law numbered 5902 (Law Numbered 5902).

AFAD Recovery Directorate is responsible from the establishment of temporary settlement areas and management of health and social services in addition to the formation and implementation of recovery plans in coordination with the local administrations as well as other state institutions and organizations. Even though actions for recovery have been defined in the regulations, there are shortcomings as to determining which institution will be responsible from which actions. Recovery works at the national plan are evaluated under two headings and it is indicated that the “initial recovery works” planned to be carried out after the incident shall be carried out by service groups comprised of state institutions and organizations, while it is also indicated that additional planning will be carried out for “long term recovery works”. The responsibilities of the Ministry of Environment and Urban Planning General Directorate of Infrastructure and Urban Transformation Services with regard to the improvement or restructuring of the settlement areas after a disaster are defined in the Statutory Decree numbered 644 (AFAD, 2012; Statutory Decree Numbered 644).

It is observed when the recovery activities included in the Turkish disaster regulations are evaluated that the works are mostly based on restructuring works and that the works related with the rehabilitation of the disaster victims are not sufficient. The main issue with regard to proactivity is that experiences and the lessons taken as a result of the disasters cannot be transferred to next disasters. Even though many similar disasters have taken place in Turkey, it is observed that experiencing the same issues and making the same mistakes over and over again is almost inevitable. Reactive solutions are devised in accordance with the conditions at the time during each disaster for the various problems encountered which results in issues such as administrative failures and the failure to transfer the administrative experiences to future disasters. However, taking lessons from experiences and transforming them into experiences for future disasters is among the most important goals of proactive disaster management (Güler, 2008:41).

CONCLUSION

The issues that disaster management in Turkey faces with regard to proactivity are mostly related with risk management and preparation stages. Insufficiency of participatory mechanisms that are part of democracy also have adverse impacts on risk management during disasters. It is not possible to carry



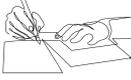
out the inspection mechanisms of risk management without making the public and especially the local public part of the inspection mechanisms. It is not acceptable to have the public outside the inspection mechanisms in proactive risk management. The second major issue is that the responsibilities of the local administration have not been defined clearly in both the disaster regulations and in corporate structuring. The facts that the source in disasters is local and that the first response capacity comes from local sources make it an obligation to make efficient use of local resources in proactive disaster management.

The most important issue during the response stage is the lack of coordination between corporate structures that will respond to the disasters. The search for a solution to this issue which became apparent during the 1999 Marmara earthquakes is ongoing since that time and many corporate structures have been developed for this purpose. However, the fact that the studies carried out are mostly for high level corporate structures and the center result in neglecting the importance of the local in proactive disaster management. Another issue is the lack of an incident command system that will enable incident coordination during response activities. Even though insufficient capacity is among the major issues in response, it is unfortunately observed that the volunteer capacity that is widely used in good application examples in other countries for disaster management cannot be used effectively in Turkey. This has an adverse impact especially on the communication and interaction between the disaster victims and the administration and emerges as a major issue related with proactive disaster management.

The most important problem areas related with all stages of integrated disaster management in Turkey result from the fact that the responsibility areas of AFAD have not been defined clearly. Even though the institution is appointed by the regulations to establish coordination, today it has transformed into one of the major implementation institutions. This also has a negative impact on the decision making processes of the institution from time to time thereby transforming it into a cumbersome structure while also preventing it from effectively carrying out its primary duty of coordination. It is also striking that Turkey as a country with high disastrousness cannot transform the lessons learned with regard to proactive disaster management into experiences for future disasters.

Legislation

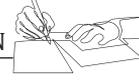
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3. Law No. 6306, "Law on Transformation of Areas Under Disaster Risk", 05.16.2012.
4. Law No. 7126, "Civil Defense Law", 06.09.1958.
5. Law No.7269, "Law on Assistance to be Taken with Measures to be Taken Due to Disasters in Public Life", 05.15.1959.
6. Regulation No.12777, "Implementing Regulation Relating to Emergency Aid and Planning Principles for Disasters", 04.01.1988.



7. Regulation No.28281, "Regulation on Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear Hazards", 05.03.2012.
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**CHAPTER
15****THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG THE
ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGICAL
CAPITAL, INNOVATION AND
ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE: AN
APPLICATION TO THE PRODUCTION
SECTOR****Senem ALTAN¹, Murat ÖZPEHLİVAN²****Introduction**

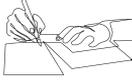
Psychology science is trying to provide the impetus for the improvement of some negative psychological conditions seen in people. In recent years, “Positive Psychology”, which is based on individual happiness and personal development, has become very important in solving the psychological problems encountered by people. The “Positive Organizational Behaviour” phenomenon that develops in this context focuses on the development of psychological capacities with the strengths of the employees in the organization (Luthans et al., 2007: 542). According to Erkuş and Fındıklı (2012: 303), different from the classical point of view, individual development is more important in increasing positive organizational behaviour, performance and productivity with positive psychology and it is pointed out that employees will contribute more if they are happy and optimistic in business life (Ocak et al, 2016: 2).

Among the studies carried out on psychology in the area of organizational behavior, it is one of the topics frequently discussed on psychological capital. Developmental positive psychological conditions of employees are defined as psychological capital (Ocak et al., 2016: 1). Academic studies carried out in the field of psychological capital are theoretically based on positive psychology. Psychological capital is described as a psychological resource that can promote development and performance at the individual level and, at the organizational level, provide leverage, investment return and competitive advantage with increased performance (Çetin et al., 2013: 99).

In today’s businesses’, both change and development are rapid and intense, where information becomes increasingly important, and competition and the effects of factors such as globalization are increasingly challenging. As a result of these developments, businesses are constantly seeking to drive new products to market and create innovation as a result of the race to reach more market share within the market. In order to make a difference in the enterprises that show similarities in quality and price and to get ahead of the competition, the aim and innovation activities gained value (Kaya-Özbağ, 2012: 146). At this point, innovation in organizations needs an appropriate ecosystem that is naturally self-supporting and a constantly developing ecosystem. In organizations where the

1 Okan Üniversitesi Uygulamalı Bilimler Yüksekokulu Yönetim Bilişim Sistemleri Bölümü

2 Okan Üniversitesi Uygulamalı Bilimler Yüksekokulu Lojistik Bölümü



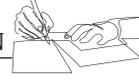
climate and ecosystem are not established, the possibility of individual and institutional labour to innovate is very low (Uzkurt, 2017: 5). To be able to carry innovation climate in organizations; the support of organizational administrations, team work, greater use of non-formal systems, insight into risk taking and failure, participation of institutional structure and cooperation, removal of internal and external borders, support of innovators by reward and incentive system, depends on the separation of resources (Naktiyok, 2007: 212).

Organizational performance refers to a set of achievements that many parameters specify. For this reason, when organizations are referred to as periodic or integrated performance, it is understood that all of the factors contributing to or somehow affecting the performance of this performance are expressed simultaneously. It is not an abstract concept of organizational performance organization, but it marks the final output of the whole, composed of human and material assets that express much more than that (Yavuz, 2010: 147). Considering that the competition conditions between the organizations are increasing increasingly (İpçioğlu and Kahya, 2016: 180), it is seen that work towards the improvement of organizational performance is increasingly given importance. The organizational performance phenomenon is generally examined under four main headings. Topics include; innovation, market, production performance and financial performance (Yavuz, 2010: 147).

In recent years, the phenomenon of psychological capital has become a matter of emphasis on organizational research. In parallel, organizations; they are trying to develop their psychological capital due to the desirability of their output, making them unique (Ocak et al., 2016: 1). According to Ocak et al. (2016: 3), employees with high level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment facilitate the achievement of the goals and targets of the organizations and decrease the intention of employees to leave the company, decrease absenteeism rates and increase customer satisfaction. At this point, it is emphasized that each organization should develop psychological capital according to its own situation and facts, to direct it and to make it unique in order to provide competitive advantage. In the literature, it is seen that the effects of the organizational psychological capital on employee performance and work attitudes are generally considered. On the other hand, it has been observed that the performance of organizational psychological capital firms and the studies on the effects of employees on innovation perceptions are limited. In this research, it is aimed to investigate the relationship between organizational psychological capital, innovation and organizational performance.

1. Research question

The psychological characteristics of employees in organizations influence the attitudes and behaviors to operate positively or negatively. In a similar way, innovation is considered as an important phenomenon in order for enterprises to gain advantage in the competitive environment and survive. However, it is seen that the studies on the relationship between perceived organizational psychological capital and innovation orientation and business performance are limited in the literature. At this point, it is necessary to answer the question "Is there a



relationship between psychological capital, innovation orientation and organizational performance in organizations?"

2. Contribution of the study to the science

Although many researches on organizational behaviour have been made in the literature, it is seen that the studies on the relationship between organizational psychological capital and innovation orientation cases and organizational performance are limited especially in Turkey. Considering that organizational performance is an important issue for organizations to survive, this study was thought to be an important work that would contribute to the literature.

3. Scope of the study

This survey covers a total of 110 employees, 42 of whom are women and 68 of whom are men, working in the manufacturing sector in Istanbul.

4. Method

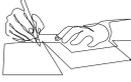
In this section of the research, information on the research model, the researcher's universe, the sample, the means of gathering data in the research, and the statistical analysis methods used are given.

4.1. Research model

In this study, scanning type research method was used from observation-based (empirical) research models, which are frequently used in the field of social sciences. Observational researches are based on the researches they have conducted using questionnaires and scales in order to answer the questions that the researchers want to answer, to develop hypotheses when they want to test whether the questions to be answered are correct or not. Including statistical analysis of data obtained to test researchers' hypotheses in observational studies. Screening researches in observational studies are known as descriptive research methods used in determining the characteristics of research subjects (age, marital status, sex, etc.) of large sample groups (Can, 2014: 8). In the study, relational screening model was used in determining the relationship between organizational psychological capital, innovation perception and organizational performance.

4.2. Research universe and sampling

The universe of the research creates individuals working in enterprises located in Istanbul and operating in the manufacturing sector. The sample of the researcher came from 110 laboratories selected randomly from within the universe. 42 women and 68 male employees were included in the survey when dealt with in the demographic context. The majority of the employees were found to be in the age group of 36-55 (60%), university graduates (35.5%), sales and marketing department (37.3%) and business owner or partner status (53.6%).



4.3. Data collection

In the data collection process of the survey, a questionnaire was used in four parts. The first part of the questionnaire used has a personal information form. The personal information form contains 5 questions aiming to determine the participants' gender, age group, level of education, and the statuses in the departments and workplaces where they work. Organizational Psychological Capital Scale, Innovation Directionality Scale and Business Performance Scale are among the other parts of the questionnaire.

Organizational Psychological Capital Scale: It was used to determine the organizational psychological capital perceptions of employees. The scale was developed by Luthans et al. (2007) and adapted to Turkish by Çetin and Basım (2012: 121). The Psychological Capital Scale comes from a total of four sub-dimensions: "optimism", "psychological endurance", "hope" and "self-sufficiency". In the scale, there are 24 items in total and the "optimism" sub-dimension 1 *, 9, 11 *, 14, 18, 19; "Psychological endurance" sub-dimension 5, 7, 8 *, 10, 13, 22; "Hope" sub-dimension 2, 6, 12, 17, 20, 24; The "self-efficacy" sub-dimension is measured by items 3, 4, 15, 16, 21, 23 (the scale marked * indicates the reverse questions). In the scale developed according to the 6th Likert Scale and includes items such as; "I can think of many ways to get rid of it if I find myself in a blockage while working", "I feel I can handle many things by name", and "I always see the good side of things about the name". The increase in the scores obtained from the scale sub-dimensions indicates that optimism; psychological well-being, hope and self-sufficiency are high (Çetin and Basım: 2012: 127).

Innovation Directionality Scale: The innovation orientation scores of employees participating in the research were used to determine the directionality perceptions. The scale was developed by the questions that were collected from studies on the subject by Küçük and Kocaman (2014: 43). There are 6 items on the scale and the scale has only one sub-dimension. As the score on the scale increases, the employees' perception of innovation orientation is also increasing. The scale is of Likert 5 type and responses to scale items are rated between I fully agree (5) and I do not fully agree (1). It has been reported that the Cronbach Alpha value is as high as 0,81 in the scale development process.

Business Performance Scale: Used to determine the perception of business performance of employees participating in the survey. The scale was developed by the Küçük and Kocaman (2014:43). There are 12 items in the scale and the scale has one sub-dimension. The higher the score on the scale means the greater the perception of employees' performance. The scale is of Likert 5 type and responses to scale items are rated between I totally agree (5) and I do not totally agree (1). The Cronbach Alpha value was found to be 0.89 in the scale development process.

4.4. Statistical analysis

SPSS 22.0 program was used for the analysis of the obtained data. One-Sample Kolmogorov Smirnov test, in which the scale distributions showed normal distribution before analysing the scores of the participants from the scales, was



examined. It has been determined that the test does not show a normal distribution of the test result. For this reason, non-parametric analysis methods were used to compare the scale scores according to demographic variables and to examine the relations between the scales. The Mann Whitney U test was used to compare the scale scores according to the gender of the participants. The Kruskal Wallis H test was used to compare age groups, education levels, and departments and statuses. Spearman correlation analysis was used when the relations between scale scores were examined.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of participants' demographic details

Variables	Sub-variables	f	%
Gender	Female	42	38,2
	Male	68	61,8
Age groups	18-35	34	30,9
	36-55	66	60,0
	55+	10	9,1
Education level	Primary school	21	19,1
	High school	27	24,5
	University	39	35,5
	Master degree	18	16,4
	PhD	5	4,5
Department	Production	27	24,5
	Marketing	41	37,3
	Labour	4	3,6
	Accounting	15	13,6
	Others.	23	20,9
Statue	Worker	10	9,1
	Owner/Partner	59	53,6
	Manager (middle)	31	28,2
	Manager (high)	10	9,1

When the table is examined, it is seen that 38.2% of the participants are composed of females and 61.8% of the participants are males. 30.9% of the survey participants are in the 18-35 age group, 60% are in the 36-55 age group and 9.1% are in the 55+ age group. 19,1% of the researchers are primary school graduates, 24,5% are high school graduates, 35,5% are university graduates, 16,4% are graduate students and 4,5% are doctoral graduates. 24.5% of the respondents work in the production department, 37.3% in the sales-marketing department, 3.6% in personnel, 13.6% in accounting and 20.9% in other departments. 9,1% of the participants are working, 53,6% are business owners / partners, 28,2% are middle managers and 9,1% are top managers.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics on participants' scale scores

Scales	Sub-dimensions	X	Sd
Psychological capital	Self-efficacy	4,34	,571
	Psychological endurance	4,28	,569
	Hope	4,31	,526
	Optimism	3,96	,665



Business performance	Total score	4,09	,691
Innovation directionality	Total score	4,25	,870

When the table is examined, it is seen that participants' self-efficacy, psychological endurance, hope and optimism levels are at a high level, psychological capital sub-dimensions are high, and business performance perceptions are close to high level and optimism levels are at high level.

Table 3. Comparison of psychological capital scores by gender of participants

Sub-dimensions	Gender	N	X	Sd	Average of line	Average total	U	p
Self-efficacy	Female	42	4,36	,583	56,71	2382,0	1377,0	,751
	Male	68	4,34	,568	54,75	3723,0		
Psychological endurance	Female	42	4,34	,591	59,75	2509,5	1249,5	,267
	Male	68	4,24	,555	52,88	3595,5		
Hope	Female	42	4,37	,518	59,19	2486,0	1273,0	,337
	Male	68	4,28	,532	53,22	3619,0		
Optimism	Female	42	4,08	,638	61,30	2574,5	1184,5	,131
	Male	68	3,89	,675	51,92	3530,5		

When the table was examined, it was seen that the levels of self-efficacy, psychological endurance, hope and optimism did not differ statistically according to gender of the participants ($p > 0,05$).

Table 4. Comparison of participants' psychological capital score by age groups

Sub-dimension	Age group	N	X	Sd	Average	χ^2	p
Self-efficacy	18-35 age	34	4,07	,519	39,12	14,040	,001
	36-55 age	66	4,48	,558	64,10		
	55+ age	10	4,35	,541	54,45		
Psychological endurance	18-35 age	34	4,14	,571	47,46	3,326	,190
	36-55 age	66	4,35	,560	59,61		
	55+ age	10	4,28	,583	55,70		
Hope	18-35 age	34	4,20	,490	47,59	3,081	,214
	36-55 age	66	4,36	,557	59,21		
	55+ age	10	4,38	,401	57,90		
Optimism	18-35 age	34	3,98	,579	55,85	3,244	,198
	36-55 age	66	4,00	,712	57,89		
	55+ age	10	3,63	,568	38,55		

When the table was examined, it was seen that the levels of psychological endurance, hope and optimism did not differ statistically by age groups ($p > 0,05$) and that the self-efficacy levels were statistically different according to age groups ($p < 0,05$). The difference in self-efficacy levels according to age groups is due to the fact that the self-efficacy levels of participants in the 36-55 age group are higher than those in the 18-35 age group.

**Table 5.** Comparison of participants' psychological capital score by educational level

Sub-dimensions	Education	N	X	Sd	Average	χ^2	p
Self-efficacy	Primary school	21	4,15	,623	45,43	12,542	,014
	High school	27	4,20	,628	49,00		
	University	39	4,43	,535	59,87		
	Master degree	18	4,68	,359	73,75		
	PhD	5	4,03	,298	33,10		
Psychological endurance	Primary school	21	4,18	,669	51,93	5,180	,269
	High school	27	4,19	,583	50,72		
	University	39	4,27	,546	54,46		
	Master degree	18	4,54	,469	70,58		
	PhD	5	4,24	,434	50,10		
Hope	Primary school	21	4,11	,696	47,07	5,438	,245
	High school	27	4,33	,459	55,20		
	University	39	4,36	,480	57,88		
	Master degree	18	4,48	,474	65,89		
	PhD	5	4,03	,380	36,50		
Optimism	Primary school	21	3,83	,739	49,93	2,425	,658
	High school	27	4,05	,601	59,67		
	University	39	3,90	,676	52,53		
	Master degree	18	4,13	,666	62,75		
	PhD	5	3,95	,671	53,50		

When the table was examined, it was seen that the levels of psychological endurance, hope and optimism did not differ statistically ($p > 0,05$) and the levels of self-efficacy were statistically different ($p < 0,05$) according to education levels. The difference in self-efficacy levels according to education level is due to the fact that the self-efficacy level of the graduate students is higher than the self-efficacy level of primary, high school and doctoral graduates.

Table 6. Comparison of participants' psychological capital scores by departments

Sub-dimension	Department	N	X	Sd	Average	χ^2	p
Self-efficacy	Production	27	4,28	,566	51,09	2,663	,616
	Marketing	41	4,28	,565	52,09		
	Labour	4	4,42	,569	58,38		
	Accounting	15	4,43	,600	61,37		
	Other	23	4,46	,591	62,43		
Psychological endurance	Production	27	4,26	,486	52,63	2,478	,649
	Marketing	41	4,27	,599	55,71		
	Labour	4	4,65	,300	75,38		
	Accounting	15	4,33	,670	60,40		
	Other	23	4,22	,584	51,85		
Hope	Production	27	4,24	,530	51,20	1,331	,856
	Marketing	41	4,30	,537	55,07		
	Labour	4	4,50	,638	67,25		
	Accounting	15	4,40	,458	59,60		
	Other	23	4,33	,556	56,59		



Optimism	Production	27	3,98	,608	56,46	2,897	,575
	Marketing	41	3,98	,579	56,68		
	Labour	4	4,44	,966	77,63		
	Accounting	15	3,93	,788	53,80		
	Other	23	3,84	,749	49,52		

When the table was examined, it was seen that the levels of self-efficacy, psychological endurance, hope and optimism did not differ statistically ($p > 0,05$) according to the departments of the participants.

Table 7. Comparison of participants' psychological capital scale scores according to their statuses

Sub-dimensions	Statue	N	X	Sd	Average	x^2	p
Self-efficacy	Worker	10	4,55	,465	66,50	7,657	,054
	Owner/Partner	59	4,43	,574	60,82		
	Manager (middle)	31	4,12	,587	43,44		
	Manager (high)	10	4,32	,441	50,50		
Psychological endurance	Worker	10	4,62	,274	74,10	6,683	,083
	Owner/Partner	59	4,23	,599	52,91		
	Manager (middle)	31	4,17	,586	50,02		
	Manager (high)	10	4,54	,366	69,20		
Hope	Worker	10	4,55	,478	70,50	5,181	,159
	Owner/Partner	59	4,29	,573	55,30		
	Manager (middle)	31	4,20	,475	47,71		
	Manager (high)	10	4,50	,333	65,85		
Optimism	Worker	10	4,43	,678	77,55	13,938	,003
	Owner/Partner	59	3,91	,688	53,32		
	Manager (middle)	31	3,76	,526	45,02		
	Manager (high)	10	4,45	,497	78,80		

When the table was examined, it was seen that the self-efficacy, psychological endurance and Hope levels did not differ statistically significantly ($p > 0,05$) and Optimism levels differed statistically ($p < 0,05$) according to the status of the participants. The difference in the level of Optimism according to the status stems from the fact that the Optimism level of the participants, the Worker and senior managers, is higher than the Owner / Partner and middle level managers.

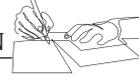
Table 8. Comparison of business performance scores by gender of participants

Gender	N	X	Sd	Average	Average total	U	p
Female	42	3,88	,727	46,15	1938,5	1035,5	,016
Male	68	4,21	,641	61,27	4166,5		

When the table was examined, it was seen that the perceptions of the business performance were statistically different ($p < 0,05$) according to the genders of the participants and the perception of the business performance of the male participants was higher.

Table 9. Comparison of business performance scores by participants' age groups

Age group	N	X	Sd	Average	x^2	p
18-35	34	4,04	,793	54,54	,391	,822
36-55	66	4,09	,656	55,09		
55+	10	4,24	,585	61,45		



When the table is examined, it is seen that the perceptions of business performance according to the age groups of the participants do not differ statistically ($p > 0,05$).

Table 10. Comparison of business performance scores by participants' education levels

Education	N	X	Sd	Average	χ^2	p
Primary school	21	4,10	,827	58,86	7,727	,102
High school	27	4,11	,615	55,74		
University	39	4,01	,630	50,94		
Master degree	18	4,33	,761	68,64		
PhD	5	3,56	,512	28,40		

When the table is examined, it is seen that the perceptions of business performance do not differ statistically according to the education levels of the participants ($p > 0,05$).

Table 11. Comparisons of participants' work performance scores by departments

Department	N	X	Sd	Average	χ^2	p
Production	27	3,80	,906	46,15	5,502	,240
Marketing	41	4,24	,610	62,22		
Labour	4	3,84	,374	38,00		
Accounting	15	4,18	,545	58,53		
Other	23	4,12	,592	55,57		

When the table is examined, it is seen that the perceptions of the business performance according to the participants are not statistically significant ($p > 0,05$).

Table 12. Comparison of business performance scores by participants' statuses

Statue	N	X	Sd	Average	χ^2	p
Worker	10	4,07	,643	52,55	2,985	,394
Owner/Partner	59	4,18	,649	60,01		
Manager (middle)	31	3,90	,804	48,02		
Manager (high)	10	4,11	,578	55,05		

When the table is examined, it is seen that the perceptions of business performance do not differ statistically according to the statues of the participants ($p > 0,05$).

Table 13. Comparison of Innovation directionality scale scores by gender of participants

Gender	N	X	Sd	Average	Average total	U	p
Female	42	4,11	,907	50,06	2102,5	1199,5	,016
Male	68	4,34	,841	58,86	4002,5		

When the table was examined, it was seen that the innovation directionality perceptions differed statistically ($p < 0,05$) according to the genders of the participants and the innovation orientation perception of the male participants was higher.



Table 14. Comparison of innovation directionality scale scores by age groups of participants

Age groups	N	X	Sd	Average	x ²	p
18-35	34	4,08	1,033	51,62	1,061	,588
36-55	66	4,32	,776	56,51		
55+	10	4,38	,861	62,05		

When the table was examined, it was seen that the innovation orientation perceptions did not differ statistically according to age groups of participants ($p > 0,05$).

Table 15. Comparison of participants' innovation directionality scale by educational levels

Education	N	X	Sd	Average	x ²	p
Primary school	21	4,21	1,134	59,45	6,415	,170
High school	27	4,09	,905	48,24		
University	39	4,35	,717	57,62		
Master degree	18	4,44	,818	63,89		
PhD	5	3,77	,630	31,40		

When the table is examined, it is seen that the innovation directionality perceptions do not differ statistically according to the education levels of the participants ($p > 0,05$).

Table 16. Comparison of participants' innovation directivity scale by departments

Department	N	X	Sd	Average	x ²	p
Production	27	3,94	1,100	47,24	4,354	,360
Marketing	41	4,39	,747	59,45		
Labour	4	4,04	,750	39,88		
Accounting	15	4,38	,846	62,10		
Other	23	4,31	,769	56,57		

When the table is examined, it is seen that the innovation orientation perceptions according to the departments that the participants studied did not differ statistically ($p > 0,05$).

Table 17. Comparison of participants' innovation directionality scale according to their statuses

Statue	N	X	Sd	Average	x ²	p
Worker	10	4,12	,794	48,15	1,404	,705
Owner/Partner	59	4,35	,768	58,04		
Manager (middle)	31	4,04	1,102	52,18		
Manager (high)	10	4,43	,634	58,15		

When the table is examined, it is seen that the innovation directionality perceptions do not differ statistically according to the status of the participants ($p > 0,05$).

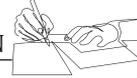


Table 18. The Relationship between participants' perceptions of psychological capital levels and business performance

		Self-efficacy	Psychological endurance	Hope	Optimism
Business performance	r	,279**	,331**	,303**	,182
	p	,003	,000	,001	,058

When the table was examined, there was a low positive and significant relationship between organizational psychological capital self-efficacy, psychological endurance and hope dimensions and business performance perception ($p < 0,05$), no significant relationship have been found between optimism dimension and perception of business performance $> 0,05$).

Table 19. Analysis of the relationship between psychological capital levels and innovation perception of participants

		Self-efficacy	Psychological endurance	Hope	Optimism
Innovation directionality	r	,380**	,360**	,403**	,196*
	p	,000	,000	,000	,040

When the table was examined, there was a moderately positive and significant relationship between organizational psychological capital, self-efficacy, psychological endurance and hope dimensions and innovation directionality perception ($p < 0,05$), while there was a low positive and significant relationship between optimism dimensions and innovation orientation ($p < 0,05$).

Table 20. An investigation of the relationship between participants' innovation perceptions and business performance

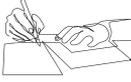
		Innovation directionality
Business performance	r	,715**
	p	,000

When the table is examined, it is seen that there is a positive and strong correlation between the innovation directional sense and the performance perception ($p < 0,05$).

Results and suggestions

At the end of the study, it was determined that employees had high levels of self-efficacy, psychological endurance, hope and optimism from psychological capital sub-dimensions, having high perception of business performance and high level of optimism. According to these findings, it can be said that the manufacturing sector employees included in the survey have high psychological capital level in terms of organizational structure.

When analysed in terms of demographic variables, it was found that organizational psychological capital perceptions differ statistically according to age group, education level and working status variables ($p < 0,05$), whereas organizational psychological capital perceptions did not show statistically significant difference according to gender and departmental variables studied ($p > 0,05$). It

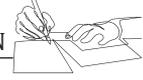


can be considered that the difference in organizational support perceived by the demographic characteristics of the employees in organizations is the basis of this result, for example; managerial behaviors may vary depending on the level of education of workers in organizations or age groups. Similarly, bilateral relations within the elements affecting employees' psychological capital are often shaped by demographic factors. Studies in the literature also show that perceived organizational support and organizational structure are significant determinants of organizational psychological capital (Erdem, 2015: 38).

In the study, it was found that the performance of employees and innovation orientedness perceptions differ significantly according to the gender variable, whereas the perception of innovation performance and innovation orientedness did not show any statistically significant difference according to age group, education level, department worked and status variables. These findings in general show that demographic variables are not significant determinants of organizational performance and innovation orientation. This outcome can be attributed to the greater influence of organizational factors (organizational climate, etc.) on demographic variables on organizational performance and organizational orientation. Organizational performance and innovation have a significant effect on organizational factors on directionality in the studies in the literature (Kaya-Özbağ, 2012:145).

When the correlations between variables were examined, it was found that there was a significant positive relationship between organizational psychological capital and innovation orientation, between innovation orientation and business performance perception ($p < 0.05$). Similar studies in the literature have reported significant relationships between organizational psychological capital, innovation orientation, and perceptions of business performance.

In the research conducted by Yavuz (2010: 143), it is aimed to examine the effects of innovation activities carried out in enterprises on organizational performance. The research was conducted on individuals working in Çanakkale Ceramics and longitudinal case analysis was used in the research. At the end of the research it was reported that the organizational innovation which is the basis of other innovation types triggered all types of innovation and made an integrated effect, which effect positively on organizational performance. In the research conducted by Küçük and Kocaman (2014: 37), it was aimed to investigate the relationship between innovation orientation and organizational performance in hospitality enterprises and it was concluded that there was a meaningful relation between innovation orientation and organizational performance at the end of the research. In the research conducted by Kesen and Kaya (2016: 188), it was aimed to investigate the relationship between individual work performance and psychological capital, which is one of the factors affecting organizational performance, and statistically significant relationship between performance and psychological endurance subscales and psychological capital subscales have been reported. In different studies in the literature, it has been found that there is a significant relationship between organizational performance and innovation orientation (Erdem et al., 2011: 77; Çalışkan et al., 2011: 363). In this context, it can



be said that the results obtained from the research consisted with the literature.

As a result, demographic variables were found to be important determinants of organizational psychological capital, and it was thought that the employees showed significant differences according to their demographic characteristics in their perception of behaviour towards them in the organization. It was found that employees' perceptions of innovation orientation and business performance did not show significant differences according to demographic variables in general, but on the basis of this, it was thought that the perception of innovation orientation and business performance was shaped by organizational parameters rather than demographic variables. In addition, organizational psychological capital, innovation orientation, and perception of business performance were statistically significant and positively related, and these results were generally consistent with the literature. The following suggestions can be made in the light of the findings and related literature in the research;

1. New researched can be done in the service sector where the perceived organizational psychological capital's effects on innovation orientation and organizational performance. Thus, in service sector, findings related to organizational psychological capital can be reached in relation to innovation orientation and organizational performance.

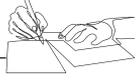
2. Considering that organizational psychological capital has a positive effect on organizational performance, which has vital importance for organizations, some measures can be taken to improve employees' organizational psychological capital perceptions.

3. The socio-demographic characteristics of the study were not found to have any effect on the innovation orientation and organizational performance perception, and it was thought that the organizational factors rather than the demographic characteristics of the workers were influential on innovation orientation and organizational performance. At this point, it is possible to carry out researches on the organizational elements that affect the perception of organizational performance and innovation.

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CHAPTER
16

COMMON CULTURAL VALUES AND INTERACTION AMONG THE TURKIC REPUBLICS: IN THE EXAMPLE OF TURKISH AND KYRGYZ CITIZENS

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Introduction

Turkic Republics and Turkey share a common culture resting on similar languages and a common past. After a long separation, stretching to centuries even before the Soviet period, they re-established strong links following the dissolution of the USSR. It is a matter of question, whether the separation of long years created an estrangement between the two corners of the Turkic language zone. This study aims firstly to determine the endurance of common cultural values of the Kyrgyz and Turkish citizens with common historical roots. A possible discovery of common cultural values, however, can also be a result of acculturation following the recent rapprochement. Thus, it is also necessary to examine, whether the integration and interaction of the post-independence period is resulting in acculturation.

This study is settles with the new phenomenon of Turkish migrants working in Central Asia, which has not been studied under the acculturation subject before. Until the dissolution of the USSR, Central Asian republics were closed to Turkish citizens. After the independence of Turkic republics, some Turkish citizens migrated to Central Asian countries, which were perceived as brothers and sisters separated for ages, in order to join new emerging market economy as experienced entrepreneurs or to assist them in their struggle for development. In the period of a quarter-century, some migrants have returned to Turkey, but others settled there establishing families and raising the second generation, which constitutes a new field of study.

Turkish migration has some differences from other migrations, as the Turks had originally migrated from Central Asia to Turkey, but now some are going back to Central Asia to work. Accordingly, unlike most studies on migration Turkish citizens do not consider themselves as newcomers in a host country but at home of their - real or imagined - ancestors. As a result of the Turkish migrants perception and the cultural proximity the interaction process, which is expected to lead to unidimensional adaptation from the host to the home community, can also be directed to unidimensional adaptation in Turkish institutions for the co-workers of the home community.

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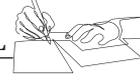
This study aims first to determine the cultural commonalities on two corners of the Turkic world represented by Turkey and Kyrgyzstan. As the commonalities might be resulted rapprochement of two peoples after Kyrgyzstan's independence, additionally the interaction has sought to be determined as part of the study. Accordingly, it has been evaluated which of the four acculturation models, i.e. integration, assimilation, separation or marginalization, is taken shape now as a result of recent acculturation among the citizens of two communities in Kyrgyzstan. Thus, 474 questionnaires were filled face by face by respondents working together for a long time in joint Kyrgyz-Turkish workplaces in Bishkek, Kyrgyzstan.

The analysis revealed that there is great cultural commonality, which is related to the past rather than to recent interaction. Co-workers with Turkish and Kyrgyz citizenship learn the other culture partially, while keeping their own cultural values, which corresponds to a bidimensional acculturation process leading to integration for both societies.

Sources of common cultural values: The history and recent interaction

The Turks migrated to present Turkey nearly millennia ago. Until at least 16th century there were strong and direct links connecting Central Asia and recent Turkey. Central Asia was both a center of Islam for Turkic peoples and the hub of Silk Roads, where nomadic and settled cultures amalgamated. Religious sects of Sufi missionaries (McChesney, 1996) and merchants of the Silk Road were travelling and connecting both parts of the Turkic world, and helping to the emergence of similar literary languages (Findley, 2005: 94). Trade, religion and language established a common cultural zone, until the beginning of the 16th century, when the Shiificaiton of Iran broke the links between Anatolia (recent Turkey) and Central Asia (Golden, 2011: 106). In the same decade, Ottomans conquered Arabic lands, which helped to the replacement of the connection lost to Islamic schools in Central Asia (Kreiser and Neumann, 2009: 82-86). The differentiation of Ottoman Turkey and Central Asia continued during the Russian occupation of Central Asia. Both Turkey and Central Asian republics underwent modernization processes in the 20th century (Lewis, 1961; Zürcher, 1993). However, the republican modernization of independent Turkey and Marxist modernization of the Soviet republics followed different paths with different premises. Accordingly the differentiation in cultural values is firstly a direct result of the historical and geographical separation; secondly the amalgamation with different local peoples; and finally the modernization processes under different agencies. Thus, it is quite expectable that these three historical stages of differentiation might have further strengthened the rift between the two cultural zones.

The separation of two regions of Turkic peoples came to an end with the dissolution of the USSR in 1991. Turkey was the first state officially recognizing the new, independent Turkic republics, i.e. Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan, and it immediately established strong links followed by economic and cultural projects. To this day, many Turkish educational and economic agencies – both public and private - are active in Central Asia and



Azerbaijan. After five centuries of separation, Turkish and Central Asian communities are re-establishing their relations.

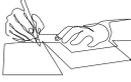
In the decades following the independence, umbrella organizations were found among Turkic republics and communities, such as the *International Organization of Turkic Culture* (TÜRKSOY, 1993), which aims “to strengthen the ties of brotherhood and solidarity among Turkic peoples with a view to transmitting their common cultural heritage to future generations and promoting it around the world” with its 14 member countries (<http://www.turksoy.org/en/turksoy/about>). Another significant joint organization is the *Cooperation Council of Turkic Speaking States* (Turkic Council, 2009), which has the objective “to serve as a new regional instrument for advancing international cooperation in Eurasian continent, particularly in Central Asia and Caucasus” with its four member states, i.e. Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Turkey. The Council underlines “being constructed on four main pillars as common history, common language, common identity and common culture” (http://www.turkkon.org/en-US/general_information/299/308).

Both organizations understand “common cultural heritage” as given and their foundation stone for further cooperation, while the long separation and possible differentiation are not considered as effective. The original research question initiating this study was to examine the validity of this “common cultural heritage” after five centuries of separation, which might have caused some differentiation in cultural values. However, it is also taken into consideration that the recent interaction can have some influence on cultural values increasing the commonality. In order to dissociate the influence of recent interaction, the theoretical framework of acculturation was applied, which studies adaptation tactics of the migrant to the host community including their assimilation. As the greater commonality might be a direct result of the assimilation, the presence of assimilation needs to be substantiated.

Theoretical framework: adaptation and acculturation

The interaction between the citizens of two countries can be studied within the framework of acculturation, which is a process of cultural and psychological change starting, when an individual from one cultural environment moves to another and adjusts to the new culture (Berry and Sam, 2010). In this process of cultural change learning the second language has a crucial role, as John Schumann showed it in his acculturation model (1978). Acculturation has been conceptualized as a unidimensional (unidirectional) or bidimensional (bidirectional) process.

First studies on cultural interaction defined acculturation as a unidimensional process for immigrants’ assimilation into the host community (Park and Miller, 1921). Since then acculturation is understood and analyzed in this model as a unidirectional process between two poles of traditional culture and new culture, where the acculturation of the individual is accepted to be directed to the inevitable assimilation. This was elaborated by Gordon, who explains that entrance into the mainstream culture is inevitably followed by “the disappearance



of the ethnic group as a separate entity and the evaporation of its distinct values" (1964: 81). According to him in acculturation an ethnic group adapts to the cultural patterns of the dominant group, and this adaptation surpasses external cultural traits, such as dress and language, but also includes internal ones, such as beliefs and values (1964: 77). Acculturation is the first step of assimilation, which is defined as the extinction of ethnic identity in favor of the culture of the host nation (1964). In this unidirectional approach assimilation is understood as a goal to be accepted by members of the host society (Ruiz, 1981). A similar perspective is today advocated by Gudykunst and Kim, who define acculturation as a process of deculturation and acculturation, which leads to ultimate assimilation. A person entering a different culture unlearns its own culture and adapts to the new culture in order to fit into the new environment (2003: 358-360).

There are some research models developed according to unidimensional approach, such as the Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans (Cuellar, Harris, Jasso, 1980) and Suinn-Lew Asian Self Identity Acculturation Scale (Suinn et al., 1987), prepared for immigrants in the USA. For the migrants the American melting pot is a fact, and the process is perceived within a continuous process of transition from the home culture to the host culture, where the failure in the full assimilation of the individual is accepted as a problem in the acculturation process to be solved. The source of the problem is sought to be found within layers of assimilation, such as linguistic, social, economic, legislative stages (Gordon, 1964; Triandis et al., 1982). The non-realization of assimilation is a problem for the host community but also for the immigrant. A non-assimilated individual suffers of psychological problems and stress, as a result of isolation and alienation (Johnson, 1976; Sung, 1985). Thus, the realization of assimilation is for the benefit of the migrant.

However, after 1970s a different perspective arose arguing that absorption into the host community is not inevitable (Berry, 1974; LaFromboise et al., 1993; Marín Gamba, 1996). Berry stated that involvement in the two cultures of both immigrants' home culture and host culture is possible, and the individual can choose to keep both cultures (1974, 1980). Phinney also underlined the two independent dimensions, where individuals maintain two different identities (1997). Urry further defined the process of acculturation as the mutual influence that occurs, if different world-views suddenly meet in a new environment (1990). According to Kramer, the changes in both cultural groups lead to a co-evolution (2009). Thus, a bidirectional (bidimensional) process takes place.

Berry elaborated his model by defining four strategies of acculturation for peoples adjusting to a culture other than their own: integration, assimilation, separation and marginalization. Integration occurs, when the group lives successfully in both original and host community's culture, while in assimilation the individual leaves his/her original culture and is being absorbed into the host culture. Separation is a situation, in which the individual protects his/her culture by rejecting the host culture. In marginalization the individual is alienated from both cultures (1994, 2001 and 2005).

Recently, bidimensional model of adaptation of migrants and their four adaptation strategies (assimilation, integration, marginalization and separation)



are generally accepted, and current scholarship investigates integration within a more sophisticated context. It emphasizes the need for a deeper understanding of migrants in their integration to multiple social identities within themselves (Haritatos and Benet-Martinez, 2002; Yampolsky et al., 2013; Ni et al., 2017). Erdal and Oeppen (2013: 871) analyzed integration in two dimensions: structural integration based upon incorporation of migrants into societal structures, such as education, labor market, legal status), and socio-cultural integration, including cultural adjustments (Ni et al., 2017: 310).

These studies rely upon extensive data on the country of the field research, which is not the case for the study of Turkish migrant communities in Central Asia. The Turkish migration to Central Asia is a rather new phenomenon, as it could only start after the dissolution of the USSR. With the second generation, this community is becoming a permanent segment of the population in Central Asia, and this study with its collected quantitative data intends to open a new universe for migration studies.

In this study it is argued that the interaction of both societies does not lead to assimilation, but it is bidimensional, and it can lead to a co-evolution as Kramer defined it. In terms of strategies of adaptation defined by Berry, it is expected that a type of integration, will be defining the main form of relationship.

Data and research method

This is a descriptive study based on primary data, which are collected through quantitative methods by surveys, and secondary data, which are taken from the Kyrgyz Statistics Directorship, Turkish Ministry of Education and Kyrgyz-Turkish Business Association.

Hypotheses

With the help of theoretical discussions hypotheses of this study are formulated as follows:

- There has been a shared past between Central Asia and Turkey, which forms common cultural values.
- Knowing the other language has a positive effect on interaction.
- The time spend in the other country has a positive effect on interaction.
- Through the recent interaction in common work places bidimensional adaptation takes place.
- The bidirectional relationship between the societies can be defined as integration.

Selection of population for comparison

For a more effective comparison the farthest of these five republics to Turkey are taken into consideration, which are Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan. Historical links between Turkey and the two republics are relatively weaker compared to other Turkic republics. Another significant factor for this study was the intensity



of interaction, which led to the selection of Kyrgyzstan. Kyrgyzstan has the smallest GDP both in total GDP and GDP per capita (IMF, 2014), and it is by population and area the fourth biggest republic among the five post-Soviet republics. However, thanks to its position as an “island of democracy”, the interaction between Turkey and Kyrgyzstan is the strongest. Today, there are over 250 Kyrgyz-Turkish companies in Kyrgyzstan, and Kyrgyzstan is also economically the most supported country by the Turkish state. The relations between the two edges of the Turkic language zone - Turkey and Kyrgyzstan - are especially strong in education with twenty primary and secondary schools and four higher educational bodies (Ünal, 2016: 514). The workplaces in Kyrgyzstan, where Kyrgyz and Turkish citizens are working together, are selected in order to analyze the manifestation of acculturation.

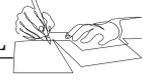
Research questions

The main research questions were adjusted to the following primary and secondary research questions:

- Is there a differentiation in values between the citizens of Turkey and Kyrgyzstan?
- What is the level of cultural commonality of Kyrgyz and Turkish citizens sharing the same workplace in Kyrgyzstan?
- If there is a commonality, is it a result of the shared past or recent interaction in the work place?
- What is the level of knowledge on the other (Kyrgyz or Turkish) culture?
- Is there a positive correlation between the knowledge on the other culture and knowing the other language?
- Is there a positive correlation between the time spent in the other country and knowledge on the other culture?
- Is there a unidimensional or bidimensional process of adaptation?
- Does the process lead to integration, assimilation, separation or marginalization?

Sampling

A target-oriented design was fashioned for the sampling, which covers public and private educational bodies and business establishments with Turkish and Kyrgyz co-workers, most of which are in the capital of Kyrgyzstan, Bishkek. Eight out of twenty primary and secondary schools and two universities out of four higher educational bodies are located in Bishkek. Additionally, Bishkek represents the whole country by pulling citizens from all over Kyrgyzstan. The survey is conducted in all of these eight joint Bishkek schools and both universities. The data about the business sphere is taken from the Kyrgyz-Turkish Businessmen Association, and joint companies with more than ten employees were selected.



Data Collection

The level of cultural interaction is analyzed by quantitative data collecting techniques through a questionnaire, which is prepared in three languages, Turkish, Kyrgyz and Russian. Turkish is the official language for Turkish citizens and all educated Turkish citizens are fluent in Turkish. In Kyrgyzstan both Kyrgyz and Russian are official languages, and the citizens are mostly bilingual. Ethnic Kyrgyz citizens can prefer Russian questionnaires, if they are educated in Russian schools. After the preparation of questionnaires in three languages a pre-test was applied, and some revisions were made to eliminate problems related to translation and cultural misinterpretations.

The questionnaire starts with 17 open-ended demographic questions, which are followed by 68 questions on values. The questions on values are selected and categorized in five fields of analysis: values about family life; values about work and work ethics; values about politics, political system, governance and administration; values about moral sphere, traditions and religion; and values about social life, education and general cultural traits. These five categories are critical to understand the level of shared values by the two peoples. These are structured as five-level Likert scale questions with items “strongly disagree”, “disagree”, “neutral”, “agree” and “strongly agree”.

In order to estimate whether the common orientation is a result of the past proximity and/or the recent rapprochement, another set of questions about the knowledge on the other cultural group was added to the questionnaire. It was assumed in this research that knowledge on the other culture is a result of the recent influence, and the level of influence can be evaluated through calculating the knowledge on the other culture. This is also beneficial to estimate the adaptation strategy, such as assimilation, proceeded by respondents.

Data Analysis

Totally 500 questionnaires were distributed, 474 of the collected questionnaires were found reliable and the data were analyzed with the help of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 16 to find out the percentages, frequencies and arithmetic means of participants’ responses.

In order to determine statistical significance 0.05 is set as significance level, and t-test and Variance analysis (ANOVA) are applied. For reliability Cronbach’s alpha was calculated, which was found 0.86 for this study. Thus, internal consistency was defined as “good”, and results are accepted to be used.

Results

Demographic data

The demographic data was analyzed to identify the basic conditions for interaction to reveal cultural commonality in values.

**Table 1.** Demographic data.

Personal Information		Frequency		Percentage (%)		Kyrgyz/ Turkish	Total
		Kyrgyz	Turkish	Kyrgyz	Turkish		
Citizenship	Kyrgyzstan	261	-	100	-	261	474
	Turkey	-	213	-	100.0	213	
Gender	Female	159	23	60.9	10.8	182	474
	Male	102	190	39.1	89.2	292	
Age	> 20	2	1	.8	.5	3	471
	20-29	78	25	29.9	11.7	103	
	30-39	114	90	43.7	42.3	204	
	40-49	38	64	14.6	30.0	102	
	50-59	22	22	8.4	10.3	44	
	60 >	7	8	2.7	3.8	15	
Marital Status	Single	58	40	22.2	18.8	98	473
	Married	175	161	67.0	75.6	336	
	Divorced	20	10	7.7	4.7	30	
Highest Level of Education	Widowed	7	2	2.7	.9	9	474
	> High School	1	3	.4	1.4	4	
	High School	18	11	6.9	5.2	29	
	Undergraduate	14	4	5.4	1.9	18	
	Graduate	158	47	60.5	22.1	205	
	Postgraduate	70	148	26.8	69.5	218	

From the 474 reliable questionnaires 182 were filled by female, 292 by male respondents. According to citizenship, 261 of them were citizens of Kyrgyzstan and 213 Turkish citizens. 159 of the citizens of Kyrgyzstan were women and 102 were men; among the Turkish citizens only 23 were women and 190 men.

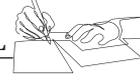
The age interval of both Kyrgyz and Turkish citizens was “between 30-39” (43.7% of Kyrgyz, 42.3% of Turkish citizens). Their marital status was mainly “married” (67% of Kyrgyz, 75.6% of Turkish citizens) and both citizen groups are mainly university graduates (60.5% of Kyrgyz citizens with undergraduate, 26.8% with graduate level and 22.1% of Turkish citizens with undergraduate, 69.5% with graduate level; in total 87.3% of Kyrgyz and 91.6% of Turkish co-workers are university graduates). The high level of education is a result of the fact that most work places are educational bodies, such as schools and universities. The commonality of both groups’ in age interval, marital status and high level of education can be considered as a positive factor for interaction.

There is, however, a considerable difference in the gender distribution of Turkish and Kyrgyz citizens. The Turkish citizens are mainly male (89.2%), whereas Kyrgyz citizens are mainly female (60.9%), which can be negative factor for interaction, especially by spending time together after work. The fact that Turkish male and Kyrgyz female co-workers are mainly married diminishes the possibility to socialize in their free times.

Cultural values

The data was analyzed to understand the level of cultural commonality in values within and among the two groups and the interaction of the two groups.

Arithmetic means of values for Kyrgyz and Turkish citizens in five categories are to be seen in Table 2. The significance assessed by variance analysis (ANOVA) and standard deviation are also shown in Table 2.

**Table 2.** Variance analysis (ANOVA) of cultural values for Kyrgyz and Turkish citizens.

Categories	N		Arithmetic Mean		Std. Deviation		Significance
	Kyrgyz	Turkish	Kyrgyz	Turkish	Kyrgyz	Turkish	
Family	261	213	3.74	3.44	.444	.378	.000
Work	260	211	4.25	4.07	.481	.379	.000
Politics	260	210	3.33	3.50	.606	.525	.001
Moral	260	209	3.63	3.85	.701	.653	.000
Social Life	260	208	4.00	4.37	.730	.505	.000

In Table 2, variance analysis (ANOVA) represents that statistically significant evidence at $\alpha = 0.05$ for citizenship and cultural values has been achieved.

All five categories of family, work, politics, moral, and social life give meaningful results. Kyrgyz citizens responded to family values with 3.74 agreement, and Turkish citizens with 3.44, which represents a higher level of agreement for Kyrgyz citizens. Kyrgyz citizens responded to work values with 4.25 agreement, and Turkish citizens with 4.07, which again represents a higher level of agreement for Kyrgyz citizens. Kyrgyz citizens responded to political values with 3.33 agreement, and Turkish citizens with 3.50, which represents a higher level of agreement for Turkish citizens. Kyrgyz citizens responded to moral values with 3.63 agreement, and Turkish citizens with 3.83, which represents a higher level of agreement for Turkish citizens. Kyrgyz citizens responded to values related to social life with 4.00 agreement, and Turkish citizens with 4.37, which again represents a higher level of agreement for Turkish citizens.

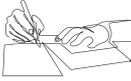
The standard deviation for each group was low. It was both for Kyrgyz and Turkish citizens the lowest in family values (0.444 and 0.378) and the highest in values about the social life for the Kyrgyz citizens with 0.730 and 0.653 for Turkish citizens in moral values. In addition to the validity of the survey the standard deviation shows social cohesion for each group.

Table 3 focuses on arithmetic mean of values and their percentage of commonality among the Kyrgyz and Turkish citizens for each of five categories of values on family, work, politics, moral, and social life.

Table 3. Arithmetic mean and percentage for questions related to cultural values of Kyrgyz and Turkish citizens.

Categories	N		Arithmetic Mean		Percentage (%)		Commonality
	Kyrgyz	Turkish	Kyrgyz	Turkish	Kyrgyz	Turkish	
Family	261	213	3.74	3.44	74,80	68,80	% 94
Work	260	211	4.25	4.07	85,00	81,40	% 94
Politics	260	210	3.33	3.50	66,60	70,00	% 97
Moral	260	209	3.63	3.83	72,60	76,60	% 96
Social Life	260	208	4.00	4.37	80,00	87,40	% 93

The agreement in family values for Kyrgyz citizens is 74.8%, for Turkish citizens 68.8%. The commonality in family values had a high percentage with 94%. Kyrgyz citizens responded to work values with 85% agreement, and Turkish citizens with 81.4%, which again represents a high level of commonality by 94%. Kyrgyz citizens responded to political values with 66% agreement, and Turkish



citizens with 70%, which represents the highest level of agreement by 97%. Kyrgyz citizens responded to traditional and religious values with 72.6% agreement, and Turkish citizens with 76.6% which represents a high level of agreement by 96%. Kyrgyz citizens responded to values related to social life with 80% agreement, and Turkish citizens with 87.4%, which again represents a high level of agreement by 93%. These results show that Kyrgyz and Turkish citizens have a high commonality in cultural values, which are ranking between 93-97%.

It was also predicted in this study that two main factors would have a positive impact on interaction leading to acculturation and formation of common values: knowing the other language and the time spent within the other cultural environment. As the proximity between two societies is already high, the results show no meaningful difference for independent variables of time and language competency. Thus, the results are not used here.

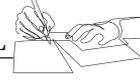
Interaction

Table 4 presents questions and answers about the knowledge on the other culture for each community to shed light to the level of interaction. The higher percentage of knowledge on the other culture means the higher interaction between two communities. It has been asked to respondents to write down maximum five names or items in each related category.

Table 4. Number of names written by Kyrgyz and Turkish citizens on questions related to the knowledge on the other culture.

N	Questions	None %		Min (1) Max (5) %		Total Number N	
		Kyrgyz	Turkish	Kyrgyz	Turkish	Kyrgyz	Turkish
1	Name Turkish/Kyrgyz singers.	24	39	76	61	261	213
2	Name Turkish/Kyrgyz authors.	49	19	51	81	261	213
3	Name Turkish/Kyrgyz scientists.	70	59	30	41	260	213
4	Name Turkish/Kyrgyz politicians.	33	33	67	67	261	213
5	Name Turkish/Kyrgyz official holidays.	25	25	75	75	260	213
6	Name Turkish/Kyrgyz tourist destinations.	25	20	75	80	261	213
7	Name Turkish/Kyrgyz foods.	20	15	80	85	261	213
8	Name Turkish/Kyrgyz newspapers.	46	41	54	59	261	213
9	Name Turkish/Kyrgyz TV channels.	42	50	58	50	261	213
10	Name Turkish/Kyrgyz TV serials.	31	67	68	33	261	213
11	Name Turkish/Kyrgyz radio channels.	74	54	26	46	261	213

The data about the knowledge on the other nation demonstrates that both groups have some knowledge about the other culture. The top three scores are achieved in foods, tourist destinations and official holidays. As in Turkish work places Turkish food is cooked and they can also be found in many Turkish restaurants all over Bishkek, it is not hard for Kyrgyz citizens to name some Turkish foods. Turkish citizens also know some Kyrgyz foods, because they go Kyrgyz restaurants in Bishkek or to celebrations together with their Kyrgyz colleagues. Thus, food is the best known subject about the other culture with 80% for the Kyrgyz, 85% for the Turkish citizens sharing the same work place in Bishkek. It is followed by tourist destination, where 75% of Kyrgyz citizens can name at least one tourist destination in Turkey and 80% of Turkish citizens name a tourist



destination in Kyrgyzstan. It is understandable for Turkish citizens – if they are not newcomers - to write down at least one location, because they are already living in Kyrgyzstan. The relatively high score for Kyrgyz citizens can be explained by the general popularity of Turkey in tourism. The high percentage of knowledge on official holidays is related to celebrations. Official holidays are off-days for Turkish citizens working in Kyrgyzstan, and their knowledge on holidays is understandable, because they plan their holidays accordingly. Turkish holidays are also celebrated in Turkish work places. The high proportion of Turkish educational bodies in Kyrgyzstan has also a positive effect on this result, as they are officially celebrating these events.

These data has also been assessed to test the reliability of the two hypotheses of this study arguing that knowing the other language, and the time spent within the other cultural environment has a positive effect on acculturation. Table 5 shows the demographic data on the level of Turkish language competency for the Kyrgyz and Kyrgyz language for Turkish citizens, and the time spent in the other community's country.

Table 5. Language competency and the time spent in the host country.

Personal Information		Frequency		Percentage(%)		Kyrgyz/ Turkish	Total Number
		Kyrgyz	Turkish	Kyrgyz	Turkish		
Kyrgyz/Turkish Language Competency	None	B	9	4.2	4.2	20	474
	Beginner	38	52	14.6	24.4	90	
	Medium	94	98	36.0	46.0	192	
	Upper	118	54	45.2	25.4	172	
	>6 months	-	9	-	4.2	9	
Time spent in Kyrgyzstan	6 months-1 year	-	27	-	12.7	27	213
	1-3 years	-	54	-	25.4	54	
	3 years >	-	123	-	57.7	123	
	None	120	-	46.0	-	120	
Time spent in Turkey	>6 months	100	-	38.3	-	100	260
	6 months-1 year	5	-	1.9	-	5	
	1-3 years	7	-	2.7	-	7	
	3 years >	28	-	10.7	-	28	

It has been observed that 45.2% of Kyrgyz citizens declared that their level of Turkish is upper and 36% as medium. Turkish citizens, on the other hand, possess mainly medium level Kyrgyz with 46%, and 25.4% have upper level Kyrgyz language competency. These percentages are sufficient for communication and interaction.

The time spent in the host country is also assessed, as it is critical in creating common values. The result was that 46% of Kyrgyz citizens have never visited Turkey. The visitors mainly spent less than 6 months in Turkey (38.3%). The relatively short period of time spent in Turkey is not sufficient to create any changes in values. Turkish citizens, on the other hand, are all working in Kyrgyzstan and for a longer period. Majority of Turkish citizens (57.7%) are living in Kyrgyzstan for longer than 3 years. Only 16.9% of them spent less than a year in the host country.



These demographic data was evaluated by correlating variables. The analysis made according to mean difference brought reliable results in these independent variables. Some examples are shown and explained in Table 6.

Table 6. Mean difference on the question “write down names of Kyrgyz foods you know!”.

Independent Variable (I) At what level do you know Kyrgyz language? (J) At what level do you know Kyrgyz language?	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Deviation	Significance
None	1,722*	,567	,014
Upper Beginner	1,013*	,306	,006
Medium	,585	,267	,129

As it is seen in Table 6, the mean difference between Turkish citizens with upper level Kyrgyz language competency and other Turkish citizens with no knowledge, beginner and medium level Kyrgyz language competencies is 0.05 for the question about the Kyrgyz food. The mean difference between upper level and no language competency is 1.722, between upper and beginner levels 1.013. These data prove that Turkish citizens with upper level Kyrgyz language competency have a much better knowledge on the Kyrgyz food, as it was postulated.

Table 7. Mean difference on the question “write down names of official holidays in Kyrgyzstan!”.

Independent Variable (I) Since when are you living in Kyrgyzstan? (J) Since when are you living in Kyrgyzstan?	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Deviation	Significance
6 months-1 year	1,164*	,373	,011
More than three years 1-3 years	,868*	,286	,015

Table 7 displays that the mean difference between Turkish citizens living more than three years in Kyrgyzstan and other Turkish citizens living less than three years in Kyrgyzstan is 0.05. The mean difference between categories of “more than three years” and “six months to one year” is 1.164, between categories of “more than three years” and “one year to three years” is 0.868. These data verifies that Turkish citizens, who spent more than three years in Kyrgyzstan are much better acquainted with Kyrgyz official holidays, as it was postulated

Table 8. Mean difference on the question “write down names of tourist destinations in Turkey!”.

Independent Variable (I) At what level do you know Turkish language? (J) At what level do you know Turkish language?	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Deviation	Significance
None	1,411*	,485	,020
Upper Beginner	1,514*	,287	,000
Medium	,742*	,213	,003

As it is seen in Table 8, the mean difference between Kyrgyz citizens with upper level Turkish language competency and other Kyrgyz citizens with no knowledge, beginner and medium level Turkish language competencies is are 0.05 for the question about the tourist destinations in Turkey. The mean difference between upper level and no language competency is 1.411, between upper and beginner levels 1.514. These data proves that Kyrgyz citizens with upper level



Turkish language competency have a much better knowledge on tourist destinations in Turkey, as it was predicted.

Table 9. Mean difference on the question “write down names of Turkish newspapers you know!”.

Independent Variable		Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Deviation	Significance
(I) How long did you live in Turkey?				
(J) How long did you live in Turkey?	Never	1,965*	,251	,000
	>6 months	1,317*	,256	,000
More than three years	6 months-1 year	1,007	,581	,416
	1-3 years	1,036	,506	,247

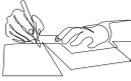
Table 9 manifests that the mean difference between Kyrgyz citizens living more than three years in Turkey and other Kyrgyz citizens living less than three years in Turkey is 0.05. The mean difference between categories of “more than three years” and “never been” is 1.965, between categories of “more than three years” and less than six months” is 1.317, between categories of “more than three years” and “six months to one year” 1.007, between categories of “more than three years” and “one year to three years” is 1.036. These data verifies that Kyrgyz citizens, who had spent more than three years in Turkey have a better knowledge about Turkish newspapers, as it was hypothesized.

Discussion

All of the eight research questions have found their answers. The first question of the study was about the presence of differentiation and the second was about the level of cultural commonality of Turkish and Kyrgyz citizens working together in Kyrgyzstan. The collected data show that there is great cultural commonality between the Turkish and Kyrgyz citizens. The physical and historical separation and the amalgamation in different localities with different local peoples and their cultures did not led to differentiation of Turkish and Kyrgyz communities. The modernization period under different agencies had also not distanced the communities in two separate locations. In spite of the fact that the founders of the Turkish Republic with a nationalist agenda and Bolshevik Party of the USSR with a socialist agenda had very different aims, the modernist transformation they proceeded created similar societies in terms of cultural values.

In the third question it was asked, whether this commonality is an outcome of the shared past or the recent interaction in the shared workplace. In order to indicate these different sources of commonality, the level of interaction was sought to be determined through asking the knowledge on the other culture, which was formulated in the fourth research question. It was seen that there is some knowledge on the other culture, and that it increases in correlation with interaction.

The fifth question was about correlation of the competency in the other language and knowledge on the other culture. Independent variable, knowing the other language, has positive effect for both Turkish and Kyrgyz citizens. It is worth to mention here that the Turkish language competency of Kyrgyz citizens are better (45.2% upper level) than Kyrgyz language competency of the Turkish



citizens (25.4% upper level), which is related with the assumption in the introduction that there can also be a unidimensional adaptation in Turkish institutions for the co-workers of the home community. But still there was no assimilation process is verified in the study, and thus, language competency only helps to understand the other culture.

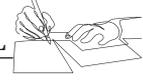
The sixth question was about the other independent variable, time spent in the other country and its correlation with knowledge on the other culture. Similar to knowing the other language, time spent in the other country has also positive effect for both Turkish and Kyrgyz citizens. Consequently, both independent variables, language competency and time spent in the other country, testify that although the common historical past is a valuable source of recent cultural commonalities, the recent interaction helps to raise it further.

The seventh question was about defining the unidimensional or bidimensional character of the acculturation process. It is clear that executing same functions in the work place can lead to a change of values and to the construction of similar communities. This can be an example of unidimensional relationship leading to assimilation (Park, Miller 1921; Gordon 1964; Ruiz 1981; Gudykunst and Kim, 2003 et al.). However, it is also possible that the recent interaction is creating similar values in both social groups by a bidirectional process of co-evolution (Berry 1974; Urry 1990; LaFromboise et al. 1993; Phinney 1997; Kramer 2009). It was seen that there was a bidirectional process, because both cultural groups were keeping their cultural values while they were working together. It is only the level of knowledge on the other society, which increases by interaction.

This was further analyzed in more detail by following Berry's model of four strategies of adaptation to the host culture, as it was aimed in the eight research question. His model differentiates integration, assimilation, separation and marginalization as alternative models of adaptation (1994, 2001, 2005). Here, it should be added that different than Berry's model, in which the acculturation takes place in the Kyrgyz host culture, it is also possible that the Kyrgyz would be assimilated into the Turkish culture through working in a Turkish institution.

Firstly, the possibility of marginalization can be evaluated. Standard deviation in Table 1 presents an answer for the possible existence of marginalization. If there were a high value for standard deviation, it could be concluded that the society consists of marginal groups destructing the proximity of values in each group. Standard deviation, however, is low for both social groups, which reflects that there is social cohesion within both groups and no marginalization.

At such a high level of cultural commonality ranging between 93-97% as shown in Table 2, it is possible to suppose the existence of assimilation. In such a case two independent values of time and language competency would have had positive effect on the commonality of values. However, as mentioned above neither language competency nor time create any meaningful difference in cultural values for both societies. There is a high cultural proximity indifferent of factors leading to assimilation. Thus, it is not a result of assimilation but common history and modernization process.



In order to analyze the relevance of acculturation strategies of integration and separation, the results of another category, which is about the level of interaction, give meaningful results. It was predicted that individuals sharing the same work place would also share information about their cultures. It is assumed that if there is a close interaction between the two societies, the knowledge about the other culture will also increase. This would represent some integration for the communities examined. If the level of information about the other is low, it was estimated that this would manifest a rejection of the other culture by the individual, which is defined as separation. Our results in Table 4 show that each group has some knowledge about the other culture. Thus, it is not possible to talk about a separation for each society. The shared information manifests that both groups have some knowledge about the other, which shows some level of interaction and consequently there is integration at some extend. Both societies keep their culture but also interact with the other and learn their culture.

Conclusion

The data shows that there is great commonality in cultural values of the Kyrgyz and Turkish citizens, but this is not a result of some unidimensional process of assimilation neither for Kyrgyz citizens working in Turkish institutions nor for Turkish citizens living in Kyrgyz host cultures. The shared past and modernization created similar values, notwithstanding the geographical and historical difference, which could have created a differentiation in shared values. The common cultural values still form a great source for cultural interaction, which is further strengthened by recent rapprochement.

The high level of cultural commonality cannot be explained by unidimensional adaptation model of assimilation for both the Kyrgyz and Turkish citizens. The data shows that there is some knowledge about the other culture, which manifests interaction at some level. As it was expected the interaction is strengthened by the language competency in the other language and the time spent in the host country, which also have a positive effect on the knowledge about the other culture.

The findings about the stability of cultural values and the increase of knowledge on the other culture displays that interaction does not bring about deculturation but only information about the other culture. This result proves that there is no assimilation but mutual recognition and information exchange leading to a co-evolution, cultural plurality and multicultural richness for both the citizens of Kyrgyzstan and Turkey, which can best be explained by the bidimensional integration strategy of adaptation.

Declaration of conflicting interests

The authors declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

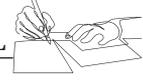
Funding

The research was supported and funded by the Kyrgyz-Turkish Manas University Scientific Research Projects Program (2014.SOB.02), finalized in 2017 by the Decision 2017-02.11.

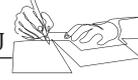


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**CHAPTER
17****PUBLIC TENDERS IN TURKISH
PRINTING AND PUBLISHING
SECTOR AND CONSEQUENCES OF
CONTRADICTIONS TO TENDER
CONDITIONS**

Mehmet Deniz YENER¹, Sinan SÖNMEZ², Ufuk BAŞOĞLU³

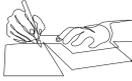
INTRODUCTION

Governments realize services needed in the field of printing and publication in established printing houses within itself. The public tenders for the purchase of raw materials needed by these units take place often. These units might not accomplish their objectives of fulfilling public needs at its full all the time. In such cases, the public tenders for providing the services come into the subject. As a result of public tenders, a special law contract is signed between public institution which is in the position of employer / buyer and supplier. It is within possibilities to meet problems due to the delays in the performance of this contract, or due to bad, defective performances. These possibilities of bad/defective performances of such contracts may occur as defects in the production or choice of bad / defected materials on the contrary to the technical specifications in any phase of choosing materials and realising implementations.

Printing and publishing industry practice, public procurement is performed in the form of the purchase of raw materials, machine sales and services as a result of the tender about this contract. A significant portion of the material purchase paper intake. Besides, ink, plate, solvent, lacquer, etc. a variety of auxiliary materials may be the subject of the tender. If you are in the form of printed public tenders service procurement work or printing service. The public procurement of goods and services purchases primarily according to the specification of the tender specifications are being created and after tender a contract between public institution and the supplier-contractor. Depending on the nature of the work of this contract, trading or the nature of the work contract. This agreement will be available to be printed on the material and the scope of work agreement, and appropriate to the tender specification and the publication will take place in the form of properly. Material supply and printing stages is often defective performance to and delays are encountered (Sönmez *et. al.*, 2018).

The performance of the contract tender phase occurring during and after, distorts the nature of materials degradation and turnover are overt and covert LLC

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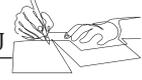
can be considered the responsibility of the vendor or the printing house (Ünlütepe, 2018: 297). Another problem encountered in the public procurement of printing materials and chemical degradation in quality. There is no doubt that each chemical and auxiliaries is available and a label belong to the material suppliers are selling their products under the information on labels. Purchase paper and other public institutions during their Assistant check the labels and packaging material of any defect or damage will be for their benefit and determine whether the defective statement of rights will enable them to use. In this study, both the legal technical application results, printing and publishing industry public procurement in terms of the realization of printing and material mentioned above, defect types, and examples in legal delays, application qualifications will be evaluated and preventive solutions identified and, to be offered.

RAW MATERIALS, MACHINE PURCHASES AND CONTRACTUAL BREAKS IN PUBLIC TENDERS IN THE FIELD OF PRINTING AND PUBLISHING

Printing and Publication in the field of public procurement, the most basic problem in purchasing raw material in technical specifications in the tender due to the fact that the missing were specified (Cresswell *et al.*, 2004: 17-18). For example, if a paper is paper size, weight, type to perform the purchase of, determination of optical and physical properties. Must be of type to use to perform the purchase of paper which printing system is clear and must be stated in a clear manner. In the case of printing ink used in the system and not drying system with unwanted pressure due to problems will occur (Wyatt, 1988: 476-478). Most major Public tenders in the field of printing and Publishing inquiry paper. The biggest problem encountered at this stage is not in the desired qualities of the paper or the distortion and damage occurred during transportation. This damage paper are used legally open or hidden defect cases in the area. The presence of a dirty state of the goods quality. So is the lack of the promised or default attribute (Yavuz, 2011: 68). In General, this process can be considered as the basic problems that may be encountered and defect; Loading the paper size specified in the tender specification features and does not have to lack the desired amount of soaked during transport, is in the process of moving from being damaged and paper sourced from the correct stowage of containers or coils that could potentially damage the installation phase occurred in the trucks (Ebeling, 1990: 43-56).

Printing and Publication in the field of public procurement, the most basic problem in purchasing raw material in technical specifications in the tender due to the fact that the missing were specified. For example, if a paper is paper size, weight, type to perform the purchase of, determination of optical and physical properties. Must be of type to use to perform the purchase of paper which printing is clear and must be stated in a clear manner (Holik, 2006: 392). In addition, specifying how it should be done on the labelling of packaging are different to interfere with each other is important in terms of purchases. Loading the paper in the case of contact with Food Codex food conformity certificate.

The auctions will take place, also often of purchases will take place is hygienic paper cleaning product with the purchase of necessity be, rewinder and emboss-



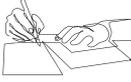
ing (Bajpai, 2010: 39) how it should be, how it should be noted that the number of leaves.

Paper purchases the tender at the application stage of product samples will encounter later in the Alliance wanted probative transport is important. If a chemical or ink intake phase as in the paper again purchase technical specification must be specified the desired qualifications within the individual and make sure there's question marks. The last use of chemicals, packaging and weight must be indicated in the technical specification in detail. In the tender specifications, packages that may occur in tear, wrinkle, explosion, impact, etc. will be considered in cases where the products are clear, it is important to contain and clear information.

As public institutions, printing sector raw materials purchasing and procurement, as well as the purchase of paper machine path. In this way, a tender will be in all technical features of the product are itemized and clear must be specified. Will use the machine to be taken for what purpose, what size should be as it should be present in the machine to perform the retrieval will be held, how to setup shipping how to provision, after the training process and the institution in problems that may arise after the technical support will be made the subject of the tender conditions. The machine is to be taken at least a 2-year warranty will be taken, as needed, to provide the process of the machine to be able to run to ensure the procurement of spare parts technical specifications than the machine use in the process of absolutely It is important in terms of achieving the desired performance.

Turkish law of obligations governing the issue of liability in the sales contract m. 219; "The supplier to the recipient against any circumstances due to the lack of reporting was responsible for the attributes can be sold as such, quality or quality affecting quantity contrary to, in terms of value and purpose, the recipient benefits expected from him eliminate or significantly reduce the presence of financial, legal or economic will be also responsible for defect. The supplier, even if he doesn't the existence of this defect is responsible for them. "Then there are formed during the manufacture of quality defects, format errors, such as ducking and deterioration during transport within the scope of this article is to be understood as financial and economic defect (Zevkliler and Gökyayla, 2015: 120; Göktürk, 1951: 406; Tandoğan, 1985: 163; Giger, 1979: 199; Erbay, 1994: 68; Uygur, 1991: 336). Public procurement contracts of the private law contract are established and as a result of the public authority for the recipient State, this Regulation applies and in this way the possibility of receiving State public institution of defect as mentioned above refer to the vendor in accordance with the provisions of the warranty against seal will be available.

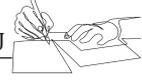
Due to the defect of the receiving State public institutions to use the rights first as a regular receiver, you need to fulfill the baggage report. Review and report to the seller titled m 223; "Buyers, the status of the works be sold that inherits from ordinary stream based on possibility is found and it is a defect that requires the vendor's responsibility to be sold, it is required to notify him within a reasonable period of time. Review and the buyer neglects to notice, shall be deemed to have



accepted to be distributed. However, if a review reveals the usual be sold will not be removed in the event of a finding of defect, this provision does not apply. This kind of defect where later, should be reported immediately to the vendor; defectd is considered sold and is accepted this claim ". As you can see, the law neglected to notify the recipient gave the task to make an informed and in defect defect cannot be used of rights caused by goods deemed to have been accepted as defective. This report, first in open defect should be made immediately after the review. With an overall review of the indecipherable, resulting from the use of secret defect, a defect that is defined in the form of an understanding that it is necessary immediately to the vendor from the notice shall (Yavuz, 2011: 74; Tandoğan, 1985: 165; Giger, 1979: 199). For example, violating the tender specification of paper, will be published in public institutions did not accept ink, printing post valuable paper wrinkling distortion, kabarmalar; the result of applying the resulting quality issues are hidden defect and vendor are required to be notified.

Printing and publishing jobs is one of the commercial business and the parties accepted as a trader. However, State and public institutions are not able to be accepted as a trader, sales agreements, the provisions of the Turkish commercial code some specific provisions for commercial sale, special report periods will not be applied to defect (TTK m. 23 c). According to the commercial sales and property exchange titled; It is clear that during delivery the goods is defective the buyer should report the situation to the vendor within two days. It's not clear that after receiving the goods the buyer in eight days to examine or examined as a result of this review, no commitment, and it turns out to be defective goods, to protect the rights of the State during this period, written notice to the seller. In other cases, the second paragraph of article 223 of the law of obligations in Turkish is applied. This arrangement can be seen in the commercial exchange in open defect ' notice in clearly defined and relatively short. The first review is in two days for the non-obvious defect but the defect with an overall review of the eight-day notice for planned (Yavuz, 2011: 74). However, as mentioned above, the public authority is not accepted for commercial business in terms of printing and publishing jobs in private and will not be applied to the brief periods of time.

The results of the seller's heavy defect are entitled TBK m. 225; The seller, who is severely flawed, cannot survive in part by saying that the defect on the sale is not reported in time. The same provision applies in terms of the defect that people who have acquired the profession should know. This regulation, as a discrete provision, the seller's heavy defect, i.e., or severe negligence in the case of the misrepresentation of the fault is not reported, the profession needs to know that the situation can not go forward in terms of defect. In our opinion, the exception provision, which is an arrangement in place, will also be implemented in the case of the buyer's public institution, and it is prevented from being denounced in violation of the rules of honesty. For example, during the transport, packaging, regulation and protection measures to take the heavy defect or knowingly, the profession must know the need to be aware of the seller, even if the goods delivered in a defective manner due to the rights can be used for defect.

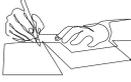


Under the liability of the seller, the electoral rights of the public institution in the buyer status are arranged in TBK m. 227. Accordingly, the buyer is ready to return the sale by notifying the return from the contract, to ask for a discount at the price of sales in defect, if it does not require excessive costs, all expenses to be sold to the seller to be repaired free of charge, if there is a possibility, it will be able to use one of the choice rights to ask for the replacement of the sale with an undefective similar. This selection of rights is not even sought after the seller to be defective.

Public institutions commonly use the right of choice to withdraw from the contract, return the goods and refund the price. Because it is difficult to use the defective materials and papers in the form of the nature of the printer, it is even impossible. However, in some cases, the demand for a price reduction is also encountered in particular mild defect. In addition to these facilities, the public institution has the right to request compensation according to the general provisions. The scope of this compensation is damages that cannot be met by the use of the constituency rights. In order to be able to claim compensation according to general provisions, the seller must have a slight defect and a damage item that cannot be met with an election rights. For example, the loss of the products to be printed on time, damage caused by improper, bad pressure, delay losses are such (Zevkililer and Gökyayla, 2015: 143).

One of the most important cases encountered in public tenders is the fact that the materials are usually sent from another city or even from the country. In the industry, printing materials and machines are supplied from other regions as mentioned above and are usually transported by the seller. Some obligations have been made to the buyer in the provision of the TBK m. 226, which was specially regulated and defective in the delivery of the sale elsewhere. "The buyer, who has suggested that the seller sent elsewhere is defective, is obliged to temporarily take the necessary precautions for the protection of the sale if there is no dealer's representative where it resides. The buyer cannot send him back to the seller without taking the necessary precautions for the protection of the sale, which he suggests is defective. Buyer is obliged to determine the status of the sale without delay. If he does not make it, the burden of the defect that he has made is present at the time the seller reaches him. If the sale is in imminent danger of deterioration, the buyer is obliged to sell it through the court where it is located, and even if it requires the benefit of the seller. If the buyer does not report the situation to the seller as soon as it is, he is responsible for the damages arising.

Public institutions and contracts made as a result of a special law agreement and the public institution is in the buyer's case will be included in the scope of the regulation. The sending of machinery, materials and papers from elsewhere, even if the material is defective, is a significant burden to the buyer's public institution under this provision. In the absence of seller's representative, the buyer will not be able to refrain from receiving the goods, and to take the necessary precautions to protect them, and shall not send them back to the seller without taking these precautions. The buyer's public institution must also be properly identified by the courts, which will ensure the ease of proof for himself to be commissioned by



the Court channel. Another task of the buyer is to sell it through the court where it is located (Yavuz, 2011: 75), where it is a danger of deterioration in a short time. However, in public-quality jobs, in the printing and publishing industry, paper and printing materials are relatively durable because there are no possible deterioration in the short time, the seller's authority and duty to sell the goods as a necessity in the industry. The buyer, who is experiencing the defective expression, has the obligation to take protective measures and to detect the goods, essentially making it easier to maintain their own rights and provide proof. In this way, the purchase of defective goods and protection measures, the duty of the seller does not eliminate the responsibility of the dealer and the buyer may use the rights of choice, such as to protect the purchase of goods for protection is not considered defective (Zevkiler ve Gökyayla, 2015: 132; Edis, 1963: 131; Giger, 1979: 199).

CONTRACT BREAKS AND CONSEQUENCES FOR SERVICE PURCHASES IN PUBLIC TENDERS IN THE FIELD OF PRINTING AND PUBLISHING

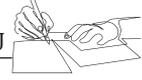
Public institutions can meet their needs with raw materials and machine purchases, and sometimes they can meet their needs by taking service instead of these purchases. At this stage, it is important to make good economic assessment between machine intake and service intake. The most important consideration in service purchases is the process of realization of the service. This time should be clearly determined in the specifications. How to take service, the place of the second persons in this process must be clearly stated.

In all these processes, the establishment of the legal framework of purchases and the explicit and clear definition of criminal conditions is important for the failure of the public institution in the case of disputes that may be lived after the tender.

Businesses in the printing and publishing sector that contract with public institutions are enterprises that perform production on specific orders. Some businesses are making production starting from the direct graphic design process, while some are printing and subsequent processes are realized. However, the main problems that can be encountered in manufacturing and after production in both types of production, the grammage and type of paper specified in the production specification, the desired color values have not been obtained, the printing Quality, and the problems experienced depending on the post-print process.

It will cause a defective number of products produced by companies in the printing and publishing sector that serve to exist in the above-mentioned tender conditions and the expected service quality. In order to avoid this process, the coordination between the public institution and the companies in the printing and publishing sector depends on the best setting. Specification from the public institution, order forms should be received, color selections and preferences are taken after the approval of the institution by taking the approved signature of the organization and even before continuing production to be approved for the last time the institution It will eliminate any problems that may be alive.

The legal relationship between the companies in the printing and publication sector and the organization in the printing and similar service purchases, the contract is the nature of the work agreement. The work contract in TBK m. 470 is

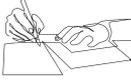


defined as “the contract of work, the contractor, to bring a work, and the employer to pay a price in return.” To ensure non-defective of the work in the works contract is the most important debt of the contractor. This debt is also a complement to the debt of the work (Şenocak, 2002: 29; Gauch, 1985: 605; Aral, 2000: 106; Kocayusufoğlu, 1968: 68; Uçar, 2000: 20). The principal performance, which is undertaken by the printing and publishing sector in the printing process, is to print a visual material, writing or work in accordance with the requirements of the company and to bring it in accordance with the general usage. This work can be a book, brochure or valuable paper, printed papers. What is important here is that the distinguishing element is to properly reproduce this visual material belonging to the customer and deliver it in accordance with the contract.

In the printing phase, paper and materials are usually provided by businesses in the printing and publishing sector. The provisions of TBK m. 472 will be implemented in cases where materials are brought by companies in the printing and publishing sector. In terms of material, entitled TBK m. 472; “If the material is provided by the contractor, the contractor is responsible for the business owner, such as the seller, because of the defective material. According to this regulation, if the paper and printing materials are provided by the companies in the printing and publishing sector, the printer will be responsible for the customer as a seller against the material and the liability of the seller above the responsibility as explained in the section.

Although it is rare that the papers and printing materials have been brought by the public institution, in this case, as a rule, companies in the printing and publishing sector will not be responsible for material-induced disgraceful. However, it is undoubtedly necessary to warn the public authority on this subject as an expert person, otherwise the provisions of the work contract shall apply to the provision of the blame for the defect. In the case of the TBK m. 472, “when the work is occurring, it is understandable that the material or work provided by the owner for the construction is defective, or that it is a matter of necessity or in a timely way to jeopardize the occurrence of the artifact. If it occurs, the Contractor shall immediately notify the employer of this situation; If not, he will be responsible for the consequences.”

Another situation that will prevent the public institution from using its rights due to the defect is that it is linked to it, whether it is due to its own instruction or in some way to be uploaded to it. In this case, TBK m. 476, “If the work is defective, despite the contractor’s explicit notice, the employer is born from the instructions provided or for any reason to be uploaded to the owner of the business, the owner shall not use the rights arising from the defective”. However, the issue that should be emphasized here is the fact that the company in the printing and publishing sector in the state of the contractor has a clear notification about the negativity, the negativity, the incompatibility, the negligence (Yavuz, 2011: 459; Zevkliler and Gökyayla, 2015: 548-550, Seliçi, 1978: 135). For example, material incompatibilities, non-conformance of the print, the inability of results to occur should be clearly reported to the customer. It is also natural to be expected from a professional publishing and publishing sector business.



In the print phase, the provisions about the liability of the contractor due to the defect of the contract in the work agreement are applied to the improper use of materials contrary to the tender specification or the application. The desired color values have not been obtained, the images in print quality low, print quality problems due to the process of post-print protection and the problems experienced in this direction can cause the formation of the defect (Sönmez, 2011: 1-11).

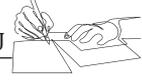
According to the work contract, the owner of the public institution to be liable for the formation of the responsibility for the creation of the law has a burden of review and defect, otherwise the work will be deemed to be accepted in a defective manner and the rights of the claim shall be eliminated under liability. A review obligation is first issued for the business owner. The determination of the defect, titled TBK m. 474, "The owner shall, after the submission of the work, be able to review the work as soon as possible according to the usual flow of works, and to notify the contractor in the appropriate time. Each Party may request that the work be reviewed by the expert and that the outcome should be determined by a report."

In the aftermath of the review, of course, as in the sales contract, there is a notice of burden. The acceptance of the work entitled TBK m. 477, "after the explicit or implicit acceptance of the work, the contractor shall be freed from any liability; However, he continues to be responsible for the defect that is deliberately hidden by him and that cannot be noticed during his procedural review. If the owner neglects to review and notify, he is deemed to have accepted the work. If the defect of the work occurs later, the employer must report the condition to the contractor without delay; If he does not, he accepts the work."

The notice has not been predicted for a period of burden, but it is clear that it should be reported in a proper time without delay. Otherwise, it will be concluded that the work is implicitly accepted. Subsequently, it is necessary to report the situation immediately for the disgraceful presence found during use. The type of defect that is meant here, as expressed in the sales contract, is that the existence is immediately identified as a hidden defect, which cannot be clearly identified, identified during the review, and, depending on usage, is revealed over time. Quality Disorders (Şenocak, 2002: 121).

In the case of defective manufacturing, the business owner's constituency rights are regulated in the TBK m. 475 provision and are still similar to the rights in the sales contract. According to this regulation, if the contractor is responsible for the defect of the work, the right to return from the contract if the employer is not able to use the work or in the extent that it is contrary to the provisions of the contract. Will be able. If the owner of the business does not require a discount at the expense of the work of the person, or an excessive cost, all expenses are entitled to be repaired for free, including the contractor (Akça, 2012: 31-35).

In the case of defective performance in public auctions, the most preferred choice is to return from the contract, because there is no possibility of proper use in the defect that is caused by paper and print quality. However, as the regulation suggests, it is important for the return and the refund to be significant, unacceptable, contrary to the provisions of the contract must have a problem of manufacturing. For example, due to minor printing errors and wrinkles, termina-



tion of the contract cannot be demanded. If there is no significant problem in the production, the second option, the demand for a price reduction will be possible. The request for a price reduction means that there is a reduction in proportion to the price and is often accepted in the courts. In this way, unimportant defect, the product is wasted and the manufacturer's excessive damage is prevented.

In public procurement, printing works, free repair of defective productions is not used. After printing, it is not possible to rectify the paper and other printing material if the defect arose. It is rarely encountered in the printing and publishing sector. For example, it is no longer possible to correct important misfits such as post-print color mismatch, color suppression, paper wrinkles, poor printing and swelling. In this case, the customer's requests will be limited to the refund or price reduction. The compensation of the damages that are not addressed by the electoral rights shall be demanded according to the general provisions. These damages are consequential damages, such as loss of earnings, delay penalties, extra paid retention costs (Zevkliler and Gökyayla, 2015: 558; Burcuoğlu, 1990: 299).

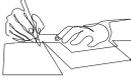
The business owner has the right to use the public institution before the end of the job and even before delivery. Starting and executing the TBK m. 473, entitled "The Contractor shall not be able to start the work on time or delay the job in contradiction to the provisions of the contract, or to all estimates due to the delays arising from the reason for which the employer If it is clearly understood that the job will not finish at the agreed time, the employer may return from the contract without having to wait for the day set for delivery."

"During the creation of the work, if it is clearly seen that the artifact will be made in violation of the contractor's defect or in contravention of the contract, the employer shall provide or give to the contractor in an appropriate period of time to prevent or damage the elimination of violations; Otherwise, the damages and expenses may be made to the third party, where the repair or work will be given."

As can be seen from this regulation, fire, flooding (Waterhouse, 2002: 530-535) and so on, if the paper and materials have been impaired and the result of the production will be defective before the delivery is understood, the business owner institution at this stage to resolve the problem, the quality of the material Be corrected. The law has saved the business owner from waiting until the end and making decisions based on the outcome. The owner will be able to make the job available to the contractor, if the problem is not resolved in the time given in the appropriate period of time.

CONCLUSION

The need to provide materials and services from the printing and publishing sector of public institutions is a very common practice. In order to meet these needs, public tenders are realised. These tenders are made for the purpose of receiving services on printing materials, printing machines, paper and printing. The tender process begins with the preparation of a tender specification and the contract is being built according to the nature of the work to be done after the tender. In the tender specification, it is necessary to specify the exact nature of the material and the quality of the machine or the quality of the work to be taken,



the type, quantity and amount information. It should be remembered that the contract made with the supplier or contractor after the public tender represents a special law agreement. According to the subject matter of this contract, the sale of goods purchases will be the nature of the contract in the purchase of the services.

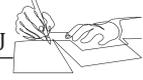
In the process of contracting the contracts made as a result of public tenders, the contract is often contrary to the tender specification. These are especially quality disorders and delays in the absence of qualifications specified in the tender specifications. The defects in the tender specifications and contrary to the expected qualifications can be sourced from paper and materials, as explained in a detailed manner, or can also be caused by faulty applications in the printing phase. In the case of open and hidden defective results, the supplier or printing and publishing sector is responsible for the result, and the public institution can use the rights provided to him in the law. Although it is "sales contract" which is issued in the supply and delivery of paper and printing materials and machines to the buyer, and it is "contract of work" which is issued in the the purchase of the service, and the publication of the works; the terms of responsibility and the results are similar because of defected service - goods.

The most important of these conditions is the determination, review and notification obligation of the defects. Under these conditions, the detection of the defects of paper, printing materials, chemicals and other auxiliary substances and should be ensured after the material has been tested in the Research and Development unit of the related public institution. If there is no the Research and Development unit unit, a small test production must be performed before bulk production starts. In chemical and other auxiliary substances, such defects are considered to be hidden.

In the case of defects, the rights of the public institution are similar in all types of contracts. The most important of these rights is the disclaim of the contract and the refund of the products. In this case, the institution will get rid of any debt and provide the return of the prepayment. It is also possible to have a proportionate price reduction and is a useful solution for the sector, where the defects are not that much important, the products are usable, or it is not for the benefit of the institution to cancel the contract. If it is possible to eliminate the defects, this is also one of the solutions that can be used.

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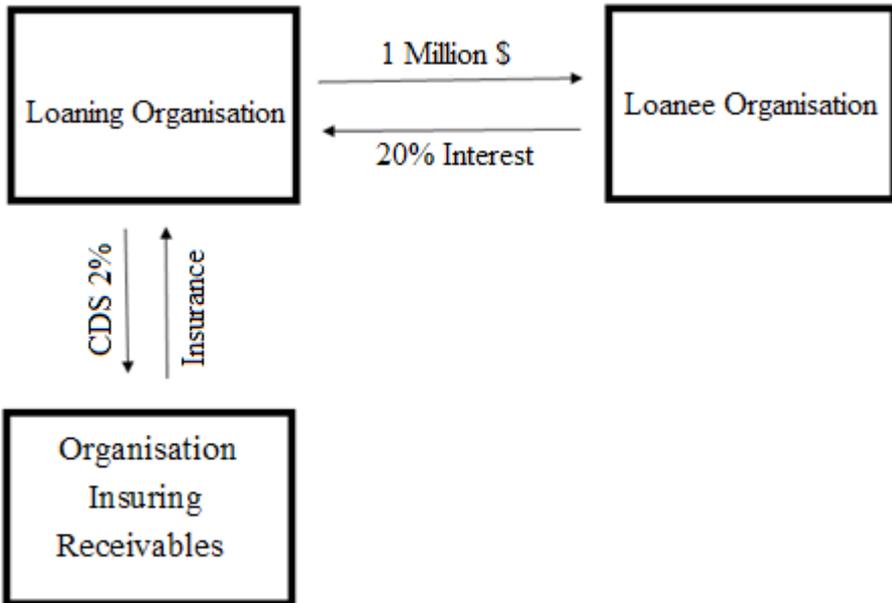
FACTORS AFFECTING CDS PREMIUMS: AN ANALYSIS ON TURKEY

Hakan YILDIRIM¹

Introduction

Credit risk, which is one of the most important issues of financial markets, is almost no problem with the emerging market conditions and the emergence of new financial products, and it has become easy to be protected from potential effects of credit risks. Credit default swaps (CDSs) are used to insure the investments made by the countries and the companies making the investment in the country. In this way, the investor or the country minimizes the risk taken and guarantees some of the receivables through certain premium.

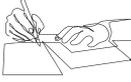
Figure 1: CDS Premium and Its Function



When looking at the CDS in Figure 1, the lender invests \$ 1 million in an annual 20% interest rate for the organization that needs a certain amount of funds. However, it desires to guarantee its investment and insure his receivable for the 2% premium against the risk of not being able to collect his receivable. Here, the 2% rate is the CDS premium paid by the lending institution to the insuring institution.

The ratings that are given by the credit rating agencies and Credit Default Swap Premiums have become important indicators following the mortgage crisis

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that took place in the US in 2008 and influenced the whole world. When the CDS Premiums, which are indicators of the ability of the company or countries to pay the credits they use, increase, the ability of the company or the country to pay decreases accordingly, and as a consequence of that, they go to a *riskier direction*. However, they also indicate that the company or the country's payment capacity increases when it falls. CDS Premiums may vary due to some changing macroeconomic results and changing market activities.

Opposed to the credit ratings given by credit rating agencies, CDS Premiums have become a more determining indicator, and they have become the indicators that investors are the strict followers for. Investments of foreign investors are important for developing countries. Investors and entities should follow the variables that increase or decrease the CDS Premiums because they make an investment decision based on the risk of the country where they intend to make an investment. In other words, both the countries that need financial resources and the foreign financiers of the financial resources should be aware of the variables that may affect the CDS premiums and the degree of the effect that they may have on them.

Literature Review

Pan and Singleton (2008) conducted a study and investigated the CDS variables in some countries such as Turkey, Korea and Mexico and intended to find out the variables that may lead to changes in premiums. Their findings suggested that there are economic risks arising from countries' their own characteristics.

Tang and Yan (2009) conducted a study to find out whether some macroeconomic indicators had a significant effect on CDS premiums. The result was that there was a negative and significant relationship between CDS premiums and GDP growth.

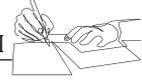
Plank (2010) conducted a study and investigated the relationship between monthly CDS and foreign borrowing payment capacity between the years 2001 and 2009. The findings suggested that there was a relationship between CDS premium and foreign debt payment power.

Chan Lau (2003) conducted a study and focused on the relationship between CDS premiums, equity and bond prices of some developing countries. What he found out in the study was that there was a significant relationship between CDS and bond premiums whereas there was not any significant relationship for Turkey.

Liu and Morley (2012) conducted a study to measure the relationship between the French and American CDS contract premiums and macroeconomic variables with the use of Granger causality test. Their finding was that the strongest effect of macroeconomic variables on the CDS premiums was the exchange rate.

Naifar (2012) conducted a study to examine the relationships between CDS premium for Japan and Australia with the risk of leap and stock index return in two periods as before and after the mortgage crisis period and found out that CDS premiums were more sensitive to the stock market during the crisis periods

Norden and Weber (2004) conducted a study and examined the relationship between CDS, stock and bond markets, and draw a conclusion that stock returns



affected CDS premiums and bond spread volatility. Kim et al. (2015) conducted a study to test whether the macroeconomic public statement was significantly effective on CDS volatility and spreads for the USA, China and members of the European Union. The findings obtained revealed that there was a significant effect of foreign news on CDS spreads whereas domestic statements were more effective on CDS volatility.

Coronado et al. (2011) examined eight different countries and tested the relationship between CDS premiums and stock data using the VAR model and panel data analysis. The findings suggested that there was a negative and strong relationship between the data and that CDS data is the Granger cause of the stock indices.

Longstaff et al. (2011) conducted a study and examined some countries such as Malaysia, Mexico, Chile, Romania, Korea and Japan and tried to determine the factors affecting these countries' credit risks by using CDS premiums of these countries. The findings suggested that CDS premiums were closely related to VIX index and American stock market.

Pu and Zhao (2012) conducted a study to examine some selected macroeconomic variables such as GNP volatility, GNP growth rate, industrial production volatility, inflation, 10-year government bond yield, changes in VIX index and production increase in industry, which might have an impact on CDS premiums. In the study, CDS premiums of 523 different companies between 2001 and 2006 were used. The findings revealed that there was no significant relationship between the inflation rates and the VIX index and CDS premiums, whereas the 10-year government bond return and GNP growth rate had a negative correlation with CDS premiums whereas there was a positive relationship between GNP growth rate volatility and CDS premiums.

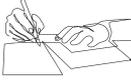
Hull, Predescu and White (2004) conducted a study benefitting from data between January 1998 and May 2002 period and examined the relationship between CDS premiums and credit rating agencies' notes and bond return. The findings revealed that the negative changes in credit ratings had more effects on CDS premiums than that of positive changes.

Jensen (2013) conducted a study to test the causality relationship between the US and Japan's CDS premiums using the Dollar / Japanese Yen data between March 2005 and January 2010. The findings suggested that while there was no causality between two variables in the period of crisis, Japan's CDS premiums during the crisis period were the reason of the Granger cause of the Dollar / Japanese Yen.

Blanco et al. (2005) conducted a study using the daily data between January 2001 - June 2002 and analysed the 119 5 year bonds and CDS premiums of European and American companies by applying Granger causality and Johansen cointegration tests. Their findings suggested that CDS premiums were the granger cause of bond prices.

Turkish Literature

Ballı and Yılmaz (2012) conducted a study to test the relationship between two variables using the correlation and regression analysis method by using



weekly BIST100 and CDS premiums between 2002 and 2012 years. The findings obtained indicated that the relationship between BIST100 and CDS premiums was negative.

Başarır and Keten (2016) conducted a study to measure the relationship between the CDS premiums and exchange rates and stocks of developing countries by using the monthly data between the years 2010-2016 by applying Granger causality test and Johansen cointegration tests. The findings revealed that there was not any causal relationship between CDS premiums and exchange rates, but there was a two-way causality relationship between CDS premiums and equity shares.

Yenice and Caspian (2014) conducted a study and tested the impact of share indices' closing rates of some developing countries such as Argentina, Indonesia, Malaysia, Brazil, China and Turkey on CDS premiums using the data between April 2009 and April 2014. The findings suggested that there was a significant relationship in most of the countries, but no significant relationship was found in other countries.

Kargin (2014) conducted a study to measure the relationship between CDS premiums growth and interest rates of Turkey in the short and long-term using causality and co-integration tests. The findings revealed that there was a long-term relationship between CDS premiums, growth and interest rates.

Data, Method and Findings

In this section, explanations regarding the data set used in the research, analysis methods used and relevant findings will be given.

Data Set

The study intended to test the effects of the stock index of Turkey, US Dollar and the interest rate of 10-year forward state bonds on CDS data. The study used the monthly data between January 2010 and December 2017. CDS data were obtained from Bloomberg database and other data were obtained from investing.com website. In this study, multiple regression analysis was applied to the data using the E-views 9.00 package program with the least squares method.

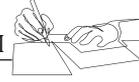
The dependent and independent variables used in the analysis are shown in Table 1.

Type of Variable	Name of the Variable	Acronyms
Dependent Variable	CDS (Credit Risk Premium)	DLCDS
Independent Variable	Exchange Rate of Dollar	DLDK
Independent Variable	Interest Rate of 10-year State Bond	DLDT
Independent Variable	Stock Index	DLBE

Table 1: The Variables used

Method and Findings

In the created model, the aim to find out the dependent variable CDS data and to try to reach different financial indicators that can affect CDS data using



linear regression analysis method. DLDK stands for the value of the Turkish Lira against the US Dollar. What is expected is that any drop in the exchange rate in Dollar positively affects the CDS data. If the currency of the country gains value against the US dollar, which is the most traded currency in the world, that is, if the dollar indexed exchange rate drops, there will be a decrease in CDS (credit risk premiums).

DLDT refers to the interest rate of Turkey's 10-year government bonds. What is expected is that any increase in the bond rate positively affects the CDS data. DLBE shows the BIST100 index. What is expected is that any increase in the stock market index adversely affects CDS data. Increases in the stock market index will lead to higher confidence in local and foreign investors and thus CDS data may decrease.

The variables expressed in Table 1 are modelled within the following equation using the least squares method.

$$DLCDs = \alpha + \beta_1 DLBE + \beta_2 DLDK + \beta_3 DLDL + e$$

To be able to test the effects of the variables such as stock index, dollar exchange rate and 10-year government bond interest on CDS premiums with the help of multiple regression analysis methods, the variables need to be normally distributed, and there should not be any problem of multicollinearity, heteroscedasticity and autocorrelation. As a result of the tests carried out, it was found that there was an autocorrelation problem and the data was re-tested by taking logarithmic values and first-order differences.

Normality Test

The first one of the assumptions of multiple regression analysis is the normal distribution of the residues of the data. Therefore, the residues of the variables must have a normal distribution. The normal distribution was tested with the hypotheses stated below.

H0: The residues of the variables have a normal distribution.

H1: The residues of the variables do not have a normal distribution.

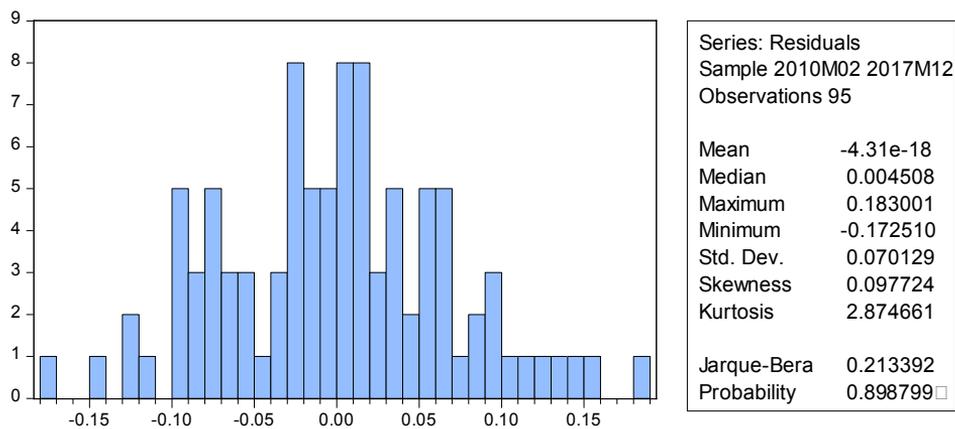


Table 2: Normality Test

Since the normality test was found to be $p > 0.05$ ($p = 898799$), the null hypothesis was accepted and it was found that the residues belonging to the variables had a normal distribution.

Multicollinearity Test

In order for multiple regression analysis to give accurate results, the data should not have a multicollinearity problem. Whether there is such a problem or not was tested and shown in Table 5.

Variance Inflation Factors

Date: 11/13/18 Time: 16:18

Sample: 2010M01 2017M12

Included observations: 95

Variable	Coefficient Variance	Uncentered VIF	Centered VIF
DLBE	0.021026	1.533142	1.508840
DLDK	0.082096	1.744063	1.597286
DLDT	0.018601	1.483312	1.483093
C	6.49E-05	1.213641	NA

Table 3: Multicollinearity Test

As a result of the applied multicollinearity test, as the centred VIF results of the variables were found to be between 1 and 5, no multicollinearity problem was found.

Heteroscedasticity Test

As a result of applied multicollinearity and normality test, whether there was a heteroscedasticity problem or not was tested and the finding of the relevant analysis was given in Table 4.



The hypotheses created are as follows:

H0: There is no heteroscedasticity

H1: There is heteroscedasticity

Heteroscedasticity Test: Harvey

F-statistic	0.206377	Prob. F(3,91)	0.8917
Obs*R-squared	0.641978	Prob. Chi-Square(3)	0.8868
Scaled explained SS	0.612689	Prob. Chi-Square(3)	0.8935

Table 4: Heteroscedasticity Test

As a result of the heteroscedasticity test was found to be $p > 0.05$, the null hypothesis was accepted and there was heteroscedasticity problem.

Autocorrelation Test

The existence of autocorrelation on the variables was tested to the twelfth lag and tested the hypotheses mentioned below.

H0: There not any autocorrelation.

H1: There is autocorrelation.

Date: 11/13/18 Time: 16:19

Sample: 2010M01 2017M12

Included observations: 95

Autocorrelation	Partial Correlation	AC	PAC	Q-Stat	Prob	
.*.	.*.	1	-0.154	-0.154	2.3312	0.127
. *	. .	2	0.074	0.051	2.8705	0.238
. .	. .	3	-0.040	-0.022	3.0294	0.387
. .	. .	4	-0.032	-0.046	3.1339	0.536
. *	. *	5	0.179	0.177	6.4260	0.267
.*.	. .	6	-0.093	-0.042	7.3290	0.291
.*.	.*.	7	-0.087	-0.139	8.1286	0.321
. .	. .	8	0.060	0.056	8.5076	0.386
. *	. *	9	0.080	0.126	9.1906	0.420
. .	. .	10	-0.027	-0.062	9.2671	0.507
.*.	.*.	11	-0.179	-0.202	12.775	0.308
. .	. .	12	0.024	0.040	12.841	0.381

Table 5: Autocorrelation Test

As a result of the autocorrelation test which was tested until the twelfth lag, the null hypothesis was accepted because it was $p > 0.05$ and it was found that there was no autocorrelation problem.



Regression Analysis

All of the assumptions were tested to perform multiple regression analysis, and regression analysis was performed on the collected data. The results of the analysis are shown in Table 6.

Dependent Variable: DLCDS
 Method: Least Squares
 Date: 11/13/18 Time: 16:21
 Sample (adjusted): 2010M02 2017M12
 Included observations: 95 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
DLBE	-0.350961	0.145005	-2.420338	0.0175*
DLDK	1.729042	0.286523	6.034556	0.0000*
DLDT	0.663977	0.136387	4.868346	0.0000*
C	-0.016343	0.008056	-2.028674	0.0454*
R-squared	0.676166	Mean dependent var		-0.001669
Adjusted R-squared	0.665491	S.D. dependent var		0.123236
S.E. of regression	0.071276	Akaike info criterion		-2.403333
Sum squared resid	0.462299	Schwarz criterion		-2.295802
Log-likelihood	118.1583	Hannan-Quinn criter.		-2.359882
F-statistic	63.33617	Durbin-Watson stat		2.280314
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000*			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

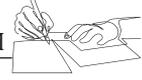
Table 6: The Results of Regression Analysis

As a result of the regression analysis, as the probability value of the model was $p < 0.05$ ($p = 0.000000$), the model was found to be significant. The stock exchange index (DLBE), the dollar exchange rate (DLDK) and the 10-year government bond interest rate (DLDT), which are thought to have an effect on CDS premiums data, were found to have a significant effect ($p < 0.05$). While the stock index had a negative effect on CDS premiums, the Exchange rate of dollar and 10-year government bond interest were found to have a positive effect. The stock exchange index, which is an independent variable, can explain the CDS premiums, which are dependent on the dollar exchange rate and the 10-year government bond interest rate, at about 0.67 level (Adjusted R squared = 0.665491).

The regression analysis shows that a one-unit increase in the stock market index resulted in a decrease of -0.350961 on CDS premiums, while a rise in the dollar rate and 10-year government bond interest rate resulted in an increase in the CDS premiums of 1.729042 and 0.663977 respectively.

Discussion

Although CDS is a concept used for protection against the risk of non-payment of bonds and similar financial instruments, it is an important indicator for inves-

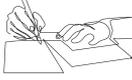


tors. Whereas credit rating agencies rate companies and countries as investable ones, CDS premiums are suggested to be the closest substitutes for the rating given by credit rating agencies. CDS premiums of countries were taken into consideration and tested in the study rather than those of companies and Turkey's CDS premiums were tested in the study as an example.

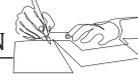
The changes in the CDS premiums which play an important role in the investment decisions of foreign countries, organizations and corporates made in different countries were tested considering stock index, the exchange rate of the dollar and 10-year government bonds of Turkey. While the findings suggest a significant relationship between the stock index and CDS premiums in Turkey in the negative direction, the relationship between the dollar rate and 10-year government bonds with CDS were significant in the positive direction. So while the rise in the stock index causes a reduction in the risk of investing in Turkey, the rise in the borrowing cost of the government and the appreciated Dollar exchange rate against Turkish Lira also increase the risk of investment in Turkey. In particular, the CDS premiums which are an important indicator for the countries with developing economies and financial markets such as Turkey reveals whether or not the country's monetary policies are successfully implemented as well as being the indicator of how the financial markets and general economic state are in the country.

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MIGRATION'S CHANGING THE DEMOGRAPHIC STRUCTURE AND ITS EFFECT ON EMPLOYMENT: COMPARISON OF TURKEY AND SPAIN

Hüseyin ARSLAN¹

1. Introduction

Turkey and Spain are two countries with vast territory on the Mediterranean coast with similar historical and cultural background; one of them is an EU member while the other is a candidate country in the stage of membership. Both countries receive migration. Comparing the experiences of the two countries may enable the transfer of experience and knowledge to both parties and to third party countries.

Turkey and Spain are two European countries with geographical and historical similarities. Both countries receive migration due to their large and long borders and the state of development of the countries surrounding them. Changes in their demographic structure take place due to the effect of this migration. As a result of this, unemployment and employment are affected. In addition, measures taken against these developments and developed programs and laws are put into effect. In this study, the experiences of Turkey and Spain will be compared within the framework of Migration's Changing the Demographic Structure and Its Effect on Employment. It is expected that the results of this research will contribute to the two countries and other countries facing similar situations.

2. Research Questions

Answers to the following questions were sought in this research:

- Do Turkey and Spain receive migration?
- Is there a relationship between migration and demographic structure?
- Does it have an effect on employment?
- What are the results of the comparison of Turkey and Spain?

3. Method

This research is a literature research and is based on the official resources published on Spain and Turkey by ILO, OECD, World Bank, UN, and the two countries. The data to be obtained from the above-mentioned sources will be evaluated; information will be obtained about the experiences of these countries; deductions and evaluations will be made from them, and a conclusion will be

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Istanbul Commerce University sponsored my participation in Mediterranean International Conference on Social Sciences, Podgorica, May (Mecas) 2017 to present a paper.



reached.

The method that was followed in this study was the evaluation and interpretation of the data obtained from the research and publications related to the issue. Turkish and English resources were used.

This study consists of an abstract, introduction, research questions, method, theoretical framework, findings, evaluation, results and bibliography.

4. Theoretical Framework

The Concept of Migration

Migration, which affects all societies, is a phenomenon as old as human history. It existed in all eras of human history and it still exists today. Migration is defined as the movement of a certain population from one region to another but it includes many social, economic, cultural and psychological issues and concepts along with mass displacement. In this respect, migration can be defined as the population movement that changes the structure of the community with the social, economic, cultural and political consequences of the geographic displacement process (Taş&Özcan, 2013).

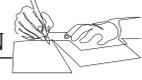
The Effect of Migration on the Demographic Structure

One of the most significant and perhaps most important effects of migration on demographic structure is the change in the population's age structure (Weeks, 1994: 232). When the age distribution of migrants is considered, it is seen that it consists of mostly young people aged between 15 and 30 because the individual that takes part in migration is aware of the necessity to have a long time to work after the migration. In this respect, the current age of the migrants is a kind of insurance for their future after the migration. In addition, when migrants join the labour markets, they obtain employment, wages and associated socio-economic, political and administrative power.

Therefore, a large part of the migrants consists of young people. This is expressed as the age selectivity of migration. Besides, the fact that the young population is generally more educated than older people are and that they tend to learn more than older people do is closely related to the age structure of migrants. As a result, while the young and the adult population decreases in the place where people migrate from, it increases in the place where they migrate to. When this change and its effects and results on the age structure of the population are considered, it will be seen that migration has a variety of dimensions that are interconnected (Yakar, 2012).

Global Migration Trends and its Effects

The demographic, geopolitical, technological and economic effects of migration at global level are known by the relevant circles. Migration today increases much more than that in previous centuries due to the effects of communication, transportation, globalization, multidimensional and different levels of development among regions, and social, political, military and similar conflicts, causing



mobility (Wilden).

Thus, it leads to demographic, geopolitical, technological, economic, cultural and socio-political effects in global and local dimensions. Transformation of these effects into positive qualities that will contribute to human life should probably depend on controlling these migrations and the trends that develop consequently and on managing them positively.

Internal and external migration may serve as a positive power for economic and social development as they provide a mechanism for rebalancing the labour markets between the areas of origin and destination. It can also accelerate the spread of new ideas and technologies. Migration may also result in significant amounts of money transfers to the areas of origin.

Global and international migration can be effective as a component much smaller than birth or death in population change. The effect of migration on population size is evident in some countries and regions (Division, 2015; 6).

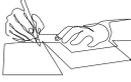
In this context, change in global demographics caused by migration, which is a global and historical fact, and the effect of migration on employment will be analyzed in terms of the comparison of Turkey and Spain in this study.

5. Findings

Before moving on to the comparison of Turkey and Spain in the context of migration's changing demographic structure and its effect on employment, it will be useful to give brief information about the situation in the world and Europe where both countries are located. It is necessary to note that the data and findings about Europe and the European Union include Spain and sometimes Turkey too. Therefore, a need arose for the subheading 'The Demographic Structure of Migration in the World and Europe and its Effect on Employment'

5.1 The Demographic Structure of Migration in the World and Europe and its Effect on Employment

The social and economic destructions that occurred after the Second World War in the world and in Europe as well as in Spain and Turkey, which is the topic of this comparison, revealed the shortcomings in the supply and demand balance. Demand pressure led to rapid growth by pressing mass production and full capacity employment, helping to solve the unemployment problem. This situation brought along the demands of labour migration in developed countries and Europe especially after the war. The world, where capital and labour mobility were seen, moved into a new phase after the 1970s. In this phase, economic competition highlighted the consumer trends in the pricing and quality of the goods and services produced, contributing to the shaping of the single world market (World Employment and Social Outlook: Trends 2016 / International Labour Office, 2016; 54). It is possible to say that what we have mentioned so far lies under the developments that are called globalization today and whose effects are experienced all over the world. As a result of these developments, migration in general and workforce migration in particular, demographic changes took place



in the population structure of the countries, along with effects of these changes on employment, migration and especially labour migration. Before moving on to this issue regarding the two countries, it will be useful to look at how the situation in the world and European countries, to which they belong, was.

5.1.1 The Effect of Migration on the Demographic Structure and Employment in the World

The Effect of Migration on the World

One of the reasons for migration from developing countries to developed countries is to compensate for the loss of labour. In other words, developed countries think of allowing migration from developing countries as a solution to the loss of employment caused by demographic transformation. This means that migration is a phenomenon determined by the demand of developing countries. This situation causes developing countries to see the demand of labour as one of the attractive forces that cause migration. However, there are other attractive forces among the determinants of migration as well as many other driving forces. For instance, while the high level of wages and high living standards in the country to be migrated can be listed among other attractive powers, the moral distortion, political tensions that can lead to political asylum, low level of income and unemployment in the country that is the starting point of migration can be listed among the driving forces (Kirişçi, 2004; Plata et al., 2003) (Öztürk, 2014; 111).

It is expected that the acceptance of migrants by developed countries will increase the labour force supply positively. As a result of the demographic transformation, a significant decrease in the supply of labour is expected in 2050 in developed countries. In that case, a reduction of 35% in Japan, 30% in Italy and 17% in Germany in workforce is expected. The figures indicate the need to expect a significant increase in the number of migrants in order to close the employment gap in these countries (European Commission Report, 2006).

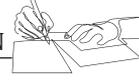
Temporary Migration

On the other hand, there are views indicating that temporary migration, instead of permanent migration, is a better solution. The integration of migrants and the change of population density as well as the emergence of the issues related to national security created the concept of temporary migration.

In order to evaluate the problems related to demographics, the Demographic Society was established under the 20-member Group Member States (G-20). It aims to develop policies for economic problems by considering the concept of migration in developed and aging countries. Developed countries need a certain amount of migration to maintain the existing workforce profile due to the aging population. It is stated that migration is less problematic than other measures but that temporary migration is a more effective policy than permanent migration (Winters, 2005, Öztürk, 2014; 111).

Compulsory Migration

Palestinians form the largest group of refugees worldwide. The other main countries of origin of refugees in 2013 were Afghanistan, the Syrian Arab Repub-



lic, Somalia, Sudan, the Democratic Republic of Congo and the Central African Republic.

In 2013, at least 1,067,500 people applied for asylum. New countries that accepted individual application were: Germany, the United States of America, South Africa, France and Sweden. The most refugees that went to industrialized countries were from Syrian Arab Republic, followed by Iraq, Afghanistan and Eritrea (UNHCR, 2014) (Global Migration Trends: an overview, 2014).

More than 86% of refugees were hosted by developing countries by the end of 2013. Pakistan and the Islamic Republic of Iran hosted 1.6 million and 850,000 refugees respectively; they were followed by Lebanon with more than 856,000 migrants. Jordan hosted over 640,000 refugees while Turkey hosted approximately 610,000 refugees (UNHCR, 2014), (Global Migration Trends: an overview, 2014).

However, as of 2016, the number of the Syrians that were given temporary protection in Turkey was 2,834,441 according to official figures (http://www.goc.gov.tr/files/files/2016_goc_raporu_.pdf). According to official statements, the number of people who were migrants and refugees in Turkey was 3 million 551 thousand 78. According to the 2016 data of TÜİK, this number is equal to the population of 17 provinces in Turkey. (<http://www.sozcu.com.tr/2017/gundem/turkiyede-kac-milyon-multeci-var-bakan-soylu-acikladi-1680764/>)

According to the unofficial figures, there are approximately 4 million Syrian refugees in Turkey today.

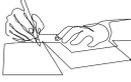
Irregular Migration

The detection of illegal border crossings on the external borders of the European Union increased by 48% between 2012 and 2013 and rose from 75,000 to 107,000. Syrians, Eritreans and Afghans were the most frequently identified nationals; in 2013, Syrians accounted for almost a quarter of all participants (Frontex). It is possible to say that civil war triggered migration from these countries and that people who fled from war migrated. Approximately 345,000 illegal resident were determined in the EU countries in 2013 (Frontex). It is estimated that approximately 55,000 migrants enter Europe from East, North and West Africa annually (UNODC, 2010) (Global Migration Trends: an overview, 2014).

92,500 people were detained in the EU in 2013 due to illegal migration (European Migration Network, 2014). France detained the largest number of non-citizens in the EU in the same year (38,266), followed by Spain (9,020), Hungary (6,469), Bulgaria (6,303) and Belgium (6,285) (Global Migration Trends: an overview, 2014).

The size of International Migration

In general, the main areas of Europe, North America and Oceania were the net recipients of international migrants between 1950 and 2015, while Africa, Asia, Latin and Caribbean were the net senders; the size of net migration is increasing. From 2000 to 2015, the annual average net migration to Europe, North America and Oceania reached 2.8 million people a year. When countries are grouped based on income instead of geography, the attractiveness of high-income coun-



tries is even more evident: from 2000 to 2015, high-income countries received an average of 4.1 million net migrations from lower and middle-income countries annually (Division, 2015).

It is predicted that net migration will contribute significantly to population growth in many high-income countries in the future. The total of births in the high-income countries group is expected to be 20 million more than the number of deaths between 2015 and 2050 while the net income of migrants is estimated to be 91 million. Thus, on average, net migration in high-income countries is estimated to constitute 82 percent of population growth (Division, 2015). It is possible to regard Spain and Turkey to be among those countries compared to the countries from which they receive migrants.

The Share of International Migrants

Global migration continues to rise despite the economic and financial crisis. In 2013, the number of South-born international migrants who lived in the North or experienced “South-North Migration” was equal to the number of South-born migrants or the South-born migrants who migrated from “South to South”.

In 2010/11, one out of nine people who were born in Africa and had a master’s degree was living in OECD countries. The corresponding figures for Latin America and the Caribbean and Asia were 13 and 30 respectively. In countries with small population and in island countries, the risk of “brain drain” is bigger but it is lower in OECD countries that are not rich in population.

Nearly half of all international migrants live in ten countries. In 2013, the United States was the country with the largest number of international migrants (45.8 million) followed by the Russian Federation (11 million), Germany (9.8 million), Saudi Arabia (9.1 million), the United Arab Emirates and the United Kingdom (7.8 million each), France (7.5 million), Canada (7.3 million), Australia and Spain (6.5 million each) (World Migration in Figures, 2013). As it is seen, Turkey was not included in this list.

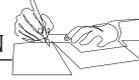
The share of international migrants in the total population varies largely among countries:

In some Gulf Cooperation Council countries (GCC) like the United Arab Emirates (84%), Qatar (74%), Kuwait (60%) and Bahrain (55%), it is more than 50%. It is relatively high in traditional target countries such as Australia (28%) and Canada (21%).

Spain, Germany, the United Kingdom, France and Italy, which are the main target countries in Europe, receive migration as much as 10% to 12% of the country’s population; this rate is 16% in Sweden.

Women account for 48% of global migrants. The migrants in the north are older than the migrants in the South (the average age in the North is 42 years while it is 33 years in the south) and most of them (74% of global migratory stock) are of working age (UN-DESA).

The policies of the developed target countries that made radical changes in



their migration policies following the global crisis can be summarized as follows:

1. Supporting high qualified labour migration, and making it easy for them to enter the country and to stay.
2. Limiting the admission of low and medium skilled migrants with scoring system and quotas
3. Taking strict measures against irregular migration; inspecting intermediary institutions and increasing penalties for those who employ these migrants.
4. Increasing income conditions and restricting the unification of families by applying language and other compliance tests to family members.

International Approaches and Arrangements

There is no common policy adopted in order to regulate the migration movements at international level and to solve the problems originating from the migration process as a result of it. On the other hand, there is no common idea about the need to establish a supranational institution with the power to manage global migration. The main factors preventing a common agreement are the unwillingness of the migrant-receiving countries to be included in an international system that will facilitate migration, their insistence on being free about what to do with the migrants and the unfair distribution of the opportunities of migration between the countries that send migrants and that receive migrants.

A reporting system has been developed to ensure the sharing of information among the OECD members related to international migration (The Continuous Reporting System on Migration). Within this framework, International Migration Outlook (International Migration Trends) report is published every year.

World Demographic Projection in the Future

According to the results of the 2015 revision, the world population reached 7.3 billion in the middle of 2015. 60 percent of the global population lives in Asia (4.4 billion), 16 percent in Africa (1.2 billion), 10 percent in Europe (738 million), and 9 percent in Latin America and the Caribbean (634 million); and the remaining 5 percent lives in North America (358 million) and Oceania (39 million). China (1.4 billion) and India (1.3 billion) are still the two largest countries in the world. Together, they have a population of over 1 billion, representing 19 percent and 18 percent of the world's population respectively (Division, 2015).



Major area	Population (millions)			
	2015	2030	2050	2100
World	7 349	8 501	9 725	11 213
Africa	1 186	1 679	2 478	4 387
Asia	4 393	4 923	5 267	4 889
Europe	738	734	707	646
Latin America and the Caribbean	634	721	784	721
Northern America	358	396	433	500
Oceania	39	47	57	71

Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2015). *World Population Prospects: The 2015 Revision*. New York: United Nations.

Table 1. World Population and Large Areas, 2015, 2030, 2050 and 2100 Projection by Medium Variance

Turkey and Spain's population in 2015 was determined to be 78.666 and 46.122 respectively, as shown in the following table. Male and female population, and rates are also indicated in the table. According to these rates, the female population in both countries is more than the male population.

Country or area	Population (thousands)			Sex ratio (males per 100 females)
	Total	Male	Female	
World.....	7 349 472	3 707 206	3 642 266	102
Spain.....	46 122	22 624	23 498	96
Turkey.....	78 666	38 675	39 991	97

Table 2. Total Population by Gender in the World, Spain and Turkey in 2015

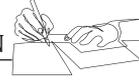
Trends of Demographic Transformations in the World

According to the projections of 2050, when aging will reach the peak, about the world population, it is estimated that the world population will reach a number between 8.8 billion and 9.1 billion. These estimates are produced by the United Nations, the US Statistical Office, the World Bank and the International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis (IIASA). It is expected that the average age of the 21st century will increase much faster than that of the 20th century (United Nations, 2005).

Labor Migration in the World and Shortage of Qualified Skills

Approximately 105 million people are international business migrants (almost 50% of the global migrant stocks, ILO, 2014); these migrants from developing countries contributed to 40% of labour force growth in developed economies between 1980 and 2010 (McKinsey Global Institute, 2012).

By 2020, there will be a potential gap of 38 to 40 million workers with university diploma (13% of the demand). There is a shortage of 45 million medium-skilled workers in developing countries; according to employers, there will be a need for 90-95 million lower-skilled workers (11% oversupply).



It is possible to say that the gap between the supply and demand of highly experienced workers is close to 16 to 18 million workers in developed economies. This number is estimated to be 23 million in China. For the next 20 years, the total deficit of semi-skilled workers will be 45 million. The number will be 10 million in India and around 31 million in developing economies.

It is estimated that low-skilled workers will create a surplus of 58 million in developed economies, and 32 to 35 million in India and developing economies. This means that millions of people will be trapped in agriculture or urban poverty in developing countries (especially India) unless job opportunities in or outside their countries are created. The qualified labour shortage in the EU countries shows this migration from the migrant sending countries to this region as attractive. Spain and Turkey are attracting this workforce within the framework of their relations with the EU.

Skill Mismatch

According to the Hays Global Skill Index 2014 (an analysis of the main characteristics of the labour market in 30 countries), skill mismatch was high (current workforce did not have the skills that employers wanted) in the United States and Mexico last year; these countries were followed by Canada, Chile and Brazil. In the Asia-Pacific region, Japan has the highest level of skill mismatch. Japan is followed by China. In Europe, high levels of skill mismatch were found in Ireland, Spain, Portugal, the United Kingdom and Hungary. It is moderately high in France, Denmark and Sweden (The Hay's Global Skill Index 2014).

Skills mismatch and consequent demand for skilled labour is seen seriously in Turkey.

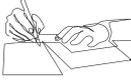
5.1.2 The Effect of Migration to Europe on the Demographic Structure and Employment

Refugee Influx to Europe

In 2015, the monthly number of refugees arriving in Europe using the Mediterranean exceeded the number in the whole year of 2014. This number rose to 806,000 in 2015 from 216,054 in 2014 as of November alone. In 2014, it increased fourfold compared to 2013.

The fluctuation seen recently is due to effect the people who left their countries, which were generally disintegrated and influenced because of wars. Indeed, 80 percent of the migrants came from Afghanistan, Iraq and Syria. The asylum applications in the EU-28 were almost one and a half million in the first eight months of 2015. For example, a quarter million people demanded asylum in the first eight months of 2015 in Germany alone. This number constituted one third of all EU applicants (World Employment and Social Outlook: Trends 2016 / International Labour Office, 2016).

According to the determinations, the largest number of foreign nationals living in EU member countries as of January 1, 2016 is in Germany (8.7 million people) followed by the United Kingdom (5.6 million people), Italy (5.0 million



people), Spain (4.4 million people) and France (4.4 million people). Citizens in these five member states collectively represent 76% of the total number of non-citizens living in all EU member states; the same five member states have a 63% share of the EU-28 population (Migration And Migrant Population Statistics).

In 2015, Germany had the largest number of migrants (1,543.8 thousand). It was followed by the United Kingdom (631.5 thousand), France (363.9 thousand), Spain (342.1 thousand) and Italy (280.1 thousand). Germany was the country with the highest number of migrants in 2015 (347.2 thousand), followed by Spain (343.9 thousand), United Kingdom (299.2 thousand), France (298 thousand) and Poland (258.8 thousand). A total of 17 EU Member States reported more migration than emigration in 2015. It was determined that the number of emigrants outnumbered the number of migrants in Bulgaria, Ireland, Greece, Spain, Croatia, Cyprus, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Latvia and Lithuania (Migration and migrant population statistics).

Europe Where Demographic Decrease is Expected

The opposite of this is that the population is expected to decrease between the years 2015 and 2050 in 48 countries and all around the world. It is possible to estimate that the population of some countries will decrease more than 15 percent by 2050. It is estimated that among these countries are Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Hungary, Japan, Latvia, Lithuania, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Serbia and Ukraine. Spain and Turkey are also among the countries that are affected by this decrease.

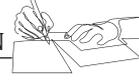
Fertility in European countries today is below the level required for a full replacement of population over the long term (2.1 children per average woman). Fertility has been below the level of replacement for several decades. It is estimated that fertility in Europe will increase from 1.8 children in the period 2010-2015 to 1.8 in 2045-2050 but this increase will not prevent a possible decrease in the total population. According to 2006 data, this ratio is 1.28 in Spain (Global Migration Trends: An overview, 2014). This decrease is partially stopped by receiving migration. A controlled migration policy is implemented from this point of view.

Average Life Expectancy

The 2015 Revision of the ILO report confirms that significant progress has been made in life expectancy in recent years. Globally, life expectancy was 65 for males and 69 for females between 2000 and 2005; it became 68 for males and 73 for females between 2010 and 2015.

The highest life expectancy in birth rankings between 2010 and 2015 was 84 years for men and women. Japan, Italy, Switzerland, Singapore, Iceland, Spain, Australia, Israel, China, Hong Kong are at the top of this ranking in descending order.

Average life expectancy in the world is predicted to increase from 70 years between the years 2010 and 2015 to 77 years between 2045 and 2050; it is finally predicted to increase to 83 years between 2095 and 2100 (World Employment And Social Outlook: Trends 2016 / International Labour Office, 2016).



The emergence of new migration routes from the Balkans to Western and Northern Europe means that the migrant influx has influenced many countries in Europe. EU member states have agreed on the following measures to prevent this influx of refugees: (i) Operational measures: Migration Management support teams were set up at “hot spots” where the migrants tend to settle first in Europe (Greece and Italy); (ii) Budget support: The Council of Europe (EC) proposed changes in the 2015/16 budget. In this context, the European Commission will spend EUR 9.2 billion for the refugee crisis in 2015 and 2016, increasing the funds allocated to the refugee crisis by EUR 1.7 billion. (iii) Implementation of EU law: Protection was introduced for the Common European Asylum System (European Commission, 2015b) for the assistance given by the Member States to those who need international assistance. Engaging in regional allies like Lebanon and Turkey are among the decisions that were made regarding the issue. UNHCR Population Statistics Database: [http://popstats.unhcr.org/en/overview#_ga= 1.76466773.1982046382.1450473222](http://popstats.unhcr.org/en/overview#_ga=1.76466773.1982046382.1450473222)

Trends of Demographic Transformations in EU

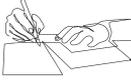
The birth rate in Europe is low. Life expectancy increases by 1 year every 10 years. It is expected that the 15-64-year-old working population will decrease by 40 million by 2050 and that the population over 65 will increase by almost the same amount. The average rate of elderly population dependency in Europe is expected to increase from 24% to 51% between 2000 and 2050. This increase means that every 2 employees will have to support 1 elderly person after 2040 though every 4 employees support one elderly person now. In some European countries, the rate of population growth is negative (e.g. Italy, Slovenia). Spain is among these countries. Although the birth rates in the EU are growing very slowly, it is seen that it is very low compared to 1970. The increase in the proportion of the aging population compared to birth rates causes the population to decline over time (European Commission Report, 2006).

5.2 Migration’s Changing the Demographic Structure and its Effect on Employment: The Case of Spain

5.2.1 Spain and Migration

When we look at the history of Spain, it is understood that it is actually a country sending migrants due to various economic and political reasons. It is known that Spain sent migrants to North Africa, Atlantic Ocean islands, America, Europe and Ottoman State in the 15th century. Similarly, between 1880 and 1930, many Europeans left their countries and went out of the continent especially due to the effects of the destruction of the First World War on the continent, and the economic hardships suffered in the continent. During this period, Spanish migrants left Spain and migrated to Latin American countries like Venezuela, Mexico, Brazil, Argentina and Cuba. In the 19th century, Algeria was another migration point chosen by the Spanish. Around 94,000 Spanish citizens migrated to Algeria during this period (Kardeş).

In the period from 1950 to 1970, the Spanish way of migration changed and



more than one million Spanish citizens migrated to northern European countries such as France, Germany, Switzerland and to the continent of America. However, when the structure of the period is considered, the number of citizens who remained in Spain increased especially after the economic crisis, exits from the country decreased and some of the migrants started to return to their countries. In the same period, there was a migration process to Spain. Again, for a long time, Spain remained an intermediate country that citizens from Africa and South America used in order to move on to other European countries (Kardeş).

Milestone in Migration Policy

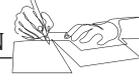
Although Spain was clearly transformed into a country that received migration after the second half of the 1980s, a large number of Spanish citizens still reside abroad. The transformation of Spain from a country sending migrants to a country receiving migrants is linked to the democratization process that began after the end of the Franco regime and to the ongoing economic development after joining the EU. The milestone in the migration approach of Spain was the year 1986. Spain, which became an EU member in 1986, became a preferable country by migrants with its political transformation and flexible border control policies after Franco (Kardeş). These two major changes led to the demand for foreign labour as it was the case in other European countries (Öztürk, 2014; 111). Migration has become an issue that the Spanish government is most concerned with after terrorism and has tried to make the most comprehensive programs. Spain, whose migrant population increased, made a number of programs to manage this process well (Kardeş).

The EU Country with the Most Enactment Programs

The European continent and the EU member states, which have the biggest migrant population, have made many migration and integration programs. Their primary aim was to control and manage the concepts of diversity and multiculturalism brought by the migrants, and to ensure security in the country as soon as possible. It can be said that Spain is the most effective and comprehensive EU country regarding the issue. Since 1985, Spain has been the country to carry out the most enactment programs by implementing six programs related to migration and migrants (Kardeş).

In general, the governments of Spain considered migrant individuals as workers only when they implemented their migration policies because they considered the needs of the labour market. This institutional approach became visible clearly when the government of Rodríguez Zapatero (8th and 9th governments, 2004-2010, 2016) transferred the management of migration and integration policies from the Ministry of Migration and Employment to the Ministry of Social Affairs as one of the first political decisions. This institutional approach reveals how the social and political problems of the migration phenomenon are pushed aside (Öztürk, 2014, p. 113).

The change in this first migration law in 1996 is important because it arranges permanent residence, work permit and family reunification for migrants living in the country. These rights were secured in a stronger manner through a



comprehensive law reform introduced in 2000 (Öztürk, 2014, p. 113).

From this period onwards, Spain became a country that received international migration in a very rapid and intense manner and that was used as a transit country for those wishing to move to the countries of Northern Europe. During the 2000-2005 period, every 16.8 out of 1000 people living in the country were foreign nationals. Although this intensity has been declining since 2005, Spain still receives migration at a higher level than the European average. According to the data as of 31 December 2015, the number of foreigners having a valid residence or work permit is 4,982,183. 57.7% of these come from other EU countries and 42.3% from non-EU countries. Romania (34.1%), England (10%) and Italy (8.2%) are the top three countries among other EU countries. Most of the rest of the foreigners are from countries such as Morocco (1.3%), Colombia (1.3%) and Dominican Republic (1.1%). These foreign nationals settled in various regions in Spain. Madrid hosts (1,190,178), Catalonia (1,085,472), Andalusia (692,459) and Valencia (660,898) migrants of the total of 3,631,280 migrants (Öztürk, 2014, p, 111-112).

The average age of migrants from non-EU countries is 36.8. The sectoral distribution of this young migrant labour population is as follows: Most of them work in the services sector. While foreign migrant women work intensively in the cleaning and tourism sectors, the male population works in the construction and agriculture sectors. In addition, the number of people who live in Spain and who do not have any residence permit has also changed over the years. This is due to the changes related to socio-economy and internal security in the countries from which people migrate intensely to Spain, as well as the transformation of border and citizenship policies implemented by Spain. According to Öztürk (Öztürk, 2014, pp. 111-112), the official sources noted that 200,000 migrants tried to enter the territory of Spain illegally between 2009 and 2013.

The southern border of Spain, Spain-Morocco line and Canary Islands are the most frequently used lines by illegal migrants trying to enter Europe through Spain; and they are the places where a matter of life and death is experienced due to strict security measures. The most important one was the irregular migration to the territory of the country in 2014 from the Ceuta-Melilla border. The governorship of Melilla stated that 16,000 illegal migrants tried to enter the country in the first eight months of 2014 (Öztürk, 2014, s, 111-112).

Both the migration law and the amendments to this law and all other legal arrangements in Spain cannot be dissociated from the European Union's regulations on foreign migration. In spite of Spain's strategic and clear planning of border policies trying to prevent the foreign migration from going towards Europe, it cannot be said that there is a similar clear strategy in the integration policies for migrants. Spain began to embody the general framework of the integration policies in the country only in the 90s (Öztürk, 2014, p. 113).

Spain founded the General Directorate of Migration (Dirección General de Migraciones) in 1991, established the first inter-ministerial migration commission in 1992 and introduced the first social integration plan for migrants in 1994. Among the first institutional steps to ensure social integration are the Coordina-



tion for Integration (Foro para la Integración, n.d.) and the establishment of another unit to observe the phenomenon of migration (Observatorio Permanente de la Inmigración, n.d.). The integration of migrants living in the country was designed in a narrow framework like having a permanent employment contract and a definite address that will not change frequently (Öztürk, 2014, p. 114).

Organized based on the phenomenon of migration and integration, these public institutions evolved over time to more institutional and established structures and formed their staff capable of managing this process. Along with outside the above-mentioned institutions, A high commission for the migration policies established and subject to the Ministry of Labour and Migration (Ministerio de Trabajo e Inmigración) (el Consejo Superior de Política de Inmigración) de Política de Inmigración, 1985) and another working commission (la Comisión Laboural Tripartita) were established. In addition to these institutions, the four-year integration plans of the government's General Secretariat for Internal and External Migration (la Secretaría General de Inmigración y Emigración) are important for understanding the road map of Spain for migration and integration (Öztürk, 2014, p. 114).

In order to be able to understand correctly the integration policies towards migrants and the studies done in this field, it is necessary not to overlook the division of the political power in Spain between 17 autonomous regions and 2 autonomous provinces (Öztürk, 2014, pp. 114-115).

Despite the differences in the intensity of the migrant population and in the design of integration policies, all regions share similar challenges such as the informal economy and the fight against discrimination against migrant workers. The aim is to strengthen the welfare state system in Spain with these policies. Thus, the number of illegally employed migrant workers will be reduced and they can be provided with legal rights that can only be reached by a specific employment contract (Öztürk, 2014, p. 115).

While migrants from ancient Spanish colonies such as Ecuador or Mexico may obtain citizenship more easily, migrants from Morocco and other African countries do not have similar rights (Öztürk, 2014, p. 116). Lastly, it is clear that the policies for the cultural integration of migrants are key to social cohesion. It was seen that developing policies against religious and cultural discrimination was as important as the policies mentioned above. Considering that multiculturalism is a reality to be managed, Spain aims to develop different policies for this new reality but it put up resistance to implement those policies like Austria, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy and Portugal did (Öztürk, 2014, p. 116).

Migration to Spain in Recent Years

The International Organization for Migration has announced that the number of migrants arriving in Spain has increased three-fold compared to the same period of 2016 (BBC).

According to the figures released by the International Organization for Migration (IOM), 11 thousand 849 migrants have arrived to Spain so far this year.



This figure was 13 thousand 246 throughout last year. Joel Millman, a spokesman for IOM said, "We believe that a major reason for this change is that this route, which starts from Morocco, is safer." Referring to the possibility of Spain exceeding Greece, Millman said, "If this happens, it will be a huge change." Most of those trying to reach Europe on this route are from West African countries, such as Senegal, Gambia, Guinea and Ivory Coast (AFP, BBC).

There is a 60% decrease in 2017

As of August 9, Spain is still far behind in Italy, where 96,861 migrants arrived. The figures indicates a 60% decrease compared to the same period of the previous year. In Spain, thousands of people went out on the street this year and called on the government to accept those who fled from countries where there is a war like Syria (BBC Turkish, 2018).

5.2.2 Its Population and Workforce Structure

The Spanish government aims to correct long-term unemployment incrementally by changing the labour dynamics within the framework of Labour Market Reform, (Economic Policy & Funding Program for 2017). Unemployment: It was considered as General Unemployment and Youth Unemployment; it occurred as follows as percentage between 2007 and 2017:

Unemployment:	2007 7.9%,	2013 26.9%,	2017 17.2%
Youth Unemployment (16-24 Years):	2007 22.9%,	2013 56.9%,	2017 39.5%

Growth is widely distributed across sectors.

Last year, employment growth became widespread among sectors and concentrated especially in manufacturing, wholesale and retail trade (more than 70% expansion in all branches).

In the evaluation of population trends, it is stated that the population has been re-expanding since 2016 with positive net migration flows. Foreign population gains stability a few years after the migration. The proportion of Spanish citizens is close to the rate of balanced migration flows.

Table 3. Table of Spain's Population According to Years:

Spain's Population in 2016 was 46,070,146 population change was 5,542 (% 0,0).-0.12.

	Year	Population	Change %	World %
1	2016	46,064,604	-0.12	0.62
2	2015	46,121,699	-0.30	0.63
3	2014	46,259,716	-0.42	0.64

(Current and Detailed Population Information, 2017)

According to 2016 records, Spain has a population of 46,064,604 people.



The population in this country is reduced by -0.12% per year. Estimated life expectancy in the country is 79.92 years: 76.6 years for men and 83.45 years for women. The country's population doubled in the 20th century due to high industrialization and migration. After that, the birth rate decreased after the 1980s; there was a serious decrease in population in eleven of the fifty provinces. Then, the number of migrants from places such as Latin America, Eastern Europe and Africa increased (Yeni Çıkanlar, 2017).

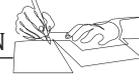
The ethnic distribution of the population: It is a mixture of Mediterranean and Nordic nations. Religion: Roman Catholics 94%, the other 6%. According to another source, 75.6% of the population is Catholic. The official language in the country is Spanish (Castilian). Languages: Castilian Spanish (official) 74%, Catalan 17%, Galician 7%, Basque 2%. Literacy: Data for 15 years and older: 97.9% (Population and Geography Information About Spain, Management, Economics, Transportation and Communication Data, 2017)

Rank	Country or area	Population (thousands)		Difference	
		2015	2050	Absolute	Percentage
37.	Spain	46 122	44 840	-1 282	-2.8

Table 4. 2015-20150 Countries whose population is projected to decrease between 2015 and 2016

According to the table above, Spain whose population was 46,122 thousand in 2015 will be reduced to 44,840 thousand in 2050. In that case, the population will decrease 1,282 thousand, which will be a decrease of -2.8%.

Rank	Country or area	Population in 1950 (millions)	Cumulated percentage	Rank	Country or area	Population in 2015 (millions)	Cumulated percentage
1.	China	544	21.5	1.	China	1 376	18.7
2.	India	376	36.5	2.	India	1 311	36.6
3.	United States of America	158	42.7	3.	United States of America	322	40.9
4.	Russian Federation	103	46.8	4.	Indonesia	258	44.4
5.	Japan	82	50.0	5.	Brazil	208	47.3
6.	Germany	70	52.8	6.	Pakistan	189	49.8
7.	Indonesia	70	55.5	7.	Nigeria	182	52.3
8.	Brazil	54	57.7	8.	Bangladesh	161	54.5
9.	United Kingdom	51	59.7	9.	Russian Federation	143	56.5
10.	Italy	47	61.5	10.	Mexico	127	58.2
11.	France	42	63.2	11.	Japan	127	59.9
12.	Bangladesh	38	64.7	12.	Philippines	101	61.3
13.	Nigeria	38	66.2	13.	Ethiopia	99	62.6
14.	Pakistan	38	67.7	14.	Viet Nam	93	63.9
15.	Ukraine	37	69.2	15.	Egypt	92	65.2
16.	Spain	28	70.3	16.	Germany	81	66.3
17.	Mexico	28	71.4	17.	Iran (Islamic Republic of)	79	67.3
18.	Poland	25	72.4	18.	Turkey	79	68.4
19.	Viet Nam	25	73.3	19.	Dem. Rep. of the Congo	77	69.5
20.	Turkey	21	74.2	20.	Thailand	68	70.4
21.	Egypt	21	75.0	21.	United Kingdom	65	71.3
				22.	France	64	72.1
				23.	Italy	60	72.9
				24.	South Africa	54	73.7
				25.	Myanmar	54	74.4
				26.	United Rep. of Tanzania	53	75.1

**Table 5.** World Population Ranking. 1950,2015

As it is shown in the table above, Spain was in the 16th place in terms of population in world rankings in 1950, while Turkey was in the 20th place. However, in 2015, Turkey was in the 18th place but Spain was not among the first 26 countries. In addition, the following fact regarding Spain is remarkable in the EU population dependency ratios: Within the context of the dependency rate, the ratio of dependency ratio of 2004 and 2050 was 0.21 and 0.22 respectively. The elderly population dependency ratio in the future is worrisome:

	2004			2050		
	Genel Nüfus Bağımlılık Oranı	Genç Nüfus Bağımlılık Oranı	Yaşlı Nüfus Bağımlılık Oranı	Genel Nüfus Bağımlılık Oranı	Genç Nüfus Bağımlılık Oranı	Yaşlı Nüfus Bağımlılık Oranı
İspanya	0.46	0.21	0.24	0.87	0.22	0.66

Table 6. Spain Population Dependency Ratios

Foreign Population in Spain

The percentage of foreign population increased more than twofold between 1999 and 2001. Although the data regarding the issue could not be reached in the next years, it is stated that the foreign population was around 12% in the general population as of 2015-2017.

Table 7. Foreign Population in Spain		
Year	Foreign Residents	Increase Percentage
1999	801329	11.35
2000	895720	11.78
2001	1109060	23.81

(Balance 2001 Delegación del Gobierno' para la Extranjería y la Inmigración, 2001;p. 32)

According to the source above, the total number of foreign nationals living in Spain is 1,109,060. The most populous nationalities are as follows: Morocco 234.937 people, Ecuador 84.699 people, Great Britain 80.183 people, Germany 62.506 people, France 44.798 people, Italy, 35.647 people. There are 612 people from Turkey (Balance 2001 Delegación del Gobierno 'para la Extranjera y la Inmigración, 2001).

According to the sources, 12.19% of the population is composed of foreigners. This affects the demographic structure as well as employment and unemployment data. These migrations to the country are rapidly changing the population profile of Spain. 53% of the foreign population is male and 47% is female. (Population and Geography Information, Management, Economics, Transport and Communication Data, Spain, 2017)

The population is unevenly distributed throughout the country and is concentrated in large cities and on the coastline. 79% of the population lives in cities. 16% of the population is aged between 0 and 15; 67% of them is 16-64 years old and 17% of them are 65 and older. (Population and Geography



Information, Management, Economics, Transport and Communication Data, Spain, 2017)

Spain has a workforce of 23.1 million in 2012 over 16 years of age, and the majority of it consists of middle-aged people.

75% of those employed in Spain work in the services sector, 14% in industry, 7% in construction sector and 4% in agriculture sector. The number of the employed people declined to 17.4 million in 2012. The most important reason for this decrease or the increase in unemployment is the shrink in the sectors of construction, agriculture and industry.

The regional unemployment rate is expected to continue falling steadily in the next few years and to reach 9.7 percent by 2017 (World employment and social outlook: Trends 2016 / International Labour Office, 2016; 52).

Declining energy prices and the depreciation of the Euro supported the occurrence of faster-than-expected employment in export-oriented Southern European countries such as Spain, Portugal and, recently, Italy.

	2000-07	2008-13	2014	2015	2016	2017
Labour Force Participation Rate	56.9	57.8	57.7	57.7	57.6	57.5
Rate of Unemployment	8.2	9.7	10.7	10.1	9.9	9.7
Employment Increase	1.1	-0.3	0.7	0.7	0.3	0.2
Productivity Increase	1.3	0.1	0.4	0.9	1.4	1.6

Table 8. North, West and South Europe Workforce Market Outlook (2000-17)

Source: ILO Research Department in November 2015, ILO calculations based on Econometric Model Trends. (World Employment and Social Outlook: Trends 2016 / International Labour Office, 2016; 52)

Among the EU Region unemployment rates, youth unemployment rate in Spain was 46% and unemployment rate was 20.8%. The unemployment rate will drop to 11.9% by 2020. Labour market reform aims to make significant changes in labour dynamics. Improving long-term unemployment incrementally (Economic Policy & Funding Program for 2017, 2017/5) is planned.



Table 9. (Economic Policy & Funding Programme for 2017, 2017/5)



Developments in Workforce Market in Spain

Table : 10 - Unemployment Rates (*) (Percent)

Countries	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
A - Advanced Economies	6.7	6.5	6.3	5.8	5.4	5.8	8.0	8.3	7.9	8.0	7.9
Spain	11.5	11.0	9.2	8.5	8.2	11.3	17.9	19.9	21.4	24.8	26.1
<i>II - EU Accession Countries</i>											
Turkey	9.1	8.9	9.5	9.0	9.2	10.0	13.1	11.1	9.1	8.4	9.0

(*) : Unemployment Rate: According to International Labour Organization (ILO), it includes everybody that is not employed and that looks for a job actively.

(T.R. Ministry Of Development International Economic Indicators, 2015; (World Economic Outlook Database October 2014, 2015))

5.2.3 OECD Spain Evaluations

Developments in Labour Market

Labour market conditions continue to improve. The OECD average employment rate returned to the pre-crisis level in the first quarter of 2017, about ten years after the global financial crisis began. The OECD average unemployment rate maintains a slow decrease. However, since employment does not increase enough to compensate fully for the rising trend in labour force participation rate, it will remain slightly above the pre-crisis level.

The unemployment rate is expected to decline to the pre-crisis level at the end of 2018 or at the beginning of 2019. The labour market in Spain has continuously improved over the last three years. Employment in the population aged 15-74 in Spain has increased by at least 4 points since the crisis but it is 6 points below the pre-crisis level.

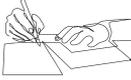
Similarly, the unemployment rate in Spain has fallen more than 8 points since 2013. While it was 17.8% in April 2017, it was the second among OECD countries and about 9 points higher than the pre-crisis level.

OECD forecasts suggest that these trends will continue in the next two years, that unemployment rate in Spain will be 15.5% and employment rate will be 55.4%, and that pre-crisis levels of employment and unemployment will not be reached at the end of 2018 in Spain.

Spain labour market reform in 2012 helped employers strengthen their capacity to respond to shocks, improve employment performance and cope with deep-seated labour market segmentation. In order to improve performance more, to help unemployed people in job-finding activities in particular and to improve the evaluation and monitoring of these policies, it is of vital importance to continue reform efforts in order to develop and co-ordinate regional active labour market policies.

The new OECD Scoreboard shows the Relative Strengths and Weaknesses of the Labour Market in Spain.

The OECD Employment Outlook 2017 issue presents a comparative labour



market performance score that goes far beyond the standard measures of employment and unemployment rates, providing a comprehensive overview of the strengths and weaknesses of different national labour markets.

These include work quality (wages, labour market security, working environment) and the comprehensiveness of labour market (income equality, social gender equality, employment opportunities for potentially disadvantaged groups). It tends to perform below the OECD average. Beyond its poor performance in terms of the number of employed and unemployed people, Spain is in the bottom third among OECD countries with less than 50% of labour market security, workload and living workers. This ratio is the highest with 16.5% among OECD countries.

The employment gap of potentially disadvantaged groups such as mothers with children, young people (aged 15-29), older workers, foreigners and partially disabled people is also worse than average. In particular, the probability of not having full-time education for young people is 18% lower than that of first class males and it increased 8 points over the last decade, having the biggest increase in OECD.

In the last decade, Spain has made significant progress in the quality of earnings. However, as it is the case in most OECD countries, labour market security has deteriorated over the last decade. The share of people with retirement age in poor families has increased as a result of the deep and long-term economic crisis. (How Does Spain Compare? Employment Outlook 2017, 2017/6)

5.3 Migration's Changing the Demographic Structure and its Effect on Employment: The Case of Turkey

5.3.1 Becoming a Country that Receives Migration after Sending Migrants for so Many Years

Today, Turkey is a country that both receives migrants and sends migrants; it is also a country that is used as a transit place by those trying to migrate to Europe. Labour migration to the European countries especially to Germany from Turkey, especially in the 60s and 70s, took place to meet labour shortages in various countries. In the following years, in the face of the policies developed by the EU to prevent migration flows, this labour migration turned its direction towards the oil-rich Middle East countries, the Russian Federation and the Commonwealth of Independent States (Öztürk, 2014, p. 120).

Apart from the labour migration to those countries, a significant number of Turkish people migrated to EU countries as refugee due to the anti-democratic environment caused by the September 12, 1980 military coup. In addition, the provision of dual citizenship to the Republic of Turkey citizens in 1983 caused the Turkish citizens living outside the country and having the right to be the citizen of another country to live in the countries they immigrated (Öztürk, 2014, p. 120).

To sum up, the orientation of labour migration from Turkey to abroad was shaped by the economic and social problems in the country. From the viewpoint of Europe, the European countries, which rapidly industrialized and whose economies got bigger after the Second World War, experienced a lack of labour due



to the population shortage and had to bring workers from abroad for non-skilled jobs. Thus, the economic and demographic changes in Turkey and Europe paved the way for the labour migration from Turkey.

The bilateral agreements with Western European countries were arranged in detail related to the general conditions of selection of migrant workers, their employment and wages to be paid to the workers. The public authorities of both parties took an active role in organizing the migration process. In this context, labour migration from Turkey to abroad assumed a regular and legal nature.

The First Five-Year Development Plan reached its target in terms of workers in Europe sending Turkey large amounts of foreign currency. As a matter of fact, this foreign exchange inflow, which was only 2 percent of the export revenues in 1964, amounted to 50 percent of exports in 1970-71, and 90 percent in 1973. These foreign currencies closed the foreign trade deficit in 1973 by 154 percent. However, the export of labour was not realized as it was intended since skilled workers rather than unskilled workers went abroad. This is clearly stated in the Second Five-Year Development Plan (1968-1977).

“From 1961 to the end of 1966, 1,033,500 workers applied to the Employment Agency to work abroad and 195,000 (18.5%) of them went to Western European countries...”

“Another aspect of the employment policy is the export of labour surpluses to Western European countries, which suffer labour shortages. Turkey is a labour surplus, but it is a country suffering shortage in high quality workforce. If skilled labour is exported, this shortage can get worse; it is necessary to take measures to prevent this disadvantage.” (Nakhoul, 2014; 88)

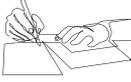
With the Resolution 1/80 on the free movement of Turkish workers and the decisions of the CJEU, the status of Turkish workers who completed certain working periods in the Community countries became almost equal to the status of the workers of the other member states of the Community.

Since 1975, Turkey has paved the way for the migration of labour force to non-European countries by setting new migration routes. In the 1970s, labour force migration to Arab countries such as Saudi Arabia, Libya and Iraq increased. It should be noted that migration to Europe continued through various forms like family reunification, asylum-seeking, refugee migration and irregular migration.

Table 11: Workers Sent Abroad by the Employment Agency between 1961 and 1975

Years	Germany	Australia	Austria	Belgium	France	Holland	Switzerland	Total
1967	7,199	0	1,043	0	0	48	215	8,505
1968	41,409	107	673	0	0	875	97	43,161
1969	98,142	970	973	0	191	3,404	183	103,863
1970	96,936	1,186	10,622	431	9,036	4,843	1,598	124,652
1971	65,684	879	4,620	583	7,897	4,853	1,342	85,858
1972	65,875	640	4,472	113	10,610	744	1,312	83,766
1973	103,793	886	7,083	265	17,544	1,994	1,109	132,674
1974	1,228	1,138	2,501	555	10,577	1,503	770	18,272
1975	640	401	226	59	25	32	229	1,612
Total	649,897	6,207	37,186	15,923	55,968	24,894	7,359	797,434

As a result of the increase in the income levels of the oil exporting and low-



populated Middle East countries and the economic relationships established with these countries, following the years after the migration to Australia in 1967, the Turkish labour moved towards the Middle East countries and then to the North African countries. This situation is mentioned as follows in the Fourth Five-Year Development Plan (1979-1983):

“As a result of the economic recession that started with the energy crisis, and increasing unemployment in 1973, the industrialized Western countries stopped the recruitment of workers. Thus, the number of Turkish workers working abroad started to decrease after 1973. The number of workers working abroad decreased from 766,800 in 1973 to 707,900 in 1976, reaching 711,000 as a result of sending workers to Arab countries beginning from 1977.” (Fourth Five-Year Development Plan 1979-1983, 1979, p. 27).

5.3.2 Brain Drain

The cost of losing skilled/qualified human capital/brain power, which is the most valuable asset of the society, is high. Internal and external brain drain is increasing day by day in our country. With the brain drain, the gap of development between countries is increasing. As a result of brain drain, two different world economies are developing. Some countries that receive very qualified migrants develop technologically, become industrialized and rich countries while the countries that lose their highly qualified brains become poor countries that are based on the agricultural economy. The prosperity provided by the wealth and working conditions related to it make the developed countries attractive (Kaya, 2003).

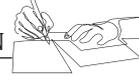
The highly qualified workforce from developing countries towards developed countries raises the debate on brain drain in the international public opinion. Repeat migration defined as brain drain through ‘*circular migration*’ today is desired to be transformed into brain circulation but developed countries produce policies that support the long-term residence highly skilled workforce and their family reunion while they produce policies that support temporary residence for low and medium-skilled workforce (Nakhoul, 2014; 35-36).

The Facts of Brain Drain in Turkey

Turkey ranks the 24th of 34 countries with the biggest brain drain. Turkey is losing about 60% of its well-trained brains. The rate of non-return of those who went abroad to receive education by TUBITAK scholarship is 21%. We have 50,000 students abroad. 80% of the university students see their future abroad. 20% of the students who want to go abroad do not want to return. It is determined that those who return from abroad are not happy. The average annual university cost abroad is \$20 thousand. The cost of non-return/brain drain at the end of 5-year education of 30 thousand of the 50 thousand students abroad (PhD or Bachelor + Master’s) is \$3 billion. This money is donated to developed countries (Kaya, 2003).

5.3.3 Management of Migration

Turkey, which opens its doors to migrants due to its geographical location,



has a deep-seated, one thousand year old tradition of migration, which protects those who are in need and which is respected by the public. General Directorate of Migration Management under the Ministry of Interior was established to implement policies and strategies relating to migration areas, to coordinate among the institutions and organizations related to these issues, to deal with the entry of foreigners into Turkey and their stay in Turkey, their exits and deportation from Turkey, international protection, temporary protection and the protection of victims of human trafficking. General Directorate of Migration Management, which worked very fast, completed its physical infrastructure of the GÖÇ-NET software system and its equipment, personnel employment and trainings and the works of the sub-legislation on a large scale; it was organized in 81 provinces simultaneously and took over the duties from local authorities as of May 18, 2015. All of the transactions made by Foreigners Branch of Provincial Security Directorate started to be carried out by the Provincial Directorate of Migration Administration beginning from May 18, 2015 (2016 Turkey Migration Report, April 2017; 11,26)

Work Permits

It is stated in Article 27 of the Law on Foreigners and International Protection numbered 6458 that current work permit and Work Permit Exemption Confirmation Certificate given pursuant to Article 10 of the Law on Work Permits of Foreigners dated 27/2/2003 numbered 4817 of Foreigners will be deemed valid as residence permit and that the foreigners that will be granted a work permit have to be out of the scope of the foreigners who will not be allowed to enter Turkey based on Article 7 of the law.

It was amended by Law No. 6735 and the application for the collection of residence permit fees from the foreigners who have work permits was terminated. Foreigners' work permit applications are carried out in two ways as foreign and domestic.

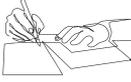
Measures against Irregular Migration

As the irregular migration in the Aegean Sea was brought under control after the agreement with EU, this route has become deterrent for migrant smugglers. Thus, the access to Turkey with the intention of reaching EU through illegal ways has decreased significantly. This practice also prevents the death of irregular migrants. It is seen that the number of irregular migrants who lost their lives in the seas decreased to very low levels as of April 2016. This will be a temporary and extraordinary measure necessary to end humanitarian grievances and to restore public order.

Distribution of Syrian Foreigners under Temporary Protection by Gender

Female: 1,323,054	%46,68	
Male: 1,511,387	%53,32	
Total : 2,834,441	%100	61,62,63

The Effect of Migration on Life and Employment



There has been a growing migration movement from rural areas toward cities since the 1950s in Turkey. There are two different phenomena of migration in Turkey. These two migrations naturally have different results. Therefore, it is necessary to take different measures for each migration (H. Yunus Taş, 2013, p. 296).

Along with positive results like transition to a new living space, increasing the opportunities to benefit from, and providing professional and social mobility for those who migrate for economic reasons, there are also several negative consequences such as unfavorable financial situation, unemployment and psychological problems. They have problems of ethnicity and adaptation to new living spaces. The individuals and their families who migrate from a rural area to an urban area undergo social problems caused by migration such as the process of adaptation to the newly arrived areas, urbanization, urbanization process, squatter and poverty (H.Yunus Taş, 2013, p. 296).

Very quick and significant economic and social changes occurred in Turkey in the last two decades. As a result of these changes, the new dwellers of the city who did not resemble the paupers of the city had to face economic, housing, health and education problems and similar ones due to intensive and massive migrations to the city along with the impacts and conflicts caused by encountering a new culture were called “the new paupers of the city” (H.Yunus Taş, 2013; p. 296).

The issue of forced migration that started after 1980 in became an issue whose effects increased and diversified in the course of time and that affected not only the victims of forced migration but also the general population of the provinces that received migrants and sent migrants, the socio-economic and cultural fabric of those provinces and that affected the entire country indirectly. There is a wide range of legal, social, educational, political, cultural, environmental adaptation and health problems of the victims of forced migration who continued to live in severe poverty and deprivation after migration (H.Yunus Taş, 2013, s. 296).

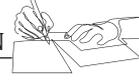
Although more than 30 years passed since the emergence of the forced migration problem, the steps taken towards solution and rehabilitation seem to be delayed and inadequate (H.Yunus Taş, 2013, p. 297).

Unemployment and employment problems are the most important problems caused by migration. Those who cannot find suitable jobs for their qualifications participate in the mass of the unemployed. Migrants should be enabled to benefit from various training programs for new or second vocational training and rehabilitation based on a certain program (H.Yunus Taş, 2013, p. 297).

5.3.4 OECD Turkey Evaluations

Developments in Labour Market

According to OECD sources, labour market conditions in Turkey continues to improve. The OECD average employment rate finally returned to the pre-crisis level in the first quarter of 2017, almost ten years after the start of the global financial crisis. While the OECD average unemployment rate is going down slowly, participation in employment remains slightly above the pre-crisis level. The un-



employment rate is expected to decrease to the pre-crisis level at the end of 2018 or at the beginning of 2019.

Unemployment in Turkey has had an upward trend since the year 2012 and reached the summit (11.7%) now (February 2017). This is far from the OECD average, which is steadily falling and now has reached 5.9%. According to OECD projections, Turkey's unemployment rate is expected to remain above 10% until the end of 2018.

Meanwhile, employment continues to grow in Turkey. In the last decade, in the second quarter of 2009, employment increased from 40% of the population aged 15-74 to 48% in the fourth quarter of 2016.

However, it remained significantly below the OECD average (61%). This was partly due to the low rate of female employment (27.9%) and the fact that 48.5% of the OECD average (among people aged 15 and over) remained rather low despite recent improvements.

Strong and Weak Aspects of Turkish Labour Market According to OECD Scoring

The OECD Employment Outlook 2017 issue presents a comparative labour market performance score that goes far beyond the standard measures of employment and unemployment rates, providing a comprehensive overview of the strengths and weaknesses of different national labour markets.

These include work quality (wages, labour market security, working environment) and the comprehensiveness of labour market (income equality, social gender equality, employment opportunities for potentially disadvantaged groups). Turkey's labour market performance is generally below the OECD average. However, some regions have made significant progress in recent years. In particular, the employment rate in the last decade is increasing. There are signs showing that unemployment is improving.

Actual earnings have been increasing in recent years in Turkey. This increases the overall work quality. In addition, the risk of unemployment and insecurity rate in the labour market resulting from the cost is over thirty percent of the OECD average. Improvement of social security and working conditions should be a policy priority with a substantial reduction in informal employment (How does Turkey Compare? Employment Outlook 2017).

The State of Working Labour in Turkey

From the 1950s onwards, migrations among regions and migration from rural to urban areas affected the population structure of the cities, especially the big cities. In particular, the big cities where the industry and services sector that created jobs developed formed slums with the populations they obtained. The slum population, which cannot keep up with the rapid developments in information and technology through education, causes urban unemployment rates to increase. Cities under the threat of "Chronic Unemployment" cause economic losses at macro levels and have an effect on per capita income differentiation



(Tatlidil & Xanthacou, 2002; p. 9-11).

The Change of Labour in Turkey

Although it is claimed that the national economy is based on agriculture in Turkey, only 14.5% of gross national product comes from the agricultural sector. On the other hand, when the employment of the working labour force according to the sectors is examined, the labour force is at the highest level with 45.8% in the agricultural sector according to 1999 data. When previous years are examined according to this rate, it will be seen that the labour force employed in the agricultural sector is much higher. According to SIS data, it fell below the rate of services sector with the rate 40% (Tatlidil & Xanthacou, 2002; p. 9-11).

Table 12. Distribution of Labour Force by Sectors (%)

Sector	1962	1978	1991	1999
Agriculture	77,0	61,2	49,3	45,8
Industry (production and building)	10,3	16,5	20,8	20,8
Services	11,0	20,4	29,9	33,7

Source: Collected from SIS Labour and Business Census Survey results (Tatlidil & Xanthacou, 2002;9).

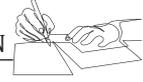
Not only has Turkey been insufficient to control the social and physical conditions of urban fabric due to intense migration it also has difficulties in preparing the qualified human resource needed by the economy that makes production in urban areas.

In particular, there are difficulties in ensuring the employment of the young labour force, an important source of adapting to changing world conditions. Serious and important investments are made to overcome these problems and projects are being developed. In this context, the national employment strategy has been implemented. To this end, programs of vocational education and training of qualified personnel have been implemented (Comparison of Turkey, Employment Outlook 2017, 2017).

5.3.5 Trends of Demographic Transformations in Turkey

While the annual population growth rate was 2.7% in Turkey in 1950, it fell to 1.4% in 2004. In 2050, the population growth rate will fall to zero level. The decrease in birth rates changes the age composition significantly. While birth rates were 69 in 1000 between 1950 and 1955, it fell to 19% in 2004. On the other hand, it is estimated that the total population of Turkey will reach 97 million, reaching to its peak after 2050 (SPO, 2004).

In Table (13) 1.5, demographic data of Turkey between 1965 and 2004 are presented. The rate of population growth decreased from 2.52% to 1.35% in the course of time due to the decrease in fertility rates. Life expectancy increased substantially from 54.9 to 70.7 years. Although the fertility rate per woman decreased over time, it is remarkable that it is above 2.22, which is over the natural replacement rate, as of 2004.

**Table 1.5. TURKEY'S DEMOGRAPHIC INDICATORS (1965-2004)**

	Annual Population Increase Rate (%)	Birth Rate (‰)	Death Rate (‰)	Baby Death Rate (‰)	Total Fertility Rate (Child)	Life Expectancy
1965-1970	2.52	30.0	13.5	158.0	5.31	54.9
1970-1975	2.50	34.5	11.6	140.4	4.46	57.9
1975-1980	2.06	32.2	10.0	110.8	4.33	61.2
1980-1985	2.49	30.8	9.0	83.0	4.05	63.0
1985-1990	2.17	29.9	7.8	65.2	3.76	65.6
2000	1.47	20.2	6.3	30.2	2.28	70.1
2001	1.44	19.9	6.3	29.4	2.26	70.2
2002	1.41	19.7	6.3	28.5	2.25	70.4
2003	1.38	19.5	6.3	27.7	2.23	70.5
2004	1.35	19.2	6.4	26.9	2.22	70.7

-Source: SPO (DPT), 2004

The Effects of Demographic Transformation

Demographic transformation affects financial markets, health system, social security system, savings and saving habits, expenditures and growth, budget and labour market.

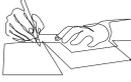
Its Effects on Workforce Market

Due to demographic transformation, the balance between age groups is disturbed. As a result of the decrease in birth rates, the ratio of the young population to the total population decreases and the rate of the elderly population increases. As the ratio of working-age population to the total population declines over time due to the increase in the number of old-age pensioners, there is a loss of employment in the labour market. In the European Union, the working age population is expected to decrease by 40 million in 2050 compared to 2000. Due to the high rate of population growth in developing countries, the potential working age population will increase in the future.

5.3.6 Dramatic Migration from Syria

Turkey has suffered a very intense influx of Syrian refugees since the start of the civil war in Syria, which is still in the world's agenda. According to the data of United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) dated April 11, 2016, 2.749.140 Syrian refugees are living in the guest status in Turkey. Since Syrian migrants have temporary protection status, they have the right to work temporarily (Nüfusbilim Derneği, 2016: 26, Öztürk, 2014, p. 121-122).

Along with Syrian refugees, some of the Yazidis who entered Turkey from Shingal in the north of Iraq live in Fidanlık Refugee Camp under the control of Diyarbakır Municipality. According to the information given by Diyarbakır Metropolitan Municipality, more than 1500 Yazidian refugees live in the camp (Öz-



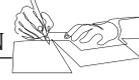
türk, 2014, p. 122).

Turkey has witnessed an influx of refugees for 7 years. After the start of the civil war in Syria, the number of refugees in Turkey reached the number 3,359,991. Initially, it was thought that the civil the war in Syria will end soon; therefore, the Syrian who took refuge in Turkey were given the status of guest, which has no legal meaning. However, when it was understood that Syrian refugees would remain in Turkey for many years, they were given temporary protection by legal regulations. This status gives them the right to access health, education and labour markets, and not to be returned to their homeland. Syrians used the first two rights at once but the law related to the right to enter labour market came in force in January 2016. Thus, Syrians were given access to labour markets (Parlak, 2017; 2335). However, considering the possibility of disrupting the balances in labour markets and leaving the domestic workers unemployed, this permission was limited to the provinces where they were given the residence permit and the condition of not exceeding 10% of the total number of domestic workers in that province. It was decreed that they could not be given a wage less than the minimum wage in order to maintain the general level of wages. However, the demographic structure of the refugees shows that around 600-700 thousand Syrian refugees and child workers entered into the labour markets (Parlak, 2017; 2335).

Although Spain has not seen a refugee influx as big as that one up to now, the first similarity in the history of the migration movements of the two countries is that both of them were rapidly transformed from being countries that sent migrants to countries that received migrants intensely both as transit countries and target countries. Although it is not analyzed in this study, it can be said that this similarity is due to the similarity of the two countries in the context of political history apart from the socio-economic conditions affecting the whole world. (Öztürk, 2014, p. 122).

The development of migration policies in both countries indicates a structure in which the seriousness of the issue is not fully understood in the early stages of migration and that is shaped afterwards by the reactions to increasing migration. Spain considered migrants as workers and acted with the estimation that a significant part of them would not be permanent in the country while developing migration policies. Turkey has not yet developed national migration policies fully like Spain and regards migrants and refugees as individuals that will not live permanently in the country just like Spain did thirty years ago (Toksöz and Unluturk, 2012: 85-86). On the other hand, the agreements on readmission of refugees with the EU show that the migration policy of Turkey is shaped based on international political evaluations. Regarding migrants and refugees as individuals who will leave the country in the short or medium term causes people to ignore the problems of these individuals related to their integration into society. Turkey predicates its action related to migration management on the steps that will ease Turkey's EU accession process and EU's legislation providing for tighter border control (Öztürk, 2014, p. 123).

The EU, which tried to prevent illegal migration by strengthening its borders,



has recently developed a number of new methods aiming to prevent migration movements while they are on the way to its borders. The position of the two countries are different related to this common issue: While Spain signed readmission agreements with Morocco in order to protect its borders against illegal migration, Turkey made financial gains and obtained benefits like visa exemption to its citizens by protecting EU borders against illegal migration and by housing the migrants and refugees trying to go to Europe in Turkey. (İçduygu and Biehl, 2012: 4-5) (Öztürk, 2014, p. 123).

Spain and Turkey have important similarities between their forms of confrontation with the phenomenon of migration. Although the periods of migration flows to these countries and their political and socioeconomic conditions differed, the first institutional approaches to migration of both countries were quite similar (Öztürk, 2014, p. 124).

The following similarities should be added to the ones above: both countries have a multicultural social structure in which various ethnic and national identities live together; the size of the informal economy in both countries is big; both of them are good examples of the internationalization of the gender-based division of labour. With the legislative change enacted in 2012 stipulating that migrants can have free health care if they work, Spain fell behind in the context of the struggle for human rights, causing it to resemble Turkey, which does not provide public services to migrants and refugees, in one more way. (Öztürk, 2014, p. 124).

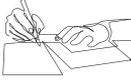
In addition, everyone has the right to reunite with family members living outside the country in order to ensure the integrity of the family. Even only these two conditions are proof that Europe cannot stop the migration towards it (Öztürk, 2014, p. 124).

With about 2.3 million people, Turkish citizens constitute the largest portion of the migrants who live in EU countries and who were not born in any member country. Turkey is followed by Morocco with a population of 1.9 million migrants and Albania with of 1.1 million migrants. The Settlement Law numbered 2510 enacted in 1934 provided a legal basis for the Turkish Muslim population living outside the borders of the Republic of Turkey to migrate to Turkey. This law is the first national law on the settlement as it is understood from the history of migration and the name of the Turkish Republic (Öztürk, 2014, p. 127).

5.3.7 Comparison of Turkey and Spain

When Turkey is considered as a country that sends migrants, receives migrants and provides migration as a transit country, the first thing that needs to be expressed is the fact that the waves of migration towards the country are not a new phenomenon (Öztürk, 2014.p. 120).

The migrants that came to Turkey were Turks and Muslims in the past but migrants with different ethnic and religious backgrounds have come from a variety of countries recently (İçduygu, 2013). These new waves of migration consist of refugees, asylum seekers, transit migrants and illegal workers coming from



especially the bordering countries of Turkey (İçduygu, 2009: 222-223) (Öztürk, 2014, p. 120).

According to the 2013 data of Turkey Statistical Institute's Address Based Population Registration System (ADNK), a total of around 400 thousand foreign nationals live in Turkey (Turkey Statistical Institute, 2015). These people are individuals who are entitled to live in Turkey formally. According to the last census conducted in 2000, the number of people born in foreign countries and living in Turkey is 1,278,671. Although this figure is not directly related to the number of migrants, it gives a general idea. According to the 2000 census data, 480,817 Bulgaria nationals, 273,535 German nationals, 59,217 Greece nationals, 31,515 Macedonia nationals and 20,736 Romania nationals live in Turkey (İçduygu, 2013). Another database that provided information about migration to Turkey until recently was Foreigners Border Asylum Directorate under the Security General Directorate of Interior Ministry. As of May 18, 2015, the works and transactions related to foreigners have been carried out by Provincial Directorate of Migration Management. These data give information only about the work and residence permits of foreigners living in Turkey and the countries from which the detained irregular migrants come (Öztürk, 2014, p. 120).

It is possible to analyze the migration towards Turkey in general under the headings of regular migration, irregular migration and the migration of the people who seek asylum (İçduygu and Biehl, 2012; İçduygu, 2009). The regular migrant group in Turkey consists of foreign workers with a valid work contract in Turkey, professionals who are part of the skilled labour force and students.

Most of the migrants working with a valid employment contract in unqualified jobs are from countries such as Bulgaria, Azerbaijan, Russian Federation, Iraq and Afghanistan, while most of the foreigners working in qualified jobs are from Germany and the United Kingdom. In addition to this, students coming to study in Turkey are from the countries such as, Albania, Afghanistan, Bulgaria, Romania, Azerbaijan and Turkmenistan (Öztürk, 2014, p. 120). It is also possible to consider African and Middle Eastern countries within this scope.

The irregular migrants living in Turkey consist of the migrants living and working in the country without a work permit and residence permit, migrants who come to Turkey to go to any European country and who have not left yet and the migrants whose demands for asylum have been rejected (İçduygu and Aksel 2012) (Öztürk, 2014, p. 121).

Since the early 1990s, mainly migrant workers come to work in Turkey from the countries of the Commonwealth of Independent Nations constitute an important part of this irregular migration. Citizens of Armenia, Georgia, Azerbaijan, Moldova, Romania, Ukraine and the Russian Federation are among this group of migrants. Turkey became quite an attractive country for the nationals of those countries whose citizens were seeking new labour market in the face of economic difficulties that occurred after the Soviet Union's collapse because Turkey had a more flexible visa application compared to the EU's strict border controls and the size of the informal economy was big (Öztürk, 2014, p. 121).

The migrants who are more than the population of foreigners with residence

and work permit in Turkey and who entered Turkey illegally or whose work permit expired work in sectors such as construction, domestic work, textile, services, tourism and agriculture under severe conditions without social security, by being forced to accept long and irregular hours (İçduygu & Biehl, 2012; İçduygu & Aksel, 2012; İçduygu, 2009). Women who constitute a significant part of these illegal migrants, as in Spain, fear deportation and work in poor household jobs under bad working conditions. While most of the women who make up this group of migrants in Spain come from South American countries, the majority of those in Turkey comes from the former Soviet Union countries (Toksöz and Unluturk, 2012: 89) (Öztürk, 2014, p. 121).

On the other hand, another group to be considered within the scope of irregular migration movements is the group of migrants most of whom are from Iraq, Iran, Pakistan, Mauritius, Somalia and Syria and who use Turkey as a transit country to reach European countries. The majority of these migrants enters Turkey from the borders of Iran and Syria through human trafficking and leaves the country through the Aegean Sea or land, trying to go to Greece or Bulgaria. These migrants work in any jobs they find in big cities during their stay in Turkey, trying to survive (İçduygu and Biehl, 2012; İçduygu and Aksel 2012) (Öztürk, 2014, p. 121).

Country or area	Median age (years)					
	1950	1980	2015	2030	2050	2100
World.....	23.5	22.5	29.6	33.1	36.1	41.7
Spain.....	27.5	30.4	43.2	50.1	51.8	51.3
Turkey.....	19.7	19.8	29.8	35.2	41.8	49.4

Prediction about the ratio of the median age of the population in the country is given from 1950 to 2100 in the table above. The median ages of the world, Spain and Turkey are given in the table.

Accordingly, the rate of the middle-age group in Turkey and Spain has been increasing steadily. This indicates the increase in the elderly population, increase in the dependency ratio and the decrease in the labour force in the following years.

Table 15. Migrant population of 15+ in OECD countries by country and birth region in 2010/11 (World Migration in Figures, 2013; p. 6). The comparison of Turkey and Spain was made based on this source.

Country and birth of region	Total Population				Female Population			
	Migrant population (thousand)	Migrant population with university education	Rate of migrating	Rate of migrating among migrants with university education	Migrant population (thousand)	Migrant population with university education	Rate of migrating	Rate of migrating among migrants with university education
Turkey	2,550	251	4.3	3.7	1,224	104	4.2	3.8
Spain	738	212	1.9	2.3	401	112	2.0	2.3



6. EVALUATION AND CONCLUSION

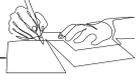
In addition to internal migration, migration from abroad takes place as a reality of the global age in Turkey and in Spain as it takes place in the world and in Europe. Developed countries act selectively when they accept migrants. There is a need for qualified labour force in the world, in Europe and in the two countries mentioned above along with problems originating from skill mismatch. Growth in elderly population is expected in the world, in Europe and the countries mentioned above with the increasing number of people whose average life expectancy is increasing. This means an increase in the dependent population. Like Europe and developed countries, Spain acts selectively when it accepts migrants and aims to increase the quality of the population by adding young and qualified population as well as low-medium quality population to their population.

While migration from the troubled regions of the world and from developing countries to the developed countries with high welfare and income levels takes place, it is understood that the largest mass forced migration has come from countries such as Afghanistan, Iraq and Syria recently.

The countries that receive migration face positive and negative aspects in terms of culture, employment and harmony. Both countries receive migration from the Mediterranean and its wide borders. Turkey is generally a transit country but Spain, which was also a transit country, became a target country after becoming an EU country. As the population of Spain has difficulty in renewing itself, it follows a systematic acceptance policy for the acceptance of migrant population. 12% of the population of Spain consists of migrants. Naturally, this situation causes changes in the demographic structure. In addition, it affects cultural area and many other areas. The effects on population, culture and a number of areas have been seen and will be seen in Turkey with nearly 4 million Syrian refugees. Both countries have implemented compliance programs as a precaution. Spain and Turkey have implemented cultural, vocational and language compliance programs. In addition, Turkey deteriorated the existing unemployment problem by giving work permits to Syrian refugees. It is necessary to take measures against this. On the other hand, the Syrian migrant workforce makes a positive contribution to both countries in low-quality or unskilled work areas where the domestic labour force is no longer interested.

Turkey has expanded work permits with for the skilled labour with the new migration system. In doing so, it aims to solve the problem of underemployment of the qualified labor. It also aims to create a competitive environment.

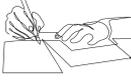
The real conclusion to be deduced from this study is that the phenomenon of migration as a serious global issue has acquired a dimension that cannot be prevented due to the moral, humanitarian, economic, cultural, social environment and management problems and weaknesses of the world and humanity. And this dimension has become very damaging to countries and communities that send and receive migrants. In addition to humanity, it is necessary for the developed countries and the circles that prevent tranquility and peace from gaining stability in the world to act in accordance with the ethics and reality in order to accept and provide all people with the right to live in a way that fits humans. Within this



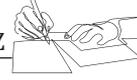
framework, it is urgent that all countries design the administrative processes to ensure the rights they provide to their citizens for the migrants too.

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CHAPTER
20

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ACCIDENT MODELS IN AVIATION

Suat USLU^{1*}, Kadir DÖNMEZ²

Introduction

During the analysis of an aircraft accident or incident, if the cause is a technical factor, it can be detected based on the data obtained from flight data recorder, voice recorder or from other sources with certain tests (fatigue test etc.). These causes can be entered into the accident or incident database in a well-defined way. For example; pitot tube malfunction or engine failure. This facilitates the work of aviation authorities to ensure that post-accident database analyzes are carried out in a methodical way. However, if the accident or incident was caused by human factors, it will be more difficult to find out the exact cause, in this case, the analysis of the accident or incident will be more intuitive rather than data-based. Moreover, it will not possible to make advanced tests as are used in the detection of mechanical failures. In addition, the expressions entered into the accident database will not be well defined. As a result, this will not provide useful, convenient, data for aviation authorities when performing subsequent data analysis (Wiegmann & Shappell, 2001: 1007).

For all the above reasons, a comprehensive framework is needed to analyze human factors. If all analyzes are carried out using an advanced framework, the expressions entered in the database will be well defined and useful. For this reason, many perspectives and models have been put forward to classification and analyses of human factors over the years.

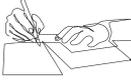
To better understand the accident models, it is necessary to examine the human error perspectives in the aviation literature. Throughout history, various human error perspectives have been introduced in order to better understand human factors in aircraft accidents. In the light of these perspectives, many accident prevention models have been proposed in aviation and these models have changed in time depending on human error perspectives. Each perspective had advantages and disadvantages. Some perspectives have lost their validity due to the developing social environment and technology. Some perspectives still need to be developed.

The advantages and disadvantages of the perspectives are described below. In addition, historical developments of accident models in aviation have been examined in line with these perspectives.

Then, historical development of accident models was examined with a literature review covering a range of 200 years from the 1800s until 2000s.

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Human Error Perspectives

In human error investigations, many different perspectives have been adopted throughout history. The most important of these perspectives that affect the formation of accident models in aviation will be explained below.

Reason (2000) examined human error perspectives in two classes and evaluated the positive and negative aspects by comparing these two perspectives. These perspectives are;

- Person approach
- System approach (Reason, 2000: 768).

In their study, Wiegmann and Shappell (2009) emphasized that various perspectives to the nature and causes of human error have been put forward in the literature. They have divided these perspectives into five classes in terms of aviation and stated the scope, strengths and weaknesses of these perspectives. These perspectives are;

- The Cognitive Perspective
- The Ergonomic Perspective
- The Aeromedical Perspective
- The Psychosocial Perspective
- The Organizational Perspective (Wiegmann & Shappell, 2009: 342).

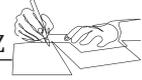
All these perspectives are briefly mentioned below.

Person approach

Person perspective is the oldest and most common perspective that focuses on the individual's unsafe acts, errors and violations. These unsafe acts are caused by abnormal mental processes such as forgetfulness, carelessness, incomplete motivation, ignorance and negligence. According to the individual perspective, if something goes wrong, it must be a criminal. It is easier to blame the person who made the error than to blame the industries and the administrations (Reason, 2000: 768).

System approach

The basic view of the proponents of the system perspective is that even in the best organizational structure, human error is something to be expected. In this perspective, errors are seen as a result rather than a reason. Errors occur in the usual flow of the system. These errors repeat in the organizational process and working environment. The way to prevent these errors is to improve the working environment and working conditions of people. Because the internal conditions of the human cannot be intervened, but the conditions of the environment can be intervened. The basic idea in this perspective is that all hazardous technologies have barriers and protections that can make the system safe. When a negative situation occurs, the main problem is not who is making a mistake, but why the defense barriers in the system failed (Reason, 2000: 768).



Cognitive perspective

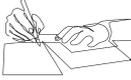
This perspective is largely based on general information processing theory. Its main feature is the assumption that the information progresses through a series of stages or mental processing (attention, pattern identification, decision making, etc.) that occur between the input and output of the warning. In this perspective, errors occur when information is not properly processed in one or more of the mental stages (Wiegmann & Shappell, 2009: 342).

Cognitive models are commonly used in human factor analysis. Cognitive models, beyond simply classifying what the error is, draws the researchers' attention to the point that it allows them to find the underlying causes of the error. However, cognitive models have some limitations. Clear methods are not yet fully defined to apply cognitive models to error and accident analyzes. Therefore, the application of these models may require accident investigators to rely on their intuition as well as objective methods. Moreover, cognitive models do not consider the contextual or task-related factors (hardware design, etc.) or the physical condition of the cockpit team (fatigue, etc.), and do not take into account managers and other organizational factors that often affect performance. As a result, these perspectives can often support an overly fixed-minded view of the cockpit team as the "cause" of the error (Wiegmann & Shappell, 2009: 342).

Ergonomics and system design perspectives

According to the ergonomics and system design perspective, it is very difficult to be the only culprit of an accident or incident. In contrast, human performance (both good and bad) involves a complex interaction of several factors. In fact, system models define the inseparable links between individuals and their tools, machines and work environments. This perspective has some advantages over the cognitive perspective mentioned earlier. One of these advantages is that this models consider events as contextual and takes into account factors such as hardware design that can affect the performance of the cockpit team. System models prevent researchers from focusing on a single cause. With this perspective, a variety of accident prevention methods can be applied, such as the design of systems with high fault tolerance. System perspectives have an intuitive appeal to people who are not formally trained in human factors and aviation psychology. In addition, system perspective models are easy to understand, interdisciplinary, well-known (Wiegmann & Shappell, 2009: 345).

However, the generality offered by system perspectives brings with it certain costs. Their biggest shortcoming is that they have a limited perception of the human component in the system. Because system perspectives focus on inter-component interaction. In these perspectives, they are almost entirely focused on the human-machine interfaces and the requirements of the task in terms of human characteristics and how much of these requirements meet the human characteristics. Cognitive, social and organizational factors are considered only superficially. As a result, system perspectives suggest an extreme idea as all errors can be design-related and such a view is not generally adopted in terms of safety in aviation (Wiegmann & Shappell, 2009: 345).



Aeromedical perspective

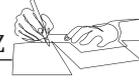
According to aeromedical perspectives; errors consist of physiological conditions of cockpit team such as insomnia, fatigue, spatial disorientation and dehydration. These conditions are usually due to factors such as alcohol, self-medication, smoking, etc. Such physiological conditions do not reveal until the error occurs, and pilots often do not notice it. Such physiological conditions are also triggered by environmental conditions. According to some experts, if the pilots are not physiologically good, the other components of the system will be adversely affected. According to the aeromedical perspective pilots' physiology is the most important factor in preventing flight safety and errors. One of the most important criticisms of aeromedical perspective; it is difficult for a physiologically affected pilot to understand how his performance is influenced in advanced commercial jets. For example; it is very difficult for the pilots to recognize the loss of pressure (caused by pressurization, stuck gases and gravity). Another criticism of this perspective is that this perspective does not contribute enough to safety research because it is difficult to determine how these factors cause accidents (Wiegmann & Shappell, 2009: 346).

Psychosocial Perspective

According to the psychosocial perspective, the best way to observe flight operations is to observe the interactions between pilots, air traffic controllers, operations experts, ground crew, maintenance team and flight attendants as a social work. While such interactions are observed at maximum level in commercial and military operations, they are observed at a minimum level in general aviation operations. According to the psychosocial perspective, the performances of the pilots are affected by the nature of interactions with other group members. Therefore, the general theme of psychosocial perspectives is that errors occur as a result of disturbances in group dynamics or interpersonal communication. Communication and coordination problems are one of the most effective factors in military and commercial aircraft accidents. Interpersonal communication and interaction have been a factor ignored in the early years of aviation history. However, in time, experts have begun to focus on human-human interactions that are more complex and important than human-machine interaction (Wiegmann & Shappell, 2009: 348).

Organizational perspective

The organizational perspective has been used in various industries for many years, but it has been adopted in recent years in the field of aviation. The importance of the management factor in accidents has begun to be understood in recent years. Organizational perspective differs from other perspectives by considering the errors of managers, supervisors and others in the organization. One advantage of organizational perspectives is that this perspective has a broader vision on questioning the human factor. Studies that making to improve worker behavior (education, screening, incentives, organizational design, etc.) by industrial and organizational psychologists can also contribute to reducing human errors in aviation. Another advantage of the organizational perspective is that



this perspective considers all human errors as something to be managed in the context of risk (Wiegmann & Shappell, 2009: 349).

A critical aspect of the organizational perspective is that the organizational reasons behind the cockpit team error are physically abstracted from the context of the event (eg cockpit, etc.). In other words, there may be difficulties in connecting cockpit team errors and organizational errors. Therefore, little is known about the types of organizational errors that may cause cockpit team failure. Therefore, the applicability of organizational perspectives to reducing or preventing cockpit team errors can be questioned. Moreover, as in the other perspectives described earlier, organizational models focus on almost only one causal factor. In other words, by focusing only on the organizational structure, factors such as physical and technological environment are ignored. In addition, these perspectives encourage the defense of an extreme thought, as there is an error in the context of the organization in all accidents and incidents. Or it encourages experts to defend an extreme view that an accident is the reflection of management's ability to manage (Wiegmann & Shappell, 2009: 349).

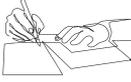
Based on all these approaches and perspectives, it can be said that the view that has to be adopted today should be based on the multidimensional analysis of accidents and incidents by taking the positive aspects of each perspective. The mental state of the individual can be effective as well as the effect of the organization in accidents, or a deficiency in the design of the equipment used can lead the individual to make errors. Therefore, more work is needed to meet all these requirements and new analyzes should be made with systematic focus on the available data.

Basic concepts

Before examining the historical development of accident models, it would be useful to explain basic concepts such as safety, security, accident and incident. DGCA (2011) defines the concept of safety as the situation that the possibility of harming persons or property is reduced to an acceptable level through a continuous hazard identification and safety risk management process and kept at this level or below. Concepts such as safety, absolute control probability, zero accident, avoidance of danger are based on the idea that it is possible to control all variables that may cause bad or dangerous results in the context of aviation operations by design or intervention (DGCA, 2011: 2-2).

In his study, Gerede (2006) explained the common definitions of safety and security concepts in literature and also examined the difference between safety and security concepts. While defining aviation safety as a concept pointing to the realization of all aviation activities with minimum risk, it has defined the concept of security as a combination of measures taken against illegal situations, human and resources. He defined aviation security as a factor affecting aviation safety and stated that aviation safety covers aviation security (Gerede, 2006: 32).

According to ICAO Annex 13, the concept of accident in aviation is the serious injury of persons in the aircraft or persons getting on or off the board during a flight operation, structural damage to the aircraft, or complete breakdown of the



aircraft. In ICAO Annex 13, the concept of incident in aviation is defined as all cases that affect the safety of flight operations rather than accidents (ICAO, 2010).

According to the Health and Safety Professionals Alliance (HaSPA) (2012), short, sudden and unexpected situation or events caused by human error, directly or indirectly, are called accidents. According to the Health and Safety Professionals Alliance (HaSPA) (2012), short, sudden and unexpected situation or events caused by human error, directly or indirectly, are called accidents. Accident prevention is the basis of safety management thought. If safety management is enabled, there should be no accidents, otherwise safety management is not effective if an accident occurs. Therefore, understanding how accidents occur constitutes the basis for effective prevention and response programs (HaSPA, 2012: 1).

Accidents do not occur as simple as they appear. Behind the accidents there is a chain of complex causes. This makes it difficult to understand how accidents have occurred since the industrial revolution. Accident models affect how people measure performance, how they think about safety, and how they analyze and identify risk factors. Accident models can be used in reactive and proactive safety management and many models are based on the idea of causality. Accidents occur due to environmental factors, technical problems, human errors and organizational problems (HaSPA, 2012: 1).

Historical Development of Accident Models

HaSPA (2012) has emphasized that, accident models have been formally classified as since 1920;

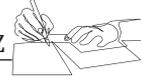
- Simple linear models
- Complex linear models
- Complex nonlinear models (HaSPA, 2012: 3).

Each type of model mentioned above is supported by certain assumptions. These assumptions are explained as follows;

Simple linear models assume that accidents are the culmination of a series of events or situations that interact linearly with each other and thus can be prevented by eliminating one of the causes in the linear order.

Complex linear models assume that accidents occur as a result of a combination of unsafe behavior and latent risks within a system that follows a linear path. It associates the most distant factors from the accident to the 'organization and environment' and assumes that the closest factor to the accident is 'human'. As a result, this type of models argues that deficiencies in defense must be eliminated in order to prevent accidents.

Complex nonlinear models; the new generation of thought models for accident models should not be linear. Accidents occur as a result of a combination of multiple variables in the real world and can only be prevented by understanding the combinations and interactions of these variables (HaSPA, 2012: 3).



This classification of the HaSPA is important in terms of the understanding historical development of accident models. In the conclusion of the current study, while interpreting the historical development of accident patterns, comments were made under the light of this classification.

The historical development of accident models has been studied as a literature review covering a range from the 1800s to the 2000s. For each period (eg 1970s) the most important models adopted in those years were narrated. In the final part of the study, a developmental table was given which also includes other important works that are not mentioned under this title but with similar ideas in those years.

1800s - First examples of accident research studies

Various approaches have been proposed to examine accidents and incidents from different perspectives. The well-documented first example of research and ideas on the causes of accidents is the strong emphasis of DuPont, founded in 1802, on accident prevention. The design and operation of the DuPont explosive factory has been for over 120 years to understand and prevent explosion which are the cause of disasters (HaSPA, 2012: 2). This self-worth which adopted by DuPont helped to ensure safety, reduce risks and prevent injuries from the starting of gunpowder production on the banks of the Brandywine River to the chemical production in the early 1900s. In his study Klein, examined DuPont's 200 years of safety approach and stated that DuPont's founder, E.I Du Pont, had emphasized the need to try to understand the dangers that human beings live with. (Klein, 2009: 114).

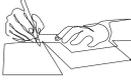
The birth of modern accident investigations began in 1898 with the study of Bortkiewicz (Bortkiewicz, 1898). Bortkiewicz carried out a study in the Prussian army in those years with the numerical statistics of the soldiers who were killed by horse kicking (Quine & Senata, 1987). He concluded that accidents were random and were inexplicable as a result of his limited work. The data used in this study were very limited and statistical methods were unreliable methods. This view fortunately did not prevent future studies and even opened new doors for research and studies (Griffin, Young & Stanton, 2015: 1).

1920s - Accident Proneness Theory

In the following years, the idea was that there was only one cause of accidents and one person was guilty of accidents. This idea increased the accusation culture (Griffin, Young & Stanton, 2015:). Greenwood and Woods (1919) found that some of the employees were more prone to the accident in their study on workers employed in a British ammunition factory. This led to the emergence of the theory of accident tendency (Greenwood & Woods, 1919)

In another study supporting the Theory of Accident Proneness, Newbold (1926) examined more than 16,000 accidents in 22 factories and concluded that some workers were more prone to accidents (Newbold, 1926).

The Industrial Fatigue Research Board (IFRB) (1920) published a report that included similar studies in those years. There are studies conducted on workers in various factories serving in those years (IFRB, 1920).



Over time, however, the studies on the weakness of the Theory of Accident Proneness began to emerge. It has been claimed that the chances factor provides more explanation than the Accident Proneness Theory in the studies conducted on the railroad workers in relation to the 1452 railway accidents occurring in North Africa. It was concluded that there was no significant relationship between individuals and the recurrence of accidents (Adelstein, 1952).

Rodgers and Blanchard (1993), in their study, argued that the Theory of Accidents Proneness had been a controversial theory for many years and that the studies defending this theory were far from being scientific. They emphasized that the Theory of Accident Proneness emerged from the need to blame the individual and the curiosity aroused by establishing the relationship between the individual and accident (Rodgers & Blanchard, 1993).

In these years, the accidents are considered to be the fault of someone or something, but it was not explained exactly what caused it. However, it would soon be realized that accidents occur as a result of much more complex interactions between human-human, human-system and system-system components (Griffin, Young & Stanton, 2015: 1).

1930s - Domino Theory

Heinrich (1931), in his study, examined the industrial accidents for the first time with Domino Theory. With this study, it was emphasized that accidents occurred from sequentially causes like a chain, rather than a single cause (Heinrich, 1931).

In order to clarify this situation, Heinrich emphasized that the sequential dominoes caused the eventual event by dropping each other and he visualized it. In order to clarify this situation, Heinrich emphasized that the sequential dominoes caused the eventual event by dropping each other and visualizing it. The idea behind this theory is that each of the dominos can cause accidents. This idea is assumed to be the basis of modern accident models.

The first domino is called social environment and heredity. The personality traits that were believed to be hereditary or the social environment in which the worker was involved, were assumed to affect the likelihood of the worker being involved in an accident. Although the first domino supported the Theory of Accident Proneness, the subsequent dominoes distinguished this theory from the Theory of Accident Proneness (Griffin, Young & Stanton, 2015: 2).

The second domino is the fault of the person who forms the basis of the theory. Family problems, fatigue, etc. were thought to affect the life of the worker. This also includes shortcomings and faults in the context of the social environment and the system in which the worker works. The Domino Theory distinguishes itself from the Theory of Accident Proneness at this point where it deals with external influences. This issue is still of great importance in the investigation of accidents and events today (Griffin, Young & Stanton, 2015: 2).

The third domino is defined as mistake that are the result of personal factors. In other words, the third domino refers to unsafe acts that are the direct cause



of accidents and incidents. The third domino also includes mechanical or physical hazards (Griffin, Young & Stanton, 2015: 2). This domino causes the fourth domino, accident. The fifth and last domino is injuries resulting from the accident. Falling of any of these dominos will cause an accident. However, what is important here is that the accident can be prevented by eliminating one of these dominos which is effective in the accident (Griffin, Young & Stanton, 2015: 2).

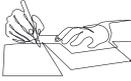
According to Heinrich, the cause of the accident is one of these five factors that cause injury. Injury is always caused by an accident and the accident is always the result of the factor just before. In this point the target in preventing the accident is the unsafe acts or mechanical and physical hazards in the middle of the series (HaSPA 2012: 5).

On the basis of Domino Theory, it is emphasized that by removing a factor from the series of errors, the effect of sequential destruction can be prevented and hence accidents can be prevented. Heinrich emphasized that unsafe acts and mechanical failures are at the center of this chain and that other factors would be ineffective with their elimination. Heinrich has focused on the human factor seen in the vast majority of accidents. According to Heinrich, 88% of accidents are caused by preventable human error, 10% by preventable mechanical failure and 2% by unidentifiable and inevitable errors (HaSPA 2012: 5). Heinrich's Domino Theory is shown in Figure 1;



Figure 1. Heinrich's Domino Theory (HaSPA, 2012: 5).

Domino Theory is simple because it encourages thinking of causal sequences rather than complex networks. Because a linear reasoning is easier than a par-



allel reasoning. It will also be easier to represent linear reasoning graphically. Domino Theory focuses on finding the factor (guilty) that causes accidents because it deals with events in a linear way. For this reason, Domino Model is not useful for complex systems involving accidents caused by many interactions (Villega, 2011: 9)

Sabet et al. (2013) emphasized that although Heinrich's Domino Theory is one of the most understandable and clear theory defining accident processes, there are some weaknesses in its implementation. The most important weak point is; it emphasizes the lack of the individual but does not take into account the errors that occur at the organization and management levels (Sabet et al. 2013).

1970s - Lost Causation Model

Domino Theory has become a widely accepted theory until the 1970s. However, in the studies conducted in the 1970s, it was emphasized that the organization factor is missing in this theory. Weaver (1971) emphasized the importance of identifying unsafe acts caused by missing control by management levels (Weaver, 1971).

Bird and Loftus (1976) demonstrated the direct impact of management in accidents and incidents with the Lost Causation Model and added an extra domino to the Domino Theory, representing administrative errors. Thus, by adding only one domino, they have assumed that an accident can be prevented by preventing errors at the management level (Bird & Loftus, 1976). The Loss Causation Model of Bird and Loftus is shown in Figure 2;

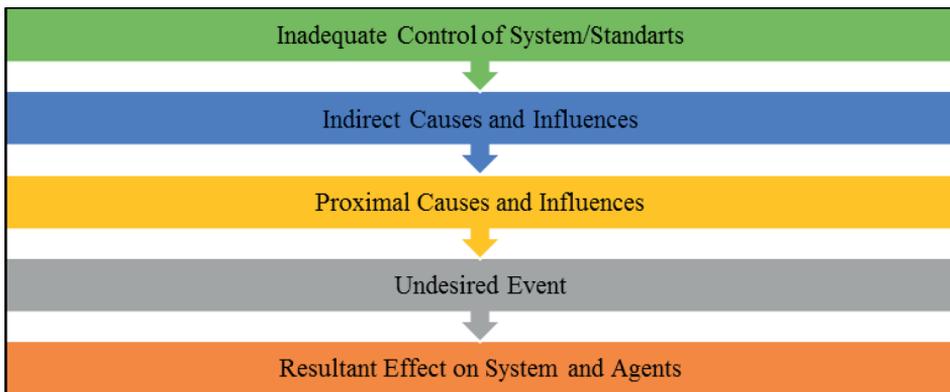


Figure 2. Bird ve Loftus'un Kayıp Nedensellik Modeli (Griffin, Young & Stanton, 2015: 4).

Bird and Germain (1985) revised the Lost Causation Model. Emphasized the need for management to prevent and control accidents that have become very complex due to developing technology (Bird & Germain, 1985).

They have developed an updated domino model that they think directly reflects the relationship between management and causes and effects of loss of accident. They also represented the multiple linear relationship between the causes and effects of the accident with arrows (HaSPA, 2012: 6). The Loss Causation Model, which was revised by Bird and Germain, is shown in Figure 3;

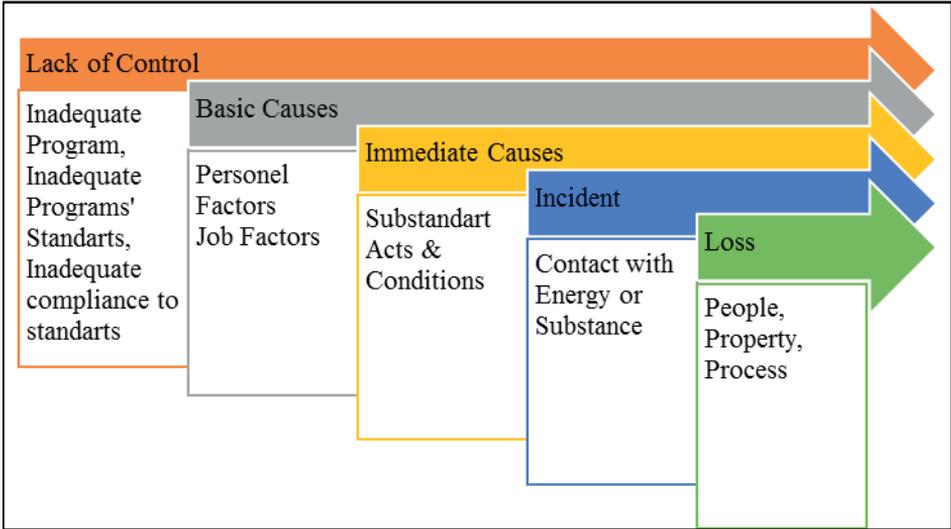


Figure 3. Bird and Germain's Lost Causation Model (HaSPA, 2012: 6).

According to the Lost Causation Model, lack of control at the management level results in an accident or incident. Accidents can be completely prevented if managers do their job properly (planning, organization, leadership and control). If managers do not do their job properly, there will be conditions that will lead to accidents, such as inadequate standards and programs (EIGA, 2013: 6).

Basic causes are examined in two classes; personal factors and job factors. Personal factors include lack of perception, lack of skills, lack of motivation, illness, mental or personal problems. Job factors include inadequate operation, poor design or maintenance, poor quality, non-standard or torn clothing (EIGA, 2013: 6).

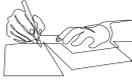
Immediate causes are unsafe acts which caused by first and second dominos. Immediate causes examined into two classes; substandard acts and substandard conditions. Substandard acts are defined as the misappropriation of a job. Substandard conditions are defined as improper implementation of a work due to location, ground or hardware (EIGA, 2013: 6).

The fourth domino is an accident. Accident is defined as the event with the potential to cause loss. Lost occurs as a result of an accident. Losses are unpredictable and cannot be known when and how losses will occur (EIGA, 2013: 6).

Although these theories emphasized the effect of management in accidents by introducing new perspectives on Domino Theory in those years, they still claimed that accidents consisted of a linear set of errors.

1990s - Swiss Cheese Model

In the late 1990s, the impact of technological developments on the prevention of accidents decreased and reached normal levels. By this time, the biggest step in investigating organizational impacts in accidents is the Swiss Cheese Model,



based on the thought of James Reason's accident causation. This model has been recognized by many people, companies and world aviation authorities such as ICAO (Griffin, Young & Stanton, 2015: 6). The Swiss Cheese Model of Reason is shown in Figure 4;

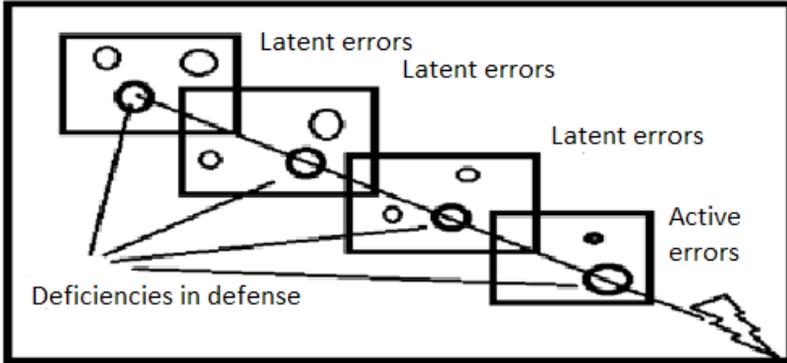


Figure 4. Reason's Swiss Cheese Model (Dönmez, 2017: 231)

As seen in the figure, Reason (2000) defined various layers and holes (pathogens) on these layers. The overlap of these holes causes disasters (Reason 2000: 769).

In most of the accidents, one layer can stop the catastrophic accident. Holes may appear or their sizes may vary depending on the mental and physical structure of the system or organization. Even if it is seen that active errors caused accidents, there are also latent errors in accidents that extend from the organizational effects (Reason, 1997).

According to Reason (1997), although there are active errors seen in all of the accidents, they are generally ignored because they cannot be detected or do not cause bad results (Reason, 1997).

This raises the biggest problem of Reason's model. This problem is that without a predictive element, some visible and hidden errors will continue to exist and cause problems. This situation limits the model to be able to make an examination after an accident. Therefore, the dangers underlying this model suggest that more studies are needed on the model (Griffin, Young & Stanton, 2015: 6).

1990s - Complex Socio-Technical System

In the late 1990s, Rasmussen carried out a study independent of the idea of causal chain. Rasmussen emphasized that despite all these models and works, there are still accidents resulting in disasters. He stated that the models at the time were not suitable for the dynamic world and that there were many causal levels in accidents ranging from legislators to managers, business planners and system employees. He also emphasized that these levels were significantly affected by the developing technology (Griffin, Young & Stanton, 2015: 8). Rasmussen's Complex Socio-Technical System is shown in Figure 5;

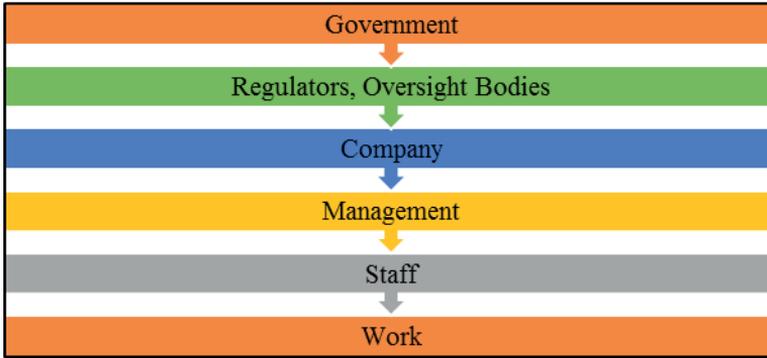


Figure 5. Rasmussen's Complex Socio-Technical System
(Griffin, Young & Stanton, 2015: 8)

According to Rasmussen, the complex socio-technical system can only be understood by a multidisciplinary examination. Each level given in Figure 5 is included in the study areas of different disciplines. For example; The levels of government and regulators are covered by the fields of policy science, economics, law and sociology. Conditions and situations at team level should be considered within the disciplines such as psychology, human factors and human-machine interactions. Rasmussen also mentioned environmental factors that affect these levels. These factors are from top to bottom; change in the political climate and public awareness at the level of state and legislators, change in the market conditions and financial pressure at the company level, change the level of education and trust level at the level of management and worker (Rasmussen, 1997: 185).

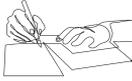
2000s - Current approaches in accident models

In the 21st century, the emphasis on the impact of the organizational factor continues. In his study, Dekker (2001) criticized the Accident Proneness Theory and emphasized that removing the person who caused the accident from the system, accidents cannot be prevented (Dekker, 2001).

According to Dekker (2014), organizations should reconsider the culture of accountability and try to regain the person who caused the accident. In addition, accidents can only be prevented by breaking away from prejudices and accusations (Dekker, 2014).

In these years, the idea of finding out the organizational factors causing the accident became increasingly widespread. One of the most important models adopting this idea is the Human Factors Analysis and Classification System (HFACS) which is developed on the basis of Reason's Swiss Cheese Model and is widely used in aviation literature.

HFACS has been applied to numerous aviation accidents. This model, which is still valid today, assumes that organizational and managerial errors directly or indirectly affect accidents. HFACS introduced by Shappell and Wiegmann in 2000. This model assumes that many human factors, from the mental and psy-



chological state to the decisions of the management, affect the accident (Shappell & Wiegmann, 2000). HFACS is a versatile model that contains many of the above-mentioned approaches. HFACS, the most advanced and most widely used accident analysis tool in the 21st century, is the most important model to explain human factors in accidents. The HFACS frame is shown in the Figure 6 below;

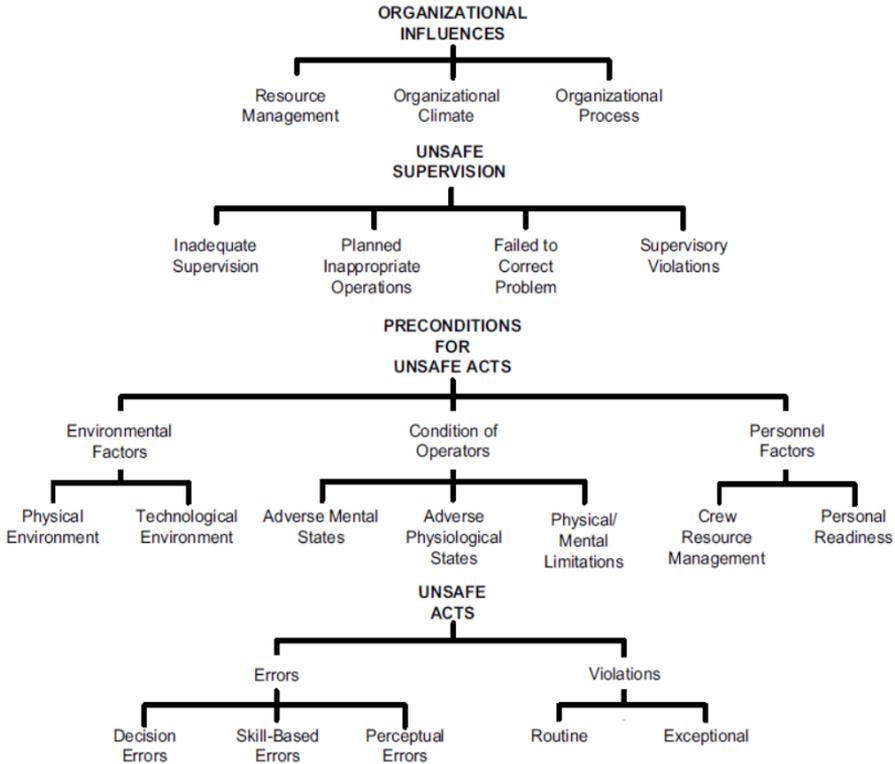


Figure 6. HFACS Framework (Shappell et al., 2007)

When the HFACS framework given in Figure 4 is examined, it can be said that this model contains many of the human error approaches. HFACS has 4 levels. The first of these levels is unsafe acts which include errors and violations of the cockpit team. Errors can be defined as unsafe acts that occur unintentionally within the rules, while violations can be defined as unsafe acts that laws and authorities do not allow. HFACS focuses on the individual and adopts the person and cognitive perspectives at this level.

The second level HFACS, precondition for unsafe acts, adopts cognitive and aeromedical perspectives with the condition of operator's sub-category which considers physical and mental condition of cockpit crew. In the personal factors sub-category HFACS considers cockpit crews' communication and coordination with each other and other personal hence, HFACS adopts psychosocial and cognitive perspective.



In the levels 3 and 4, HFACS address supervisory and organizational factors. Therefore, HFACS adopts system and organizational perspectives at these levels. As it understood, HFACS is a comprehensive model that includes many approaches.

As a result of extensive analysis by Scarborough, Bailey and Pounds (2005), it was demonstrated that HFACS, which is far more comprehensive and complex than Reason's model, is the best model for detecting the root causes of human factors. The authors evaluated the 10 most applied models in the literature in many respects with many experts and emphasized that HFACS is the first in terms of reliability, accuracy, stability, theoretical validity, auditability, resource utilization, usability and acceptability (Scarborough, Bailey & Pounds, 2005).

The biggest disadvantage of HFACS is its post-accident applicability. However, it is possible to turn this disadvantage into advantage by applying HFACS to incidents which is not resulted an accident. This will be more proactive.

Result

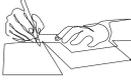
Each of the aforementioned models has guided accident research throughout history. It would be useful to show in the form of timelines for a better understanding of the historical development of these models. When the general assumptions of the accident research models and studies are examined, the development tree in Table 1 emerges;

Table 1. Historical development of widespread assumptions of accident models

Date	Widespread Assumptions
1890s	Accidents occur randomly and are inexplicable (Bortkiewicz 1898).
1920s	The accident is a single event, so the accident has only one reason (Greenwood & Woods, 1919), (IFRB, 1920), (Newbold, 1926).
1930s	Accidents occurs in the form of a chain of events, but there is only one reason (Heinrich, 1931), (Johnson, 1946).
1950s	Accident is a person's crime, but internal and external factors affect this person. (Kerr, 1950), (Cresswell & Froggatt, 1963).
1970s	Accidents occur as a chain of events, management is the first link in this chain (Weaver, 1971), (Johnson, 1975), (Bird & Loftus, 1976), (Adams, 1976), (Bird & Germain, 1985).
1990s	Accidents have multiple latent and active causes (Reason, 1997).
2000s	Accidents are complex events (Rasmussen, 1997), (Reason, 2000), (Dekker, 2001), (Reason, 2003), (Shappell & Wiegmann, 2001), (Leveson, 2004), (Dekker, 2005).

As seen in Table 1, from the early 1900s to the 1950s, simple linear, cognitive, and adopting individual perspectives models were widely used. Multidimensional models that complex, nonlinear and adopt different approaches (system, organization, aviation medicine, psychosocial, etc.) have been used since the early 2000s in the early 2000s for accident analysis and prevention.

The idea of accident investigation has been developed from the idea that accidents occur randomly to the idea that accidents are complex events need to be analyzed adopting multi-perspectives. This development shows us where the

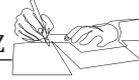


level of safety in aviation has reached its current level. This, in turn, gives clues to accident researchers about the level of future safety.

It should not be forgotten that the laws of aviation have been written in blood, so many accidents have brought a novelty to the history of aviation. It is necessary to analyze the previous accident and take necessary measures in order to reveal the innovations in aviation before the accident. When the causes of accidents are examined in recent years, the focus is on human factors. Therefore, in order to prevent accidents, more studies need to be done and new models need to be developed for the classification and analysis of human factors in aviation. These models should adopt a proactive and predictive approach to accident investigations and enable safety estimates.

Kaynakça

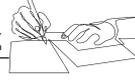
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**CHAPTER
21****CORPORATE SOCIAL
RESPONSIBILITY****Fatma YILMAZ¹****Introduction**

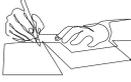
As a result of globalization, the environment in which businesses operate is rapidly changing. The emergence of new stakeholders and different laws leads to new expectations on enterprises, and in what ways social, environmental and economic impacts will be reflected on decision-making processes are being debated (Dahlsrud, 2008: 6). Therefore, businesses face new risks in the global environment. For this, they respond positively to the social expectations in society (Olajide, 2014: 14). The concept of social responsibility, where social benefit is essential, is defined as helping and supporting people without waiting for a response (Özkan et al., 2015: 89). Nowadays, this concept has become a combination of economic, legal, ethical and voluntary responsibilities by developing with the effect of modern approach. This combination, defined as corporate social responsibility, encompasses the policies and activities that businesses accept voluntarily, rather than their economic and legal policies (Kaplan, 2013: 81).

Enterprises are defined not only as economic and technical institutions, but also as social institutions. Nowadays, modern enterprises have ceased their role as appearing as the only ones producing, selling the goods they produced and making income as a result, being transformed into organizations that fulfill their social responsibilities by regulating their attitude towards society instead (Becerikli, 2000: 97-108). For businesses today, the concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR) is becoming a strategic issue and is seen as an important source of competitive advantage (Kramer and Porter, 2006: 80).

1. Concept of Corporate Social Responsibility

The concept of corporate social responsibility was first referred to in Howard Bowen's book named *Social Responsibilities of the Businessman*, published in 1953. According to Bowen, the social responsibilities of the businessman consisted of a common ground for some of the obligations. Among these obligations, were following desirable policies, making decisions and following the actions for the people (Aydede, 2007: 23). According to Bowen, businesses should not ignore their social goals while carrying out their commercial activities and they should also carry out activities that will provide social benefit. In other words, it will not only be enough for businesses to avoid the harm they may give to their stakeholders, but to be a good corporate citizen and develop practices to increase social welfare will be among their social obligations (Aşçıgil, 2011: 32-33). CSR is defined as the measures taken to protect and improve the welfare of society as a whole as well as the interests of the organization (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001: 226).

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Corporate social responsibility is defined as a comprehensive concept discussed in terms of many issues as environmental protection, human resources management, workplace health and safety, local people, suppliers and customers, etc. (Branco and Rodrigues, 2007: 5). For example, the pollution that occurs and is increasing with the deterioration of the natural structure of the air exposes all living things and the environment to serious threats that can extend to deaths (Cansaran, 2017: 81). For this reason, to install a filter to the chimneys is a requirement for businesses in terms of their social responsibilities.

The concept of social responsibility considers the business as an economic entity and treats it as a basic data that it must make a profit in order to survive. In addition, due to the increasing importance of enterprises and their being indispensable institutions for the society, they have to assume some responsibilities (Özkol, et al., 2005: 134).

2. The Importance of Corporate Social Responsibility

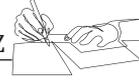
CSR is the responsibility of an organization to take decisions about its internal and external stakeholders, and to be accountable and honest towards them while applying them (Honey and Cinel, 2011: 48).

The reasons for the increasing importance of social responsibility can be listed as “development of professional management, transformation of companies into a multi-partnered situation, prevention of environmental pollution, the necessity for businesses to leave a good impression in the society, development of trade unions, depletion of natural resources, motivation of the personnel for efficiency, producing goods and services in accordance with the preferences and expectations of the society, rapid globalization and democratization process throughout the world (Eren, 2000: 111-118).

In order not to lag behind the competition, it has become imperative for company owners to show socially beneficial activities on education, culture, health and environment. It is seen as an indispensable situation that every institution who wants to achieve success and wants to realize the main objectives of the enterprise is to become aware of social responsibility (Argüden, 2007: 41).

The formation of a conscious consumer and investor profile, an increase in environmental awareness, the formation of international standards together with globalization, and inadequacy of the state in various times have increased the expectations of the information age society in the private sector. This forces institutions to change. The factors causing the increase of social responsibilities can be listed as follows (Kelgökmen, 2010: 307-308): Expectations of society, ethical necessity, a better environment, balance of responsibility and power, interest of shareholders and protection.

In order to make a difference in the society, enterprises must fulfill their duties and responsibilities against the society, protect the interests of their employees and the society and ensure the balance between them. In this case, the concept of CSR becomes even more important and reaches an undeniable position. With strategies prepared in line with the needs and expectations of the



social stakeholders, CSR enables the enterprises to be perceived as corporate citizens in their eyes, to increase its reputation and to be evaluated as a social institution (Becan , 2011: 17).

A result of an investigation in a study over the attitudes and behaviors of the enterprises towards corporate social responsibility activities revealed that many participants emphasize that large enterprises should perform corporate social responsibility activities and they should support some areas by giving back what they have taken from the consumers to the consumers themselves or the stakeholders in their environment. The corporate social responsibility activities carried out by the enterprises create a positive effect in the eyes of the consumers and thus increase the company's reputation and brand value. According to the participants, enterprises in corporate social responsibility activities are perceived as with higher brand image and more reliable businesses (Atakan and İşçiöğlü 2009: 43).

3. Corporate Social Responsibility Levels

Business social responsibility consists of four sub-responsibility areas, which are; economic responsibility, legal responsibility, ethical responsibility and voluntary responsibility.

Economic responsibility constitutes the basis for the realization of other categories of responsibility and therefore the significance is in this step. In this case, a hierarchy between the dimensions of corporate social responsibility is observed (Carroll, 1991: 42).

3.1. Economic Responsibilities

The primary social responsibility of the enterprises in the society is their economic responsibility by their nature. Profit is the main goal of enterprises and they aim to increase profits by selling products and offering services the society desire. Other business roles develop on the basis of this basic assumption, because without this basic responsibility other elements remain meaningless (Carroll , 1979: 500).

Maximizing the profits of the enterprises, increasing their profitability, providing a strong competitive position and providing continuity are among their basic economic responsibilities (Vural and Coşkun, 2011: 72).

Elements of economic responsibilities are (Carroll , 1991: 40-41):

- To increase the return on each share for the enterprises,
- To make maximum profit,
- To increase the competitiveness of the enterprise,
- To reach a high level of operational efficiency,
- To make profit in order to become a successful business.

The essence of economic responsibility is to be profitable for shareholders,



to create good employment opportunities for employees, and to produce quality products/services for customers and it includes at the same time the research of new sources, supporting technological development and innovation issues (Carroll, 1979: 500).

3.2. Legal Responsibilities

The existence, survival and profitability of an enterprise is possible with the realization of legal responsibilities. If enterprises do not comply with the law, they may be subject to penalties, their profitability may be effected, or the operation of businesses may be damaged (Branco and Rodrigues, 2007:11). Laws that companies must comply with can be categorised into the ones that regulate competition, that protect the consumer, that protect the environment and that are on equality and security and on shareholders (Özgener, 2004: 177).

To provide accurate reporting on the performance of the enterprise, to assure that the products are produced in accordance with the law, to act equally and to comply with environmental norms are covered by the legal responsibility issue. For the investors, it is important that the business is reported realistically in terms of performance, that the products are manufactured in accordance with legal standards for customers, that employees are treated equally when determining wages and it is also important for other public stakeholders to comply with all universal laws and regulations (Cingöz and Akdoğan, 2012: 336).

Legal liability components are as follows (Carroll, 1991: 41):

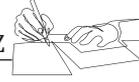
- To act in accordance with the state and the laws and to comply with legal and institutional regulations,
- To be a corporate citizen who acts in accordance with the laws,
- To fulfill its legal obligations properly and in the desired time in order to be a successful organization,
- To be able to produce products or services to meet minimum legal requirements.

To act in compliance with the laws and regulations set by the legal institutions (Özkol, 2005: 136).

3.3. Ethical (Moral) Responsibilities

Ethical responsibility refers to meeting the expectations of enterprises that are not regulated by the laws of law, in other words, non-written standards, norms, and indirectly earned values from society (Branco and Rodrigues, 2007: 9). Ethical responsibility, without harming the human and environment, taking into account the work ethic to carry out its activities; it means making the right, moral and just (Gürol vd., 2010: 140).

Moral responsibilities are responsibilities that are not included in the law and that involve the right and fair behavior that the community expects from businesses. Perceptions of social stakeholder groups, such as consumers, employees, shareholders, on rights and justice; it constitutes the content of moral responsibilities (Özdemir, 2009: 59).



Ethical responsibilities aim to reveal the ethical, right and equitable aspects of enterprises. These responsibilities include non-written activities within the law and are the responsibilities that are expected to be fulfilled by the community. Respect for people, not harming the society can be given as examples of these responsibilities (Jamali, 2008: 215).

Elements of ethical responsibility are as follows (Carroll, 1991: 41-42):

- To behave in accordance with social values and as required by ethical rules,
- To be aware of the new and evolving rules in social life and to respect these rules,
- Avoiding unethical rules that may prevent the enterprise from achieving its objectives,
- In addition to being productive and ethical, compliance with legal regulations.

Moral responsibility is the responsibility of obeying social rules and not harming the individuals who make up the society. It also includes respecting the rules of honesty and good conduct which are not legally stated, but which the members of the society meet (Carroll, 1991: 41).

3.4. Voluntary Responsibility

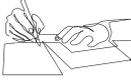
The basic assumption of voluntary responsibility is that businesses and society are intertwined (Jamali, 2008: 215). When businesses take part in voluntary activities, the society appreciates and feels high commitment to them (Rim et al., 2016: 3214). The main difference between voluntary responsibilities and ethical responsibilities is that the voluntary responsibility does not include the ethical or moral sense. These responsibilities mean direct or indirect contributions of the organization to society. A business that fulfills its voluntary responsibilities should increase the level of social welfare as a good corporate citizen, contribute to its environment, improve the quality of life and meet the expectations of the society. The society can expect enterprises to participate in programs that will increase the well-being of people, or to allocate money, facility or employee's time in such a way as to serve this purpose; Although these activities are continuously expected by the community, voluntary responsibilities by businesses are voluntary and self-propelled actions (Carroll, 1991: 42).

In the category of voluntary responsibilities, there are activities that strengthen the goodwill that the company creates in the society or helps it be perceived as a good citizen in the social environment in which the business is located. The allocation of some of the resources of the enterprises to educational, artistic and social projects indicates such a responsibility (Lantos, 2001: 608). Elements of this responsibility (Carroll, 1991: 42-43):

- Demonstrate appropriate behaviors to the charitable and philanthropic business image expected by the society,

Supporting artistic and educational activities,

- To support the voluntary social activities of the employees and managers,
- Striving to increase social welfare while supporting social activities.



Voluntary Responsibility (becoming a good company citizen, doing voluntary activities, creating resources for the community, improving the quality of life); Moral Responsibility (acting right, honest, full and open, fair, avoiding harm); Legal Liability (act according to the laws and rules, play by the rules of the game); It consists of four categories: Economic Responsibility (profit-making, being the leader of the sector). The economic one of these responsibilities is the mainstay of others. Voluntary (discretionary) responsibility is more related to freedom of participation and individual choice and it has no legal obligation (Carroll, 1991: 39-48).

4. Corporate Social Responsibility Areas

4.1. Corporate Social Responsibility Areas

4.1.1. Social Responsibility Against Employees

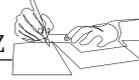
It would not be a right approach to say that the only dimension that satisfied the employees is wages. With the changing social structure, the expectations of the employees from the institutions have changed. It is observed that the institutions offering flexible rights and working hours to their employees who organize their organizations and trainings in order to motivate their employees as a machine, are in very valuable places in the market (Sabuncuoğlu, 2011: 129). The management approach, which now considers the responsibilities as a cost to the employee, has started to adopt a human-based competitive strategy. In case of violation of social responsibilities, the enterprises in question may face economic and social sanctions such as high compensation, withdrawal of public support and loss of market (Becan, 2011: 21).

The social responsibilities of the enterprises towards their employees can be listed as follows (Gülmez, 2008: 142):

- To ensure that new personnel who have entered the organization are accustomed to training and work,
- Testing the suitability of the employees with their demographic characteristics,
- To determine the appropriate field of activity for the employees to work,
- To make regulations on occupational health and safety in the workplace,
- To determine the level of acceptable and equal wages,
- Giving information about the business to the employees,
- To inform the employees about the policy, vision and mission of the company,
- Diversifying social rights and activities for the employee,
- To determine the professional training and rules of the employees,
- To provide policies that support the social life of employees.

4.1.2. Social Responsibility Against Shareholders and Shareholders

The social responsibilities of enterprises against capital owners can be listed as follows (Top and Öner, 2012: 98):



- The members of the organization operate in accordance with the objectives of the owners,
- The members of the organization operate with effective performance values in favor of the enterprise and shareholder,
- The organization's members act within the framework of professional ethical principles.

The benefits of corporate social responsibility to shareholders are as follows (Aktan and Börü, 2007: 30); to facilitate the increase of investments in all company activities to shareholders and to provide easy funding to social responsibility investment projects.

4.1.3. Social Responsibility Against Managers

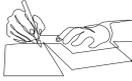
Businesses have many benefits such as fulfilling their social responsibilities towards their managers, honoring them for the managers who are internal stakeholders, putting forward creative ideas and practices, acting in accordance with new management approaches and feeling more awareness about ethical issues (Aktan, 2007: 30). the benefits to be given by managers (Aktan and Börü, 2007: 30); to create human resources policies that will increase motivation, to provide more awareness on ethical issues, to give more confidence to employees with ethical tendencies, to give an opportunity to act in accordance with trends, to enable employees to adopt and internalize their goals in the enterprise.

4.2. Corporate Social Responsibility Areas

4.2.1. Social Responsibility Against Society and the Environment

Consumers' expectations for the prevention of increasing environmental pollution have led to the companies becoming more sensitive to environmental pollution at all stages of their activities from production processes to after sales (Kleiner 1991: 39). One of the main responsibilities of the enterprises is to observe the social needs and values and to take them into consideration. In this context, it is necessary to increase the social added value and to provide the opportunity to live in the best way by providing benefits to the society in which it operates. In this respect, responsibility towards society is a comprehensive responsibility compared to other areas of responsibility. (Becan, 2011: 21). For example; The problem of water pollution is an important factor for human and environmental health and therefore it is a fact that all enterprises are responsible for the formation of water pollution (Cansaran, 2018: 160). The fulfillment of the responsibilities towards the society contributes to the economic situation of the business as it strengthens the image of the enterprise and increases its reputation. Therefore, social attitudes and behaviors affect the success and failure of the enterprise. Society and business are interactive systems, so they need each other. Businesses are an important part of the society and today the society is very interested in the activities, strategies and desires of the enterprises (Ay and Ecevit, 2005: 246).

The benefits of corporate social responsibility to society (Aktan and Börü,



2007: 30); ensuring the promotion of human rights; investing in education, health and culture; preventing the exploitation of female and child labor; and contributing to sustainability.

The benefits of corporate social responsibility to the environment are as follows; reduction of environmental pollution is provided, protection of cultural heritage is created, protection of vegetation, animal breed is ensured, cleaner production processes are done, energy saving is provided, recycling is created, eco efficiency is ensured and environmental technology is used (Aktan and Börü, 2007: 30). For this, an effective environmental awareness should be established. Environmental consciousness is the fact that human beings have perceived environmental problems, put their efforts to solve the problems and realized their responsibility to the environment. In order to reach this maturity, one should not abandon the approach of the human being to the center in the view of the environment and should not allow the destruction of the environment for its own comfort (Cansaran, 2015: 70).

4.2.2. Social Responsibility Against Customers (Consumers)

Consumers in all sectors are able to sustain their presence in the market and reach their goals. Therefore, in addition to offering quality products and services, anticipating and responding to all kinds of needs, expectations and desires of consumers plays an important role as a requirement of its responsibility to consumers. Today, consumers can influence many decisions of companies through the media and the organizations they have established. In this context, consumerism has become a social and economic movement to take into consideration the needs and values of consumers. This situation can be expressed as a new concept called consumer rights (Becan, 2011: 20-21).

The benefits of corporate social responsibility to customers (Aktan and Börü, 2007: 30); honest price and quality products are provided, information is provided in the procurement process, the definition and fulfillment of the demands are created, the process of taking into account the customer's problems and resolution process is implemented and organized movement is provided.

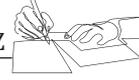
4.2.3. Social Responsibility Against Competitors

The effects of the market conditions in the relations with competitors is quite high, especially unfair competition, opponents of the competition, price agreements, confidential information leakage, competing enterprises to harm the nature or products that harm the health of human beings, such as behavior should not do according to the social responsibilities of enterprises (Torlak, 2003: 52).

Benefits of corporate social responsibility to competitors (Aktan and Börü, 2007: 30); information and benchmarking is done and fair competition is ensured to be made of honest advertising.

4.2.4. Social Responsibility Against the State

Businesses against the state; to comply with the law, with a proper income tax on time and in full, to produce goods and services in the fields of activity deter-



mined by the law, to provide foreign exchange savings, to make transactions to increase employment, to support the economic, political and social goals of the state has social responsibilities (Aktepe, 2004: 62).

The benefits of corporate social responsibility to the state (Aktan and Börü, 2007: 30), law enforcement, fight against corruption, investment in public spaces, support for economic and social problems, and employment are also created.

4.2.5. Social Responsibility Against Suppliers

The suppliers are considered as institutions that provide all kinds of goods and services to institutions, as well as providing schools, money and credit institutions, and institutions that provide insurance services (Aktan and Börü, 2007: 16). Businesses should provide the necessary support in terms of the quality of their suppliers, and they should also ensure that their suppliers fulfill their social obligations towards all their stakeholders. The enterprise should make necessary reminders and warnings to its suppliers in this regard, otherwise they should separate from their position as a supplier (Torlak, 2003: 52). The impacts of suppliers on the environment, the health and safety issues of the supplier products, the suppliers' procurement of raw materials through ethical means, the lack of child labor by the suppliers or the avoidance of practices that would violate human rights fall within the scope of social responsibility practices for the suppliers. One of the factors that will strengthen the reputation of the enterprise in the global market and increase its economic performance is that its suppliers are highly committed to corporate social responsibility standards. Otherwise, if the suppliers do not comply with their corporate social responsibilities, the corporate image of the enterprise will be harmed and this will adversely affect the economic performance (Başar, 2014: 63).

It is the responsibility of the suppliers not to spend the time of the payments to the suppliers, to display an approach based on trust and loyalty and to take responsibility for the suppliers (Bayraktaroğlu et al., 2009: 14).

The benefits of corporate social responsibility to suppliers (Aktan and Börü, 2007: 30); honesty is created in terms of pricing and payment conditions, financial support will be provided to suppliers who will support their activities.

5. Social Responsibility Approaches

There are notable differences between the classical understanding and modern understanding in terms of approaches and practices. In classic view, profitability, economic growth, shareholders' welfare, productivity, marketing policies and strategies to increase consumption, etc. based on objectives. In modern view; on the contrary, it is observed that strategies based on the quality of life of the stakeholders, such as sustainability, production of goods and services compatible with the environment, proper use and protection of environmental resources, and awareness of the consumer in marketing policies have gained weight (Tokgöz & Önce, 2009: 253-256).



5.1. Classical Social Responsibility Approach

The classic dimension of social responsibility is related to the necessity of the entrepreneurs to follow the desired paths in terms of the values and aims of the society, to make decisions in this direction, to implement them and to be obliged to manage the company Sosial. Milton Friedman is a prominent economist who is the leading advocate of organizational social responsibility (Halıcı, 2011: 5).

Milton Friedman is seen as the most important representative of the classic social responsibility approach, and according to Friedman, the only and most important goal of the institutions is their profit. Lulu Institutions have one social responsibility; he also maximizes the profit of the institution (Steel, 2007: 76).

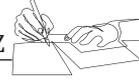
Those who approach the corporate social responsibility from a classical point of view argue that the enterprise should be used in domestic finance without distributing the profit to increase its revenues. In this way, new investments, ie new jobs will be created to increase the economic well-being of the society and new goods will be produced. Even this is the greatest contribution of the institutions that have the purpose of making a profit to the society. If institutions invest their current income in a number of social activities (for example, filter-out factory chimneys, build schools, etc.) for CSR, a decrease in their investments in projects that will create a new business area or increases in the prices of products offered to consumers are inevitable. CSR activities will reduce the income of the enterprise and thus adversely affect the contribution of the organization to the economy. As a result, there will still be society that is hurt (Şahin, 1984: 56).

5.2. Modern Social Responsibility Approach

The modern social responsibility approach has emerged as a social responsibility approach based on the environment due to some deficiencies of the social responsibility concept in its classical approach. It is believed that only profit-oriented institutions will cause permanent damages to both institutions and society in the long term and it is emphasized that the problems of society should be adopted as the problems of the institution by recognizing the social values (Top and Öner, 2008: 101).

According to the modern corporate social responsibility concept, businesses should generate profit by providing goods and services in accordance with the laws and commercial rules, and should be sensitive to the natural and social environment they are in, and strive to solve their problems. It should also strive to increase the quality of life and the welfare of the general population (Alnaçık et al., 2011: 84). According to the modern social responsibility approach; institutions should shape their structures with a sense of social responsibility and be aware of their responsibilities towards their environment. The proponents of this view are Elton Mayo, Peter Drucker, Adolph Berle, J. M. Keynes, J.R. Schermerhorn thinkers and thinkers install social responsibility responsibilities (Çelik, 2007: 77).

Although the modern economic view accepts the primary social responsibility of the enterprises as maximizing their profits as in the classical economic ap-



proach, in addition to the ideas of preserving and improving the social welfare in the development phases of social responsibility, (Top and Öner, 2008: 10).

6. Effects of Corporate Social Responsibility

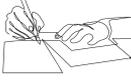
Businesses with a corporate social responsibility understanding, by offering quality products and services, taking into account human and environmental activities, attracts qualified employees more easily. The enterprises increase the motivation, efficiency and morale of the employees with the corporate social responsibility activities they implement and reduce the employee turnover rate. Through corporate social responsibility, businesses can develop constructive relations with their immediate environment, solve potential problems and create new opportunities (Honey and Cinel, 2011: 54-55). The socially responsible behavior of the enterprises affects the preferences of the consumers and affects the image of the enterprises and the motivation of their employees positively (Kağnıcıoğlu, 2009: 126).

Corporate social responsibility activities also enhance trust and relationships with stakeholders. Firms that fulfill their social responsibility face fewer labor issues, fewer complaints from the community and fewer environmental concerns. In addition, businesses, investors, bankers and government officials have the opportunity to improve their relationship with stakeholders (Stuebs and Sun, 2011: 35).

Companies that take corporate social responsibility seriously can achieve significant gains (Argüden, 2002: 11-12): Brand values and hence market values are increasing. It is possible to attract, motivate and retain more qualified personnel. Corporate learning and creativity potentials are increasing. Share values may increase and borrowing costs may decrease. Significant advantages are achieved in entering new markets and providing customer loyalty. Productivity, productivity and quality increases are experienced. Risk management is becoming more effective. The society and the regulators are given importance to the company's opinion.

Successful companies gain social credibility not only by their products and services but also by their contributions to society and thus increase the value of their institutions. In this context, the benefits of corporate social responsibility to companies are listed as follows (Sabeh et al., 2000: 211):

- Companies' brand values and market values increase.
- It is possible to attract, motivate and keep more qualified personnel.
- Corporate learning and creativity potential increases
- Introduces new markets and offers significant opportunities for customer loyalty.
- Better quality goods and services.
- Risk management becomes more effective.
- Ensures that society and constituents attach importance to the views of the company.



RESULT

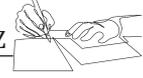
The social responsibility projects, in which enterprises start to realize one after the other, have reached very high levels. Nowadays, expenditures on this area are expressed as million dollar items in the balance sheets of enterprises. The increasing importance given to the social responsibility activities of the institutions such as the World Bank, OECD and IMF and the fact that it is mentioned in almost every report increase the investments of the companies in this field (Kelgökmen, 2010: 315). The social responsibility phenomenon, which has become increasingly important nowadays, imposes important responsibilities on both individuals and institutions. The social responsibility and the service to the society, which are among the expectations of today's societies from institutions and organizations, emerges as a management function which is emphasized in both private institutions and public institutions. Social responsibility and service to society are now becoming a philosophy for institutions.

Businesses learn to live together with society, create a balance between profit and social responsibilities are considered as social value judgments of today. Nowadays, enterprises have to learn to be intertwined with society and create a balance between profit and social responsibilities. In order for businesses to become stronger, it is not only necessary to develop technology, to enter into partnership agreement, to invest in institutional investments, to develop capacity, but also to integrate with society (Özkoç, 2005: 144).

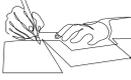
Şirketler açısından KSS anlayışı, günümüzde geçmiş yıllara oranla daha fazla stratejik önem taşımaktadır. Stratejik olarak düşünüldüğünde, kurumsal sosyal sorumluluk uygulamalarının işletme politikaları ve uygulamaları ile entegre edilmesi halinde somut ve anlamlı sonuçlar yaratacağına kanaat getirilmiştir (Gürol vd., 2010: 152).

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OA BRIEF SURVEY ON THE CREDIT RATING DISTRIBUTION

Selma ÖNER,¹ Hakan ÖNER²

Introduction

Investors, who decide to invest in a country or a company, consider the following two key points:

- the name value of the country or company
- credit ratings

If the name of a company is well known, it is an important criterion for investing in that company. But it is not enough alone. Enron's bankruptcy is one of the best examples of this situation. Enron was one of the most well known companies in the United States and Enron's bankruptcy has caused lots of trouble. Therefore, while making a decision to invest in a company or country, it should not be limited to the name value only, and also the financial status of companies or countries should be evaluated by an independent third eye (Hasbi, 2012, 6). These impartial evaluations are carried out by credit rating agencies.

The Big Three

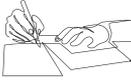
Credit rating agencies are the companies that are completely independent and score credibility of the debtors such as companies and states (Akkaya and Erhan Demireli, 2010, 321). The ratings of three credit rating agencies, which take an important place in today's world and which significantly affect the investment decisions of investors in international markets, are closely and widely monitored. These credit rating agencies, called the Big Three, are *Moody's*, *Standard & Poors (S&P)*, and *Fitch* (Jakel, 2011, 3).

Moody's, the rating company founded by *John Moody* who analyzed rail investments in 1909, is the first company among these three important companies. *Moody's* was followed by the *Poor's Publishing Company* which was founded in 1916 and the *Standard Statistics Company* which was founded in 1922. Afterwards, these two companies have merged under the name of *Standard & Poor's (S&P)*. Finally, the third company that started to operate in this field in 1924 was *Fitch Publishing Company of New York* (Karasioğlu and Demir, 1998, 45-52; Kılıçaslan and Giter, 2016, 61).

The total market share of *Standart & Poor's*, *Moody's* and *Fitch* companies is between 50% and 55%. The credit ratings used in the Basel II agreement also belong to the *Standard & Poors* (Jakel, 2011, 4).

1

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Credit Ratings

Table 1 shows the credit ratings of the three major credit rating agencies for companies and countries. Credit ratings are ranked from AAA, which is the highest score, to D which is the lowest score. The credit ratings from AAA to BBB are the investment grade, while the credit ratings between BB and D are called risky levels (the speculative grade) (Fitch Ratings, 2018).

Table 1: Credit Ratings of the Big Three

	Standard and Poor's	Moody's	Fitch	
High Grade	AAA	Aaa	AAA	It shows a very strong capacity in principal and interest payments, and is the highest rating that can be given.
	AA	Aa	AA	This rating is given to high-quality bonds, and indicates a strong capacity in principal and interest payments.
Average Grade	A	A	A	These bonds have many favorable investment positions and indicate a need to be cautious against adverse economic changes.
	BBB	Baa	BBB	Bonds with this note have an appropriate capacity in principal and interest payments. However, the negative economic conditions indicate that the risk of delay in payments should be taken into account.
Speculative Grade	BB	Ba	BB	It shows that bonds have only moderate protection in principal and interest payments.
	B	B	B	Generally weak bonds. It indicates a high risk in repayments.
Risky Grade	CCC	Caa	CCC	Weak quality bonds. The risk is high.
	CC	Ca	CC	Indicates a very high risk.
	-	C	-	The lowest bond quality. Indicates that the risk that investors undertake will be very high.
	C	-	C	Indicates that repayments of issued bonds cannot be made.
	D	-	DDD	The worst bond quality. Indicates that repayments are impossible.
	-	-	DD	
	-	-	D	

Source: Norbert Gaillard "Fitch, Moody's and S&P's Sovereign Ratings and EMBI Global Spreads: Lessons from 1993-2007".

Standard & Poor's diversifies ratings by adding a (+) or (-) sign on credit ratings between AA and CCC in the credit rating system. For example, a new intermediate credit rating is issued as A+ by adding (+) to the right of the A credit rating. The A+ credit rating indicates that the rating of that country is slightly



higher than the A credit rating, although it is below the AA credit rating. Likewise, the A- credit rating is obtained by adding (-) to the right of the A credit rating, and indicates that the rating of that country is slightly higher than the BBB credit rating, although it is below the A credit rating (Tutar et al., 2011, 6).

On the other hand, Moody's diversifies ratings by using numerical symbols such as 1, 2, 3 in every credit rating group from Aa to B. In terms of debt repayment capacity, symbol 1 represents the best countries in the credit rating group, while symbol 2 represents the intermediate level countries and symbol 3 represents the weakest countries (Tutar et al., 2011, 8).

In addition to the ratings that credit rating companies have given, they also indicate the credit monitoring statuses of the countries or companies that they have given credit rating as *positive*, *negative* or *neutral*. Thus, they provide an opportunity of making an estimate related to that the credit rating of a country or company may change or the same credit rating can be maintained in the future.

Credit rating companies consider two points while evaluating and scoring companies or countries. The first one of them is the economic situation and risks of the company or country, and the second one is the political risks of the company or the country.

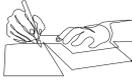
Economic and political risks included in the rating criteria of countries can be listed as follows (Karasioğlu ve Demir, 1998, 45-52):

➤ Economic Risks:

- Regularity of cash flow in terms of foreign exchange
- Debts ratios
- Export growth
- Openness of the economy
- Current account balance
- The ratio of short-term capital flows to reserves
- The status, development and growth rate of reserves
- Total savings
- Public sector deficit
- Investments and inflation

➤ Political Risks:

- The electoral system and periods
- Foreign policy developments, the extent to which democracy was established
- Change of the political leader or agenda
- Structure of the coalitions
- Situation of the opposition parties
- The degree of Central Bank autonomy



On the other hand, the issues considered in the credit rating process can be listed as follows:³

- Organizational structures of the capital market institutions
- Ability of the company to meet financial obligations
- Medium-term opportunities and risks of the company
- Competitiveness, production capacity, distribution system and marketing network of the company
- Financial management and accounting policies of the company
- Changes in the administrative and capital structure, changes in investments, and technological innovations that will affect the future of the company

The credit ratings issued by credit rating companies are also indicators of the credit default risk. Table 2 includes the results of the study of Chaplin and these results indicate that the probability of a country or company to default on its credit within a year can be associated with the credit rating of that country or company (Chaplin, 2010, 21).

According to the study, the probability of a country or company with a credit rating of AAA to go into default within a year is 0%. Likewise, the probability of a country with a credit rating of BB, such as Turkey, to go into default within a year is 1,29%.

Table 2: Credit Rating and Credit Default Risk

Credit Ratings	Credit Default Risk
AAA	0,00 %
AA	0,01 %
A	0,05 %
BBB	0,27 %
BB	1,29 %
B	6,71 %
CCC	28,26 %
D	100 %

Source: Geoff Chaplin, "Credit Derivatives: Trading, Investing, and Risk Management".

The changes of the country credit ratings within a year has also been the subject of a study. In this study of Moody's, 1983-2016 period was examined and the average rates of change of the country credit ratings within a year were calculated. These rates are shown in Table 3. According to the study, a country with a credit rating of Aaa was able to maintain this rating by 96,70% within a year. Likewise, countries with a credit rating of Baa were able to maintain the same rating by 88,65% within a year, and also the credit ratings of 6,14% of these countries drifted upward, while the credit ratings of 4,68% of these countries drifted downward within a year. Countries with credit ratings between Caa and C were able to maintain the same ratings by 68,79% within a year, and also the credit ratings of 17,15% of these countries drifted upward, while the credit rat-



ings of 13,99% of these countries drifted downward and the countries went into default within a year.

Table 3: Average 12-Month Rating Migration Rates, 1983-2016 - Countries (%)

		New Rating							
		Aaa	Aa	A	Baa	Ba	B	Caa-C	D
Old Rating	Aaa	96,70	3,14	0,03	0,09	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
	Aa	3,45	92,68	2,35	0,79	0,12	0,00	0,00	0,00
	A	0,00	4,02	91,30	3,37	1,24	0,07	0,00	0,00
	Baa	0,00	0,00	6,14	88,65	4,68	0,48	0,04	0,00
	Ba	0,00	0,00	0,00	7,88	84,59	6,58	0,27	0,68
	B	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	4,42	88,61	3,77	3,19
	Caa-C	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,12	17,15	68,79	13,99

Source: Moody's Investors Services, "Sovereign Default and Recovery Rates, 1983-2016".

One of the other variables that calculated in the same study of Moody's was the average rates of change of the corporate credit ratings within a year. These rates are shown in Table 4. According to the study, a corporate with a credit rating of Aaa was able to maintain this rating by 86,70% within a year. Likewise, corporates with a credit rating of Baa were able to maintain the same rating by 85,15% within a year, and also the credit ratings of 4,18% of these corporates drifted upward, while the credit ratings of 3,90% of these corporates drifted downward within a year. Corporates with credit ratings between Caa and C were able to maintain the same ratings by 68,46% within a year, and also the credit ratings of 6,32% of these corporates drifted upward, while the credit ratings of 24,70% of these corporates drifted downward and the corporates went into default within a year.

Table 4: Average 12-Month Rating Migration Rates, 1983-2016 - Corporates (%)

		New Rating							
		Aaa	Aa	A	Baa	Ba	B	Caa-C	D
Old Rating	Aaa	86,7	8,45	0,46	0,09	0,03	0,00	0,00	4,27
	Aa	0,76	84,73	8,62	0,46	0,06	0,04	0,02	5,31
	A	0,05	2,51	86,06	85,15	3,90	0,77	0,20	5,10
	Baa	0,03	0,14	4,18	85,15	3,90	0,77	0,20	5,62
	Ba	0,01	0,04	0,45	6,19	75,16	7,61	0,89	9,67
	B	0,01	0,03	0,15	0,45	4,75	73,26	7,28	14,08
	Caa-C	0,00	0,01	0,03	0,08	0,39	6,32	68,46	24,70

Source: Moody's Investors Services, "Sovereign Default and Recovery Rates, 1983-2016".

When Table 3 is compared with Table 4, it is seen that the rates of corporate credit ratings for remaining same within a year are lower than the rates of country credit ratings for remaining same within a year. In other words, it can be said that corporate credit ratings exhibit more frequent changes compared with the country credit ratings.



The cumulative distribution of the country credit ratings during the 1983-2016 period is another significant data obtained from the study of Moody's. This distribution is shown in Table 5.

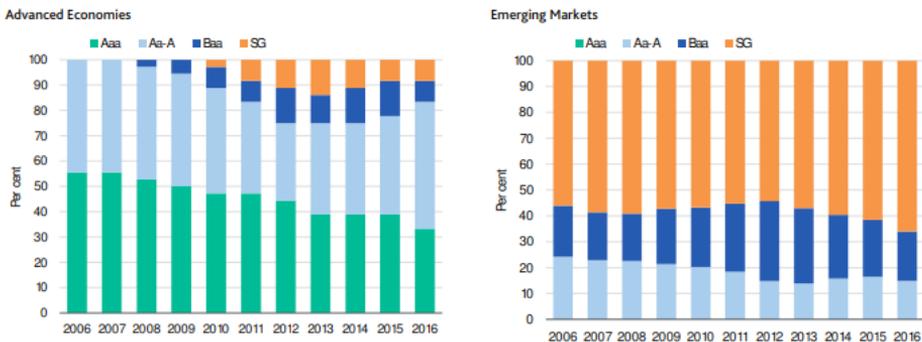
Table 5: Cumulative Distribution of The Country Credit Ratings by Years (%)

	1983	1990	2000	2005	2010	2016
Aaa	75	40	14	20	15	9
Aa	25	30	14	5	15	12
A	0	17	13	24	13	13
Baa	0	3	21	4	19	16
Ba	0	7	17	15	16	12
B	0	3	16	16	22	31
Caa-C	0	0	5	5	1	7
Investment Grade	100	90	62	64	61	50
Speculative Grade	0	10	38	36	39	50

Source: Moody's Investors Services, "Sovereign Default and Recovery Rates, 1983-2016".

According to Table 5, 75% of the countries whose credit ratings were issued by Moody's had the credit rating of Aaa, and 25% of them had the credit rating of Aa in 1983. Therefore, 100% of the countries were in the investment-grade category. Since in 1983 Moody's did not issued credit ratings for developing countries as they did not have a place in the borrowing market in that year, all of these countries were developed countries. However, developing countries started to get into the borrowing market as a result of the increasing borrowing opportunities in the international markets in the early 1990s. Thus, a need of issuing the credit ratings of developing countries arised. Consequently, as Moody's has started to issue the credit ratings of developing countries after 1990s, the number of speculative-grade countries has increased, and reached 50% of total by the year 2016.

Table 6: Credit Rating Distribution of Sovereign Issuers and the Global Financial Cris



Source: Moody's Investors Services, "Sovereign Default and Recovery Rates, 1983-2016".



Finally, the credit rating distribution of sovereign issuers after the 2008 global financial crisis is another notable data obtained from the study of Moody's. This distribution is shown in Table 6. Moody's has stated that credit quality improved and many sovereign credit ratings drifted upward between 1999 and 2007. The share of sovereign issuers with the credit rating of AAA to the credit rating of A reached to about 50% by the end of 2007 from less than 40% in 1999. However, this trend was reversed during the 2008 global financial crisis. The global crisis also changed the distribution within the investment-grade category. The share of sovereign issuers with a credit rating of AA increased in 2009, because of both downgrades from AAA and upgrades of certain emerging market economies, such as Chile and China. Likewise, the share of sovereign issuers with a credit rating of Baa increased in 2011 and 2012, because of further downgrades of sovereign issuers in the advanced economies.

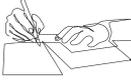
On the other hand, the share of non-investment-grade issuers in the emerging markets stayed relatively stable in the first few years after the 2008 financial crisis. However, this share has shown a steadily increasing trend since 2012 because of both credit deteriorations and new additions of lowly-rated sovereign issuers.

The share of non-investment-grade emerging economies has also increased as a result of the assignment of 25 new ratings to emerging economies since the end of 2009. Although the credit ratings of a number of emerging market countries have drifted upward after the financial crisis, the credit ratings of four emerging market countries (Turkey [Ba1 negative], Azerbaijan [Ba1 negative], Brazil [Ba2 stable], and Bahrain [Ba2 negative]) were downgraded back to the non-investment-grade during 2016. Only 14 emerging market countries, five of which are in the Middle East, have the credit rating of A or higher, and this number represents 15% of rated emerging economies. Conversely, 83% of the advanced economies have the credit rating of A or higher (Moody's, 2016).

Conclusion

The bankruptcy of Enron which was one of the most well known companies in the United States has caused lots of trouble. Afterwards, the bankruptcy of Lehman Brothers has worsen the conditions and triggered 2008 global financial crisis. Thus, the importance of evaluating the financial status of the companies or countries by an impartial organization has arised. These impartial evaluations are carried out by credit rating agencies which are the companies that are completely independent and score credibility of the debtors such as companies and states. Ratings of three credit rating agencies, which are Standard & Poor's (S&P), Moody's and Fitch and called the Big Three, significantly affect the investment decisions of investors in international markets, and so are closely monitored. Their current market share is between 50% and 55%.

This study briefly explains the credit ratings of the Big Three, lists the risks and the issues considered in the credit rating process and presents a brief survey of the credit rating distribution. This survey indicates that during the 1983-2016 period, a country with a credit rating of Aaa was able to maintain this rating by



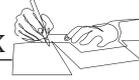
96,70% within a year, while countries with credit ratings between Caa and C were able to maintain the same ratings by only 68,79%. Likewise, a corporate with a credit rating of Aaa was able to maintain this rating by 86,70% within a year, while corporates with credit ratings between Caa and C were able to maintain the same ratings by only 68,46%. Also, according to the study, corporate credit ratings exhibit more frequent changes compared with the country credit ratings.

The cumulative distribution of the country credit ratings during the 1983-2016 period is another significant data obtained from the study of Moody's. Accordingly, as Moody's has started to issue the credit ratings of developing countries after 1990s, the number of speculative-grade countries has increased and reached 50% of total by the year 2016.

Finally, the credit rating distribution of sovereign issuers after the 2008 global financial crisis is another notable data obtained from the study of Moody's. According to the study, the global crisis has changed the distribution within the investment-grade category because of the downgrades of sovereign issuers in the advanced economies. On the other hand, the share of non-investment-grade issuers in the emerging markets has shown a steadily increasing trend since 2012 because of both credit deteriorations and new additions of lowly-rated sovereign issuers.

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A RESEARCH ON THE ADAPTATION OF FOOTBALL CLUBS TO THE FINANCIAL FAIR-PLAY CRITERIAS WITHIN THE SCOPE OF ACCOUNTING FRAUD TRIANGLE

Firat ALTINKAYNAK¹

INTRODUCTION

Football, (or “Soccer”, as it is called in certain parts of the world) has a long history behind that goes back till 3000 B.C’s. While the first forms of the game occurred in China, for war readiness purposes played by soldiers, football’s current form arose in England. Football has become a rapidly growing and commercializing industry all over the world, especially in Europe. Spreading all over Europe and then the world, football expanded its market share and gained a prominent place in liberal, globalized markets. The fact that football adopted by many societies as the most popular and watched sport has been one of the main reasons for the football economy to gain its current state.

The professional transition of football carried it away from the field by the integration with the other industries, and increasing commercial concerns might time by time, pave the way to an unethical growth of the industry worldwide. In its report titled “Money Laundering through the Football Sector”, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) revealed the defective and fraudulent aspect of the industry. In this report, it has been emphasized that the football sector has ceased being just an entertainment business, but in recent decades, it is transformed into a big-global industry. The growing market share of the football economy also triggers the growth of investments made into this sector. Increasing investments made this developing sector attractive to the criminal actors. In OECD’s report, along with the massive flow of money into the football sector, incidents such as fraud, corruption, money laundering, and tax evasion are being expressed in this sector (www.fatf-gafi.org). Football, with the support of the globalized economy and liberal policies, increased its portfolio by expanding its field of activity. The football economy, because it is overflowing out of the field, has required financial discipline so that, the European Association of Football Associations (UEFA), has brought rules and regulations to maintain the nature of football, and to ensure financial sustainability. The “Financial Fair-Play (FFP)” rules in these standards constitute the financial regulations of UEFA. In order to provide financial discipline in football clubs, UEFA has implemented the FFP-financial fair play rules to ensure the sustainability of football clubs since the 2013-2014 season. Within the scope of the regulation, a mandatory set of financial criteria has been determined to be abided by the football clubs, and a board has been assigned to observe the compliance criteria, and sanctions have been

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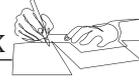
foreseen in case of violation of these criteria. In this context, even if the “FFP” only addresses the financial aspects, the main objective that intended by UEFA is “to provide the ethical order in sports by regulating the clubs financially”.

Many European football clubs cannot meet the FFP criteria and are subjected to punishments of UEFA every year. These sanctions cause the clubs to experience unexpected significant income losses. The clubs that undergo out-of-budget financial losses with the penalties have a shortage of financial liquidity, so clubs are taking a variety of precautions or applying for a new budget structure to prevent any further sanctions. All the above, reveals the necessity of re-reviewing the financial reports generated by the accounting systems of football clubs. The hypothesis of “fraud triangle”, which was first used by Joseph T. Wells and subsequently developed by Donald R. Cressey; is a hypothesis that reveals the likelihood of frauds or tries to explain the conditions that exist while frauds are happening. Being conducted within the scope of compliance with FFP criteria in football clubs, this study was carried out on the hypothesis of the “Fraud Triangle”. In this context, the possibility of manipulation of the clubs’ accounting practices to avoid the UEFA sanctions is examined based on the fraud triangle theory.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF FINANCIAL FAIR-PLAY

In order to obtain a license for a football club, UEFA has determined the criteria collected under four headings, that being, the sporting criteria, personnel and administrative criteria, legal criteria and financial criteria. In this context, the financial criteria is regulated under the name of “Financial Fair-Play”. In 2010 UEFA published the Financial Fair Play Regulations as a set of rules explaining the financial criteria that the European football clubs should meet, and the first applications started in 2011. The main objectives of the “Financial Fair Play” regulation are listed as follows (<http://www.uefa.org>):

- To improve the economic and financial capability of the clubs, increasing their transparency and credibility;
- To place the necessary importance on the protection of creditors and to ensure that clubs settle their liabilities with employees, social/tax authorities and other clubs punctually;
- To reduce the impact of inflation in the country to the financial structure of the club,
- To encourage clubs to operate on the basis of their own revenues;
- To further promote and continuously improve the standard of all aspects of football in Europe and to give continued priority to the training and care of young players in every club;
- To protect the long-term viability and sustainability of European club football;
- To introduce more discipline and rationality in club football finances;
- To create a strong financial structure to ensure the debts can be paid on time.



Following these purposes, the concepts that are important in FFP applications are as defined below:

Monitoring Process:

Reporting period T refers to the reporting phase at the end of the accounting period for the season in which football competitions start and ends, and concerning the term of the related accounting period varies like T + 1, T, T-1, T-2, T-3, and T-4.

Relevant incomes:

Determining what the relevant incomes are, regarding control of the “FFP” criteria is essential for financial structure. In this context, UEFA puts the relevant incomes as follows (TFF, 2011:22):

- Gate receipts (Should be recorded after discounts and taxes reduced)
- Sponsorship and advertising
- Broadcasting rights
- Commercial activities (licenced product sales etc.)
- Other operating income (UEFA and/or TFF solidarity and prize money, disposal of tangible fixed assets etc.)
- Profit on disposal of player registrations.
- Profit arising from financial operations.

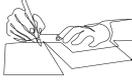
Relevant expenses:

As for relevant incomes, determining relevant expenses to control the “FFP” criteria is important for the financial structures of the clubs, moreover the related expenses put by UEFA as follows. (TFF, 2011:22):

- Cost of sales/materials
- Employee benefits expenses
- Other operating expenses
- Loss on disposal and amortisation/impairment of player registrations (and/or costs of acquiring player registrations)
- Finance costs and dividends
- Distribution of profit margins

Besides, non-monetary debits/charges, finance costs directly attributable to the construction and/or substantial modification of tangible fixed assets, expenditure on youth development activities, expenditure on community development activities, costs of leasehold improvement expenses of non-football operations not related to the club should be separated.

Break-Even Requirement: The case of when total income is more than the total expenses, is break-even surplus, whereas the opposite is more is break-even deficit. If an establishment has equal incomes and expenses accumulated at a



certain accounting period, this is called the break-even (B/E). In this context, using the difference between the total amount of incomes and expenses, the break-even deficit or break-even surplus is calculated by UEFA in the monitoring period (three reporting periods) as a rule. In the context of the Break-even deficit, UEFA has set the acceptable loss to 5 million Euros in a period and exempts the clubs which have incomes below 5m euros annually.

FINANCIAL FAIR-PLAY REGULATIONS AND SANCTIONS

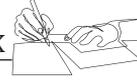
Football's growth by leaps and bounds, going far beyond the field, and integration with capital markets, reveals major problems in the financial and management structure of the clubs, herewith, this causes corruptions in football. As a result of rapid and uncontrolled economic growth, it leads to wrong borrowing, serious faults of management, substructure negligence, and therefore damages to the football industry. To prevent such negativity and to ensure the sustainability of football, eight years ago, UEFA, brought up some of the rules to the agenda and introduced sanctions. Collecting these rules under five main headings, the UEFA supervises these rules and regulations itself (<https://www.uefa.com/MultimediaFiles/Download/Tech/uefaorg/General>).

- Sporting Criteria: To ensure the integration of these players into the academy leagues by preparing the clubs youth teams to the top leagues.
- Infrastructure Criteria: These are; stadium for UEFA club competitions and availability of training facilities.
- Personnel and Administrative Criteria: To ensure that the football clubs employ qualified and trained personnel.
- Legal Criteria: Ensuring the football clubs are legislated correctly
- Financial Criteria: Ensuring the football clubs have transparent, realistic, and stronger financial structures that adopting optimum loan policies.

UEFA provides its financial criteria through regulations under the FFP heading. The FFP is examined under three sub-headings as general provisions, indicators, and final provisions.

As a fundamental requirement, the break-even requirement is that the income and expenses of a club are equal. It is necessary to ensure that the break-even results (income-expenses) are positive. The clubs with break-even deficit have an option of €5 million to cover this gap. This acceptable deviation is calculated separately for each monitoring period.

There are three indicator standards as indicator violations. In the event that clubs do not comply with these standards, UEFA is required to request a document with additional information and the clubs are subjected to a detailed audit. The first of these indicator violations is the business continuity. The independent auditor's report on the annual or interim financial statements offered should not include conditional or negative feedback on the continuity of the business. The second condition indicates that the club's equity could not be negative. Finally, the third condition is the standardization of overdue debts, which comprises the



employees of the clubs (players and administrative, technical, medical, security personnel, etc.) and other football clubs associated with the transfer activities.

Additional indicators are collected under two topics. Which are:

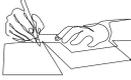
- The sum of payments, such as wages, salaries and premiums payable to all personnel periodically, should not exceed 70% of the total income of that period.
- The sum of the debt of a period should not exceed the total incomes of that period.

In case of failure to comply with these criteria, the Club Financial Control Panel, which is formed within UEFA, examines the compliance levels, and as a result of the assessments, a number of sanctions could be imposed to clubs by UEFA. The main sanctions can be counted as warnings, reprimands, fines, deduction of points, withholding of revenue from UEFA competition, prohibition to register new players for UEFA competitions, exclusion from UEFA competitions, restriction on the number of players that a club may register for UEFA competitions, financial limitations, tournament disqualifications, stripping off the former titles and prizes. On the other hand, it is also stated that if the clubs commit themselves to fulfil the relevant criteria in the following periods, they could be abated.

The financial criteria and the sanctions to be applied in the preceding paragraph are summarized in the following table.

Table 1: FFP Criteria and Related Sanctions

	Rule	Endorsement	Sanction
Fundamentals	Break-even requirement	Break-even deficit could not exceed a limit (£5.000.000).	Fine, deduction of points withholding of revenue from UEFA competition, exclusion from UEFA competitions, transfer ban, exclusion from UEFA tournaments, reprimand.
Indicators	Profit and sustainability	Auditors report should not be negative or conditional.	The request of current and forward financial information (yearly budgeted).
	Negative equity	Equity should not be negative	The request of current and forward financial information (yearly budgeted).
	Overdue debts	There should not be any overdue debt.	The request of current and forward financial information (yearly budgeted).
Final indicators	Payment expenses/ Income	The sum of payments should not exceed 70% of the total income.	Request additional information.
	Total Debt/ Income	The sum of the debt should not exceed the 100% of the incomes.	Request additional information.



ACCOUNTING CHEATS AND FRAUD TRIANGLE INTEGRATION OF FINANCIAL FAIR-PLAY CRITERIA

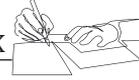
Error is defined as non-intentional inaccuracies in accounting transactions, registrations, documents and accounts as a result of lack of attention, neglect, inexperience or inadequate knowledge. The main difference between error and fraud is the intent factor. Fraud is deceptive actions made to provide unfair benefit from third parties. Owners and partners or directors of businesses may be able to sustain to a fraud or a more significant loss, without even having the opportunity to doubt the existence of fraud. Fraudulent financial transactions can be seen in various ways and can be applied to many areas of financial reporting. Fraudulent financial reports can be based on four main causes, even if there are different reasons for preparing fraudulent financial reports. These are the creation of non-real profits, the adjustment of revenues, tax avoidance and debt retention (Karabınar, Akyel 2009:692).

In businesses, frauds are generally classified under five topics. These topics are (Karabınar, Akyel 2009:695):

- *Employee Frauds:* The case that the employees of the business are engaged in activities aimed at unfair seizure of the assets and resources of the enterprise following their interests.
- *Management Frauds:* The kind of fraud performed by the senior staff in the administration to use the financial statements of the business to deceive the third persons or the state.
- *Supplier's Fraud:* The fraud activities by the suppliers that sell goods or services to the business are to deceive the customer.
- *Customer Frauds:* The fraud activities by the business to deceive the customers.
- *Investment Frauds:* Investors' redirection to investments that are worthless or not actual, with accounting cheats and misleading financial statements.

Although all sorts of frauds are structurally different from business to business, investment cheats, customer cheats, and managerial tricks are usually done on accounting systems. Different types of fraud can accommodate multiple features. Even though the structures of these frauds differ in the businesses, the reasons for the emergence of accounting cheats that constitute the source for these frauds could be listed as follows:

- To smuggle dividends away from partners or on the contrary, distributing excess profits to satisfy partners.
- To conceal corruptions and embezzlements.
- To benefit undeservedly from incentives.
- To create tax postponement and tax avoidance opportunities.
- To reach capital resources more easily.



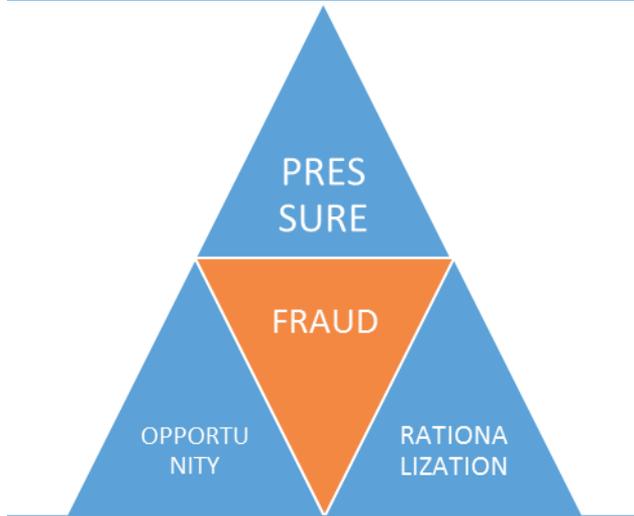
- To increase the stock prices in the stock market, or unjustly raising the value of the company in the marketplace.
- To engage in new partner searches for new capital opportunities.

In the research on behalf of the causes of the fraud, hundreds of reasons are being ordered for different businesses, and this makes the process more difficult to detect the fraud for the auditor. Therefore, the SAS 99 (Statements of Auditing Standards) defines three risk classes called the Fraud Triangle to guide auditors. Besides, in IAS 240, (International of Auditing Standards) it is stated that these three reasons are keys to the auditor to reveal the frauds. In this context, the “fraud triangle”, which was revealed by Joseph T Well, and developed by Donald R. Cressey to understand why the trick was done, is a matter to be examined. Moreover, the “fraud triangle” have importance in the discussion of potential red flags. According to the Fraud Triangle Hypothesis, the three reasons why frauds existing are;

- Pressure,
- Absence of control,
- Rationalizing the fraud.

The elements listed above classify the reasons for the occurrence of the fraud and are shaped in the following manner:

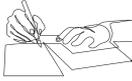
Figure 1: Fraud Triangle



Reference: Karabınar S, Akyel N, Hileler Ve Muhasebe Denetimindeki Yeri, I. International Congress On History and Culturel at Balkans, 2009

Correlation of Pressure and Financial Fair Play Criterias

The Pressure factor is the pressures that exist for a variety of reasons on both business owners or partners or business employees. Loss of income and prestige, performance-based pricing, profit-targeted policies, the negative financial



status of the employee or the business, the companies weakness in liquidity, and future anxiety, constitute the source for the pressure factor and these pressures can trigger manipulative actions.

Within the scope of FFP, some of the sanctions imposed by UEFA are creating serious apprehension for the future in the clubs, and this is a severe economic pressure factor, especially for the clubs of middle-income level in Turkey. In this regard, the sanctions imposed on clubs in Turkey in the past few years can be summed up as follows:

- In season 2013-14 Bursaspor was fined 200,000.00 Euros,
- A penalty of 5.5 million Euros in season 2014-15 was fined to Beşiktaş.
- 200 thousand Euros fined to Trabzonspor in 2013-14.

More examples could be given.

These sanctions imposed by UEFA lead to economic concerns and unexpected revenue losses on clubs. These sanctions dominantly constitute the pressure corner of the fraud triangle while the process of compliance with the FFP criteria of football clubs.

Correlation of Opportunity Factor and Financial Fair Play Criterias

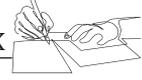
Lack of internal control system, weakness of security measures, non-transparent operation and accounting policies, the negligent behaviour of the administration, the inadequacy of audit, the lack of full determination of standards in accounting applications, and the weaknesses in the control of compliance with the specified criteria, constitute the opportunity corner of the fraud triangle.

The opportunity factor is thought to be an issue that should be examined in terms of FFP in the scope of the study. Since UEFA demands reports from clubs through the financial reporting system that is being implemented in every country. This situation reveals differences in accounting applications from country to country and is further deviated from a standard audit, with these systematic differences. These differences can create the opportunity corner of the “fraud triangle”.

5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The rapidly growing and evolving football sector brings a distorted and unbalanced growth, inability to set a balanced competitive environment, unpreparedness in the financial structures of the clubs to this growth, and deficiencies in legal and managerial structures. This situation in many countries decreases the level of ability of football federations to provide adequate control and increases the effect of various political forces on the football field. The problems that differ from country to country prohibit the successes in football, and undermine the football economy.

The UEFA (European Association of Football Federations), brought up the financial criteria titled “Financial Fair Play Criteria”, for resolving or preventing these problems arising from the rapid growth of the football economy and has obligated the affiliated football clubs to issue financial reports to them concur-



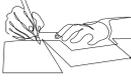
dantly. As a result of the failure to comply with these criteria, the sanctions imposed by UEFA led to unexpected and serious income losses in clubs. The sanctions imposed by the clubs are caused not only income losses but also unpredictable further expenses in the long term.

In the study, when Financial Fair Play sanctions were examined under the three main elements of the “Fraud Triangle”, the “pressure” factor was found dominantly structured, and as the second factor, “opportunity” could be said to follow it. Anyhow, unexpected income losses and long-term expenses constitute financial pressure on football clubs, which constitutes the “pressure” factor of the “fraud triangle”. Besides, it also points out the “opportunity” factor of the “fraud triangle” by the financial reporting systems that differ from country to country, and in the unknowns on financial systems, the audits that are becoming increasingly difficult with these differentiations. In the scope of the study, the “justification” factor, which is the final factor of the “cheat triangle”, has not been detected to be a source for the frauds during the compliance process of the financial Fair-Play criteria. As a result of the study, the process of adapting to FFP criteria, which triggered two of the three factors of the “fraud triangle”, is thought to be meticulously focused by the auditors. Consequently, to prevent the situation that triggered accounting fraud and manipulation, clubs should make managerial decisions on behalf of the future and shape the system within the club following some decisions. These systematic decisions and recommendations to be taken in the administrative context can be summarized as follows:

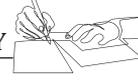
- The income sources of the clubs should be diversified,
- A cost and market-oriented management approach should be adopted,
- A system based on infrastructure and youth facilities should be established
- By establishing an optimum capital structure, the loans should be ensured under control,
- Active and effective internal audit systems must be established within the club,
- Institutionalization should be encouraged and adopted in clubs management,
- An international accounting and financial reporting standard should be applied to the football clubs subjected to UEFA, and by these standards, football clubs should be subject to independent audit.

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THE ROLE OF MEDIA IN HEALTH COMMUNICATION

Sinem ÇAMBAY¹

INTRODUCTION

Today, health communication is an important issue as a concept that deals with the interaction between healthcare professionals and patient and patient relatives and all aspects of the health field. It is seen that the issue is handled in a more negative way in the field of communication in the field of health. An important miscommunication issue is observed in health communication and this issue is reinforced by the media.

As the main means of social perception production, the media should be positioned as the main tool to eliminate the non-communication in the field of health through awareness-raising and representation-generating functions, but it is more evident that these problems are fueled. The power of the media to solve the communication problems in the health field arises from the impact of this tool on creating and reinforcing public opinion and it is seen that the media uses this power in a wrong way.

When we look at the texts produced in the field of media about health communication, it can be seen that health communication has emerged as an important problem and it is seen that the media is positioned as an area where this non-communication is reproduced. When news about health communication in the media are considered, lack of communication, violence and inadequacies in health are prominent and this news also negatively encourages health communication. In this context, it is imperative to change the discourse of non-communication and violence in the media as the basic steps to establish a healthy communication in the field of health.

COMMUNICATION CONCEPT

Communication, which can be defined as the mutual exchange of information, emotions and thoughts, is an indispensable process for people to continue their lives (Gürüz and Eğinli, 2008: 5). This process aims to influence the emotions, attitudes and behaviors of the people in order to realize a specific purpose and includes the exchange of messages between the source and the recipient.

Communication, as a process that expresses what, by whom, under what conditions, with which channels, what it says and what it says, includes a special exchange of information, whose success depends on the common field of experience between the source and the recipient (Baltacıoğlu and Kaplan, 2007:17). This shopping is important for the realization of human cat as a human being and for entering into social processes, and enables the individual to become a part of the social structure.

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Communication with the hand, arm, head and face movements of the thoughts and emotions, the transmission of the attitude, behavior, impression, knowledge and skills between the individuals as a transmission to other people by using the means such as telephone, radio, television in oral or written form. (Açıkgöz, 2003: 154-155). Sharing refers to a process that must have a double direction. In this context, as a process involving the transfer of thought and information to the opposite side by verbal or non-verbal means, the communication is not one-way but involves an exchange based on mutual interaction. This exchange can be realized either through written or verbal messages or by means of symbols.

The communication process takes place in two types: in-person communication and interpersonal communication. In-person communication involves self-thinking and self-expression, and self-expression by recognizing personal needs (Dökmen, 2000: 21). The first step in establishing a healthy communication is the effective communication of the internal communication of the person. It is important to underline that the people who cannot communicate successfully with the outside world cannot be healthy in their inner world.

Interpersonal communication, where the source and the target are people, stands out as an important system of social relations between two or more people and refers to a process in which all elements of communication are used (Aziz, 2016: 111). In this process, the source responds by transmitting the message to the receiver via a channel by encoding the message. Each element in this process needs to be structured in a healthy way.

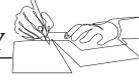
Communication between people is evaluated on two scopes, mainly oral and nonverbal communication. Oral communication as a type of communication that individuals perform by speaking involves a very important process that includes both what we say and how we say (Dökmen, 2003: 127). This process presents the interaction as an important element for the individuals to accept themselves and to live in the society. How we say this rather than what we say in communication determines how we say the health of communication.

CONCEPT OF HEALTH COMMUNICATION

Health communication, which refers to a comprehensive process ranging from patient and doctors relations to attracting target groups of health institutions and informing the public about all matters related to health, is defined as a sub-area of communication (Okay, 2009: 20-21). This sub-area covers all communication elements and equipment in the field of health.

Health communication as a concept that focuses on the communication between health care workers and patients and their relatives is the subject of exchange of messages between the health care workers and the patients and their relatives. While both verbal and non-verbal messages are of great importance in this message exchange, especially our non-verbal expressions increase the success or failure of communication.

Health communication refers to a dynamic process that the patient / patient relatives and doctors, nurses, caregivers and other health care workers who



are the subject of communication are structured according to the role, purpose, place and time. In this context, the process includes very important communication equipment that should be considered. It is imperative that all health workers have these equipment in a patient-centered manner (Ataç, 2009:93). These equipment includes important skills such as effective expression, comprehension and listening ability, empathy ability, positive body language display. Today, on the basis of communication problems in the health field noteworthy deficiencies in the equipment.

Effective narrative, comprehension and listening ability are important aspects of successful communication in the field of health as important equipments that ensure the healthy realization of interpersonal communication (Bıçakçı, 2006: 71-72). This means that a doctor can listen to his patient in the most effective way and to be able to understand him / her adequately. The sine qua non condition of effective and successful communication in health area stands out as the ability to understand and explain.

Empathy, which can be defined as putting himself/herself in the position of the person and looking at the events and situations like him/her focuses on the feelings of the other person and needs to be sensitive (Gürüz and Eğinli, 2008: 27). Empathy is one of the most important gains in the field of health and it becomes more important as an important dynamic that enhances communication.

Empathic communication is an important process especially for health professionals and patients and patient relatives as it is an important process that involves looking at the person and events with the eyes of the person and feeling her situation (Kutlu; Çolakoğlu and Özgüvenç, 2010: 129). The health sector is a place where empathic communication is very valuable for both patients and their relatives as the environments where people have low morale and anxiety due to illness. The most important point to be emphasized at this point is that empathic communication should be empathic to the health workers who are in a serious working condition and that patients and their relatives are a two-way process.

In other words, in this case the health sector communications sector for the base area is a people-oriented service sector needs to have more effective communication skills in the sector in order to prevent the importance of communication.

One of the most important steps of effective communication in the field of health is the positive structuring of oral and nonverbal communication. What and How healthcare professionals and their patients and their relatives say about it is even more important in this area. In this context, all people that will communicate in the field of health should have important communication skills. Looking at these skills, the main deficiencies in the field of health that cause patients, relatives or health workers to be transformed into communication scale stand out.

Indeed, the main sources of communication accidents and communication failures in the field of health are the deficiencies in the communication skills of health workers and the patients and their relatives. Communication problems with the medical language, communication with the patients or their relatives hesitation to ask questions, nurses or caregivers not having any emotional anxi-



ety, patient and relatives being impatient, not being able to reach to the doctor, establishing relationships on distance and authority rather than mutual understanding and trust. The main problems that put dynamite are outstanding.

The fact that health communication can be realized as a dynamic, positive and interactive process necessitates having the above mentioned verbal and non-verbal skills. It is seen that the form of communication in the unified health field will interfere with the communication between the target people.

Today, the main deficiencies that cause health problems in the field of health as a deficiency of health care workers, an angry tone of voice, narrative, speech and lack of the ability to deal with individual deficiencies are prominent. In the center of health, the top of the center, which focuses on the white uniform and the hierarchy, further negates this process in a negative way. In this context, it would be correct to say that the unequal form of health based on power and authority is one of the basic dynamites in health communication. It will not be possible to talk about effective communication opportunities in the field of health, unless the centralized relationship between health care workers and patients and their relatives is changed and the physicians are strong and the patient is incapacitated.

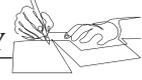
Nonverbal communication skills, which direct the communication process in the field of health, stand out as very important factors that need to be taken care of (Özer,2003: 175). These skills become evident as the guiding elements of health communication, such as the gestures and mimics of healthcare professionals, clothing and harnesses, sitting style and hospital-examination. Nowadays, especially the doctors and nurses over the top, distant attitudes and behaviors cause important communication problems in this field, these problems further increase the distance between the hospital environment and the place element. These elements push the patients and their relatives to negative tendencies as losers and weaknesses.

Particularly the doctors in the white apron, I do not make a centralized and demanding attitude, eye contact, temporarily, already worry and worry about the patients and relatives close to the negative trends in the relatives. In this context, health personnel need to take communication training to use gestures and gestures and tones.

The type of judgmental communication in the field of health, where judgmental attitudes, attitudes and attitudes are evident in communication, is also a serious problem (Zilloğlu, 2003: 283). This problem, which prevents health professionals from establishing a positive and healthy communication, can be overcome by eliminating the forms of trial and attitude.

THE ROLE OF MEDIA IN HEALTH COMMUNICATION

The media as the voice, the ear and the eye of the society have an important function in terms of providing important information about the health of individuals and knowing the decisions to be taken in the field of health and their participation in these decisions. In this context, it would be correct to say that the media has critical functions in terms of health communication.



The function of the media in the field of health is not limited to providing information and increasing participation opportunities. It is seen that the health news in the media have important dimensions that concern and direct the whole society and undertakes important tasks such as activating the understanding of health literacy (Yıldırım, 2013: 381). In this context, it is noteworthy that the media is the main catalyst in ensuring health communication.

Health literacy functions as a mediator between health literacy, education system and health issues as an element that enhances the healthy life year and quality of individuals, acquires communication and clinical skills for health professionals, and includes involvement in the decision-making mechanism for health-care providers (Yılmazel and Çetinkaya, 2016: 69). In this context, it is observed that health literacy is a concept that includes individuals gaining an awareness of the health policy in the country, the decisions taken, the problems, the protection from diseases, the health communication and the solutions.

It is seen that the media is positioned as a privileged actor in health literacy as a concept that includes an understanding and understanding of all information and services so that the individual can obtain health decisions that concern him / herself (Okay, 2011: 51). This position of the media is derived from the fact that it provides information about health services, policies and practices and draws attention to this area.

The media has the feature of creating an important agenda in the field of health as well as in all areas of the society (Çolak and Ersoy, 2007: 1206). The effective structuring of health communication aimed at increasing the quality of health services requires the existence of a media to raise awareness of health and health communication problems, improve the right known mistakes, and strengthen the dialogue between health care workers and patient and patient relatives.

The privileged position of the media in health communication stems from the characteristics of this tool as creating an important public awareness and awareness and as a tool of changing attitudes. Public spots are an important media product in this area.

Public spot; Kamu It is defined as informative and educational films and sounds and sub-bands that are prepared or prepared by public institutions and organizations and non-governmental organizations such as associations and foundations and decided to be public interest in publication by the Supreme Council (www.rtuk.org.tr).

The public spot, which draws attention as an important tool for raising awareness in the areas that need attention, includes the messages prepared for the purposes. At this point, health problems in the field of communication will eliminate the problems of Health No Violence, health workers also human, patient is justified in all matters such as messages containing public spots can reduce the problems in this area can be seen. In order to ensure the positive development of health communication, the messages in public spots should be structured on empathy and targeted to be sensitive.



Public spots, which is an important media tool that enables all kinds of information and practice on health to settle into the minds of society, covers everything from communication accidents in health area to communication disruptions, right and wrong health practices. In this context, spots are positioned as the most basic means of providing media communication. One of the main objectives of public spots is patient satisfaction.

As one of the basic concepts of health communication, patient satisfaction aims to increase the service quality by increasing communication skills in the health sector (Kavuncubaşı,2000). Media is an important tool in increasing patient satisfaction in the field of health. This feature is further reinforced by equipping the media with a patient rights-oriented perspective. A patient rights-focused media is of great importance in terms of increasing positive tendencies in the field of health communication by speaking the patient's language, building trust in the patient, communicating openly and developing a profile of healthcare workers with empathy.

When we look at today's health care institutions, it is seen that these institutions have important duties in preventing these accidents where important communication geese have emerged due to negative reasons such as excessive workload, burnout and bad working conditions. Considering the function of media on this issue, it is imperative that the media convey the message to the necessary authorities regarding these problems and solutions in the field of health as the voice, the ear and the eyes of the society. Likewise, in the field of health, communication and communication with the patients and their relatives, causing uncommunication, obscurantness, irresponsibility, apathy, reprimanding, overlooking, authoritarian behavior, use of force, humiliation, and not being transparent should be communicated to the parties through the media. The media should be guiding the health workers and the patients and their relatives who will communicate with them to provide the correct behaviors.

When we look at the tendencies of the media to contribute to health communication, a very dark picture emerges. It is seen that the media has created awareness in this field and it has fueled communication without being positioned as a tool to strengthen communication.

The mode of construction of non-communication in the field of health is realized through violence. The most basic problem that has emerged in this construction is the fact that physicians and other health workers are made to justify the violence by pushing the top-down, oppressive and persuasive attitudes. The aforementioned attitude of the media causes the communicationlessness to be one-dimensional and cause the health workers to be declared as scapegoats. However, there are two aspects of non-communication in the field of health and it is necessary to give a holistic view of the problems and solutions in the media.

In the media, the representation of the relatives of the patients should be stopped and the news about the negative behaviors should be avoided. In addition, it should be kept in mind that dramatic images about violence in health and exaggeration and emotional exploitation cause people to become desensitized and such content should be avoided.



It should be kept in mind that the tendency to include sensational news and the inclination to create content that encourages violence is further fueled by communication problems in the field of health.

Positive messages to strengthen communication in the field of health should be highlighted and empathy and identification should be created. For this reason, the media must draw attention to important problems such as bad working conditions, workload and stress in the field of health and ensure that the right behaviors are gained while building the news in this field. Indeed, it should be kept in mind that these problems and solutions in the field of health cannot be overcome unless the solutions are clearly identified.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

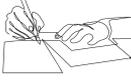
The concept of health communication stands out as one of the basic concepts of today's health sector. Communication in the health sector is becoming an indispensable basic equipment and covers the relationships between the patient, the patient's relative and the relationships between all the people working in the health care sector, nurses, nurses, nurses and other fields. In addition, actions such as public announcement of health decisions and practices and creation of participation opportunities are evaluated within this scope. In a highly sensitive area that concerns everyone, such as healthcare, communication is a very important factor, which includes both information retrieval and understanding, and the need for understanding and agreement.

In order for health communication to be successful, it is of great importance that the relationship between health care workers and patient and patient relatives is based on mutual understanding and giving rights. In this context, empathy, tolerance and sensitivity are the main elements of successful communication in the health sector, and the media is becoming the main tool that will enable them to gain space.

The media as the main bearer of communication to be constructed based on mutual understanding and empathy in the field of health are able to allow for the decreasing tendencies of violence and intolerance in this area. This power of media stems from the potential of raising public awareness and raising awareness. In the solution of the communication problems in health services, the media should display a communication-oriented approach and raise awareness about the needs and solutions.

It is imperative that the media create a significant awareness of the relationships between the patients and their relatives and health workers. The news that justify and discredit violence in health should be avoided. It should not be forgotten that the media determines how to talk about the issues that the society will talk about.

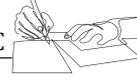
As an important tool for the solution of communication problems in the field of health, it is an important function for the media to make publications that will emphasize unacceptable behaviors among all parties that cause non-communication. In doing so, the media must avoid publication and avoid broadcasts that



will encourage violence and non-communication. The main step towards eliminating the lack of communication in the field of health is the existence of a media that will make the problems in this area visible.

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**Petek DURGEÇ¹****Introduction**

There is media at the beginning of the methods of access to information of today's societies. The media possessing this power also has the power to manipulate information. The media is now activating the masses according to the effect response principle. Ethics is the sum of the norms, laws and principles that regulate the relationships of individuals with each other, which have been adopted by certain human communities in a given period.

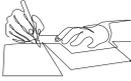
Ethics gives information about how to behave in order to accept human behavior as moral. Many business and professional societies have prepared professional ethics by customizing the values that apply to them. In short, ethics is important for many professions as the strategies that form the general guiding principles of the working system at an integrated level with all values and judgments. At this point, there should be ethical rules and codes that play a decisive role in the formation of norms of behavior for the press broadcasting sector.

News should not contradict the established rules of ethics, norms and values of society. It is foreseen that the news should be objective, the information given is far from interpretation, and the adjective text should not be used as much as possible. Mankind is a living creature that does not remain indifferent to the events around it. In this context, the individual is in a constant search for what is around and what it is like. With the development of technology, the movement in the mass media has already allowed people to access instant information about the events around them. From this perspective, news may cause information pollution.

Umberto Eco, which deals with contemporary media from an ethical point of view; it emphasizes the need to monitor the first three forces as a fourth force and to be able to deal with the problems of the people, especially in the press and especially in the future of the society. Those who fail to do so point out that those who cannot remain politically neutral and are gathered around three other forces. (Eco,1998:50-79)

Developing universal ethical principles to be adopted by all, and activating the media sector in in line with democratic values, has become a wider field of struggle in which new technologies and new structures are accelerating. The media, which has the power to change the existing social order, provides and directs the audience with reasonable promises and engaging messages.

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Ethics Concept

The concept of ethics becomes evident as the rules and qualities that modern societies place in the foreground. It is an inevitable need to understand and enlighten the ethics and values of our age in which our economy and technology determine everything. When examined in its historical development, it is seen that the ethics encountered in ancient Greeks for the first time remained closed in a narrow space as the discipline of philosophy. In a large area; what people do not want, what they do not want and how. In this context; a necessity for the moral practice of social life, it would not be wrong to characterize ethics as the moral standards of behavior to regulate the relationships of living together while preserving some common values.

It is related to culture, environment, education and also heritability in the universal concept of ethics, scientific and social developments. He's in every field of life. Ethics is a discipline that explores and deals with the ways individuals build relationships with groups, with society, with organizations and with each other. (Obuz, 2009:2)

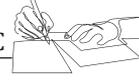
Ethics, although changing according to societies or even individuals, examines the moral terms used in individual behavior and the judgments that underlie the moral attitudes of individuals in studying moral judgments.

Media Ethics

The media are all the tools that undertake the task of informing and entertaining the visual and audio, both visually and audibly. It is understood that the media covers all the tools and institutions that produce news and information, in other words, when the media is called, all the mass media means (Aktan, 2004: 59). The main purpose of the media is to make it possible to know what is happening in the environment and in the world; that is, to contribute to the ability of one to use his basic right to form his own opinion. In a broad sense, the real work of the media is to mediate (Usta, 2009: 474). Mass media are now regarded as a source of power and power, which is one of the main tools of social change, as well as providing social control. The media creates a space for public events. Definitions about what reality is in social life are created through the media. Therefore, the media presents a continuous *olmak* system of meaning 2006 to society and shows what is normal and natural, and what is unusual and unnatural, and in short, it is the main determinant of what is normal (Demir, 2006: 7). The mass media means that the capitalist economy dictates the consumption codes in the private areas of individuals in their homes. Mass media have reached a very important activity in organizing free time and keeping the masses under control.

Baudrillard describes media as the main simulation machines that produce images, signs and codes that play an important role in everyday life and make up the autonomous hyper-real space. It addresses the media audience's experience in the context of passive absorption of images, rather than through active process or generating meaning (Baudrillard, 1987).

Media as a media of mass communication is not really a means of communication of the mass, but because every issue within life is a raw material that mass



media can process, demolitions are naturally the subject of news. Therefore, media ethics has an important function in ensuring that society is experienced in a harmonious order (Cereci, 2003: 12).

The media reflects the public opinion and provides healthy development of the society within the framework of the information it provides, and it can also go out of media ethics by using the ability to change, filter, evaluate and change all kinds of news, messages, content within the framework of haber agenda setting and determination Medya model. Media ethics has recently been one of the most stressed issues. It is normal to expect that the means of communication, which are indispensable in all areas of life, will act within some moral principles and standards such as other institutions and professions. The media, which helps people to socialize, have fun, be informed and educated, should act within the ethical limits without ignoring the social values. The responsibility of the media comes from moral values rather than law due to the power of mass communication. However, the media, while fulfilling its duties and responsibilities, does not pay attention to professional ethics, and this leads to intense debate. Journalists who are not bothered by the harmful consequences of their news are accused of being immoral individuals. Journalists are the citizens who are expected to support the democratic process that allows them to work and to be responsible for reporting. (Cohen, Almagor, 2002: 127)

It is acknowledged by both the individuals and the responsible media that it is more important for the media to publish only a lot of news, that it is more important to give the right information and positive messages in the content of the news. It has been determined that the media products, which are presented under the name of news, are diluted, the facts are distorted, and the details of immoral details are highlighted, are primarily rejected by the society. The most criticized point of mass media in terms of news ethics is neutrality. Theoretically, it is claimed that the media, which should act impartially during news production and broadcasting, sometimes compromises the principle of impartiality. (Cereci, 2003: 78-79) The media is required to test the accuracy and impartiality of the message. Independent media is required for impartiality. The freedom of the media should provide the right of expression to the various subcultures and classes of the society, be the voice of the public and act as a means of transmitting messages between the elected representatives of the people and the people. It is expected that the media will serve the public by providing the people with their frustrations to the public, presenting their wishes to the attention of the administration, informing them of various developments regarding their future and exposing the corruption and irresponsible behavior of the people's proxies. (Cohen, Almagor, 2002: 125). However, the fact that the media is abusing these missions that are expected from them is the target of criticism. For the voice of the people, the use of the cries of the microphones extended to the people in pain and the use of advertisements of the next broadcast is not necessary for the information transfer; such exaggerations should be considered intentional or disrespectful to the superiority of human life.

Media ethics includes a set of principles and rules defined by members of the profession, preferably in collaboration with media users, to ensure that the



media provides better service to many, if not all, sections. Media ethics is not related to the legal meaning of the word, or even morality. This is a matter of taking on an important social function rather than being honest or respectful (Bertrand, 2004: 10). It is possible to define media ethics as the whole of the rules and principles that journalists have to follow when exercising their profession. These ethical principles guide journalists by specifying which actions are good and which practices should be avoided. (Irvan,1997: 50)

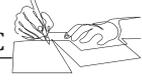
Many media professionals around the world think that it is very difficult to ensure impartiality in publishing. In order to maintain their existence in the sector and to maintain their income materially, the media organs are forced to leave aside their free-will act. While the media organs, which are the fourth power of the democracies, should make an effort to get the right news on time, they express the discourses of the ruling class and the interests of the environment. (Şimşek, 2009: 126) The fact that the media cannot react with the values of the environment and expand its democratic perspective creates a distrust in various segments of society. The balance of interests within the political system and the distribution of newspapers and TV channels that can be watched nationwide in the hands of a few people affect the messages reaching the public, as well as the employees due to the economic dependence on a single person, and thus the structure of the media institutions are increasingly determining the reflection of the news to the public (Gürkan, 1997). On the other hand, the strategy of the media is to argue with people the power they desire, to glorify whomever they wish, but not to argue themselves.

The relationship of the media with the political power is not independent of the ideological-cultural structuring that determines the individual's relation with the state. Today, one of the most effective channels used by politicians is the media (Gürkan, 1997). Bostanci states that media is easily used in dissemination of totalitarian ideologies, and political propaganda is also used as an indispensable technical infrastructure of nation building projects .(Bostanci, 1999: 83) Until a certain time, no system or technology to reach more people at the same time by means of mass media. This puts great responsibility and responsibility on the media. The media conveys information to people, and are expected to be responsible and accountable for the full details of the information provided by the media.

News and Journalism of Ethics

Newspapers are publications that are published daily or in specific periods in order to inform and guide the masses about the social, cultural, economic and political fields and the events taking place.

Those who serve in this field and who are engaged in journalism are journalists. Journalist, who set out to provide information to the public, based on the principle of providing impartial information, the profession equipped with the necessary technical and professional powers as defined. (Güner, 2014: 9) The main purpose of the news is to tell us the outside world. In order to understand what the news contains, it is enough to look at most of the news programs, mostly



a world map or the genre or decor that plays the earth. (Ramonet, 2000: 97) The press organs create a local news network for the profile, culture and perspective of the audience. Since every issue in life is a raw material that mass media can process, all the social events, wars, crimes against humanity, successes, demonstrations, and great demolitions arising from the primitive feelings of man are naturally the subject of news.

Therefore, media ethics has an important function in ensuring that society is experienced in a harmonious order. (Cereci, 2003:12) The media conveys information to people, and are expected to be responsible and accountable for the full details of the information provided by the media. Journalists who are not bothered by the harmful consequences of their news are accused of being immoral individuals. Journalists are the citizens who are expected to support the democratic process that allows them to work and to be responsible for reporting. (Cohen, Almagor, 2002: 127)

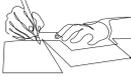
In order to maintain their broadcasting activities, media organizations are required to be structured as commercial enterprises. The main issue discussed here is the danger that the media, which is considered as a public vehicle because of the functions such as news, information and creating a discussion platform, become organizations that only work for the purpose of making a profit and which are the primary ones. Because it is not acceptable to carry out the main tasks of the media, which is an important tool in the continuation of the democratic society, with a purpose like making a profit. (Avşar, Demir, 2005: 19) One of the ways in which content and presentation are gradually gaining importance in the transmission of news texts to the audience is magazine style.

The media plays a role in the perception of the outside world: the media gives a new oy self-personality içindeki to the individuals in the mass, and it adopts it. It inspires the same people, who and how they should be, and arouses enthusiasm in this direction. It is suggested to them what they should do to have these new personalities adopted, and a certain technique is gained in this direction. They are embracing this new "self-personality" and being relieved. It is not the real world to be lived, but the fake world of the media is reflected on them. (Koknukman, 2006: 39)

The media, which has influenced every aspect of life, has more influence on the erosion of religious and traditional value judgments than any other agent. The media realizes this by normalizing, ordinaryizing and normalizing, attenuating the sensitivities of people and, most importantly, legitimizing and accustoming them to the new situation. (Barbarosoglu, 2002: 170) As the media is able to go beyond social values and create their own virtual world and make ethical policies, the media has the opportunity to create a healthy society by making publications that do not conflict with social values within the framework of ethical boundaries and do not disregard the social structure dynamics.

Conclusion

In the process of coming to the fore in the media products of ethic principles, media organizations should determine ahlak moral standards standart on me-

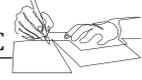


dia ethics and these standards should be followed. Media should make publications by considering the general morality of society, religious and social values. The media should abandon the purpose of profit and profit and act within the framework of ethical limits. No one in the publications of the press profession principles; cannot be condemned, humiliated, because of its race, gender, age, health, physical disability, social level and religious beliefs, limiting the freedom of thought, conscience and expression; the principles of general morality, religion, disruptive or hurting the basic foundations of the family institution inciting violence and tyranny, refrain from publishing offensive to human values ular principles should be taken into account.

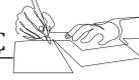
RTÜK; broadcasting principles lar publications not violating the national and spiritual values of the society and the Turkish family structure ep, is the denial and humiliation of people in terms of language, race, color, gender, political thought, philosophical belief, religion, sect and similar reasons in, olm etc. social values should be treated according to protective principles. In order to keep media out of unethical publications, if the recommendations and recommendations made by the members of the media are not taken into consideration by the media and still persistently continue to be devoid of social values for media interests, the future of the society, the continuation of the spiritual heritage from corruption, the suspension of such publications for a generation respectful of moral and social values Legal and institutional measures should be taken. Although the regulations made in the legal sphere or requested to be made appear to be censorship in the name of freedom of the press, the social structure and social values should not be ignored without forgetting that there is a limit to every freedom. In the ethical principles and rules, press organizations that need to be objective, impartial and honest should contribute to their own development as well as to the development of the society.

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HUMOR AND CARTOON AS TOOLS OF COMMUNICATION¹

Petek DURGEÇ²

Introduction

Humor is the art of thinking, entertaining and making people laugh by reflecting the ridiculously unusual and contradictory aspects of events. Humor feeds on the surprise created by the emergence of a different situation than expected. Incompatibility is the basic element of humor. Many scientists have made theories in the field of humor. In spite of all the research, humor is not very well defined and dynamics explained. The subject of humor and laughter has long been considered as simplicity. It has been proven by the researchers that humor has a positive effect on human health and psychology. It has been concluded that humor is interpreting life through humor and humor is less frustrated in the face of failures.

One of the leading products of visual humor is cartoon. Cartoon is the art of capturing the ridiculous aspects of events, facts, people, emotions and thoughts, and transforming them into exaggerated illustrations. Although the cartoon is a visual communication tool even with a single square, it has also emerged in such genres as tape cartoons and comic stories. Today, there is a direct relationship between the popular culture phenomenon, which has the power to influence the masses, and the art of cartoon, a visual humor product. Popular culture product cartoons are drawn all over the world. Popular cartoons are easily understood, humor products that the reader will consume without any mental effort and will soon be forgotten.

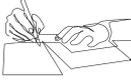
Humor Concept

Numerous opinions have been put forward on the act of laughing, the causes of this action and the resulting humor. Laughter is a concept that does not fit into definitions. In this first part of the study the phenomenon of laughter, humor, cartoons and popular cartoon concepts will be discussed, will be discussed after the relationship between humor and cartoon case will also be transferred to the historical process that had humor of the press in Turkey.

Humor is defined as the name given to the art of reflection, entertainment or laughing by reflecting the ridiculous, unusual and contradictory aspects of the events. In essence, it is the job of describing social distortions together with the use of sadness and joy, one of the most basic human phenomena. Humor is fed by surprise and surprise, created by a different situation than expected. In other words, incompatibility is the basic pattern of humor. Humor emerges from the

1 This study is prepared from the master thesis named " The Changing Function of Humor Journals in Popular Culture: Penguen Magazine" written by Petek Durgeç.

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clash between the real and the ideal. Humor, as the meaning of the dictionary, is the art of finding and revealing some skewness, conflict, contradiction and ridiculousness in some individuals or natural events. (Cevizci,2002: 34)

Humor is the art of making people think by reflecting the ridiculous, unusual, contradictory aspects. The most humorous examples of humor are the sudden appearance of the contradiction between events in harmony with each other. Humor recounts the discrepancies in nature with its own original language and causes laughter in humans.

According to Aristotle, who explains humor with the concept of *fark katharsis*, humor and tragedy are two forms of art, but there are differences between them. The tragedy provides a sense of pity and fear to cleanse these feelings. On the other hand, an optimistic view is displayed on humor; the pessimistic events that the tragedy is about, and it is emphasized that bad events will always be salvation. (Moran, 1994: 27) According to this, the individuals who make up the society confront themselves with the realities that will cause discomfort and humorous expression makes the events bearable.

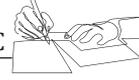
Öngören says that entertainment and tolerance take place at the root of humor and he argues that every humor product doesn't make people laugh as every laugh doesn't concern humor and says that humor has emerged in different genres such as joke, humorous story, humorous poetry, cartoon, puppet and comedy. According to him, since humor joke, poem, story based genres, cartoon, puppet and comedy genres are based on the image, it would be appropriate to divide humor into two main parts as dan word-based ise and image based. (Öngören, 1989: 15)

The word-based genre of humor differs from its image-based type in that it requires people to have mutual communication and interaction. In the image-based humor, the individual in the position of the recipient is in communication with the image-based humor product and there is no interaction in such a case.

One of the most important elements of humor is laughing. Scientists who try to explain laughter have argued with humor and humor, and have put forward various views about whether laughter is a feeling or a behavior. It is understood that it is not possible to separate laughter from humor. But the humorous and humorous are very different. Funny, non-humorous laughter states that laughter is a reflex, a physical event. However, laughing is not only explained for physical reasons, such as coughing or sneezing, but also about emotions. (Morreal, 1997: 193)

Humor appears to be more common among the people in terms of laughter and is limited only to a limited frame around laughter. The effect that humor affects the laughter action is certain. It will be wrong to say that every humorous product makes you laugh. Every laughing is not for humor and for fun. Here, it is possible to conclude that humor does not always entertain. Humor's emergence as a branch of art has a great role to play in people laughing at the world. This art branch is suitable for studies on many disciplines.

Scientists have developed various theories about humor. These theories will help to understand the concept of humor, as well as provide an understanding of the most important element of humor.



Theory of Superiority

The Theory of Superiority is the oldest humor theory created in the light of the views of Aristotle and Plato. According to this, laughing is an act performed by the person seeing himself from another person or from a previous situation where he is worse.

Plato says that laughter is a result of human satanicism and folly. According to Plato, people who see it more than it is are ridiculous. Laughing at such people also includes contempt. We laugh and lose our human side. Aristotle defends views similar to Plato. It's a man's captivity. The playful attitude makes the person unofficial and hurts the character of the person. Laughing is a constructive act. No man likes to be laughed at. Therefore, he avoids doing silly things to make him look funny. (Morreal, 1997: 10) What Hobbes emphasizes here is that what leads to the laughter act is grateful for the person not meeting him in another person or in a humorous product hero.

People ignore the fact that they laugh at others to mock. According to him, although the modern world rejects this phenomenon which is not human at all, it is true and it is seen even in the mockery of the children 's physical incompatibilities. This cynical laughter continues in adults as well. For example, we laugh at someone who has harmed us or suffered. We laugh to those who are superior in any respect. (Morreal, 1997, 18)

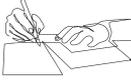
According to this, any humor reads, hears, or watches the product or joke, he feels himself superior to his humor hero, he feels a relief, he likes this situation, and then he laughs. We laugh at those who are superior to physical courage, intelligence or another human property against them, and this is ridiculous.

The approach that is based on the theory of superiority is to be delighted that we are not laughing at ourselves while laughing at others. The individual is comfortable as he is not part of the society while laughing at the trappings in the society and the trio, but in fact he always underlines the under-being of these situations. (Ünal, 2009) The lack of a sense of superiority in non-humorous laughing acts, and the absence of a sense of superiority in humorous laughter reveal that superiority theory is not a comprehensive humor theory.

Theory of Incompatibility (Contrast)

What people learn throughout their lives shows how they will behave in the same way and similar situations. Things learned change over time to habits and habits occur with behaviors. Man has engraved everything possible with his mind over time and these appear normal. In the flow of events, there is an expectation about how the event ends in the listener or the reader, automatic thinking and understanding. However, if the event takes place outside the expected, the human is surprised. The opposite makes people laugh. (Koestler,1997:28)

What is essential in the theory of incompatibility is the mental reaction to the unforeseen, unexpected. In the theory of superiority, the person compares himself with the others or the previous self, but the result of this comparison may not apply to every laughing situation. This open is also tried to be closed with the



theory of incompatibility. (Morreal,1997:24) The person expects to have a solid cause and effect relationship between certain patterns and events in my life. He starts to laugh when he encounters themes that do not fit in these patterns and cause and effect relationship. In other words, when the person reads or watches the humor product in real life, it causes him to laugh. So what triggers the laughter act is to see what is unexpected and incompatible.

Incompatibility theory shifts the interest from the emotional to the cognitive domain. What stimulates the reasons for emotional laughing is incompatibility. Incompatibility is a mental or conceptual issue and there is a psychological mechanism behind it. However, every discrepancy that a person becomes aware of does not initiate the urge to laugh. While the entertaining function of the laughter can easily find its place in the theory of superiority, it can be more easily explained by the theory of criticism and critical function incompatibility as a field of mental activity. At the core of the two theories is a contradiction, non-conformity, an unforeseen and illogical event, duality or opposition that leads to a laughing act. (Morreal, 1997:21) Ironically, the phenomenon that emerges in the theory of incompatibility. The irony, which is meant by the exact opposite of what is said, is a notion of incompatibility. In ironic expressions, rhetoric, in fact, marks the opposite discourse under its serious image and aims to draw the reader or the viewer to the point of contradiction. The criticized event or discourse is satirized by contrasts and counter-discourse.

Theory of Relaxation

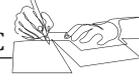
This theory is the basis for laughter, which leads to spiritual relaxation in human physically. There is a physiological perspective on the theory of relaxation. In humans, the energy caused by various pressures, prohibitions or daily troubles is discharged and a biological and psychological relief occurs.

Spencer argues that our emotions are transformed into nerve energy in our nervous system, which manifests itself as mechanical energy. Neural energy is prone to be expressed by muscle movements. Laughing is different from the methods of emotional discharge of emotional energy. The nervous system empties and the motion stops. Other organs of our respiratory system are also affected if the energy is continuous and too much, and the other organs of our respiratory system are affected by laughter. (Morreal,1997: 50) According to this, laughing is a need for human physiology. In this context, humorous products are also important tools to eliminate this need.

However, it is possible not only for our feelings under pressure, but also for other reasons. It is also possible to laugh without an emotional effect. This shows that the theory of relaxation is not a theory that explains all types of laughter alone. Freud is also referred to as the theory of relaxation. As Freud explains relaxation in his own way as an expression of sexuality and violence under oppression, his views need to be expressed in a separate theory.

Theory of Psychoanalytic

According to Freud, laughter is that the unconsciously suppressed oppressed energy is freed from stagnation and goes to consciousness. In other words, the



act of laughter removes the pressures in the subconscious. So the person laughs at what he hears about the pressure. The self does not like to be wounded, and the external world resists its self-denial. (Freud, 1999: 200) People have energized every kind of reaction, but these unnecessary energies are used in jokes, funny situations and humorous situations. While joking, we use unused energy for emotions and thoughts that are suppressed or forbidden, and emotionally unused energy for humor. Freud says that we removed the emotions and thoughts captured by social pressures, that is, our subconscious mind by joking, that is, by consciousness. According to this, people get pleasure because they satisfy their tastes that they cannot satisfy in any other way. (Morreal,1997:50) Freud's theory of laughing is a psychoanalytic variation of the theory of relaxation. Freud describes the laughter as the suppression of laughter. Laughter is the unity between subconscious and consciousness. Freud says that we use jokes to raise awareness of our forbidden feelings and thoughts that the society has put us under. This process is not conscious because suppressed emotions and thoughts are subconscious. (Morreal,1997: 44)

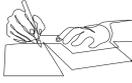
In the context of this theory, individuals oppress in their own lives due to social pressures pushing them into their unconscious, sexuality, aggression, anger and so on. they express their emotions by laughing at the related cartoons in their humor magazines. According to this, the cartoons that people laugh the most in humor magazines should be the cartoons that satisfy the feelings they push most to their subconscious.

Cartoon and Popular Cartoon Concepts

In this part of the study, the meaning of the cartoon which is a means of communicating with the readers of humor magazines, the relationship between popular culture and its functions as a means of communication and its historical process will be conveyed.

Cartoon is the art of turning people's assets, events and even emotions and thoughts into a humorous narrative with extravagant drawings supported by nature, which sometimes catch the contradictory, ridiculous sides of nature and which are contradictory to nature. (Alsac, 1999: 25) Cartoon is the transformation of a reality that the artist has reshaped with imagination and thought power. A story is an act of effectively expressing emotions and thoughts, such as a poem or a novel. The feature that separates cartoon from literary or instructional texts is the tool it uses. While the emotions and thoughts in the literary texts are expressed by creating different narrative values with words, the feature preferred by the cartoon in the language of expression is mostly line. (Sever, 2007: 61) Cartoon is the art of making humor with ridiculous lines. In the laughter of caricature, criticism comes first. (Uslu, 2007: 58)

Cartoon is a way of portraits that painters and sculptors understand from this image; The artists who implement this method aim to make the whole set as similar as possible to the person depicted, but in the meantime, they tend to overwhelm and emphasize the disruptions in the lines they depict, in order to make fun of the joke, and sometimes portray them, despite the changes made in detail, in the end they are still similar to the model as a whole. (Arık, 1998: 4)



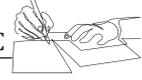
Cartoon is also a didactic system. The technological community, which breaks down all the mass media it has, has discovered the didactic role of the caricature to teach even the simplest things from birth control to the introduction of a refrigerator. Cartoon can do a lot of things. In a didactic or technical work, a chemistry or a pharmaceutical book can provide not only the synthesis of a number of phenomena, but also the elements of a didactic. (Topuz, 1986:4) Since cartoon is a graphic art and a visual communication tool, it should be examined both semantically and aesthetically. While its semantic side represents thought and content, its aesthetic side constitutes the artistic side of the visual message.

The main theme of caricature is the line. In general terms, the most important activity of the cartoon, which is defined as the art of humor, is a striking, short, widespread and universal expression. (Turan, 1975:3)

Cartoon content and artistic understanding can be examined in three groups. The first group is portrait cartoon. These drawings, which only cover the image of people, are drawn with an understanding of the characteristic elements of that person. The drawings are exaggerated and it is important that these drawings resemble the original. The second group consists of flat cartoons. The drawings in this group are drawn for magazines and newspapers. These drawings, which want to address the broad masses of the society, have plenty of written and cheerful content. The third group is called a humoristic pattern. The drawings in this group are also called artistic cartoon or graphic humor. These cartoons are not concerned about being popular and popular. Laughing is the second plan. She wants to make you think more. It speaks to the elite with the icons and the narrative style. It's hard to understand. Text is not used or used very little. Out of all these features is a reflective, a social indicator of cartoon. It is closely related to psychology. It is the duty of both the caricaturist and the psychologist to reveal the distinctive lines of a personality, a social class, a role. (Özer, 2007: 34)

One of the most important functions of caricature and humor in everyday life is that it can be opposed by laughing to power and to form resistance points of laughter and smile against the domination of authority. People cannot be an actor or even an individual in the totalitarian regimes, and in the authoritarian regimes to a large extent, in the sense that they have the ability to engage in group consciousness, to engage with other social groups and groups. There are people but they are part of a giant and single structure. Differences are not allowed. The regimen provides regeneration by continuously lubricating the gears of this large machine, ie by trying to avoid evasion. As a result, humor is sometimes the only weapon in the face of the weak, weakness of the weak. Communicates indirectly with oneself. This tool responds to a need for defense, a sense of defense. In this way, it provides one of the conditions of the society to live in spite of everything (Kentel, 1991: 47).

Industrialization and urbanization have created new economic, political and cultural forms. With the development of capitalism, the traditional patterns of production have deteriorated and the modern and modern conflict has begun. The masses did not want to get away from the tradition but the conditions forced it to create a culture that was neither traditional nor modern. Diversification of the emergence of mass media has led to the development of culture. The concept



of popular culture, which is elaborated in the first chapter of the study, is an indicator of the characteristics of mass societies in a certain period of time. In the culture of the mass society, cultural products should be consumed immediately, such as industrial products, instead of those consumed.

Popular cartoons are easily understood and immediately forgotten caricatures that the reader will consume without intellectual effort. The aim here is to cut the connection of the individual to the reality that he is living in and to ensure the passing of the moment. Moreover, the fun of this moment, as fun as the fun side is. The popular caricature's humor, the handling of women and sexuality, slang and abusive speeches have a negative impact on the concept of cartoon. The advantages of cartoon art should be utilized in many areas, especially education and training, by putting positive examples in the foreground. (Özer, 2007: 51)

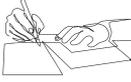
Humanity has reached the age of visual culture after oral and written cultural ages. In the 21st century, when the power of the image increased and the visual culture increased, a cultural structure based almost entirely on visuality was seen and the absolute sovereignty of the image was mentioned. This increases the importance of cartoon as a visual culture product. However, in our age where the essence of the essence of everything is taken, the cartoon is in danger of becoming a popular culture product. (Örs, 2007: 1) It is necessary to preserve the characteristics of the caricature in terms of production, labor, and society, which have been lost for ages, in which the lost meanings are replaced by attraction, the depth is replaced by superficiality, and cultural products can be easily produced and sold.

The Relationship Between Humor and Cartoon

In a humorous sense, the cartoon is created by the absurdation of the eye by adding an eye to the phenomenon or event. There is a purely qualitative and contextual link between humor and cartoon. It cannot be said that every cartoonized drawing carries a humorous element. As every humor element is not cartoon, every cartoon does not serve humor; the image should not be content. In order for the cartoon to be the image of humor, it must reveal the absurdity and reveal it in a way that no one can look at or look at. But such a cartoon can be considered a humorous cartoon. Drawings that do not carry such features will only remain as funny pictures and cannot go out of instant smiles.

Cartoon is an area in which humorous elements can be reflected in the most permanent way. According to Ali Ulvi Ersoy, the cartoonist first shapes his subject with humor. Then he shapes the subject with humor a second time with a line. It then shapes the formatted object a second time.. In the lasting sense of good cartoon these two forms are the purpose. So humorous cartoon takes its shape from the relationship between its humor and its line elements in its four corners, its beauty. Therefore, it is permanent (Ersoy, 1996: 14)

Cartoon events are observed by observing the finest details and then simplifying these details and identifying the events. For this reason, the cartoons have an informative and thoughtful function. The first thing that comes to mind when it comes to cartoon is humor. But the humor element in the caricature, an art which has remained serious, should not only be considered for laughing.



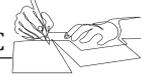
Cartoon as a Communication Tool

It is sufficient for the cartoon to be accepted as a communication tool because it is loaded with various messages and leads to feedback by conveying these messages to the target audience. In this process, the channel is newspaper or humor magazines where the cartoon is published.

Cartoonist realizes communication with reader by drawing cartoon. There are lines in the cartoon and a message that all of them are moved. The desired and effective communication from communication. Cartoon plays an important role in effective communication. The cartoonist has exaggerated his lines to create effective communication. The unreality in the lines does not disturb the viewer, but rather creates sympathetic income and interest. The communication process with caricature should be evaluated in mass communication. Because the tools they use are mass media. The intended use of the vehicles will determine the direction of the impact of these tools in line with the main objectives. As in many other fields, cartoonists will want to provide effects in line with their own views and opinions (Özer, 2007: 119).

Communication process with cartoon; source, message, receiver and channel. Here is the source cartoon artist. Message; It is the caricature loaded with the information, emotion and thought that is intended to be conveyed to the buyer (coded with symbols known to the social environment) and shared. The recipient is the cartoon reader who is affected by this message by analyzing the message sent by the caricaturist and the codes contained in this message. In the process of reaching the buyer, the channel is a newspaper, magazine, book, exhibition hall and television. The cartoonist is constantly communicating with himself while preparing a message. This is called internal communication. In this communication, the cartoonist controls his thoughts, dreams and tastes. Internal communication is quite complex. It has extremely complex mental interactions. Cartoonist internal communication with various events, emotions and thoughts in the mind of the head makes abstractions. He makes a comment on his own line. The recipient is a selective entity. Her message may not concern her. People's interests, personal characteristics, trends, value judgments, expectations, intelligence and past experiences are different. Therefore, the message in communication may not affect everyone. (Özer, 2007: 120)

Psychological perception processes of individuals behave differently depending on factors such as their conditions and value judgments. This makes it possible for each individual to make different inferences from the caricatures considered as a means of communication. Character and personality are closely related. The characterization of the character as a substructure of the human personality necessitates the necessity of overlapping with the process of socialization and personality formation process. Every kind of influence that comes from the physical and social environment in which an individual lives, interacts with the inherent characteristics of his / her personality and creates his personality traits. In this context, the meaning and the inferences of the individuals who have different personalities and character structures in different social environments through the cartoon will be different from each other.



Conclusion

The identity of the caricaturist who is the creator of caricature and his perspective on the world are also important in terms of perceiving and reflecting the events. Especially, political cartoonists should have a political opinion like a good journalist outside of their line skills. Ali Ulvi Ersoy states that the cartoonist should read a lot of books and create archives on economics, science, politics, philosophy, history and literature. The cartoonist's message is a comment, so if there is no message, there is no cartoon. This message, which should be readily understood by the reader, is mainly composed of images, but the cartoonist uses subtitles to better explain the message he wants to tell. (Topuz,1986: 33)

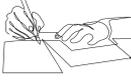
While analyzing and examining social economic cultural events while trying to get acquainted with society, people and environment, he also tries to reach his target audience. However, it is not easy to communicate with people of different ages and different cultures and educational backgrounds with different interests in different environments. Because the audience should be ready for this.

The most important advantage of the communication with the cartoon is that it is given in a very small area in a way that the buyer can watch without going to much effort. Pages, such as messages, are not composed of lowercase letters. Nowadays, long reading does not give much pleasure to many people. Therefore, the short and striking message given to the caricature will be attractive.

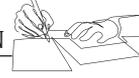
The fact that caricature is based on the line is expanding the scope of communication individually. Cartoon is easily accessible to all levels. Even those who can't read. The fact that the line is suitable for multi-dimensional and directional reception increases the effect power of the cartoon. The cartoonist can interpret the caricature as much as he likes and produce different meanings from it. The events he has lived in or around his country describe human relations through the characters in his drawings. The reader presents his cultural situation and knowledge in the interpretation of drawing and text. He does not ignore the social and psychological process in which he lives.

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BASIC PRINCIPLES OF MULTILEVEL MARKETING SYSTEM AND THE REASONS FOR PREFERENCE BY COMPANIES

Esra ÖZKAN PİR, İlkay KARADUMAN

INTRODUCTION

Network management, defined as a structure developed against the complex new business environment, is shown as a requirement of globalization, rapid technological change (Akdoğan, 1994: 184). People who join Multi-level marketing prefers to identify with different names such as, multi-level marketing, network marketing, cooperative marketing, consumer direct marketing, interactive distribution, people's franchise and relationship Marketing (Black, 1999: 1).

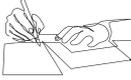
Today, with the changing marketing concepts, the division of consumers into small sections makes it difficult to communicate with consumers through traditional channels. This is only possible with a multi-level marketing system. Multi-level marketing is different from traditional marketing. The biggest difference; the absence of wholesalers and retailers in traditional marketing activities and the presence of various distributors. Each distributor is a supplier of customers, other distributors and itself (Kara ve Çiçek, 2016: 51).

The multi-level marketing system has become an existing system in almost every country in the world, which includes tens of millions of individuals around the world and created a large volume of business. Many companies use the power to deliver products and services to consumers' hands at a great deal of speed and at a very low cost. Distributors who use existing products in the multi-level marketing system and propose them to other people are rewarded continuously and systematically. In addition, those who are new members that have been included in the system by these distributors are rewarded again by the ones who are the distributors (Gürağaç, 2006: 32).

Definition of Multilevel Marketing System and Basic Information about the System

MLM (Multi-Level Marketing) A special direct selling method based on a multi-level market is a way of distributing products or services from which distributors derive revenue from retail sales and direct and indirect recruitment from retail sales. MLM (Multi-Level marketing) as a direct selling type includes retail retailing based on face-to-face communication between a salesperson and a potential buyer (Vander and Keep, 2002: 139-140).

In multilevel marketing, which is one of the direct selling methods, the dispatching individuals who assume the role of transporting products to consumers are regarded as entrepreneurs who operate independently. The people who



make this distribution work to increase the team of other distributor people to do this job. Each dispatcher has the opportunity to reach a very large amount with this method. The figures they earn from total sales increase as the team grows. In addition, each seller makes a profit from the sales made by the individual (Karalar, 1995: 194).

Multi-level marketing system, has begun to recognize this system in the 1990s and has seen considerable interest in Turkey. Today, approximately 900 thousand people are active or active members of this field in full-time or part-time (Url-1). Distributors in the multi-level marketing system are not only distributors of existing products, but also end users of these products. In addition, these distributors are independent employees who are affiliated to the related companies but are determined by their own business conditions and earnings. Direct sales, office, home, work place etc. with consumers. places directly to the customer by providing a personal interaction in places or promotes the products or services (Emirza et al., 2012: 23).

There are three main features that differentiate multi-level marketing enterprises from other economic enterprises (Lan, 2002: 166);

1) Distributors, multi-storey marketing business is not an official person, but act independently,

2) Having a personal relationship with consumers, without having a fixed sales space and mass advertising in reaching customers,

3) Distributors (in a hierarchical system management where seniority / copyright based distribution is distributed) to involve other individuals in the system and form multi-level sponsorship networks. In contrast to general marketing, multi-level marketing has terms and concepts that are not found in marketing literature, and some of these concepts are:

Distributor; distributors who serve as bridges between the company and the company and the ones whose name goes the most in multilevel marketing are distributors. Each distributor is an independent business owner (Işık, 2001: 55). Distributors or persons who are authorized to provide promotion and sales of products belonging to a manufacturer or supplier in certain regions are called distributors. The scope of the activities of the distributor is determined by the contract with the manufacturer or supplier. Distributors generally work with the commission method, which they will realize over the sales they carry out or which they perform (Url-2)

Sponsor / Top Line; Sponsorship is another difference that distinguishes multilevel marketing from direct sales. More than direct sales, sponsors, a distributor, how to do his job, how to set up his own business is taught. The lower line is also called the sales organization or sales group of the distributor. A distributor to create a sub-line, new distributors to obtain and guide them to help them to obtain new distributors and to help guide the distributors (Işık, 2001: 56). First line and business / opportunity meeting can be counted among other concepts.



1.1 The Development Process of the Multilevel Marketing System

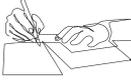
The multi-level marketing system is a way of doing business in the UK more than forty years ago. According to The Direct Selling Associations' 1990 study, a sales of more than 107 million pounds in 1989 shows that multi-level marketing was done. This level is about 24% higher than in 1988. This constitutes 10.9% of all direct sales. 29% in 12 months and 67% in two years. At the end of 1989, approximately 217,000 people in the UK were found to be multi-level marketing distributors (Çetin, 2001: 37-38).

The MLM business model, introduced in 1945, shows the two-way sale of retail through a network of distributors and the recruitment of new distributors to do the same work (Bosley and McKeage, 2015: 84). The success of traditional direct sales before the Second World War led to the search for a legitimate route by the respective retailers. After the Second World War, an increase in female salespersons continued. In the 1980s, the growth of direct sales with more women in the workforce and a thriving store retail has stopped. Starting in the 1940s, multilevel marketing suggested an alternative business model by reducing fixed costs and adding a "business opportunity". The MLM model, which is no longer commission-based, has become responsible for the recruitment of new distributors in order to pioneer retail products through a network of independent contractors (Keep and Vander, 2014: 189).

Multi-level marketing is a marketing approach that motivates participants to promote a specific product among their friends. The popularity of this approach is increasing due to the availability of modern social networks; but before the onset of the Internet era, there have been various forms. Social networks are everywhere; e-mails and phone books, family relatives and business contacts describe open or covered social networks. There were social networks long before the Internet, but recently web-based forms have been made more visible by companies such as Facebook, Twitter, or LinkedIn (Emek, 2011: 210).

It is thought that multilevel marketing will become more widespread. In multilevel marketing, due to the fact that mass advertisements are not needed and business expenses are very low, more importance is given to product development and research. Another reason why this sector seems attractive for distributor candidates is that it offers a serious and prosperous work opportunity. On the other hand, a number of motivational forms have been developed by multi-level marketing companies in order to make more efficient contributions to the multi-level marketing system of the distributors. In these sales networks, where the premium system is mostly applied, personal sales efforts according to the performance are transformed into income and the pace of work is gaining momentum. Therefore, these and similar slogans given below are used in target determination (Gürağaç, 2006: 54):

- Multi-level marketing allows ordinary people to have a very successful business without capital and experience.
- You can become the boss of your own business with multi-level marketing.



- In multi-level marketing, your revenue may increase depending on your performance.
- Unlimited earnings with multi-level marketing and time to enjoy them.

The studies carried out for the multi-level marketing system in our country can be summarized as follows; Argan (1997) by the research which was held for distributors in Oriflame company in Turkey, they are not 100% consumer goods distributors and so products can not sell easily, expressing the reasons for entry of persons into multi-level marketing system has been requested. According to the results of the study, the distributors stated that they are 100% consumers of the products and thus they can sell the easiest cosmetic products. They also stated that the reasons for entering the system were to provide additional income. In a research carried out by Graęa (2006) in Ktahya province, the researcher investigated the reason why distributors work in the multi-level marketing system as a permanent and self-employed business. N. Pařalı in Turkey (2006) by the study conducted by realized and distributors in Herbalife company, multilevel marketing system, have tried to demonstrate the effectiveness of existing customer relationship management of customer loyalty and communication strategy they have used in order to ensure satisfaction and consequently distributors of job loyalty of this system and it was found to be effective in the formation of satisfaction. In addition, in the study of Yılmaz and Kumkale (2018), communication has a positive effect on the performance of the company. Tekbas (2007) by examining the brochures of Herbalife company and by going to introductory meetings, various observations were made and a semi-structured interview was held with six people. As a result; While the users of the products and the employees trust the existing products and the system in the system, it is seen that those who left the system have made significant criticisms against the system. A study was carried out on Tupperware distributors in Yozgat provinces and districts carried out by Kara and iek (2016) and the perspective of Tupperware was tried to be learned. As a result of the research, the multi-level marketing company; they do not see their distributors as only the ultimate consumer, they see them as business partners.

1.2. Basic Principles of Multilevel Marketing System

Network marketing organizations or multilevel marketing (MLM) are retail sales channels that use independent distributors not only to buy and sell retail products, but also to incorporate new distributors into a growing network. The commissions and commissions related to the volume of personal sales and the net sales of the sales volume of the sub-sales are commonly used payment / salary methods to motivate the multilateral marketing distributors. Independent distributors play two important roles in the MLMs; the first is to sell the product and the other is to hire new members or to make members. The MLMs have several distinctive features. These are (Coughlan and Grayson, 1998: 401):

1. They are weak organizations, which typically use independent distributors or their agents to sell their products, rather than hiring and managing a large employee sales team.



2. Most MLMs don't advertise or have a retail store. This makes retail motivation a very important component in business success.

3. Distributors in an MLM do not receive salary as many other retailers do; fees depend on commissions and price differences between retail purchases and sales. Thus, the system is very heavy performance-oriented.

4. The MLMs offer an effective "compensation / payment" menu similar to the concept of contracts menu discussed in 1986 by Lal and Stael. An MLM distributor may sell the retail product or hire and manage other distributors. This gives the MLM distributor the opportunity to perform the most appropriate task effectively.

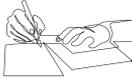
Every person who steps to work on this system has to learn the basic principles of the system. These principles are the practical rules that have made the distributors successful; to determine the goals and targets, to be 100% consumers of the products, to list the potential customers and distributors, to invite people to meetings, to be informed of any changes to the business as soon as possible and to tell their distributors (Gürağaç, 2006: 52-54).

1.3. Multilevel Marketing System Operation

Almost all salespeople representing direct sales organizations operate as independent contracted parties instead of employees / workers (Vander and Keep, 2002: 140). People are involved in a multilevel marketing program for various reasons. Most are usually recruited or recruited by a family member or friend. Some learn about a program on the internet or learn from colleagues. Products are often attractive. These products can be very unique and can be offered by entrepreneurs / organizers who claim that they cannot be found elsewhere. The opportunity to become a freelancer from home is attractive to people. Some people are unemployed and have a chance to at least earn some income for the multi-level marketing system. Membership in a multi-level marketing system offers a cheaper alternative to more expensive options for having a business. It's easy to get into a multi-level marketing system and it looks like a good way to be your own boss. Some of them enter into this system because an incentive to provide an almost unlimited income comes from the promise or at least proportional to time and effort (Taylor, 2011). It was concluded that successful multi-level marketing business took place in three stages as a result of examining applications based on multi-level marketing system (Çetin, 2001: 39):

Customer Discovery (Sales): Some circles claim that sales are not mandatory in this system. However, it is considered that the sales to be made in order to increase the income in a long and healthy way are indispensable. In addition, each multi-level marketing representative should be the first and most reliable customer in person.

Group Building (Organization): As you know, there is a good organization behind every successful business. For multi-level marketing, the organization is also an important factor for success. What is important here is that the person who establishes the group includes the optimal person in the system. The group manager should not exceed the number of people that he / she can be interested in when creating the first line, ie when registering a new member to the sys-



tem. Because if the person who establishes the group can only give the necessary training and motivation to the group, then the people in the group will be successful. Priority for the creation of a good group is the determination of the first line. The first line then forms its first line.

The stabilization of the organization in the operation of the multi-level marketing system is only possible if the partners in the second stage are well trained. When the person creates the first line in a good way, the distributors also form their first lines in the same discipline. This provides a giant organization in the first lines after a certain time (Muncy, 2004: 48). Multi-storey marketing is a very diverse and complex business architecture. Power is the ability of the multilevel network marketer to influence revenues. Due to the complex business architecture of network marketing, there is no official power or authority authorized in network marketers (Tyre, 2015: 210).

1.4. Gain Methods of Multilevel Marketing System

The earnings in an MLM enterprise are based on a combination of product sales and recruitment processes. Each member sells a product and is authorized to find as many members as possible to work under his supervision. Members are motivated to expand their personal recruitment networks, as successful recruiters are entitled to receive a commission from product sales from direct and / or indirect recruitment. This simple chain of recruitment-recruitment dynamics extends the membership and network of an MLM initiative (Pang and Monterola, 2017: 101). No money is given when people register or sign up. Money is only won when a person carries products (Muncy, 2004: 48). There are different methods of gain in the multi-level marketing method, which can give a premium over the team created by individuals. These are (Kara and Çiçek, 2016: 52);

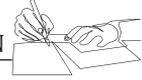
Unilevel: The most commonly used method. With this method, there is no limit to the number of people who can be added to the first level. Likewise, there is no limit in the lower levels. There is also a decrease in the commission amount, which is usually achieved by the increase in the levels.

Breakaway: This method is the same in terms of layout with unilevel. Individuals can create their own unlimited number of records. Underscores cannot skip a career before the career jump.

Matrix: With this method, it is clearly determined that the number of people who can be added to the stages and the number of people who will be able to make up to this level. In this case, the maximum revenue to be earned is also predetermined.

Binary: One of the newest methods. It has two arms and each record has two arms. It means that two people can be included in the first tier of each person. Use by illegal systems is the negative side of this method.

Estimates of the number of people who buy products and services from multi-level marketing organizations are quite high (Muncy, 2004: 49). A MLM member must collect new members to work under the supervision of a product to sell and win. (Legara et al., 2008: 4889).



2. The Benefits and Drawbacks of Multi-Level Marketing System

The MLM approach limits the negative aspects of traditional direct sales and increases the role of entrepreneurship (Vander and Keep, 2002: 139). Reasons to participate in multi-level marketing organizations; The reasons for joining the various sources of money earning, the bureaucratic environment which has the oppressive nature restricting the business life, the having the opportunity to have a free and flexible time and the appreciation of the products (Black, 1999: 47-54) are listed below:

Free work at home;

No going back to work, Possibility of determining the working hours and working speed, Time and freedom of movement, Be the boss of your own business, Selection of working style, Freedom of clothing, Less difficulty, No risk of dismissal.

Minimum business expenses;

Very low initial costs, Tax benefits, Lack of workers, No hiring and dismissal, No salary tax, (by itself) no product delivery (in leading companies), No stocking obligations (at leading companies), No billing and collection (leading companies), Lack of complex stationery

Ease of entry;

No investment, little capital requirement, To be able to start by working part-time, Almost no financial risk, Lack of regional restrictions, No concession and royalties, Most products and materials have a refund guarantee.

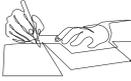
People;

Possibility to work with the person, frequent appreciation for work, Personal and professional development training, Performance, rather than social characteristics, such as gender, race, age, class, education, experience, physical ability, sexuality, family or work history, past success or failures. Success comes from cooperation, not competition, Family-like fun business atmosphere, Working with family members and developing relationships, Expanding the circle of friends, Socializing with positive, optimistic people with similar goals.

Other;

No income ceiling, National and international area of activity, Freedom in financial and temporal terms, Unique products, Creative control, Free or cost-effective training, Unlimited amount of counseling and training from sponsors / guides, Possibility of receiving income even in holidays or retirement, Use job ownership, Legacy of children (in leading firms), The value of the study.

There are some problems in multilevel marketing; lack of information, bias / doubts, monetary problems, limitations due to parental responsibilities (time limitation), fear of rejection in finding new members, rejection, contemptuous behavior, lack of credibility and company problems (Black, 1999: 79-94). Multilevel marketing has a negative image among many consumers as a whole. However, it should be noted that this negative image of multilevel marketing is not universal. Many people support multi-level marketing and use the choice



of products or services that are distributed through such marketing channels. Multilevel marketing represents an industry that provides a useful economic and business function (Muncy, 2004: 48).

Many different aspects of the multi-level marketing system has been criticized (Tekbas, 2010: 63-66);

There are some restrictions in business applications (New members, advertising, etc.). Business success depends to a large extent on the success of the company. Feeling of ailments in case of sales to the neighborhood. Multi-level marketing systems are designed to acquire new distributors forever. Masking of the pyramid structure with a product or service to become so-called legal. Family and friends to be targeted for exploitation. The fact that people are the products of the products and the character weaknesses can be counted. The reasons why people who do not participate in the multi-level marketing system in terms of ethics, technical and interpersonal relations are compiled from various sources (Black, 1999: 169-170):

Reservations about the claim of home-based self-employment;

Isolation when working alone, Self-motivation and the difficulty of self-discipline, Easy to waste the day, Obligation to obey the upper-line, cult-like, Obligation to follow the system, Obligation to comply with clothing rules, Harassment at any place, Lack of profession and income.

Concerns about the claim that business expenses are minimal;

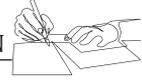
Cost of joining in case of a high quantity of Products, Elimination of some tax exemptions, Failure to look after someone else when they are ill, Lack of benefits such as business insurance, sanitary leave, paid holiday, Some companies have an obligation to deliver and ship, Some companies have an obligation to stock goods at home, Obligation to collect and invoice money from customers, A complex paperwork for retail marketing

Concerns about the ease of entry;

Some companies require a capital of over \$ 1000 to start work, Part-time work does not provide good money, There are some financial risks, especially in the purchase of educational tools, Satisfaction of job opportunities in the region, Some initial fees, the company's sales percentages retention, Difficulty making repayments in some companies

Concerns about relations with people;

No chance of choosing the upper line, Use of appreciation as a strategy to preserve people. The inspiration of the ambition / greed of personal development materials, Confirmation requires a capital over \$ 1,000 to start work in some companies, Part-time work does not provide good money, Leaders are successful when they start working with strong and diverse networks, Competition between legs (lines) causes isolation, Introducing the plan every night, It is unethical to have the obligation to bring the family into programs, Limitation of friends



to other marketers.

Other concerns;

Very few people gain high income, High travel expenses, It is not possible to make a satisfactory amount of money, Products are simple and can be found on all sides, Must have company literature and videos to be used. Some training seminars are expensive, Top-line support depends on the condition of being good, There is no true residual income, Check to be on the top line, A low-income job is not useful, Too much work requirement for a small fee, Psychologically unsustainable attempts to recruit friends, To underestimate the school and workplace of the upper line, Conception of conservative politics and religion in general, Some companies enter illegal business, They are in fact a pyramid structure, It is unethical to make money from friends, Unethical use of friends in general terms

CONCLUSION

Companies using Multi-Level Marketing (MLM) approach offer a variety of products and services, including product purchases designed to feed positive emotions over time with repeated purchases (Vander and Keep, 2002: 139-140).

The multi-level marketing method is a direct selling way for distributors and distributors to earn revenue after two different methods. The first is the earnings from the individual sales, while the other is the earnings from the sales of the distributors, the members of the teams, and the other people that they have added to the team according to the plan. For this reason, multi-level marketing system is an opportunity that allows individuals to establish and develop their own business independently (Çakmak, 2011: 31). The multi-level marketing system enables the people to make an active sale of the product by depositing a registration fee to the company, as well as a team of people who will sell as the distributor itself, and to enable them to reach more people in the same cycle, marketing method (Işık, 2001: 54). Distributors' emotional intelligence is expected to be high. People with strong emotional intelligence use their emotional intelligence in their relationships and communication with others by utilizing their existing communication capabilities. (Yılmaz, 2018: 76). Multi-level marketing or network marketing is a type of business that uses independent representatives to sell products or services to family, friends and acquaintances. This is a business strategy that involves participants at various levels, and at the levels below the level, the company gains return with continuity. Basically, it works on the multiplication replication principle, or it is a geometric increase in retail sales activity. The survival of the system is therefore dependent on the recruitment chain at lower functional levels, which maintains levels below it. A representative receives commissions from retail sales as well as from retail sales by hired people (Girish and Dipa, 2015: 105-109).

Direct selling is often the industry in which new and innovative products are introduced. Another product category that directly benefits from direct sales is the products that need more information to see the benefits (Muncy, 2004: 47-50). One of the biggest criticisms of multi-level marketing companies is the commercialization and instrumentalization of human relations. Family members and

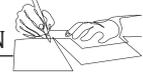


friends represent the hot market and foreigners represent the cold market (Butterfield, 1985: 85).

Among the reasons of development of multi-level marketing system; Since the working life of people in industrial societies is intense, the system analyzes this well and enables the person to adjust his / her free time according to this system and people can work in their own time. Persons need additional work due to lack of wages in their existing work, they can also provide an additional income through the multi-level market system. Changing consumption habits is another reason and contributed to the development of the system. As the rate of shopping at home increases, the development of direct marketing continues (Argan, 1997: 80). The fact that many of the distributors in this system do not work in a different job reveals the fact that multilevel marketing contributes to the current employment problem in our country (Kara and Çiçek, 2016: 60).

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**CHAPTER
28**

**THE IMPACT OF EXTERNAL DEBT ON
ECONOMIC GROWTH: EVIDENCE FROM
AFRICAN COUNTRIES**

Salih KALAYCI¹

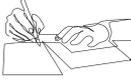
1. Introduction

First and foremost, it must be explained that external debt is one of the most crucial and vital decisions a country can take; it can either be used to cover a budget deficit or to invest in a particular sector. In this respect, this work will attempt to ascertain the root causes of economic growth in the long run. In addition, this chapter includes the essential information to emphasize the relationship between external debt and economic growth.

In the mid_20th century, poor countries began to rely more heavily on borrowing from rich countries to cover their current account deficit and sustain stable economic growth. Unfortunately, the current account deficit of the relevant countries increased significantly. For example, the Latin American debt crisis occurred in the early 1980s. So many Latin American countries, including Brazil, Argentina and Mexico, owed large amounts of credit. The consequences of the Latin American financial crisis upon bourgeois society were a high unemployment rate and low purchasing power. By the early 1990s, former Soviet countries adopted a market economy, providing their transition into Western Europe and notably Central Europe. However, they have faced budget deficits as well. As a result of this situation they were not able to fund domestic investments. The majority of the former communist countries suffered from high debt levels. Besides, Bulgaria, Poland, Hungary and Yugoslavia had borrowed from Western countries throughout the communist period in 1990 and so the foreign debt stacked up sharply, which is linked with GDP and exports (Bulow, Rogoff, Bevilaqua, Collins and Bruno, 1992).

Besides, the issue of foreign debt and its servicing has been considered as having critical significance in the “debt problem” discussion. Actually, outside borrowing is not necessarily detrimental; it depends on whether it is a reasonable level of debt. Some of the countries are described as heavily indebted poor countries (HIPC) due to excess debt level and liquidity problems. It is known that heavily indebted poor countries, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), demand debt relief incentives to maintain economic growth stability and struggle with destitution (Bulow, Rogoff, Bevilaqua, Collins and Bruno, 1992).

Furthermore, in the early period of development, developing countries strive to attract a large inflow of foreign resources in order to ensure their growth and financial stability. However, the majority of them are unable to sustain foreign capital, which is essential to obtaining economic growth. On the other hand, the other crucial issue is balance of payment deficit as governments suffer greatly



from heavy debt burdens. For this reason, they rely heavily on debt flow and private investment incentives to cover this gap. In addition, there are lots of macroeconomic risks regarding debt default, which involve real output losses. In fact, most of the developing countries are able to promote economic growth by providing a consistent level of borrowing (Boamah and Moore, 2009).

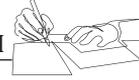
Moreover, it is generally argued that, if the indebted countries transfer the borrowed funds into fertile investments, it will trigger economic growth. Thus, macroeconomic stability would be enhanced by settling their debt obligations smoothly. Nevertheless, external debt has a negative impact as well. The excessive debt level can dilute growth by hindering investment and productivity growth. Apparently, the main reason is that when a larger percentage of reserves are used up to match debt servicing it causes a decline in access to external financial resources due to depleted creditworthiness. Actually, incremental external debt is immutably accompanied by a backup rise in debt service necessities that has inappropriate connotations for economic growth. In this manner, countries wipe out the debt service obligations (Hameed, Ashraf and Chaudhary, 2008).

Apart from this, borrowing is a financial tool to cover public expenditure, but also involves government intervention by implementing fiscal policy. This aspect of borrowing is frequently emphasized in the finance literature. The role of the government was increased regarding intervention when the Keynesian model began to dominate the economy. In this context, governments benefit from taxes, internal/external debt and budget policies in order to ensure economic growth and stability, the protection of economic interests, the fair allocation of wealth among individuals and the increasing of standards. Therefore, borrowing is one of the most vital financial sources and is as significant as tax (Cicek, Gozegir and Cevik, 2010).

In addition, there are several factors that influence economic growth, such as human capital, total trade, external debt and education. However, external debt is one of the most crucial factors that affect countries' long-term economic growth. Capital is a significant component of production; therefore, external debt as a capital inflow has an important role in raising the national output. However, increased use of capital might have a negative effect as it raises the debt servicing expenses and may influence balance of payments (Haran and Butt, 2008).

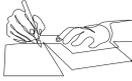
2. Literature Review

The majority of the countries had been severely exposed to the global recession of the 1980s owing to the oil shock in 1973. In particular, some of the debtor countries found themselves in a difficult financial situation regarding debt services in view of excessive real interest rates, the nominal commodity price and slack growth in the industrial countries. Therefore, this term has been identified as a debt overhang since 1981. The major aim of such research is to detect whether the debt is impacting the debtor countries' economic growth through decline in investment. Nevertheless, the recent economic and political events show that it is essential to collect data that ensures the acquisition of a body of knowledge (Bulow, Rogoff, Bevilaqua, Collins and Bruno, 1992).



Savvides (1992) alleges that if a debtor country cannot afford to pay its foreign debt, country debt payment efforts are tied to economic performance. Besides, the government takes advantage of the increase in production and exports thus, a part of the rise is implemented to service the debt; therefore, from the outlook of the debtor country in the aggregate, the debt overhang leads to a high marginal tax rate which reduces the reversion to investment and ensures obstacles to domestic capital structure. The obstructive impact of the debt overhang might have repercussions on both investment and individual savings. In fact, the entire foreign debt is retained by the government. Moreover, governments grant fewer incentives to institute policies in order to enhance domestic capital structure by lowering the exchange rate gradually for better economic growth. The writer predicted models by implementing a two-stage limited dependent variable model implemented by cross-sectional time series data related to 43 less developed countries between 1980 and 1987. Savvides (1992) experimented to test the importance of many drivers influencing investment rates as well. In this case, less developed countries (LCD) may face debt servicing difficulties. This project pointed out that decline in foreign capital inflow and debt overhang have a substantially negative impact on investment rates. Capital inflows are categorized as mercantile and non-mercantile flows. A reduce in mercantile inflow is a crucial consideration in investment. Furthermore, non-commercial inflow is not a causal factor in reduction of investment rate. Thus, the conclusion is viable and similar to the International Monetary Fund's (IMF) results in 1989. According to this result, the debt overhang is a vital consideration that affects investment performance. Depending on the situation, the major reasons for borrowing between 1971 and 1979 were different from government to government. Kruger (1987) asserts that when the gasoline (petroleum) costs soared dramatically, gasoline importing countries encountered serious difficulties regarding current account deficits. At the same time, gasoline exporters attained massive current account surpluses. In this case, oil exporters lent to the financial intermediaries which covered the financial deficits of petroleum importing countries. Sachs and Williamson (1986) emphasizes that, if borrowed countries pay their debt regularly, it will hopefully fund the public sector. When the government intend to pay debt liabilities, the tax is imposed on the public. Gradually rising taxes may negatively affect the net returns of investment. To sum up, if the investment of borrowed countries decreases sharply, there is a negative impact on production and income as well.

The majority of the empirical research is based on the nature of the effect of the varied factors on economic growth. There is much theoretical literature regarding this subject. However, the issue of the non-linear effect of foreign debt on economic growth is not found immediately in theoretical models, despite relevant literature involving lots of assumptions that clarify the determinant factors of economic growth. The substantial literature on economic growth theory about relevant issues can be classified into three groups of theories. The first of these concerns countries having plausible debt levels in order to ensure positive impact on growth. The second group involves the theory that excess cumulative debt levels have negative effects on growth. And the last group's theories unite previous considerations and argued that the effect of external debt on economic growth is non-linear by nature.



The first group embraces the old post-Keynesian theories of growth and neoclassical models. The old post-Keynesian models such as the Harrod-Domar model (1946), and neoclassical theories, such as the Solow-Swan model (1959), point out the significance of saving and investment in more excessive growth. The second group involves debt overhang theories. However, it is argued that debt overhang is the major problem for retarded economic growth among indebted countries.

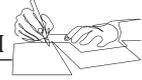
On the other hand, Krugman (1988) implements a debt overhang model in which he bears in mind the debt repayment from creditors and its contradictions. He discusses that, if a country is confronted with debt payment problems, the creditors struggle to find a different strategy. However, the value of debt will soar dramatically. In this case, the current value of the debt is more than the whole future resources transfers. The creditor's strategy elaborates barter among nullification of a debt and additional financing of the country. Thus, the current value of the debt must be comparable with the current value of the country's prospective income. The earnings from investment will cause excess marginal tax desired by creditors that will bolster the low level of present and future investments.

This paper's view regarding foreign debt issue is supported by many observations, which separate the debt problem on the question of whether the crisis occurred due to solvency issues or liquidity. Kletzer (1988) observed heavily indebted economies in terms of solvency issues by measuring the present value of their prospective resources. Hence, he reached the result that the PV of their prospective resources, such as the discounted value of real output flows, is bigger than developing countries' debt obligations. However, if developing economies met solvency, then it is essential to clarify why relevant countries would have been liquid. For this reason, foreign creditors would have been unwilling to maintain the pace of the loan.

In this case, one of the approaches for this question is to differentiate between the ability to pay and the willingness to pay. By the way, debt agreements dealt with relevant debtors must be compulsive and find it in their interests to comply with their payment obligations. In this context, the debt crisis can be explained by willingness to pay falling owing to lots of reasons that arranged a re-contracting process. Most of the debt literature has pursued this approach, and discusses the modelling process of lending to sovereign countries (Agenor and Montiel 2000: 442-443).

The third group's model is improved by Calvo (1998), namely a theoretical model. His model confronted three different debt issues. The first issue is that growth is a rising function of the debt. The second issue is that the economy may indicate a high or low growth route. The last issue is the declining function of the debt. Calvo (1998) demonstrates that the case of an indistinct high level of previous debt would be related to a high tax burden to service the debt and, ultimately, a low return rate would occur on investment. In addition, high economic growth lowers the required tax rate to service the debt.

Chowdhury (1994) attempted to find out the incongruity of cause and effect connection among foreign debt and economic growth by performing Granger



causality tests for the Asian region in nearly one decade from 1970 to 1989. His discovery regarding private and public foreign debt was that they have proportionally only a slight effect on Gross National Product (GNP). He also found that any increment in GNP triggers higher levels of foreign debt. However, aggregate foreign debt does not have any adverse effect on economic growth rate. Besides, Scott (1994) utilized the basic neo-classical model in order to assess if capital imports may enhance the production level and if there are sufficient exports to cover the foreign debt servicing money among African countries. His study recommended that a major surplus existing for debt service can be so insufficient and can control the debt overhang. Moreover, Lyoha (2000) implemented a comparison approach to point out the effect of foreign debt on economic growth in the African Sub-Saharan region, using a little macroeconomic model during the period 1970-1994. He detected an adverse connection among debt overhang, investment and crowding out. Thus, foreign debt reduces investment by an obstacle impact and a crowding out impact and finally it influences the economic growth. Feldstein (2008) discusses the fact that debt is not an issue of releasing resources to external debt payment but also converts relevant resources into foreign exchange. In fact, it is agreed that HIPC countries are willing to succeed this by raising export volume but in reality the experience indicates that sustaining the stability for raising exports is too hard.

The major criterion in determining the appropriate level of foreign borrowing in the long term is deciding whether external borrowing is used for investment which is expected to obtain foreign exchange earnings. Thus, the external debt is paid through sufficient foreign exchange savings. That does not mean that the overall foreign debt facilitates the whole economic growth of a country. The issue is whether foreign borrowing facilitates enough to sustain of the growth of the commercial goods industry to be self-liquidating. If this happens, foreign debt can be reasonable; if it does not happen, the foreign debt accumulation is not suggested, which causes transformation a problem. Therefore, obtaining enough foreign exchange in order to repay the required debt will not happen (World Bank 1985:48).

The Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) has decided to increase the oil price for a barrel of crude oil in October 1973, which influenced the many oil importing countries. The price of crude oil per barrel increased from \$2.59 in January 1973 to \$5.18 in November 1973. Afterwards, it soared to \$11.65 in January 1974. As a result of this situation, oil prices rose by approximately 500 % (Wee 1976:133; Vernon 1987:290).

Oil importing countries could have decreased their petroleum and other import costs to sustain both trade and current account balances. However, this system has slowed economic growth. In addition, there would have been fewer imported inputs and the impact would have been stronger; therefore, these adjustment policies were followed advertently by only some of countries in the 1970s. Oil importing countries have encountered higher prices. Therefore, this situation has been imposed on oil importing countries to decide whether to decrease the aggregate volume of imports and naturally lower the economic growth rate or further accumulate foreign debt to buy more costly oil and other requested imports (Cypher and Dietz 2009:531).



Warner (1992) attempted to evaluate the magnitude of the debt crisis impact on investment through the least squares prediction for thirteen less developed economies between 1982 and 1989 by performing a set of independent variables. Reduction of investment in most highly indebted economies is decreasing the export prices, extremely high world interest rate and slow growth rate in developing economies. Thus, the desired investment falls directly due to such shocks. It is mainly discussed that, to assess debt impact, a convenient method to predict investment over the debt crisis between the years 1982 and 1989 is to apply equations that involve the reduction of export prices for borrowed economies, extremely high world interest rates and stagnation in developed economies, but which do not involve debt crisis impacts. The major issue is that these predictions should not pursue investment throughout the debt crisis term if the accepted debt crisis impacts are vital, but should pursue investment if they are not. There is no doubt that, if debt crisis impacts are significant, then the investment estimates that rule out the debt crisis impacts should be more than actual investments. Warner (1992) alleges that the reduction of investment in most of the HIPC list may be estimated from the sample by the basic concept of trade and world real interest rate equations. To sum up, a debt crisis contains a panel regression.

The countries' policies and world economic structure altered considerably in 1982. These fundamental changes could damage the utility of a predicting equation in indebted countries due to the drastic impacts of debt crisis. For this reason, Warner's hypothesis is impaired by performing the dummy variable between 1982 and 1989. Rockerbie (1994) applied an ordinary least squares for all thirteen countries from 1965 to 1990. The outcome indicates that the debt depression had considerable impacts of reduction of domestic investment in underdeveloped countries (LDCs). This project implemented variables including external debt stock, domestic monetary, fiscal policies and also world economic structures. Besides, the investment equation was implemented by Rockerbie in 1994. It is known that debt crisis and subsequent moratoriums on debt service liabilities had a considerable negative impact on economic growth rate in underdeveloped countries in 1982. By the way, debt crisis impaired the sensitivity of investment considering domestic and external conjunctures as well. Reduction in net flows had crucial impacts on economic growth in LDCs. Afxentiou and Serletis (1996) investigated developing countries in terms of debt service problems. The major aim of this study was to explore the statistical link between external debt and productivity. The overall data comes from the period 1970-1990, which is divided into two sub periods. The first is related to the first decade (1970-1980) and is identified by the rapid rise of external debt. The second period is identified by the years of debt servicing difficulties. The impact of debt is investigated in four groups of 55 developing economies. By the way, 19 of them are identified as low income economies, 12 of them are identified as middle income economies, 10 of them are moderately indebted low income economies and 14 of them are identified as moderately middle income countries. In their research, four different groups of countries are analysed through six debt indicators to measure economic growth rate. Finally, this study indicated that the correlation with indebtedness and national productivity is not negative from 1980 to 1990.



It is greatly significant regarding the assessment of the debt issue for HIPC that particularly the multilateral creditors such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) provide debt relief to them. Lots of the developing economies borrowed a lot of money from the multilateral institutions to pay off the debt service to private creditors in 1980s. Thus, balance of the debt changes its positions from private to public creditors. Besides, most of the economies borrowed heavily through the IMF and world structural adjustment programmes. Some economies are identified as high risk countries in the report due to insufficient repayment of debt. That is why so many HIPC economies demand a large reduction of liabilities to multinational creditors to fix long-term financial feasibility (Sachs, 1996).

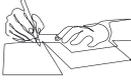
The multinational debt initiative is organized with the Paris Club under a London Club agreement to provide an extensive and influential reduction of debt on behalf of principles enunciated earlier. The International Monetary Fund sells gold to support debt reduction. There is a possibility of encountering a long-term lending risk for both the World Bank and other creditors that could result in bank loss. This loss contingency on long-term loans would ensure a significant stimulus among the financial intermediaries (banks) in order to examine loans attentively. By the way, growth-oriented programmes provide debt repayment. If the financial intermediary is worried about losses on its own credit, it generally implements bureaucratic restraint to flow loans to insecure customers. The progressive debt reduction operations have failed to fix the financial feasibility of the debtor countries. In this case, the debt reduction operation seems complicated to work out on this issue. Lots of countries face high reform fatigue for one decade - structural adjustment with little or no economic growth. Therefore, the relevant countries are eager to obtain financial and political support in terms of incremental debt relief to sustain reforms (Sachs, 1996).

3. Methodology and Data Analysis

It is generally argued that the entity of a debt overhang makes obstacles for domestic investment in the highly indebted economy. If debt forgiveness is to be provided, then domestic investment and creditors must gain increased actual payment, which is pointed out by Jeffrey Sachs (1986). Thus, it can be categorized as two period models. Assume that the debtor country increases the discounted utility U obtained from domestic consumption in per period.

$$U(c_1, c_2) = u(c_1) + \beta u(c_2), \quad (A1)$$

U is a concave utility function, C_t demonstrates domestic consumption in period t . In addition, $0 < \beta < 1$ is a discount rate. If a nation goes into the first period through a stock of debt, it provides contractual payment liabilities of D_0 throughout the second period. The debt service payments are not required in the first period. R represents the actual payments to the creditors in the second period which is $R < D_0$. The government is responsible for paying R to creditors including servicing any adhesive debt it incurs from new creditors but the government do not pay more than a fraction $0 < \delta < 1$ of nation's second period income in total debt service. Consequently, the government determines the amount of invest-



ment and debt level during the first period. The following equations are related to constraint.

$$c_1 = f(k_0) + D_1 - I_1, \quad (A2)$$

$$c_2 = f(k_0 + I_1) - (1+\rho) D_1 - R \quad (A3)$$

I_1 represents initial capital stock in period 1. I_1 is investment during period 1. D_1 is new borrowing during period 1. ρ is the world risk free rate. There are credit supply restrictions to be achieved by the government. New loans will be available if new creditors are fully repaid.

$$(1+\rho)D_1 < f(k_0 + I_1) - R \quad (A4)$$

A4 holds new borrowing D_1 is a choice variable for the government, since funds are available in infinitely elastic supply at the interest rate ρ , if the condition (A4) holds, the first order conditions for a maximum are:

$$-u'(c_1) + \alpha u'(c_2) f'(k_0 + I_1) = 0 \quad (A5a)$$

$$u'(c_1) - \alpha (1 + \rho) u'(c_2) = 0 \quad (A5b)$$

To solve for I_1 substitute (A5b) in (A5a) and simplify, domestic investment is thus given implicitly by

$$f'(k_0 + I_1) = 1 + \rho \quad (A6)$$

Substituting equation (A6) in (a5b) identifies first period debt implicitly as a function of R .

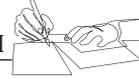
$$-\alpha f' u''(c_2)$$

$$-1 < d' = \frac{\alpha f' u''(c_2)}{U''(c_1) + \alpha (1+r^*) f' u''(c_2)} \quad (A7)$$

$$U''(c_1) + \alpha (1+r^*) f' u''(c_2)$$

(Agenor and Montiel 2000:468-471).

This work started with the background of highly indebted poor countries and includes brief information about them in terms of debt service and its impact on economic growth. On the other hand, this project's approach concentrates on three major key issues: debt overhang, debt sustainability of HIPC and its analysis, and the HT model (Thirlwall and Hussain, 1982) including terms of trade (TOT) impact. Thus, on behalf of debt sustainability analysis, this study is able to predict the economic growth trend for the next two decades through baseline assumptions. By the way, debt sustainability also shows the risk of debt distress and gives growth projections of nominal GDP with a spurious sense of consis-



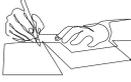
tency across debt sustainability. Furthermore, the other major key issue is the HT model, which involves the long-term economic growth rate by ruling out the effect of debt service obligations. Finally, debt overhang is an essential condition for debt relief to generate economic gain.

In addition, the Economic Policy and Debt Department (PRMED) is the unit within the World Bank's Poverty Reduction and Economic Management Network, which is in charge of using the Debt Sustainability Framework (DSF) for HIPC economies' DSF initiative. Some of this project's data sources are prepared with the cooperation of both World Bank and IMF framework purposes to contribute to the development goals of low income countries (LICs) without causing future debt problems. Besides, on behalf of the World Bank's debt sustainability analysis, this study aims to observe the countries that have obtained debt relief under HIPC initiative by illustrating the debt accumulation trend through baseline assumptions.

The research approach of this work continues with the HT model to estimate the long-term economic growth rate under the HIPC initiative by implementing enhanced decision point eDP. Thus, the research approach of this study combines both DSF and the HT model with eDP in order to forecast the overall results of HIPC countries' debt accumulation trend and its effect on economic growth rate. However, the general research approach of this project is strongly inspired by the World Bank's articles. There are two types of approaches; Deductive and Conductive. Deductive research approach involves deductive though, which transforms general theory into specific hypothesis appropriate for testing. In this situation, the research's thinking runs from general to the specific. Inductive approach involves inductive though or seasoning which transforms specific observations into general theory. This work based on deductive approach.

The computation of the effect of debt service obligations and of the terms of trade is intelligible throughout the equation that will be demonstrated in the following sections regarding growth equation. However, the study will combine necessary statements with basic equations in order to calculate the effect factor on poverty for the methodology section. This study will implement the growth of poverty elasticity to evaluate the effect of debt relief on poverty. In addition, the same methodology is implemented for the effect of variables in the terms of trade (TOT) on poverty, that is to say this project multiplies poverty elasticity by the impact of debt service obligation on growth to obtain the effect of debt service on poverty. In a like manner, this study multiplies poverty elasticity by the impact of the terms of trade (TOT) on growth to obtain the effect of the terms of trade on poverty.

On the other hand, debt sustainability analysis including the effect of debt service on real GDP growth and poverty in Africa, measuring for each HIPC country will be taken into consideration in order to emphasize the predicted growth rate compared to the actual growth rate. This project attempts to determine the effect of external debt on economic growth and these two methods (DSF and HT) merit the research. The World Bank's working project also shows that the most of African countries' debt accumulation and grant element of net borrowing will



decrease from 2010 to 2030. The most extreme shock is also decreasing considerably. Javed and Sahinoz (2005) assert that structural adjustment programmes are able to remove economic distortions by contributing regular repayments of the foreign debt, which raises exports, investment and the economic growth of the Turkish economy. However, although the HIPC African countries are suffering from external debt in the short term, they will ensure economic growth properly in the long term which is demonstrated in chapter 4 through DSF. Briefly, the World Bank's projects prove that, by the implementation of structural reforms, the HIPC countries' exports, economic growth and FDI will be enhanced.

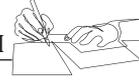
In addition, the equation is predicted using a fundamental growth model involving the major variables recommended by the Solow (1956) model and other necessary controls through evaluating public debt levels. The following equation includes the basic components of economic growth to understand the correlation between GDP growth rate, debt and investment;

$$Growth_{i,t} = \alpha GDP_{i,t-1} + \rho Public\ Debt_{i,t} + Y_i + \beta^1 + \delta_i + T_i + E_{i,t}$$

The value of GDP " $GDP_{i,t-1}$ " evaluates conditional convergence and "Y" is a vector of necessary control variables which involves the investment rate. The total exports and imports of products and service on GDP include the measure of openness and standard deviation of inflation. Consequently, " δ_i " and " T_i " relate in turn to the country and time fixed impacts evaluated by geographic time dummies and " $E_{i,t}$ " represents the classical spherical error term (Presbitero, 2008).

The statement of Thirlwall (1979) involves the long-term economic growth rate " y " of advanced economy which is equal to export growth rate " E " divided by income elasticity " π " of demanded imports " M ". For instance, " $y = E/\pi$ " is a fundamental equation that is elaborated and is called Thirlwall's law. The law of Thirlwall is entirely concerned with the long-term period and it is impossible to expand an economy more than its BOP equilibrium (Hussain and Gunter, 2005).

Afterwards, Thirlwall's equation was improved by Thirlwall and Hussain (1982); it was adapted to developing economies and called the extended Hussain Thirlwall Model (HT). This model contains capital flows and TOT. The Hussain and Thirlwall model involves major components of developing economies, which assist long-term economic development by ruling out the effect of debt service obligations. Due to the excessive debt accumulation in around 1970 and 1980, the debt service obligations have piled up for developing economies. Thus, the HT model was extended by Elliott and Rhodd (1999) in order to facilitate debt service obligations. The following equation is related to growth rate of real GDP embracing last extension of HT:



$$y = \left[\frac{T}{M\pi} \right] * \left[\left(\frac{E}{R} \eta + \frac{M}{T} \psi \right) (p_d - e - p_f) + \left(\frac{E}{R} (p_d + \varepsilon z) \right) - \left(\frac{M}{T} (p_f + e) \right) - \left(\frac{D}{T} (d + e) \right) + \left(\frac{C}{R} k \right) \right]$$

The definition of letters:

C Represents aggregate capital inflows and D represents aggregate debt service obligations, E is aggregate exports, M is aggregate imports, and R demonstrates aggregate exports + capital inflows " C ". T shows aggregate imports + aggregate debt service. Lowercase " d " shows the debt service rate variation, " e " represents exchange rate variation. " k " demonstrates capital inflows growth rate, " pd " indicates rate of domestic price variation. " pf " shows foreign price variation and the letter " z " demonstrates the total world income growth. η represents export price elasticity, ψ shows import price elasticity, ε demonstrates export income elasticity and finally ε represents import income elasticity (Hussain and Gunter, 2005).

The following concepts for several variables, elasticity and parameters are aggregate capital inflows " C ", aggregate imports + aggregate debt service " T ", aggregate exports + aggregate capital inflows " R ", aggregate imports " T ", aggregate export " E " and aggregate debt service payments " D ". The most vital side of this model consists of the five major factors increasing (or declining) economic growth rate in developing economies. The first factor $[T / (M\pi) (E/R \eta + M / T \psi) (pd - e - pf)]$ demonstrates the terms of trade (TOT) impact, the second factor $[T / (M\pi) (E/R) (pd + \varepsilon z)]$ indicates the export impact and domestic price, the third factor shows $- [T / (M\pi) (M / T) (pf + e)]$. The fourth factor $- [T / (M\pi) (D / T) (d + e)]$ demonstrates the debt service impact and finally the fifth factor $[T / (M\pi) (C / R) k]$ shows the capital flow impact. The terms of trade impact and capital flow impacts can be considered affirmative or damaging. On the other hand, the domestic cost and export impact are mostly affirmative. By the way, the devaluation, imported inflation impact and debt service impact have a damaging effect (Hussain and Gunter, 2005).

Thirlwall's law denotes that there is no opportunity to develop an economy faster in the long term than the rate it complies with the BOP equilibrium. The Thirlwall and Hussain (1982) model has been improved to ensure prediction for the long-term growth rates of developing economies. The appropriate results can be obtained by giving sufficient time to elaborate data. This is notably vital to cover African countries' economic growth rate in terms of capital inflow. Besides, the HT model is not convenient to implement for the prediction of short-term growth rate. For this reason, it is not necessary to calculate short-term growth rate for HIPC because they have already obtained increased debt relief. Depending on the HIPC initiative status implementation, the change in real GDP growth occurs owing to several considerations. Supposing that the difference in real GDP growth rates are all owing to necessary debt relief would mean over prediction. Thus, the methodology is implemented in order to forecast the effect of debt service savings. However, it is not related to real GDP growth rate " y



“calculations that are related to the difference in debt service impacts in view of the new D / T ratios and the difference in debt service parameter “ d ” (Hussain and Gunter, 2005).

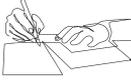
Due to the continuous failure of debt relief, both the World Bank and the IMF applied the HIPC initiative in 1996. The major goal of this application is reduction of all external debt to a level that would enable African economies to permanently exit the process of repeated debt rescheduling. However, HIPCs economies remain unsustainable after full implementation of debt relief mechanisms, a package of debt relief that means that enhanced decision point “**eDP**”. The three year implementation of “**eDP**” gives the idea of making a rational comparison before and after the HIPC initiative. This study has added debt service savings for HIPC in 1999 to the actual debt service obligations of 1999 as well in order to point out the status of both Comoros’ and Togo’s debt service reduction. In addition, the 18 African countries listed in Table 1 attained the **eDP** in 2000 (Hussain and Gunter, 2005).

The debt sustainability analysis (DSA) was developed collectively by both relevant banks and fund staff in accordance with the standardized debt sustainability framework (DSF) methodology for low income countries (LICs). After implementing debt relief, African countries debt risk distress is considerably lower and this result is sensitive for both foreign direct investment (FDI) flows and export shocks as well as to debt status. The situation of an economy’s debt distress risk remains constant and the present value of the foreign debt remains less than 30 % through the consideration of an average yearly concessional debt of 3 % of GDP for the period. The framework is designed for a clear methodology in order to evaluate the risk of debt distress in LICs involving projections of five debt burden indicators via both baseline and standardized stress test scenarios. For instance: the net present value (NPV) of foreign debt to GDP ratio; the NPV of external debt to export ratio; the NPV of foreign debt to revenue ratio; debt service to export ratio; and debt service to revenue ratio. The empirical proof advices that low income economies with a better quality of policies and other institutions are able to maintain a higher level of foreign debt. In addition, the LIC DSA framework points out the prediction of relevant debt burden indicators through policy dependent threshold implementing the World Bank’s Country Policy and Institutional Assessment (CPIA) (World Bank, 2008).

**Table 1.** The Effect of Debt Service on Real GDP and Poverty in Africa

Country Name	Predicted	Predicted	Predicted	Actual	Poverty	Predicted
	Effect of Debt	Other	Growth	Growth	Elasticity	Effect of Debt
	Service on	Effects on	Growth	Rate	of Growth	Service on
	Growth	Growth	Rate	Rate		Poverty
	(A)	(B)	(C = A+B)		(D)	(E = C*D)
I. HICPs (that reached the enhanced DP by Dec. 2000)						
BENIN	-1.3%	5.2%	3.9%	3.4%	-1.12	1.4%
BURKINA FASO	-1.9%	9.9%	8.0%	6.0%	-0.69	1.3%
CAMEROON	-1.6%	0.9%	-0.7%	0.5%	-0.38	0.6%
GAMBIA, THE	-0.8%	1.2%	0.4%	3.8%	-0.88	0.7%
GUINEA	-7.1%	8.4%	1.3%	4.3%	-0.38	2.7%
GUINEA-BISSAU	-2.1%	1.0%	-1.1%	1.7%	-0.38	0.8%
MADAGASCAR	-3.4%	4.9%	1.5%	1.9%	-0.80	2.7%
MALAWI	-4.3%	6.3%	2.0%	3.5%	-0.52	2.2%
MALI	-2.4%	7.9%	5.5%	4.8%	-0.56	1.4%
MAURITANIA	-1.4%	6.5%	5.1%	3.4%	-1.57	2.2%
MOZAMBIQUE	-6.7%	9.8%	3.1%	5.6%	-0.52	3.5%
NIGER	-0.9%	5.4%	4.5%	2.7%	-0.56	0.5%
RWANDA	-3.8%	5.7%	2.0%	1.8%	-0.38	1.4%
SAO TOME & PRINCIPE	-4.0%	3.8%	-0.3%	1.2%	-0.38	1.5%
SENEGAL	-3.3%	3.7%	0.4%	3.0%	-1.96	6.4%
TANZANIA	-7.9%	11.9%	4.0%	3.8%	-0.81	6.4%
UGANDA	-3.6%	6.8%	3.2%	5.3%	-1.04	3.8%
ZAMBIA	-10.1%	10.5%	0.4%	0.3%	-0.42	4.2%
Average (PPP weighted)	-4.1%	6.5%	2.4%	3.3%	-0.75	2.8%
II. HICPs (that reached enhanced DP by April 2004)						
CHAD	-0.3%	2.8%	2.5%	1.0%	-0.38	0.1%
ETHIOPIA	-8.8%	12.0%	3.1%	3.3%	-0.67	5.9%
GHANA	-6.7%	10.1%	3.4%	4.3%	-2.40	16.0%
SIERRA LEONE	-10.6%	7.2%	-3.4%	-1.4%	-1.12	11.9%
Average (PPP weighted)	-7.4%	10.3%	2.8%	3.3%	-1.36	9.8%
III. HICPs (that have not yet reached enhanced DP)						
BURUNDI	-2.1%	4.5%	2.4%	1.8%	-0.38	0.8%
COMOROS	-0.2%	3.3%	3.1%	2.7%	-0.94	0.2%
CONGO, REPUBLIC OF	-1.7%	5.4%	3.7%	3.4%	-0.38	0.6%
COTE D IVOIRE	-5.6%	7.4%	1.8%	3.1%	-1.79	10.1%
TOGO	-0.7%	3.4%	2.7%	2.8%	-1.12	0.8%
Average (PPP weighted)	-4.0%	6.1%	2.2%	2.9%	-1.37	6.5%
IV. Other African countries						
ALGERIA	-8.1%	11.0%	2.9%	2.4%	-1.57	12.7%
BOTSWANA	-1.2%	8.4%	7.2%	7.2%	-0.52	0.6%
CAPE VERDE	-1.3%	3.9%	2.6%	2.1%	-1.12	1.5%
EGYPT	-3.8%	8.6%	4.9%	4.0%	-1.57	5.9%
EQUATORIAL GUINEA	-6.1%	16.5%	10.4%	14.0%	-0.38	2.3%
GABON	-0.7%	2.1%	1.5%	0.9%	-0.38	0.2%
KENYA (sustainable HIPC)	-2.6%	6.4%	3.7%	0.9%	-1.40	3.7%
LESOTHO	-0.9%	6.2%	5.3%	4.8%	-0.52	0.5%
MAURITIUS	-1.8%	10.7%	8.9%	8.8%	-0.94	1.7%
MOROCCO	-4.7%	8.7%	4.0%	3.4%	-1.57	7.4%
NAMIBIA	-0.6%	5.4%	4.7%	4.4%	-0.52	0.3%
NIGERIA	-10.4%	12.2%	1.8%	-1.7%	-1.16	12.0%
SEYCHELLES	-1.9%	9.3%	7.4%	4.3%	-0.94	1.8%
SOUTH AFRICA	-1.8%	2.7%	0.9%	0.6%	-0.52	0.9%
SWAZILAND	-1.4%	8.1%	6.7%	7.2%	-0.61	0.9%
TUNISIA	-2.0%	5.5%	3.5%	3.5%	-1.57	3.1%
ZIMBABWE	-11.9%	15.1%	3.2%	0.5%	-0.52	6.1%
Average (PPP weighted)	-4.4%	7.1%	2.7%	1.8%	-1.07	5.4%
14 Afr. Compl. Point HICPs (PPP w.)	-5.6%	8.8%	3.3%	3.8%	-1.08	5.9%
All African HICPs (PPP w.)	-5.0%	7.5%	2.5%	3.2%	-1.00	5.3%
Africa (PPP weighted)	-4.5%	7.2%	2.6%	2.1%	-1.06	5.4%

Note *: Angola, the Central African Republic (CAR), the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Djibouti, Eritrea, Liberia, Libya, Somalia, and Sudan are excluded due to lack of data. Of these nine excluded countries, the DRC reached the enhanced decision point in July 2003; Angola, Djibouti, Eritrea, and Libya are considered sustainable without requiring HIPC debt relief; the CAR, Liberia, Somalia, and the Sudan remain to be considered under the HIPC Initiative.



The real GDP growth rate is demonstrated in section D. In the last section, section E, the impact of debt service on poverty is calculated and the poverty elasticity of growth is multiplied through estimated GDP growth rate. Finally, this table indicates the impact and growth rates annually, which include 1985 and 1999 data. Both the actual growth rate and estimated growth rate results demonstrates that the HT model (eDP) supports a probabilistic estimate of future events of HIPC countries. The model forecasted 2.6 % growth rate per year by matching the 2.1 % actual growth rate, which is related to all African countries (Hussain and Gunter, 2005).

The impact of debt service on real GDP is subversive for whole African economies. The magnitude of the negative effect is diversified significantly (i.e. Comoros is -0.2 % and Zimbabwe is -11.9 %). The average for countries is provided in first three columns (look at the overall results at the end of table 1). The table also indicates the impact of debt service on economic growth country by country. This table contains both HIPC and non-HIPC countries.

Moreover, considering the six debt ratios involved in table A, including the impact of debt service on growth, indicates striking cohesion among the four groups. The first and last sections are an integral part of table A, such as the fact that heavily indebted poor countries attained the e DP by December 2000 by the negative values for the impacts of the debt service on economic growth and poverty despite the fact that poverty, elasticity changes significantly between countries.

This method is implemented for the other three sub groups as well. Focusing on the final section of table 1, the impact of debt service permanently raises poverty and the calculation estimates the debt service increased poverty in HIPCs by around 5.4-% every year through a gap between HIPCs and non-HIPCs. Nevertheless, the majority of HIPC countries obtain a sufficient amount of debt relief and this project must take into consideration the comparatively low impact of debt service on poverty for the first group of HIPCs (the average is 2.8 % per year) (Hussain and Gunter, 2005).

Debt Sustainability Analysis of Some HIPC African Countries

BENIN

The debt sustainability analysis (DSA) demonstrates that Benin's risk of debt distress remains moderate. Besides, all foreign debt indicators remain lower for the long-term, which is determined by baseline projection. In addition to this, debt indicators show that the fiscal stance is implemented into a sustainable path more than the medium term. Moreover, the debt ratios have soared sharply toward the threshold by insufficient growth of GDP, export and foreign direct investment (FDI). Hence, this fact emphasizes the significance of fiscal application and adjustment of structural reforms targeted at improving competitiveness, growth and to cover the budget deficit via foreign grants and further concessional loans. Consequently, the PV of foreign debt is estimated to decrease from 9-% of GDP in the long term. The debt service payment ratio would be less than



3-%. Besides, the PV of debt to exports ratio would be lower than the 150-% frontier. The debt to GDP ratio is determined to decline nearly 14-% and the debt to revenue ratio will remain approximately 60-% which is estimated through a baseline assumption. The debt service to revenue ratio will be around 3-% in the long run (IDA 2010).

BURKINA FASO

The foreign debt accumulation rate of Burkina Faso will be reduced according to the baseline assumption. While the PV of foreign debt rises in the short run, it remains at around 24 % of GDP in 2005 and falls afterwards, attaining around 17 % of GDP. Besides, throughout the pre-HIPC period, the PV of debt to export ratio was more than 200-% and also the debt service to export ratio was around 25-%. According to the baseline assumption, whole foreign debt and debt service ratios calculated below their policy dependent thresholds during the projection term. The PV of debt to export ratio is more than 150 %, which raises the debt risk for this country. This ratio rises to considerably more than mid-level due to the sustained public investment programme and the reduction in their share of grant financing through the Millennium Challenge account in 2013. It predicted that it will reach 154 % in 2015 and 180 % in 2022. Furthermore, it will reach 135 % in 2030 and the developments for fiscal situation and insufficient exports begin to influence the debt level. The other important debt indicators decline significantly in both the short and medium term. However, it remains below its indicative thresholds (IMF, 2010).

CHAD

Chad's foreign debt stock has decreased gradually for the last ten years through the upstream oil sector's revenue and the economic growth has gained speed. The foreign debt stock fell from 63 % of GDP to 24 % between 2001 and 2009 (see Table 2 below). The whole foreign debt of Chad is public and the debt is mostly from international creditors such as the International Development Association (IDA) and the AfDB. In this manner, the Chad government is exposed to or warranted by the Central Bank. The analysis is executed on a gross basis. The debt level decreases considerably, which involves reduction of external loans. Moreover, they have financed both the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development's (IBRD) and the International Development Association's (IDA) loan by cooperating with the funding of the Cameroon and Chad pipeline project in September 2008.

**Table 2.** Chad: External Debt Stock at Year-End 2001-2009

Table B Chad: External Debt Stock at Year-End, 2001-09 (billions of CFA francs)									
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total	794.7	786.6	736.9	797.2	898.9	896.2	794	782.3	764.6
(percent of GDP)	63.4	56.8	46.3	34.2	29	27.2	23.6	20.9	23.7
Multilateral	678.1	687.7	652.5	715.3	810.2	805.5	718.6	706.6	688.6
IMF	65.3	67.3	57	47.7	47.5	37.4	25.4	19	12.5
World Bank/IDA	380.6	398.3	394	444.5	507.8	486.1	453.4	422	408
African Development Fund/Bank	182.8	169.8	159.9	168.5	179.8	205.8	173.7	182.4	187.2
ADB	3.9	7.9	7.3	13	13	12.4	9.9	9.8	8.1
Others	45.5	44.4	34.2	41.6	62	63.8	56.2	73.4	72.4
Bilateral	116.2	98.6	84.1	81.9	88.8	90.7	75.4	75.7	76
Paris Club official debt	30.2	25.8	24	25.2	24.3	23.2	23.6	19.2	17.5
Non-Paris Club official debt	86.1	72.7	60.1	56.7	64.4	67.5	51.8	56.5	58
of which: China, People's Republic	28.6	25.4	22	13.6	15.4	13.9	-	3.5	10.3
Taiwan, Province of China	29.2	25	20.8	19.2	20.8	16.2	15	15.1	13.8
Saudi Arabia	10.4	9.3	6.2	15.2	16.9	14.4	11.4	7.8	6.6
Qatar	15.3	12.9	11	8.6	11.2	11.7	10.8	10.2	8.4
Other creditors	0.4	0.4	0.4	0	0	0	0	0	0

Source: IDA 2010.

On the other hand, Chad's domestic debt is predicted to be around CFA 250 billion or 7.7 % of GDP in 2009. The public domestic debt contains legal commitments, central bank advances, treasury arrears and small public borrowings (see table 3 below).

Table 3. Chad: External Debt Stock at Year-End 2005-2009

Table C. Chad: Public Domestic Debt Stock at Year-End, 2005-09 (billions of CFA francs)					
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total	142.1	79.2	79.1	100.6	249.7
(Percent of GDP)	4.6	2.4	2.4	2.7	7.7
Central Bank Statutory Advances	38.3	-	17.8	21.7	141.7
Rescheduled debts	31.1	39.5	16.2	25.4	52.2
Treasury arrears	34.1	24.8	26.1	41.1	25.7
Legal commitments	38.6	14.0	18.1	11.5	29.3
Savings Bonds	-	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9

Source: IDA 2010.

Debt revenue levels will rise considerably in the short-term due to two large non-concessional foreign debts. This type of loan will raise external debt (nominal) from 23.7 % of GDP in 2009 to 27.8 % in 2011. The multilateral creditors accepted to lend the Chad government around \$-300 million or 3.6 % of GDP in order to contribute to the budget by approximately 15 % subsidy through semi-annual and six years maturity. A credit provider cooperating with the development of N'djamena refinery accepted to lend the Chadian partner about € 232 million or 4.1 % of GDP in 2009 with 3 % at LIBOR plus five years grant and ten years maturity. Providing whole economic aid to the budget is considered in 2010, the refinery loan in equal part for the current and next year, managing to

fast debt accumulation between 2010 and 2011 and large debt service pressure in the medium term. The maturity on these loans, grant period and interest rate decrease the average grant component of foreign debt in the short run. Chad has adopted a very strict fiscal policy and oil revenues have reduced partially. For this reason, the credit providers proposed more funding to ensure budget contribution (IDA, 2010).

GUINEA BISSAU

The aggregate public debt of Guinea Bissau is \$1,340 million (157 % of GDP). This debt mostly consists of foreign debt, 77.6 % of the total public debt. Although the domestic debt is increasing gradually (from 13.7 % in 2000 to 19.7 % in 2006 and 22.4 % in 2009), the aggregate public debt fell considerably in 2009. In addition, the aggregate external debt of Guinea Bissau is \$1,040.3 million or 122 % of GDP and \$382.8 million is in arrears. The foreign debt is calculated at 48.6 % of overall public and publicly guaranteed debt; 14 % is owed to the African Development Bank, 28.1 % to IDA, 0.9 % to IMF and the rest (51.4 %) was provided by bilateral creditors.

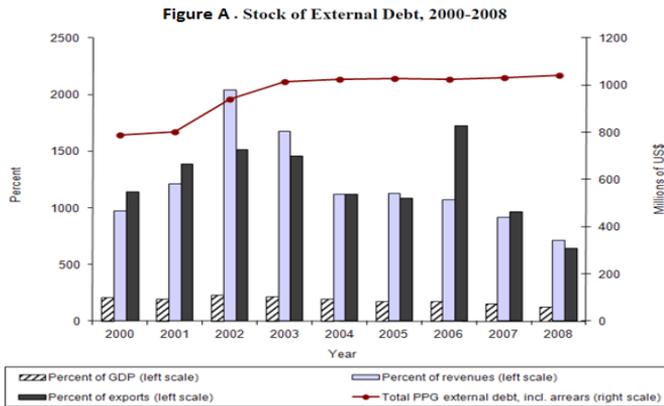


Figure 1. Stock of External Debt 2000-2008. Source: IDA 2010.

The public domestic debt accounted for 144.1 billion at CFAC in 2008 (38 % of GDP) and it was 91.1 billion in 2000 and 125.1 billion in 2006. The debt of the public sector increased to 143 % of GDP. The 50 % domestic debt stock involved an essential capital assistance of CFAF 70 billion or 21 % of GDP in 2008 to cooperate with WAEMU in 1998 and the government have accepted to pay within a quarter of a century, which began in 2005. Guinea Bissau owes to BCEAO nearly 9.5 billion (IDA, 2010).

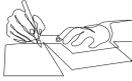
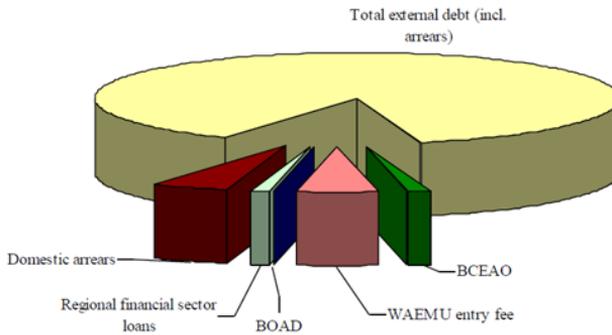
**PIE CHART A****Composition of Public Debt (Debt Stock at end-2008; millions of CFAF)**

Figure 2. Composition of Public Debt. Source: IDA 2010.

NIGER

The Niger's economy has not been influenced by the effect of the current global crisis. The most important evidence is that the Niger utilized the Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative (MDRI) assistance with the African Development Bank Fund and the IMF from 2004 to 2006. Because of this situation, the nominal foreign debt decreased considerably from 90 % of GDP in 2000 to around 15 % of GDP in 2007. The Niger's aggregate debt to the IMF, the International Development Association and the African Development Bank is calculated at 41%, 7%, 9.2% of foreign debt, in order given, excluding other multilateral lenders (IMF, 2010).

On the other hand, according to the baseline assumption, whole foreign debt ratios were calculated below Niger's policy dependent indicative thresholds during the project term from 2009 to 2029. The net present value (NPV) of the debt to GDP ratio increases progressively and remains under 25 % in 2029. In addition, the net present value of the debt to export ratio level is around 102 % (See Table 4). The progressive increase in such indicators ties up their excessive financial necessities, which are essential for providing growth rate and achieving millennium development targets (IMF, 2010).

Debt relief plays an important role in reducing poverty. The current agreement to ensure 100 % debt relief is vital for HIPC African countries in order to accelerate the attempt to reach enhanced completion point. The impact of debt service on growth is estimated to be negative for all HIPC countries in table A. However, after considering the other effects on growth, the total growth rate of HIPC is positive, except for Cameroon -0.7 %, Guinea Bissau -1.1 %, Sao Tome & Principe -0.3 % and Sierra Leone -3.4 %.

**Table 4.** Policy-Based Thresholds and External Debt Burden Indicators**Table F Policy-Based Thresholds and External Debt Burden Indicators**

	Thresholds 1/	Niger: Baseline Scenario Ratios		
		2008	2009-29 2/	Peak
NPV of external debt in percent of:				
GDP	40	11.5	17.9	23.0
Exports	150	60.4	73.7	103.8
Revenue	250	62.2	123.2	170.0
External debt service in percent of:				
Exports	20	3.6	2.9	4.1
Revenue	30	3.7	4.8	6.7

1/ Policy-dependent thresholds as used in the joint IMF-WB LIC DSA framework for a medium policy performance. Niger received an average rating of 3.30 in 2006-2008 in the World Bank's Country Policy and Institutional Assessment (CPIA), which qualifies it as a medium policy performer.

2/ Simple Average.

Source: IMF 2010.

The authorities agree with Benin's overall results of debt sustainability analysis that is in line with their own DSA. Formally, the authorities continue to be committed to a reasonable debt strategy by financial necessities and they will be involved firstly with the mobilization of grants and excessive concessional borrowing according to restricted implementation of regional borrowing as a last service of financing.

On the other hand, Burkina Faso's risk of external debt distress is very high due to its restricted export capacity that leads to a breach of the PV of debt to export ratio. This excessive debt risk emphasizes the significance of limiting foreign debt to highly concessional loans, sustaining an appropriate fiscal policy to constrain the new debt accumulation by maintaining the tax reforms and implementing continued reforms to increase exports.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, the major aim of multilateral creditors is to provide deep, wide and fast debt relief to ensure economic growth by poverty reduction and debt sustainability in the poorest and most heavily indebted poor countries. Depending on DSA, this project has pointed out concerns about whether both the HIPC (Heavily Indebted Poor Countries) and MDRI (Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative) framework will be able to contribute to reaching and sustaining long-term foreign debt in relevant countries, which involves the policy eligibility criterion of the MIDR structural programme in January 2006. The major findings and final policy options will be explained briefly with three issues. Firstly, it is a remote possibility that any of the post-completion point countries will be able to fund their domestic savings within twenty-five years towards all type of investments, which imports debt servicing that is essential to maintain real GDP growth. Moreover, the stock of external debt burdens (nominal) will decrease during the



next two decades under the baseline scenario (see Table 5 below for Benin) for all HIPC; that is estimated by both IDA's and IMF's staff. Furthermore, Benin's external debt decreased sharply after 2005.

Secondly, the growth of exports is very significant. HIPC economies should improve the "share of exports" in their GDPs to decrease their weakness of a service and its constituent assets that could be exploited by threats for external trading situations. Proper export promotion policies need government regulation to refer the issues related to infrastructure; this particularly involves production cost and goods transportation through road railways, airports and telecommunications, Thirdly, HIPC's exchange rate regimes and trade policies should liberalize to abrogate subversive publicly owned marketing boards by reducing tax rates and other constraints on exports. Small and medium scale exporters of produced stuff and agricultural goods should be provided duty free access. Thus regional market integration with money union ensures several advantages for export expansion and competitiveness. Finally, the poor African countries could compensate for their trade and BOP deficit.

Table 5. Benin's External Debt Sustainability Framework, Baseline Scenario 2007 – 2030 (In percent of GDP, unless otherwise indicated)

Table 1a.: External Debt Sustainability Framework, Baseline Scenario, 2007-2030 1/
(In percent of GDP, unless otherwise indicated)

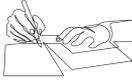
	Actual			Historical 0 Standard Average 0 Deviation		Projections					2010-2015		2016-2030		
	2007	2008	2009			2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	Average	2020	2030	Average
External debt (nominal) 1/	11.7	16.7	15.1			16.0	17.4	18.5	19.5	20.3	21.1		17.5	13.3	
o/w public and publicly guaranteed (PPG)	11.7	16.7	15.1			16.0	17.4	18.5	19.5	20.3	21.1		17.5	13.3	
Change in external debt	0.7	5.0	-1.7			0.9	1.4	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.8		-0.6	-0.3	
Identified net debt-creating flows	3.8	3.4	7.3			5.2	5.3	4.4	4.0	3.7	2.4		2.5	2.6	
Non-interest current account deficit	9.6	7.9	8.3	6.6	2.1	7.6	7.4	7.0	6.7	6.5	5.2		5.3	5.4	5.3
Deficit in balance of goods and services	15.5	13.3	14.5			13.6	12.3	12.0	11.6	11.2	11.7		12.6	14.9	
Exports	16.8	17.6	15.3			15.0	15.1	15.3	15.6	15.9	16.2		17.3	20.0	
Imports	32.4	30.9	29.8			28.6	27.4	27.3	27.2	27.1	27.9		30.0	34.9	
Net current transfers (negative = inflow)	-5.6	-5.4	-6.1	-5.8	0.8	-5.6	-4.5	-4.6	-4.5	-4.4	-6.0		-6.0	-6.0	-6.0
o/w official	-2.8	-3.0	-4.0			-3.6	-2.4	-2.3	-2.2	-2.1	-3.0		-5.3	0.5	
Other current account flows (negative = net inflow)	0.3	0.0	0.1			0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	-0.3	0.5		-1.3	-3.5	
Net FDI (negative = inflow)	-4.7	-2.6	-1.4	-1.8	1.2	-2.2	-1.7	-2.0	-2.0	-2.0	-2.0		-2.0	-2.1	-2.1
Endogenous debt dynamics 2/	-1.2	-1.9	0.4			-0.2	-0.4	-0.6	-0.7	-0.8	-0.8		-0.8	-0.6	
Contribution from nominal interest rate	0.5	0.1	0.3			0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3		0.2	0.1	
Contribution from real GDP growth	-0.4	-0.5	-0.5			-0.4	-0.7	-0.9	-1.0	-1.1	-1.1		-1.0	-0.7	
Contribution from price and exchange rate changes	-1.2	-1.6	0.6			
Residual (3-4) 3/	-3.0	1.7	-8.9			-4.3	-3.9	-3.3	-3.0	-2.9	-1.6		-3.1	-2.9	
o/w exceptional financing	0.0	0.0	0.0			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	
PV of external debt 4/	10.8			12.2	12.9	13.6	14.2	14.7	15.2		12.6	9.2	
In percent of exports	70.4			81.3	85.7	88.9	91.2	92.6	93.8		72.5	46.2	
PV of PPG external debt	10.8			12.2	12.9	13.6	14.2	14.7	15.2		12.6	9.2	
In percent of exports	70.4			81.3	85.7	88.9	91.2	92.6	93.8		72.5	46.2	
In percent of government revenues	58.6			59.1	63.2	64.9	66.7	68.9	71.2		56.6	41.6	
Debt service-to-exports ratio (in percent)	2.8	-0.7	-0.2			6.5	5.7	5.4	5.1	4.1	3.3		3.8	2.6	
PPG debt service-to-exports ratio (in percent)	2.8	-0.7	-0.2			6.5	5.7	5.4	5.1	4.1	3.3		3.8	2.6	
PPG debt service-to-revenue ratio (in percent)	2.3	-0.6	-0.2			4.7	4.2	4.0	3.7	3.1	2.5		3.0	2.3	
Total gross financing need (Billions of U.S. dollars)	0.3	0.3	0.5			0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4		0.6	1.4	
Non-interest current account deficit that stabilizes debt ratio	8.9	2.8	9.9			7.3	6.0	5.9	5.7	5.6	4.4		5.9	5.6	

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ACADEMICS' PERCEPTIONS OF GOOGLE SEARCH SKILLS FOR THE USE OF ENGLISH AND TRANSLATION FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES

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Acknowledgement: We would like to thank Prof.Dr. Selami Aydın for his guidance to transform our project report into a book chapter.

Introduction

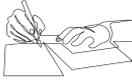
One of the common objectives of education is to bring up searching, questioning individuals equipped with analytic and synthetic skills. Investing on online search literacy will create an added value for this progress. Search engines, which are the basic tools contributing to this area, are currently in open access for everyone though being relatively limited in use for teaching / training purposes. This study has emerged from the need for training focused online search literacy and has been designed and executed in a plan complying with the research and teaching duties of academic and teaching staff in higher education. The preferred search engine for this study has been Google search regarding its high speed, strong content for indexing content and its widespread use. Despite those benefits, the target group has been determined to have scarce knowledge about search operators utilized on Google search. It is possible to have access on various texts, visuals and videos by the help of keywords both on related search engines and YouTube channels although the obtained content is sometimes conflicting and contradictory, requiring frequent updates.

Online search operators are also beneficial to activate language skills in English. There is even no resource to provide information about how to combine them. Thus, there is an emerging need for materials to inform and teach about the functions of online search techniques utilizing online search operators. This study, which has come up with that demand by researchers, targets university academic staff carrying out research tasks in any field.

This study has three main objectives: 1) to make the academic staff acquire the skills to use online search techniques during the process of academic paper writing in a foreign language, English in this case, 2) to reinforce their skills to check the accuracy of English in the papers written, 3) to improve the skills for materials design on learning/teaching and assessment related to collocations, which contribute to the naturalness and fluency of English. Since the project activities/tasks are easy to implement with the support of on-campus WI-FI access

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and computers provided to the students and the academic staff by the university, it is possible to reach a cost-effective result due to the efficient use of what is already available. The feasibility of the search techniques are aimed to be evaluated according to the scale determined by the researchers.

Theoretical background

An ideal search engine should analyze its search results (Yin, Sung, Hung and Hirokawa, 2013, p. 296). Research literature indicates that it is possible to develop the skills of using online search techniques for general information (Şahin, Çermik & Doğan, 2009) and search techniques applied to language use (Zengin, 2009; Nurmukahamedov & Olinger, 2013; Zengin & Kaçar, 2015). All of this research also catches our attention regarding the fact that there is a significant lack of awareness regarding online search skills whether it is for general information or language-related practices. As Norton (2011) states, what is much neglected in an equation aiming to solve problems related to online search skills is the human element. However, as Erçetin (2013) notes, search engines information search skills on the net.

Skills of searching information on the Internet are the tools serving in the processes of finding out relevant information appraisal of the reliability and accuracy. As Jonassen (1996) points out, functioning as a mind-tool search engines promote reflective thinking (Jonassen, 1996)

The appraisals made on the education in general also need to be developed to involve foreign language use for academic purposes in particular. Bryan and Hegelheimer (2007, p. 162) argues for a true integration of computer assisted language learning into classroom settings criticizing its frequent relegation to supplementary or additional practices.

It is a recurring problem that nonnative speakers' use of English language is grammatically accurate but collocationally unacceptable. Contextually inappropriate language use is likely to sound artificial, in other words inauthentic and unnatural (Zengin & Kaçar, 2015). Emphasizing the problem of collocation in language learning and aiming to offer a solution, Zengin (2009) showed that it is possible to choose the accurate one among the collocational candidates with search strategies using such operators of Google as quotation marks, plus and minus in his research (the PLUS command has been reserved for Google's social media platform, Google+ and removed from the list of operators). As a result of search queries aimed to solve some collocational problems benefiting from these search commands to check the number of the search results proved to be useful as a quantitative indicator of the acceptability of the collocational candidate checked. Besides this quantitative indicator, the contexts of the search results proved to be beneficial in terms of the accuracy/appropriacy of the context in which include the searched keyword(s). Highlighting the significance of the AS-TERISK operator as well as the MINUS, Nurmukahamedov and Olinger (2013) exhibited examples of search queries indicating benefits of these operators for English language use skills.

Arguing for the need to create awareness on how to use search commands of



online search engines for search queries for general information, Şahin, Çermik and Doğan (2009) believe that the Internet and search engines are indispensable to meet the need for required information and both students and pre-service teachers frequently get support from search engines. Having determined the negligence on the problem of inefficient use of search engines upon their analysis of the literature on this topic, Şahin et al. (2009) conducted a similar study participated by 328 prospective teachers from the Primary School Teaching Program at Pamukkale University. Google was the only search engine used by the whole sample, who were asked to respond ten problem situations/statements requiring the know-how of different Google commands. However, most of the participants were found out to be uninformed or merely do casual search irrespective of their academic year except a few 3rd and 4th year students. Şahin et al. (2009) concluded their study with an emphasis on the need for a training to develop know-how and skills of using search commands of Google or other search engines which would let them cut to the chase instead of waste time in a random manner.

Zengin and Kaçar (2015) put forward that neither formal nor non-formal education provides systematic training on the application of online search techniques to the development of English language skills. Aiming to meet this need, Zengin and Kaçar (2015) conducted a study focusing on applying Google commands to the development of English writing skills. The participants of the study, the English preparation students and first year students of the English Philology Department at Namık Kemal University were shown how to self-edit their use of English in their writing assignments processes in terms of language accuracy and appropriacy and appraised these students' reports they wrote to reflect the process.

Collocations are both significant and demanding aspect of language use. Nesselhauf (2003) states that important problems are seen to occur in the learning process of collocations (Nesselhauf, 2003). According to Carter (1998) the reason for the challenge of frequent mismatch on the part of the learners is their inadequately frequent encounter with them. Frequency should be adequate since synonyms cannot replace each other as in the example of 'amicable divorce' instead of unacceptable collocation 'friendly divorce'.

According to Heikkila (2005), natural speech whether it be spoken or written is collocation-free with the concept of collocation broadly interpreted. Likewise, Lewis (2000) provides us with a percentage stating that they are seventy percent of English. In Nesselhauf's (2003) study, L1-L2 non-congruence were found to play an important factor in the English L2 German students' errors despite the fact that both languages belong to the same language family calling for extra focus being given to collocations with L1-L2 non-congruence. The ways words collocate is arbitrary, and this fact is more demanding between languages, which is the reason for them being key source of challenge (Siepmann, 2005). Hall and Cook (2012) developed an out-of-the-box discourse emphasizing the benefits of translation and code switching in the foreign language learning process, and cite various sources of research and teacher resource books acknowledging transla-



tion as a 'fifth skill' in language learning (e.g. *Malmkjær, 1998; Duff, 1989; Deller & Rinvoluceri, 2002; Gonzales Davies, 2004; Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009*). Köksal (2005) argues for the acceptance of translation as the fifth skill alongside the skills set.

Arguing that it is possible for EFL teachers working in the universities to contribute to translation services having access to parallel texts with online search techniques used in combination with online dictionaries, Zengin and Kaçar (2011) showed their research that foreign language teaching staff can play an efficient role in solutions related to the writing of academic publications in English, editing and the construction of terminology database as well as solutions for problems regarding specialized terminology causing problems of equivalence.

The results show that Google search techniques have untapped facilitation potential for academic success and contribution to search queries. Despite the potential free-of-charge support for search in general as well as for academic purposes, no systematic training is given through formal or non-formal education, as a result many search queries are likely to keep being random.

To summarize, research literature includes studies showing that it is possible to check the acceptability of collocational candidates through quotation marks, plus and minus operators of the Google search engine. Şahin et al (2009) tested the prospective teachers' know-how of search commands with problem statements concluding that students need training on how to use them to search general information. To return to one of the significant problems, collocations, Nurmukhamedov and Olinger's (2013) came up with solution they report mostly focusing on how to benefit from wildcard search to check and explore collocations in writing providing practical examples of using the asterisk operator and its combination with quotation marks aimed to increase the specificity of the search query. The benefit of the asterisk operator is highlighted for 'tip-of-the-tongue' moments when the language learner or user does not recall, or know (a) particular word(s) in a phrase or sentence. Upon seeing it as a result of the search query, the particular word(s) is recognized. Other than search engines, Nurmukhamedov and Olinger (2013) showed how to benefit from wildcard search through online corpora and concordance tools as well discussing them with their pros and cons.

Method and Data Analysis

The research objective was to analyze the differences between basic fields of academic research in attitude change towards online search techniques. The research design was based on quantitative and qualitative methods consisting of face-to-face interviews with participants, teaching through presentations, written feedback and surveys by e-mails. The research was designed to target at the academic staff who were experienced or willing to execute more research on the field and who were appointed at various academic units of Namık Kemal University. The sampling group was randomly selected from the staff with different academic rankings such as professors, assistant professors, lecturers and research assistants. The researchers were categorized in four basic fields as Natural and Engineering Sciences, Languages and Social Sciences, Medicine and Health Sci-



ences, Architecture and Fine Arts.

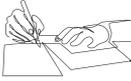
The research implementation was initiated by face-to-face interviews with selected participants to offer individual training sessions by the use of written and visual training contents on Google search and SEO techniques. The materials were also sent to all academic staff working at the university by e-mail in order to reinforce the outreach and effect of trainings by making it possible for all enthusiastic researchers working off-campus or in other districts to get involved in the study. Concluding the real or virtual training, each participant was expected to select relevant solution techniques for pre-suggested situations and give feedback in written form. The research was implemented during the period November 2015 and June 2016 at Namık Kemal University located in Tekirdağ, Turkey.

Research feedback on attitude change was partially obtained by a survey based on 20 statements in 5-Likert-scale preceded by 3 demographic questions and completed by an open-ended one. Attitude changes were scaled between "totally disagree, disagree, not sure, agree and totally agree" figured on 1-5. Demographic features of participants were categorized under gender, academic rank and basic field of research as indicated in Table 1. Researchers' rankings comprised professor, associate and assistant professor, lecturer / instructor, research assistant and expert. The quantitative data were analyzed via Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) on Windows version 18 program and qualitative data were analyzed via content analysis techniques.

For the research, all the items were tested by item discrimination analysis and reliability test was carried out for the scale. The Cronbach's for the whole scale was determined to be $\alpha = 0,876$ complying with the $\alpha > 0,80$ condition for a scale to be accepted as "highly reliable" regarding the literature (Tavşancıl, 2005). Regarding item discrimination analysis results, all items were found to be within the range of $\alpha = 0,862 - 0,889$ and the variation for item discrimination ranged in 0,013 at minimum and maximum levels. In order to preserve scale integrity, all items were included in statistical analyses.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for the Demographic Features of Participants

Gender	n	%	Mean	Std. Deviation
Female	28	45,9	1,5410	,50245
Male	33	54,1		
Total	61	100,0		
Academic Rank	n	%	Mean	Std. Deviation
Prof. Dr.	4	6,6	3,6557	1,92254
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	16	26,2		
Assist. Prof. Dr.	20	32,8		
Lecturer / Instructor	10	16,4		
Research Assistant	11	18,0		
Total	61	100,0		
Basic Field of Research	n	%	Mean	Std. Deviation



Natural and Engineering Sciences	26	42,6	2,0164	1,10290
Social Sciences, Humanities and Linguistics	18	29,5		
Health Sciences	7	11,5		
Fine Arts, Architecture and Design	10	16,4		
Total	61	100,0		

When the statistics of the online search literacy scale were analyzed, about two-thirds of the participants were found to consider the Google translate, a machine translation software. Only a few participants were found to trust the reliability of this software. The fact that machine translations are not updated to an adequate sophisticated level can be a reason for the lack of trust. Those whose command of language is at a certain level can benefit from the software to an extent that would allow them to guess or to infer from the produced translation, generally, machine translations are not considered trustworthy. Associations related to the Google translate software are so negative that this level of negativity get in the way of works aiming to raise the awareness. However, although Google search techniques, the Google translate and the machine translation software of Google are utterly different from each other these two means are confused with each other. There is a parallel picture reflecting the same confusion among the 40% of the participants of this study. When the undecided are added, this rate increases to the 70%. When evaluated with the other items of the questionnaire, there is overgeneralization related to the concept of machine translation, the misperceptions are the reasons for problems of definition (Table 2).

Generally, the participants are of the belief that use of Google search skills for academic purposes is beneficial and argue that the awareness concerning this issue should be increased. The use of online search operators are believed to bring efficiency in finding out academic presentations ($m=4.02$), provide fast and easy access to documents with PDF and DOC extensions ($m=4.26$). It is also believed that use of Google search techniques for academic purposes provide support in the processes of academic publication ($m=3.98$) and preparation of learning/teaching materials ($m=3.92$). Again, most of the participants consider that the techniques assist checking against the quality of the assignments delivered and any possible plagiarism It is shared by many participants that the awareness as to the benefits of application of Google search techniques in tasks of academic nature should be increased ($m=3.84$). Most of the participants state that they used the search commands in combinations efficiently ($m=3.75$) (Table 2).

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for Online Search Literacy Scale

Q1. I trust Google machine translation.	n	%	Mean	Std. Deviation
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Strongly Disagree	11	18.0	2.4754	1.08944
Rather Disagree	25	41.0		
Not Sure	12	19.7		
Rather Agree	11	18.0		
Strongly Agree	2	3.3		
Total	61	100.0		
Q2. Google search techniques are Google machine translation.	n	%	Mean	Std. Deviation
Strongly Disagree	10	16.4	3.0984	1.30006
Rather Disagree	8	13.1		
Not Sure	19	31.1		
Rather Agree	14	23.0		
Strongly Agree	10	16.4		
Total	61	100.0		
Q3. Use of Google search techniques for academic purposes (UGSTAP) is beneficial.	n	%	Mean	Std. Deviation
Strongly Disagree	1	1.6	3.9672	.87497
Rather Disagree	2	3.3		
Not Sure	12	19.7		
Rather Agree	29	47.5		
Strongly Agree	17	27.9		
Total	61	100.0		
Q4. Awareness as to UGSTAP should be raised.	n	%	Mean	Std. Deviation
Rather Disagree	6	9.8	3.8361	.87902
Not Sure	11	18.0		
Rather Agree	31	50.8		
Strongly Agree	13	21.3		
Total	61	100.0		
Q5. UGSTAP provides support in the (writing) processes of preparing academic publications.	n	%		
Rather Disagree	3	4.9	3.9836	.80606
Not Sure	11	18.0		
Rather Agree	31	50.8		
Strongly Agree	16	26.2		
Total	61	100.0		
Q6. UGSTAP provides support in the processes of preparing teaching / training materials.	n	%		
Rather Disagree	5	8.2	3.9180	.84252
Not Sure	9	14.8		
Rather Agree	33	54.1		
Strongly Agree	14	23.0		
Total	61	100.0		
Q7. UGSTAP helps an academic in self-editing his English papers in terms of natural language use and avoid artificial use of language.	n	%		
Strongly Disagree	5	8.2	3.3443	1.07835
Rather Disagree	8	13.1		
Not Sure	14	23.0		
Rather Agree	29	47.5		
Strongly Agree	5	8.2		
Total	61	100.0		
Q8. UGSTAP increases the success rate in natural language use in the processes of writing abstracts, proceedings, articles, etc. in English.	n	%	Mean	Std. Deviation

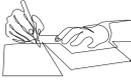


Strongly Disagree	5	8.2	3.2951	1.06996
Rather Disagree	9	14.8		
Not Sure	14	23.0		
Rather Agree	29	47.5		
Strongly Agree	4	6.6		
Total	61	100.0		
Q9. UGSTAP helps with the natural use and avoidance of artificial use of language in terms of collocations, phrasal verbs, or chunks.			Mean	Std. Deviation
	n	%		
Strongly Disagree	3	4.9	3.3770	.98597
Rather Disagree	8	13.1		
Not Sure	18	29.5		
Rather Agree	27	44.3		
Strongly Agree	5	8.2		
Total	61	100.0		
Q10. UGSTAP contributes to construction of lists of collocations, phrasal verbs or chunks.			Mean	Std. Deviation
	n	%		
Strongly Disagree	1	1.6	3.4754	.84866
Rather Disagree	8	13.1		
Not Sure	16	26.2		
Rather Agree	33	54.1		
Strongly Agree	3	4.9		
Total	61	100.0		
Q11. UGSTAP increases the quality of natural and accurate use of language in Turkish to English translations.			Mean	Std. Deviation
	n	%		
Strongly Disagree	8	13.1	2.8689	1.14710
Rather Disagree	16	26.2		
Not Sure	17	27.9		
Rather Agree	16	26.2		
Strongly Agree	4	6.6		
Total	61	100.0		
Q12. UGSTAP brings efficiency to edition processes.			Mean	Std. Deviation
	n	%		
Strongly Disagree	2	3.3	3.2623	.85443
Rather Disagree	9	14.8		
Not Sure	22	36.1		
Rather Agree	27	44.3		
Strongly Agree	1	1.6		
Total	61	100.0		
Q13. UGSTAP provides efficiency in finding out presentations.			Mean	Std. Deviation
	n	%		
Rather Disagree	3	4.9	4.0164	.74144
Not Sure	7	11.5		
Rather Agree	37	60.7		
Strongly Agree	14	23.0		
Total	61	100.0		
Q14. UGSTAP provides fast and easy access to documents with PDF and DOC extensions.			Mean	Std. Deviation
	n	%		
Not Sure	6	9.8	4.2623	.62986
Rather Agree	33	54.1		
Strongly Agree	22	36.1		
Total	61	100.0		
Q15. UGSTAP helps with checking plagiarism in plagiarism in assignments or theses.			Mean	Std. Deviation
	n	%		



Rather Disagree	3	4.9	3.9016	.81045
Not Sure	14	23.0		
Rather Agree	30	49.2		
Strongly Agree	14	23.0		
Total	61	100.0		
Q16. UGSTAP helps teachers and the teaching staff in universities prepare fill-in-the-gap question items aimed to assess vocabulary/terminology knowledge in lessons of General English or English for academic or professional purposes.	n	%	Mean	Std. Deviation
Strongly Disagree	2	3.3	3.5574	.94029
Rather Disagree	4	6.6		
Not Sure	22	36.1		
Rather Agree	24	39.3		
Strongly Agree	9	14.8		
Total	61	100.0		
Q17. UGSTAP helps with constructing their own materials based on their own needs and priorities.	n	%	Mean	Std. Deviation
Strongly Disagree	1	1.6	3.6393	.79651
Rather Disagree	3	4.9		
Not Sure	19	31.1		
Rather Agree	32	52.5		
Strongly Agree	6	9.8		
Total	61	100.0		
Q18. UGSTAP can contribute to fill-in-the-gaps question items of formative and language tests.	n	%	Mean	Std. Deviation
Rather Disagree	5	8.2	3.4918	.72164
Not Sure	24	39.3		
Rather Agree	29	47.5		
Strongly Agree	3	4.9		
Total	61	100.0		
Q19. Google UGSTAP supports access to academic speech texts.	n	%	Mean	Std. Deviation
Strongly Disagree	1	1.6	3.5738	.76287
Rather Disagree	3	4.9		
Not Sure	21	34.4		
Rather Agree	32	52.5		
Strongly Agree	4	6.6		
Total	61	100.0		
Q20. I can use Google search commands in combinations with each other efficiently.	n	%	Mean	Std. Deviation
Strongly Disagree	1	1.6	3.7541	.86902
Rather Disagree	4	6.6		
Not Sure	14	23.0		
Rather Agree	32	52.5		
Strongly Agree	10	16.4		
Total	61	100.0		

It is believed that it is possible to produce their materials based on their needs and priorities ($m=3.67$). The search commands are also believed to make it possible to provide support for the access to academic speech texts ($m=3.57$). Among the benefits believed to come from the skillful use of techniques is about the assistance for the teacher and the academic staff regarding the preparation of fill-in-the-gaps question items aimed to assess vocabulary/terminology knowledge in general English or academic English lessons ($m=3.56$) and the fill-in-the-



gaps question items for the language tests for the improvement of learning and other purposes ($m=3.49$) (Table 2).

More than half of the participants are of the opinion that Google search techniques can be used as tools that can check the language use in written texts against artificial language use ($m=3.38$). the language used will be more qualified in terms of natural language use in the abstracts, proceedings papers, articles etc. in English ($m=3.30$) and collocations, phrasal verbs or chunks (3.38). Those with the opinion that it is possible to have support from the search techniques in the edition processes are not few in number. However, the item with the second least agreement is to do with translations from Turkish to English. Many participants do not believe that the use of search techniques can increase the quality in terms of naturalness and accuracy in the Turkish to English translations ($m=2.87$).

Analysis of the metaphors

Regarding the analyses of the metaphors used by the participants regarding Google search techniques in the last part of the study, two thirds of the participants responded to the metaphor question while the one third did not respond. Eighteen of those responding to the metaphor question are females whereas twenty of them are male participants (Table 5). The metaphor analyses were made through the common themes were formed out of the concepts reflected in the word or phrases. The themes obtained were listed in Table 5 as metaphor groups.

In the study, the participants' metaphors refer to these aspects of Google search techniques: explaining (1 female, 1 male), saving (5 females), facilitating (3 females and 1 male), guiding (9 males) and accelerating (4 females, 4 males) aspects.

In other words, the guiding aspect of Google search commands get the attention of more men, whereas the aspects which facilitate and save during the search get the attention of female participants. The three responses out those responses which were not included in the metaphor are based on the use of search commands rather than the search commands, the two of them refer to language learning however semantic similarity with the metaphor groups was not found.

Discussion

This study is application of the use of Google operators to a variety of aspects of English for academic purposes. Zengin and Kaçar's (2011) focus on search engines was for translation and edition skills of Turkish teachers of English in Turkish universities. Subsequently Zengin and Kaçar (2015) shifted focus to the English philology majors this time elaborating on Google search operators for production, translation and edition skills. This study differs from prior studies in that the participants are academics and the outcomes are not limited to the production, translation and edition skills for papers in naturalness and accurate use of English (avoiding artificial use of language) but also production of testing, learning and (self)-teaching materials, to find out not only research papers but also researchers with collaboration potential and means to do plagiarism



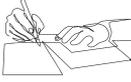
checks. The operators used show a much richer variety building on work by Zengin (2009), with focus on quotation marks, minus and plus operators and Nurmukhamedov and Olinger (2013) with their special contribution coming from the suggested application of the asterisk operator. The literature on the use of Google operators for English language skills is not rich regarding applications. Many technological applications aim to facilitate the students' language learning processes. This study focuses on academics who have already acquired English skills at least regarding receptive skills and encourage these academics to be aware of their status as not only learners but also users of English language and combine the language skills acquired with Google operators to reach higher academic purposes.

Although the focus of the study is on academics' use of online search operators to improve their foreign language competences, the benefits of this use should not be considered as limited to their personal development but also at corporate level, in terms of reinforcing corporate reputation of universities.

Reputation, founded on "good corporate image" (Dowling, 2001), is a sequence of meanings attributed by people to recognize and recall that organization (Van Riel and Fombrun, 2007: 44). Positive reputation may lead to several "strategic benefits such as attracting applicants, investors and costumers, increasing profitability and creating competitive barriers" (Walker, 2010: 357). Corporate reputation for an organization is based on seven key components related to services, innovation, workplace, governance, citizenship, leadership and performance (Van Riel and Fombrun, 2007: 255). Adapting them to university settings; academics' services on research, publications and teaching can be associated with services and performance components while innovation may be related to research outcomes.

Corporate reputation for academic institutions is assessed by various bibliometric assessments and evaluation reports. According to the methodology of QS World University Ranking, one of the eleven basic criteria to assess academic performance of an institution to become a world-class university is "the research quality amongst academics and their productivity", that is the number of papers published in recognized journals. In fact, research, teaching, innovation and excellence in a specific academic field are four key elements which are directly linked to the English skills and competences of researchers and faculty members at universities (QS Stars Methodology, 2018, online).

Another ranking tool, called Webometrics, ranks all of 183 Turkish universities' reputation both within the country-specific group and amongst world universities regarding their presence, impact factor, openness and excellence reflected in their websites (Webometrics Ranking, 2018, online). The key point here is again research-related academic performance which is mainly assessed by Google scholar citations and profiles. Both methods emphasize the significance of high quality research and highly cited publications in English for good reputation at universities. These two outcomes can be achieved by improved competences of academics in English for academic purposes.



Within this scope, mean scores for questions 3 and 5 in our research show that the participants have higher awareness on the benefits of Google search techniques in writing an academic article in general ($m=3.9672$), ($m=3.9836$) while their awareness is lower on that using online search techniques will actively improve their academic English skills in writing naturally ($m=3.2951$) and proofreading their own works effectively ($m=3.3443$) as indicated by questions 8 and 7, respectively.

According to URAP Academic Rankings Press Release (2017: 2, online), one of the problems for the inability of Turkish universities to advance up to the top of the reputable world universities list is that the citation rates are not increasing as compared to the rising number of articles published. The press release conveys the need for enhancing and promoting to publish in international journals with higher impact factor scores, which can be achieved by developing English skills in academic writing by the help of Google search techniques. Our research findings on question 11 convey that participants are still unaware that using Google operators will contribute to the quality of their research and articles in English ($m=2.8689$), which will enhance the corporate reputation of their academy in the end.

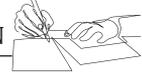
Conclusion

Based on a university research project, the present paper reports academicians' opinions whether a variety of ways Google search commands can be used for a variety of aspects of English for academic purposes by academics from a wide range of disciplines. Many of them show that this is a feasible project, an aim that can be reached with a very short training session and user-friendly training materials. Many participants are of the opinion that with Google commands they can check the accuracy and appropriacy of collocations, phrases or chunks in terms of the naturalness of language use and the terminology in terms of special field language.

Participating academics agree to the benefit of the search commands for the development of vocabulary lists full of demanding words and word strings, and the preparation of presentations and examinations, access to educational materials including speech texts, and plagiarism checks.

However, their views suggest that potential benefits for Turkish to English translations and to some extent, editing or self-editing need raising awareness. Awareness and practice in the abovementioned aspects primarily aspects of translation is recommended. Given the present means regarding the Internet and computers, efficient use of what we already have it is possible to reach cost efficient, value added outcomes.

Research quality, highly cited publications and publishing in reputable international journals are three significant elements contributing to academic performance and excellence criteria for being addressed as a reputable university by most of the world university rankings. The relationship between higher competence of researchers in academic English and good quality academic papers can be seen in most of the top universities. It is recommended that improving



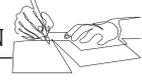
the academics' English skills via their high-level online search techniques will also improve the quality of papers on the way to good reputation management at university.

Note: This article is based on the Research Project numbered NKUBAP.01. GA.15.023 "Developing English Language Skills for Academic Purposes via On-line Search Techniques" with the support of Namık Kemal University Scientific Research Funds.

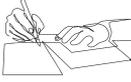


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**CHAPTER
30****VIRTUAL CURRENCIES AND THEIR
DEVELOPMENT IN TURKEY¹****Fatma Nur YORGANCILAR², Alper Tunga ALKAN³****Introduction**

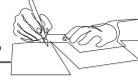
The diversities in trade accompanying to globalization have brought together new payment systems with it and, in time, nominal currency replaced with digital money that can electronically performing storing function. In fact, although digital money in fiduciary quality in deposit accounts of banks are a representation of nominal currency, in the stage reached today, together with settling of digital economic system, digital monetary units have also diversified and virtual currency units that can be named as crypto currency have emerged. Virtual/crypto currency units that do not have feature of a physical entity and, therefore, that is not possible to be supported and supervised by any authority are basically web-based exchange instruments. On the other hand, digital values enabling to make safe process as cryptographic – coded and to form additional virtual currency supply are termed as crypto currency. Crypto currencies are alternative monetary units, which are digital and also virtual money. From this point of view, although Bitcoins and its derivatives are confused with digital and virtual currency from definitional point of view, it is necessary to state that a large part of digital and virtual currency units, in contrast to Bitcoin and its derivatives, is not monetary units on their owns and that some of them can be arranged and supervised by central authorities (Çarkacıoğlu, 2016). Thus, Bitcoin and like monetary units discussed in this study take place in crypto /coded virtual currency group that is not under supervision of central authority. Despite their negative features such as lack of supervision they bring together with them, they come to our face as preferable monetary instruments in terms of that they can be used in transfer of property and money, which enable the instantaneous and quick process independently from the borders. On the other hand, due to the fact that excessive volatility encountered in the values of monetary units prevents monetary elements from performing some functions of them, the discussions regarding that it cannot be accepted as monetary sorts have accelerated. In spite of this, there are also some approaches foreseeing that monetary units will become a basic exchange instrument of global trade system.

Control of decentralized structure, where virtual currency units are pro-

1 *The abstract of this paper was oral presented at International Conference on Social Science Research (ICONSR 2018).

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cessed, is realized by BlockChain process databases that have a past of 30 years. By using this technology, Satoshi Nakamoto has developed a spontaneously processing monetary system through blockchain system consisting of blocks joined to each other in the form of chain. All processes in blocks are continuously in doubles and, finally, it is reached a single hash, in which each block contains the hash of the previous one (Kaya, 2018). Among 1375 pieces of virtual monetary units in circulation, the one most frequently used and having the largest transaction volume and consisting of electronic signification chain is Bitcoin. On the other hand, the other virtual currency units, alternatively developed after Bitcoin take place in the literature as Altcoins. As a matter of fact, generally, in spite of similar structural indications, Ripple, due to the fact its having partial differences as alternative to Bitcoin and market value it reached, also draws attention. In this study, virtual currency units are generally mentioned in terms of their features, historical developments, advantages, and disadvantages and a set of deductions are presented through two examples of it that are the most common. In the study, in addition, the development and future of crypto monetary units are discussed.

Conceptual Framework

2.1. Virtual Monetary Units: Its Definitions and General Characteristics

European Central Bank defines virtual currency as digital money, which does not have any regulation, which are issued by those developing and controlled by them; which are accepted by a certain virtual circle; and which are not subjected to the direct regulation (Atış, 2014), since it does not depend on any country and institute (ECB, 2012). As also mentioned in introduction section of the study, it will be in place to state that Bitcoin, Linden Dollar and Ripple etc., which primarily differ as crypto currency in this article but are generally among virtual currency units, are considered under the title of virtual currency. That is, although the concept virtual currency is a quite large concept, it has subgroups, which are and not under the supervision. In this study, the independent groups from authority, which are mentioned as currency unit on its own, are scrutinized. That there is not any common consensus on the definition of virtual currency units is also a result of emerging from this complication.

In the most general state, monetary and swap mechanisms are classified by Committee on Payments and Market Infrastructures (CPMI) as follows:

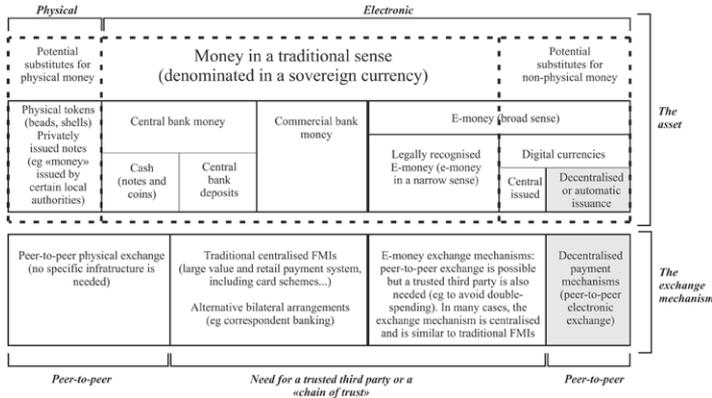
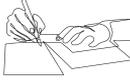


Fig. 1. The classification of manetary and swap mechanism (CPMI, 2015)

As will be also understood from the most general definition of it; monetary units take place among the electronic sorts of currency. However, despite this, there are some differences between virtual currency units and electronic cash (Yüksel, 2015):

- Although electronic cash are monetary units that has a legal circulation, which are similar to country money such as Turkish Lira, Dollar, etc., monetary units do not have any legal circulation. Hence, electronic cash are entities based on a set of legal regulations that are also accepted by the groups other than those creating it (the feature of being generally acceptable of the money). On the other hand, virtual currency does not subject to any regulation and they are the values that are acceptable in only a virtual community.
- There are electronic cash institutes, legally regulated, creating electronic cash, and electronic monetary supply is fixed and under supervision. In spite of this, virtual currency is issued by private people; supply is not fixed and is not supervised.
- Due to the fact that fiducial value if electronic cash is guaranteed, the possible risks can emerge from operational point of view. However, virtual currency units have unguaranteed high risks in terms of both operational and legal circulation ability.

The concept money, in the most simple form of it, is defined as an exchange instrument having certain characteristics and functions. For an asset to be acceptable as currency, having a certain standard; becoming an instrument of saving value and exchange; and being dividable, easily portable, and generally acceptable are the most basic requirements. The qualities virtual currencies have lead their uses to become widespread in terms of that they can especially perform many functions of physical money. It is possible to put in order the most remarkable and general characteristics regarding virtual crypto currencies as follows:

- Virtual currency units, in contrast to the other digital currency units, due to the fact that they represent any nominal currency, are not physical entities.
- Since virtual currencies in the form of bitcoins and altcoins do not subject to any legal regulation or supervision, they carry high risk, and their values are not under guarantee.
- The supply of currencies under consideration are not realized by a central authority and these currencies are produced in the prices determined by those issuing it.
- Excessive volatility in their values negatively affect the trust to virtual currencies in terms of possible losses.
- Virtual currency, in terms of that it can enable low cost and high rapid processes, becomes increasingly widespread.

2.2. Usage Areas Of Currency Monetary Unites

In related to the usage areas of virtual currency units, it will be useful to deal with the use of Bitcoin that is most commonly used. According to this, the usage areas of Bitcoin can be put in order (Gültekin & Bulut, 2016):

1. Mining Firms
2. Firms giving e-wallet service
3. Firms providing financial service
4. Monetary markets (exchanges)
5. Payment processors
6. Universal firms.

2.3. Examples Of Virtual Currency: “Bitcoin, Linden Dollar and Ripple”

Although there are 1375 pieces of virtual currencies, the most intensively demanded currency among virtual currency units are some pieces. In this study, Bitcoin, Ripple, and Linden Dollar, which attracts interest the most in practice, are mentioned. On the other hand, all virtual monetary units take place in three categories in terms of working schemes of European Central Bank (Atıf, 2014):

a. Closed Scheme: Virtual currency units in this group, also termed as closed system virtual currency units, are not directly related to real economy. The currencies under consideration have a value in terms of communities that are actively present in only web-based virtual systems (such as web sites and games) and are used as exchange instrument between players, The most remarkable example of virtual currency in type of closed scheme in the world is the used one in World of Warcraft. The players can use this currency unit for only in-game shopping and it does not have any value in purchase and sale in the real life.



b. Unidirectional Scheme: Currency units having unidirectional flow, in which virtual currency units can be purchased by physical currency but virtual monetary units cannot be reconverted to physical currency units, take place in this group. By means of these virtual monetary units, that the most known example is Facebook Credits, products and services can be purchased both physically and virtually.

c. Double Directional Scheme: Virtual monetary units taking place in this group directly affect real economy and the most commonly used one is Bitcoin. This group, which can be converted to the physical currency, in other words, through which national currencies of countries can be purchased, and then which can be converted into the currency of another country by reselling, if desired, has bidirectional flow. Because of double conversion mechanism under consideration, currency units taking place in this group form the sorts having the commonly usage area.

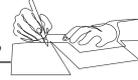
As previously mentioned, there are some pieces of crypto currency that are the most remarkable among the virtual currency units. Of these, it will be convenient to deal with Bitcoin and Linden Dollar having bidirectional flow and Ripple, which has the important differences from Bitcoin and a common usage area:

2.3.1. Bitcoin

Bitcoin, started to be used in world markets as a new payment system, is the first digital payment system, which does not have a central authority or mediator. The first Bitcoin software was published by Satoshi Nakamoto in Japan (Wallace, 2011) Bitcoin is a digital consensus network, which completely takes its value and power from its users. Due to the fact that Bitcoin has a running based on coding method, it has a feature of crypto currency, among virtual currency units. In Bitcoin, which is spread over a wide –distributed network, the users have a large control on their own entities (Glantz, 2014) (Soydal, 2017). It is possible to put in order the most remarkable characteristics of Bitcoin as follows (Dizkırıcı & Gokgoz, 2018):

- That action is taken without mediator via P2P technology without subjecting to any public authority.
- That it is produced in digital media and limited number, and that it is a complex product.
- That the usage area and demand continuously and globally increases.
- That personal information is not given and not insured.
- That there are not any risk such as seizing accounts and suspending accounts.

Bitcoin, that the first transaction actualize in 2009 and whose value in international market is approx \$ 1.3 (Sönmez, 2014), is purchased and sold or stored among the users by forming a private virtual wallet. Bitcoin network shares an account book, called blockchain, which includes all transactions



carried out and enables the user to confirm the validity of a transaction (Soydal, 2017). All pasts of transactions related to Bitcoin are present in Blockchain, and each of new transactions is added to the end of the chain of approved transactions (Hepkorucu & Genç, 2017). Although the accuracy of transactions are kept with the digital signatures corresponding to the sender address, since it includes high technology-based algorithms and cryptographic transactions, the record of each transaction can be made without the third persons (Dizkırıcı & Gokgoz, 2018) and bitcoin can be sent from the own addresses of all users. In addition, the users, in general, in the way called mining, can help the transactions actualize by means of process of specific hardware and can be awarded by bitcoin in exchange of this (Soydal, 2017).

In mining, which is a service of transaction, the users (miners), collecting the newly published transactions, make block and, continuously confirming them, enable block chain to be consistent, perfect, and unchangeable. Miners solve a coded algorithms as a part of confirming process and enable each block to include the deduction of the previous block. In this way, the blocks are joined to each other and form a chain (Üzer, 2017).

Bitcoin uses general key code technique for security. In the system running as two addresses, one of the addresses belongs to the sender and the other, to the receiver. On the other hand, due to the feature of doublespending, it is impossible to collect together the coded transactions and send them without signature (Sönmez, 2014). Nakamoto indicates the process of Bitcoin transaction as follows (Nakamoto, 2008):

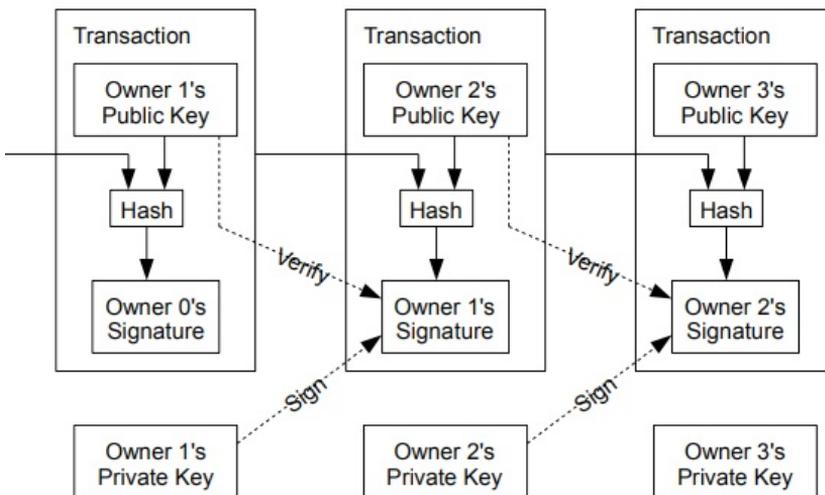
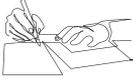


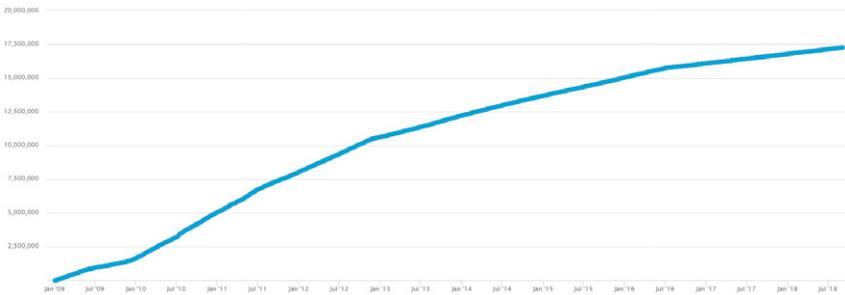
Fig. 2. Process of Bitcoin Transaction (Nakamoto, 2008)

As seen in Figure 2, in Bitcoin system consisting of the chain of electronic signatures, in the stage of each transfer, the approvals and signatures of the previous and next users are required. Bitcoin users are called “miner” and “mining”, transaction processes they expect to be approved. In this process,



block structure that is necessary to be made accumulates and, for solving complexity, miners play important role in exerting transactional power. In return to this, the first person solving block structure is both added to the end of block chain and gains bitcoin defined per block as award (Hepkorucu & Genç, 2017). Ethereum, Ripple, Litecoin, Dash, Cardano, Stellar, Monero, Eos, Iota, Neo, Nem, Tron, and VeChain are currency units known other than Bitcoin. Beside this, mentioning about Linden Dollar will be convenient in terms of that it is a completely example of virtual currency.

For example, Graphic 1 shows the total number of bitcoins that have already been mined; in other words, the current supply of bitcoins on the network:



Graphic 1. Bitcoins in circulation (Blockchain, 2018)

Graphic 2 shows the total USD value of bitcoin supply in circulation, as calculated by the daily average market price across major exchanges:

Graphic 2. Market Capitalization



Graphic 2. Market Capitalization (Blockchain, 2018)

2.3.2. Linden Dollar

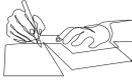
Second Life (SL), developed by a company called Linden Labs, located in San Francisco, in the form of a digital animation of real life in 2003, is a three dimensional internet-based graphic media. In virtual media, the users of the game creates a character for themselves and can create virtual spaces completely independent from physical reality. In this game, which can be simultaneously played by a number of users as online, the players use Linden Dollar, which is developed for the game to be able to purchase product and service in the game and can be bought from the places making purchase and sale like LindeX Currency Exchange in exchange of American Dollar. Linden Dollar, as previously mentioned, take place among the most common ones of virtual currency users having double directional flow (Yüksel, 2015). The feature making Linden Dollar different from Bitcoin as virtual currency units is that it can be used in only virtual media. On the other hand, virtual currency in the form of Linden Dollar, on condition that the real money enters system, can be converted to American dollar from exchange office in the game and can be transferred to the accounts through PayPal. However, Linden Dollar can be supplied by Linden Labs, can bring new tax, and can make every kind of arrangements. Hence, it is criticized in the way that unexpected increases in the amount of supply may be some economic reflections.

Another worry regarding Linden Dollar as virtual currency unit is that some risks such as laundering money, forming a media for financing terrorist activities, and confidence game accompanying to uncertainties include in terms of users, since it is based on any legal base. For example, Linden Labs is not responsible for compensating the virtual currency lost in the game (Yüksel, 2015).

2.3.3. Ripple

Ripple, as an agreement system, in which the payments with exorbitant sum are realized as realtime and decentralized transfer network, which is the platform of foreign currency unit, also give service to the existent payment network with international realtime payment possibilities as a technological infrastructure enabling to provide connection between each other. Therefore, Ripple is one of the examples of Crypto currency units that is important to international transfer markets (Üzer, 2017).

Ripple, among virtual currency units, differs from Bitcoin and the other alternative currency units from some aspects and, with its advantaged aspects, takes place among the most preferred crypto currencies. In contrast to the other virtual currency units, Ripple does not require mining and, thus, reduces extra costs mining activities resulting in high electricity consumption create. Besides that it is very cheaper and faster compared to the other payment systems, Ripple also comes to the forefront with the difference that it has a central authority. With this feature of it, although it is found more reliable in terms of financial institutes providing payment systems, it is also criticized due to the fact that it does not fully has the principle to be centerless, one of



the most important features of crypto currencies and that it is supported by financial industries (Şirazduvarı.com, 2018).

Although ripple system, built on open protocol, comes to forefront in the services of foreign currency transfer, due to the fact that it has a crypto currency unit, called XRP, it is also evaluated as a virtual currency unit. By using the system, the parts can realize low cost cross –border payment transaction; banks can create product and service diversity; liquidity providers can also reach the new liquidity possibilities. In addition, depicted in Figure 3, beside the parts under consideration, technological partners enabling to be integrated the existent technological infrastructures with Ripple system also take place (Üzer, 2017):

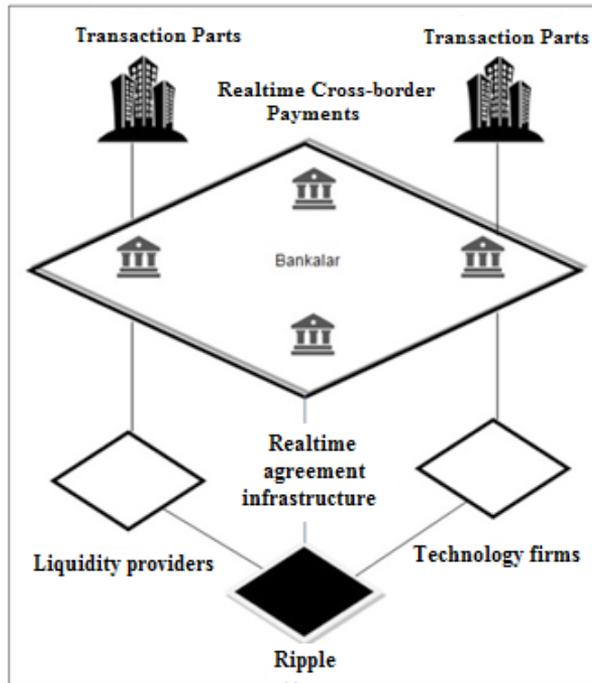
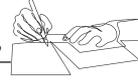


Fig. 3. Ripple System (Üzer, 2017)

Ripple uses the system, i.e. Proof of Stake (PoS), in which Proof of Work (PoW) method Bitcoin has i.e. miners are not present and all token supply targeted is made at the very beginning instead of that miners gain crypto currency as award, solving certain algorithms. That is, differently from the way Bitcoin runs, in this system, all currency units were in advance created. The advantage of PoS system, miners do not have the electronic and other equipment costs to solve algorithms. Opencoin firm, established in September 2012, developed Ripple Transaction Protocol (RTXP). With this protocol, it is possible to realize direct and instantaneous protocol between two parts. Through this protocol, it is aimed to eliminate long processing times in tradi-



tional banking system and high transaction expenses. In Ripple system, USD, Euro, Yen, Rupee, gold and airway miles can be exchanged. In terms of providing security, OpenCoin programmed Ripple in such a way that it will work together a common ledger managers independent confirming servers (Kaya, 2018).

Database taking place in Ripple system is a distributed database similar to Bitcoin system, and accounts and operations are recorded to the ledger. The computers connecting to Ripple protocol, with a process termed unanimity, agree upon the variations in the ledger in seconds (Üzer, 2017). Transaction is created by an account owner and signed and directly transferred to the network. The possible faulty transactions are rejected and unanimity process begins.

Ripple Protocol Unanimity Algorithm brings a new method called noddle list (UNL). Each noddle in Ripple system has this list consisting of processors it questioned in unanimity process. In Bitcoin system, in contrast to the approval of each participant, in unanimity process, each participant takes the other members present in his/her own UNL into consideration. Hence, UNL of any participant consist of the processors, to which the participant trusts that they will not collectively trick the system (Schwartz, Youngs, & Britto, 2014). In this process, the transaction realized is included in ledger and, as a result of a successful unanimity, ledger is validated; if an unsuccessful unanimity process emerges, process is continuing until it becomes successful.

In order to use block chain technology in Turkey in foreign monetary transfers, the first bank agreeing with Ripple, commonly preferred in the world, is Akbank (Kaya, 2018).

2.4. Discussions Regarding Virtual Currency Units: Advantages and Disadvantages

There are many discussions regarding crypto virtual currency units in both literature or economic world. The resource of discussions of interest arises from the risks and benefits accompanying to the virtual currency units. Together evaluating the positive and negative points of view has importance in terms of the future of virtual currencies and their reflections on economy. Table 1 shows the advantages and disadvantages of virtual monetary units, especially crypto money, in summary:

Table 1. Virtual Monetary Units in terms of its advantages and disadvantages

Advantages	Disadvantages
Possibility to transfer money in low cost	Excessive volatility in its value
High speed of processing and transaction volume	Usability by illegal organizations
Eliminating the possibility to issue credit money	Lack of legal regulations and low transparency
Safety of process information	Difficulties in taxing



3. Virtual Currency Units In The World And Turkey

In terms of substitution probability to national currency units, digital currency units have come to a state of often being remembered by the political and economic actors of countries. When their advantages and disadvantages are considered, the viewpoints of the countries to the virtual currency units differ. In the future, it is put forward that all of world countries will produce their own national crypto currencies. Russia, Estonia, and Japan makes leadership to the countries such as Kazakhstan and Abkhazia and beside many European country, in many countries such United State, South Coria, and Thailand, especially Bitcoin is considered to be legal or some deterrent decrees are published, even though it is considered to be legal. In the countries such as Bangladesh, Bolivia, Ecuador, Kirghizstan, and Nepal, Bitcoin is announced as illegal, it is not permitted to buy and sell it. Transacting with Bitcoin, used in official payments in Asia and some regions, in China beginning from 2013 is forbidden for banks and financial institutes but Bitcoin is released for the companies and individuals (Çetiner, 2018).

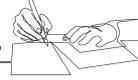
According to current data; total crypto market value is \$198.273.479.451, the daily (last 24 hours) market volume is approximately \$ 12,235,048,110 (Kriptoparapiyasası.com). Table 2 shows the market information of selected/ top cryptocurrencies (09.09.2018) (Investing.com, 2018):

Table 2. Market information of selected / top cryptocurrencies

Name :	Symbol :	Price (USD)	Market Cap :	Voi (24H) :	Total Vol :	Chg (24H) :	Chg (7D) :
Bitcoin	BTC	6,382.0	\$110.40B	\$4.12B	33.53%	-0.18%	-11.78%
Ethereum	ETH	201.77	\$20.63B	\$1.85B	15.02%	-7.44%	-31.24%
XRP	XRP	0.28454	\$11.35B	\$191.51M	1.56%	-1.95%	-16.71%
Bitcoin Cash	BCH	483.24	\$8.40B	\$330.95M	2.69%	-3.19%	-23.88%
EOS	EOS	5.0370	\$4.58B	\$621.13M	5.05%	-0.37%	-22.18%
Stellar Lumens	XLM	0.19685	\$3.71B	\$56.99M	0.46%	-4.21%	-12.97%
Litecoin	LTC	55.175	\$3.21B	\$263.03M	2.14%	-2.33%	-15.69%
Tether	USDT	1.00418	\$2.76B	\$2.73B	22.19%	-0.03%	+0.10%
Cardano	ADA	0.07889	\$2.06B	\$53.39M	0.43%	-5.37%	-24.21%
Monero	XMR	105.45	\$1.74B	\$39.40M	0.32%	-6.50%	-11.82%

Source: (Investing.com, 2018)

Compared to the other developed countries of the world, Turkey rather fell behind in the meaning of the use of virtual currency units and legal regulations regarding the use of virtual currency units. Although there is no a sound legislation regarding virtual currency units, there is not any ground related to regulating swap platforms toward virtual monetary units other than the announcement of Banking Regulation and Supervision Agency (BDDK), dated November 2013. As a matter of fact the expression *“Bitcoin, known as a virtual currency units, which is not exported by any official or private organization and not guaranteed about its exchange, in respect of its existing structure and running, is not considered electronic cash in the scope of law; therefore, in the framework of the law of interest, its protection and supervision does not*

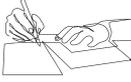


seem to be possible” taking place in the relevant announcement of BDDK gives information about the attitude of the country regarding virtual currency units. That swap platforms, in which purchase and sale of virtual monetary units are realized, are in less number is a result of that the use of virtual currency is at low level compared to world countries. Another cause of that the use of virtual money in world countries and Turkey does not proceed parallel is that virtual currency units do not have characteristics specified in the definition of e-money in the law numbered 6493 about Payment and Security Agreement Systems, Payment Services, and Electronic Monetary Organizations and, hence, that virtual units do not have any legal quality in Turkey. That the risk rate of virtual currency units is high was again presented by public authorities in Turkey to the attention of public opinion in the same report of BDDK. In the expressions taking place in the report, it is emphasized that not knowing the identifications of the parts in the transactions realized via virtual currency and excessive volatility in market form a suitable environment for irrevocable operational errors and use in illegal activities (BDDK, 2013).

On the other hand, there is not also any legislation forbidding the use of virtual currency in Turkey. Although there is a very less number of businesses accepting Bitcoin as a payment instrument, even if it was concluded with unsuccessfulness, in Turkey, virtual currency unit like Turkocoin was tried to be created for some period. Website, called BTCTurk, in the feature of being platform being active as the first Bitcoin exchange market established in Turkey, is in Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. However, due to the fact that there is not any bank accepting to transact with BTCTurk, the transactions of lodging and drawing TL were stopped in 2016. The sites Takascoin and Koinim were also active as Bitcoin exchange market in Turkey; however, on the reasons for financing and taxing, Takascoin was also closed. Currently, the only platform in Turkey, from which virtual currency units can be purchased by means of credit card, is Koinex (Üzer, 2017). In short, it is seen that the information, infrastructure, legal ground, and awareness regarding the use of virtual currency quite slowly proceed in Turkey.

4. Conclusion and Discussion

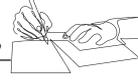
It is foreseen that virtual currency units becoming widespread every passing day, especially in developed economies, will become financial assets of the future, although it leads to criticism from many aspects. When its risks as well as advantages accompanying to it are considered, digital monetary system will become absolutely widespread [in the future] instead of nominal currency system highly discussed in the literature. As in all areas, also in economic area, digitalization period has begun and it is possible for the electronic cash, virtual currency, and crypto currencies taking place in virtual currencies to shake the authority of traditional monetary systems. As payment instruments designed by means of digital algorithms of information age, the increase of demand to virtual currency units in the recent years is in the quality of these predictions. Besides its advantages such as being fast and low cost, privacy of personal information, being able to be transacted inde-



pendently from central authority or mediator; another element making focus point virtual currency units like Bitcoin is that speculative investors benefit from the opportunities daily price volatilities present. Besides that the elements such as manipulation and inflation are not affected, that virtual currency units can be performing many functions of the money having physical reality is an another cause of preference.

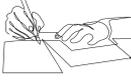
On the other hand, that the identifications of those using virtual currency units like Bitcoin are uncertain; that they cannot be identified by the third persons; and thus, that they are deprived of supervision also engender many scenarios. With this feature of it enabling to use illegal activities for financing, that it also has a high loss risks forms a threat in terms of the countries and users.

Due to the points such as its amount of supply is fixed; that it cannot be performing all functions of the money; and it is deprived of the feature to be a credit instrument, joining virtual currency to economic mechanism as a payment instruments does not seem to be possible. Being able to eliminate these weaknesses of virtual currency units, especially crypto currencies, depends on providing the necessary structural transformation. In addition, inadequacy of legal regulations having a serious gap in legal meaning can trigger escape from virtual currency units. Despite all risks, the continuity of demand increase toward virtual monetary units, especially Bitcoin, will make obligatory to restructure public authorities, especially central bank. As a matter of fact, in the face of the possibility that the effectiveness of monetary policies decreases, central banks will have to reach the quality to be able to adapt to the renewals of future period in the direction of their duties and missions. Otherwise, control power of central banks on monetary markets will decrease, and markets will become exposed to the risks and unexpected fluctuations. For especially payment systems, developing financial markets and making them adaptable to the innovative processes are under responsibility of central bank as a catalyst. Therefore, closely following the developments regarding virtual currency units and its running process in world countries, it will be convenient for central bank to plan the changes, which develop in compatible with world order but in which supervision mechanism can be included. Compared to the developed countries, the use of virtual currency use at highly low cost in terms of Turkey currently reduces the negative effects of risks and threats under consideration from economic point of view. On the other hand, when the need for innovative system proceeding as parallel to the globalizing world conditions is considered, it seems to be necessary to implement the necessary workouts regarding how disadvantages will be minimized and, in case that the use of virtual money becomes widespread, what like actions will be taken, what the legal procedure to be applied will be and, shortly, in what ways structural transformation will be realized.

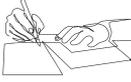


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**CHAPTER
31****EXAMINING BASIC DESIGN OF
OTTOMAN MINIATURES AS A
GRAPHIC DESIGN PRODUCT****F. Emel ERTÜRK¹, İtir Tokdemir ÖZÜDOĞRU²****Introduction**

Graphic can be defined as a visual information exchange of graphic design products for the purpose of communication. The use of visual elements in graphic communication, which is a method of communication, requires the existence of certain rules for a common understanding. Just as there are basic principles in the language of speaking and writing, there are rules and methods defined for visual communication. The rules to be defined play an important role in the correct transmission of the message loaded to the communication tool - graphic design product.

It is thought that examining the miniatures that we can look at as the graphic design products of the past in accordance with the design principles of today is important in terms of understanding the communication rules of the period. The aim of this study is to determine the degree of conformity with today's design principles in accordance with the principles of ten miniature design which are classified according to their periods; because it plays an important role in transferring cultural infrastructure from one generation to another and acts as a bridge connecting the past, present and future in society (Yılmaz, 2017, 111). For this reason, it is important to examine the miniatures which are considered the history of Turkish Graphic Design and carry the aesthetic concerns of the past to the present.

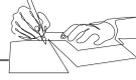
The concept of Gestalt, which was introduced by German and Austrian psychologists in the 1900s, basically explores how human eye organizes and perceives visual experiences (Uçar, 2004, 65). Derived from the Stellen verb, Gestalt means to put, place, and organize in German.

When a graphic design product is considered, the perceived units are organically connected with each other. Perception principles are important for studies to be designed in accordance with the target audience. Perception principles can be grouped under 5 titles. In the article titled "Evaluation of Visual Perception in Art by Literature", Gestalt is examined under five principles; these are: Figure - Ground Relation, connectedness, Similarity, Proximity and Continuity (Caglayan, 2014, 165).

The Bauhaus School, which was developed by using these methods of perception, began in 1919 with the establishment of the Das Staatliche Bauhaus high school by Weimar' Walter Gropius. It can be said that the first step of the

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basic design was taken here. In 1925, the Bauhaus moved to the city of Dessau and remained there until 1933, when it was closed by the Hitler regime (Güngör, 2005, 3). The experience gained from this 14 years of education was extended to America by immigration to there and the basic design emerged.

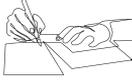
The graphics is a concept related to visually perceived things; in other words, the images. There is a need for a common language, rules and methods to have communication visually. The basic design course given to first year students in art and design schools was put for this purpose. The abc of the visual language, which is necessary for design and art works, is taught in these classes.

Basic Design

The elements of the graphic design product are units coming together and forming the composition. The design principles are used to put these elements together.

The elements of Graphic Design:

1. **Line:** The line created by joining the points can be as straight, curved and broken lines. It can be used as thick, thin, continuous or interrupted. It can provide direction and continuity in the composition.
2. **Tone:** This can be also called as value. Just like the use of colors in design is important, the use of shades of colors is also important. Light-dark differences add diversity into design. Light, shadow, depth perception can also be achieved in this way.
3. **Color:** One of the important elements in the composition is color. Colors should be used in the composition according to certain harmonic structures. They are divided into two groups as warm and cold colors. Warm colors are orange, red, yellow and cold colors blue, green and purple. Unity and harmony can be achieved by the use of cold or warm colors in the composition.
4. **Texture:** The surface of things can be rough, smooth, soft and such. It is divided into natural and artificial. It's the feeling or look of the surface of things.
5. **Form:** It is the surface composed of color, line, light and dark.
6. **Size:** Even the similar or different forms are used, they have different effects with the difference in size. The difference in the size of the forms is an important element of design.
7. **Direction:** With the lines and dots in design, different directions and accordingly the movements are created. The designer can use this according to the message to be delivered.



Design Principles

The prerequisite for a successful design is to know the design principles and the correct use of these principles in design. These principles can be categorized under five headings in the most general sense.

1. *BALANCE*

2. *RATIO*

3. *VISUAL CONTINUITY*

4. *UNITY*

5. *EMPHASIS*

1. Balance in Design: The equality and harmony of the design elements in terms of the values they set out in each design constitutes the balance of the design. In other words, balance can be defined as the fact the situation where the design elements can come together in a harmonic order and that they can exist without destroying each other's value in an order. The balance is created by placing the design elements horizontally and vertically in equal weight. Different methods can be applied to achieve balance in a design.

The balance, which is one of the basic elements in the design and which ensures that the design is kept together visually, can be provided in four different ways.

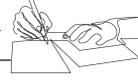
a. Symmetrical Balance: The symmetric balance is to obtain a two-way shape similarity obtained by placing visual elements in a mirror image on both sides of a horizontal or vertical axis. In other words, the visual weight is evenly distributed on both sides of the axis.

Symmetrical balance is preferred in designs that emphasize is to be on tradition, formalism and authority. On the other hand, symmetry is the psychological symbol of honesty and dignity. Compositions based on symmetric balance are used more often by amateur designers because they are more reliable (Becer 2013, 66).

b. Approximate Symmetrical Balance: It is a kind of balance where monotony which is felt in symmetrical balance is overcome and repetition is planned skillfully. In the approximate symmetrical balance, the visual elements still take place around the axis, but the difference in the numbers, sizes and colors of the forms ensures the balance. Although the stability is still dominant, the attractiveness of the differences reduces the monotony by keeping the audiences' attention.

c. Circular Balance: In this balance type which is used when a strong focal point is needed in the design, the visual elements are gathered at some point and distributed in a circular manner.

d. Asymmetric Balance: Asymmetric balance can make the designer feel more energetic and free when compared to the other balance types and the



resulting design becomes more vibrant and dynamic. As in the symmetric balance, there is also a center of gravity in the asymmetric balance, but this is not in the center of the composition as in the symmetric or circular balance. In the asymmetric balance, the designer have to know that the optical center is closer to the big element, the darker colors are more effective than the light colors, the warmer colors are more comfortable than the cold colors, small but frequent elements can balance the large single element and that the diagonal elements are more effective than the vertical or horizontally positioned elements.

2. Ratio: Visual elements are in a mathematical relationship on the design surface. The dimensions of the design surface, the areas and spaces covered by the visual units are always related to the ratio. To avoid monotony, designers avoid using equal ratios. When we look at the world, we observe that nature consists of structures with certain ratios. When we look at the inner sections of the trees, we observe that the areas between the rings have different widths.

Ideally accepted ratio, in other words, the Fibonacci sequence is a series of numbers that are generated by each number added with the previous one. The ratio of these numbers to each other gives the golden ratio, the number of which is 1,618. This is a value that is observed in art, nature, architecture and strengthens the aesthetic perception. The Fibonacci spiral is formed by drawing the corner connections of the squares (dimensions: 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34) which are placed consecutively (Figure 1). In other words, the golden ratio is as when a line is divided into two parts; the ratio of the small part to the large part is equal to the ratio of the large part to the whole. (Becer, 2013, 69) Numerically, it can be shown as 3: 5, 5: 8, 8: 13 series. Golden ratio is the ratio used by many designers and artists.

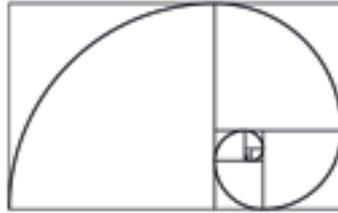
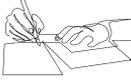


Figure 1: Fibonacci spiral

3. Visual Continuity: The fact that the eye can circulate between the design elements used on the design surface shows that continuity has been achieved in the design. The eye follows the path from left to right and from top to down. The horizontal movements of the eye is quicker and faster than the vertical movements. Also eye follows a perception sequence from large to small, from dark to light, from colored to colorless, from the uncommon to the common (Becer, 2013, 70). The continuity can be achieved by the similarities, repetitions and visual hierarchy created between the sizes and forms of the visual elements.

4. Unity: In the design, similar elements are perceived as whole. The unit that is different draws attention in this integrity. Using this, designers can di-



rect the viewer into the area they want to draw attention to. They can make grouping by similarity of form, color, texture, size. Emre Becer defines unity in design in four main topics. By using the border, it can enclose the design surface and design can achieve integrity with similarities such as size, ton. It is possible to provide integrity in designs by leaving white spaces. Axes can be used to provide integrity in concealed or visible designs. In the three-point method, the designer can form an integrity by placing different units at three focal points (Becer, 2013, 72-73).

5. Emphasis: It is necessary to decide in advance the visual elements to be emphasized in the design. The visual element to be emphasized in accordance with this decision can be highlighted using the difference of size, color or tone. Emphasis can be given by using contrast. For example, in a cold-colored composition, may be a warm-colored visual emphasis point.

Ottoman Miniatures

Ottoman Miniatures were handled in five stages as determined by Metin And. The formation Stage is defined in 1451-1520, the Transition Stage in 1520-1574, the Classical Stage in 1574-1603, the Late Classical - Stagnation Stage in 1603- 1700 and the Second Classical-Neo Classical in 1700-1750. (And, 2014, 36).

1451- 1520

Formation Stage

Miniature: The first miniature examined during the formation phase is one of the three miniatures of Külliyyat-ı Katibi. In this miniature, the Sultan having fun with his entourage (Figure 2).

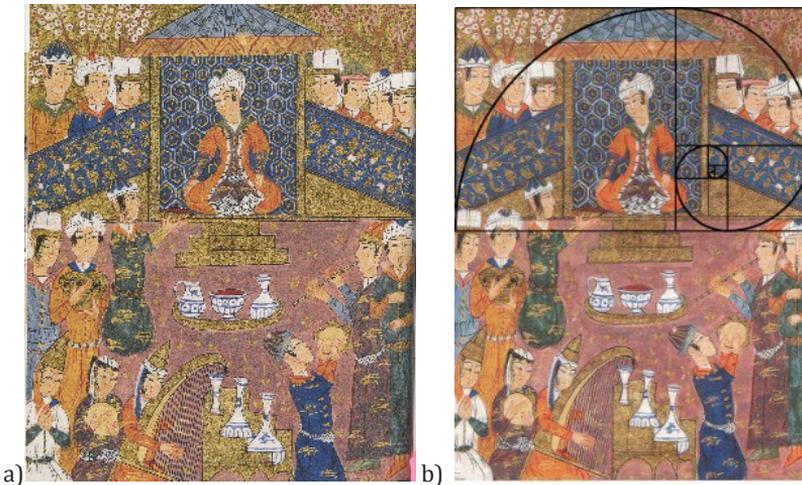
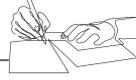


Figure 2: a) Sultan having fun with his entourage, Külliyyat-ı Katibi (And, 2014, 39)

b) Golden ratio analysis of work



1. *Balance*: Although the symmetrical balance seems dominant in the upper part of the first miniature examined during the formation stage, the artist changed the color of the trees and overcome the uniform by differentiating the number of portraits on the left and right. In the lower part of the miniature, approximate symmetrical balance is dominant even if symmetric balance is not perceived intensely (Table 1).
2. *Ratio*: In the first miniature examined during the formation phase, the figure of the sultan placed in the center is in the golden ratio (Figure 2, b). There are two golden ratios throughout the miniature (Table 2).
3. *Visual Continuity*: In this first miniature of the period, visual continuity is achieved with repetition of color, especially the gilding color can be seen almost everywhere. In addition, visual continuity was strengthened with close-up portraits (Table 3).
4. *Unity*: The similar and repetitive elements behind the sultan are the first to initiate integrity. In addition, more or less distribution of gilding throughout the surface is another element that provides integrity in the work (Table 4).
5. *Emphasis*: In this miniature, which is about the fun of the Sultan, the warm colored big figure in the middle of the cold-effect textured background placed in the middle with the symmetrical understanding is the most important place of emphasis. The framing of the big figure increased the emphasis (Table 5).

1. Miniature: The second miniature examined in the formation stage is one of the six miniatures of Mantiku't-Tayr work. It shows the Jealous Emperor catching his son with a beautiful Princess late night (Figure 3).



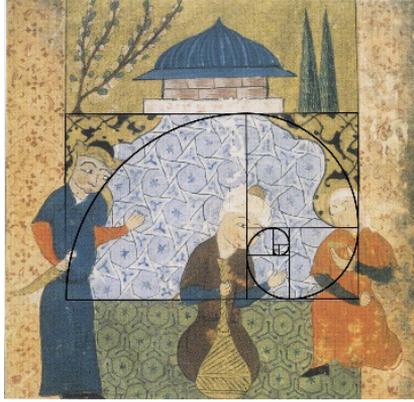
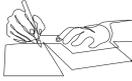


Figure 3: a) Jealous Emperor catching his son with a beautiful Princess late night, Mantiku't-Tayr; (And, 2014, 41) b) Golden ratio analysis of work

1. *Balance*: There is the symmetrical approach in the upper part of the miniature and the monotony was overcome by different tree types placed on both sides of the dome. Although the three figures in the lower part of the miniature appeared to be symmetrically placed, the differences in the movements, dimensions and colors of the figures provided a softening of the symmetry (Table 1).
2. *Ratio*: In the second miniature of the period (Figure 3, b), there is the golden ratio in the middle section which is the area of emphasis (Table 2).
3. *Visual Continuity*: In the second miniature examined, repetition of the figures in close dimensions provides visual continuity and the continuity of the textured background between the figures connects the figures (Table 3).
4. *Unity*: Repeating textures in the background are the most important element that provides integrity in the composition (Table 4).
5. *Emphasis*: Although the approximate symmetrical order is seen in this secondly examined work, the figure below the placed dome is an important emphasis point (Table 5).

1520-1574

Transition Stage:

2. *Miniature*: The first miniature which was examined in the transition stage is one of the miniatures in the work of Mecmu'a. There are 8 miniatures in this work, which are poems from eight important Iranian poets. In the miniature examined, there are five jinn around an angel sitting on the throne.



Figure 4: a) Five jinn around an angel sitting on the throne (And, 2014, 50) b) Golden ratio analysis of work

1. *Balance*: In the first miniature of this stage, it is observed that the asymmetric balance is dominant. In miniature, the only thing evoking the symmetrical balance is that the angel sitting on the throne is placed in the center axis of the composition (Table 1).
 2. *Ratio*: There is the golden ratio in the first miniature of the transition stage (Figure 4, b). At the same time, the yellow field behind the angel in the middle also fits the gold ratio (Table 2).
 3. *Visual Continuity*: Surface continuity has been achieved by repeating the red surface in almost every part of the first explained miniature. In addition, the repetition of the wings on the surface in close dimensions also provided continuity (Table 3).
 4. *Unity*: The most important thing in this work is the border with yellow gilding around it. It can be said that the inside wings are repeating on the surface as well as being a complementary element (Table 4).
 5. *Emphasis*: In the first work examined in the transition stage, the red figure placed in the upper half is seen as the center of emphasis. The frame around the large figure increased the emphasis (Table 5).
- 3. Miniature**: The second miniature in the transition stage was selected from the work named "Süleymanname", which consists of 69 miniatures. This shows Suleyman the Magnificent having Barbarossa as a guest.



Figure 5: a) Suleyman the Magnificent having Barbarossa as a guest, Arifi, Süleymanname, (And, 2014, 63)
b) Golden ratio analysis of work

1. *Balance*: Asymmetric balance is dominant. Only architectural elements and colors outside the image are symmetrically placed. Therefore, this miniature was evaluated asymmetrically (Table 1).
2. *Ratio*: In the second miniature, when evaluated except the architectural elements outside the border, the golden ratio is seen in the entire miniature (Figure 5, b). Again, golden ratio is encountered inside the composition (Table 2).
3. *Visual Continuity*: The repetition of the figures in close sizes and close intervals in this work provides visual continuity (Table 3).
4. *Unity*: The most important element providing the integrity in the second miniature is the border around the work. In addition, the textures on the surface are the other elements that contribute to the integrity (Table 4).
5. *Emphasis*: While the artist created the emphasis with the warm - cold contrast, another highlight was created by drawing the Sultan large (Table 5).

1574-1603

Classical Stage

4. Miniature: The first miniature, which was examined in the classical stage, was selected from Şehinşahame-i Murad-i Salis which is composed of 58 miniatures. This shows the scene of submitting the valuable tent as a gift of Iranian Envoy to III. Murad.

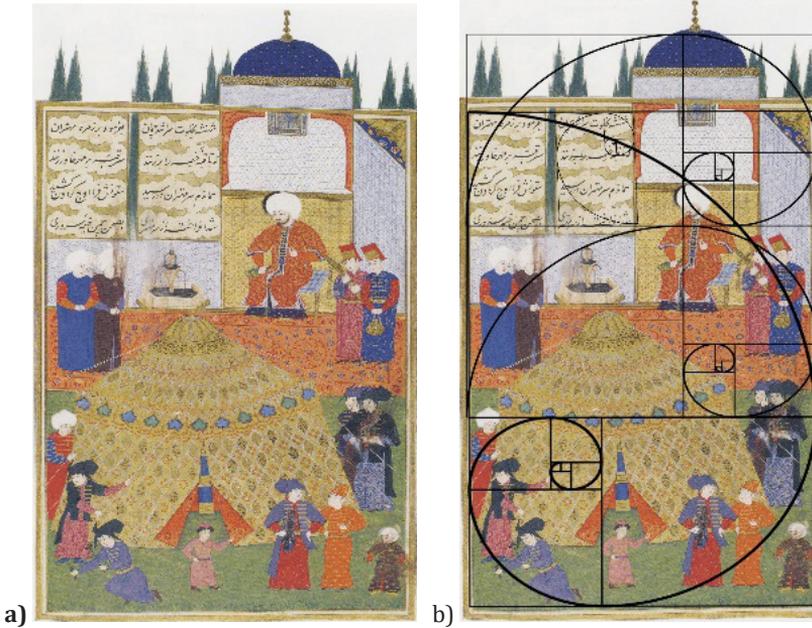
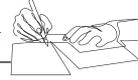


Figure 6: a) Submitting the valuable tent as a gift of Iranian Envoy to III. Murad, Şehinşahame-i Murad-i Salis (And, 2014, 76)

b) Golden ratio analysis of work

1. *Balance*: The dominance of the asymmetric balance appears in the first miniature. Although it is a vertical axis in the upper half of miniature, it does not create symmetry. (Table 1).
2. *Ratio*: In the first miniature of the classical stage, there is a golden ratio except for architectural elements (Figure 6, b). With the consideration of the architectural dome, it is possible to mention three golden ratio divisions. The writing sections also have the golden ratio (Table 2).
3. *Visual Continuity*: The placement of the figures in the circular order ensures continuity and the repetition of the colors in the same order reinforces the continuity (Table 3).
4. *Unity*: The most important element that provides the integrity of the Classical Stage in this first work is the repetition of borders and figures around the work (Table 4).
5. *Emphasis*: An emphasis is placed on the warm - cold contrast. The tent placed in the middle of the lower section is also another important area of emphasis (Table 5).

5. Miniature: The second miniature examined in the classical stage was taken from the work named “Hünername”. The miniature selected from the first volume of this two-volumes of work shows the lion brought from Baghdad and licking on the boot of Sultan Osman I.

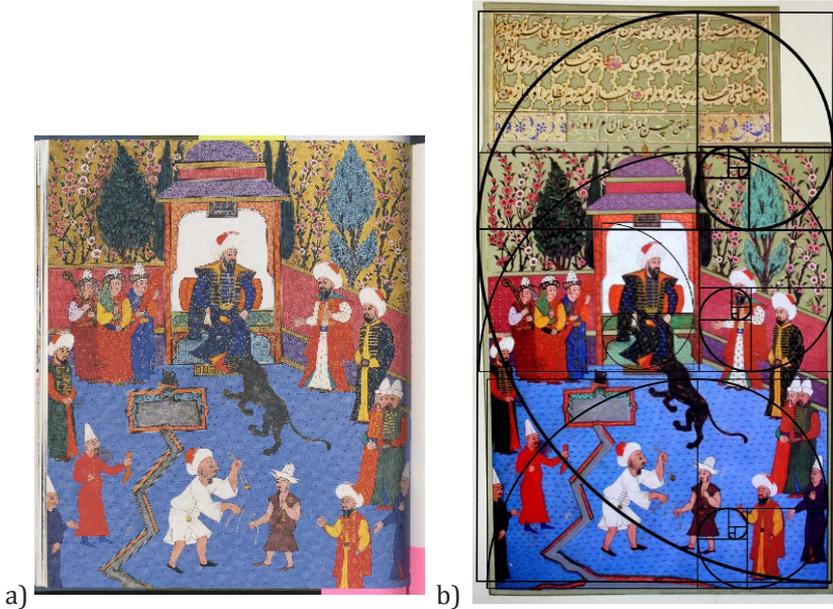
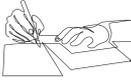
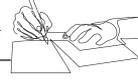


Figure 7: a) The lion brought from Baghdad and licking on the boot of Sultan Osman I, *Hünername*, Volume I, (And, 2014, 78)

b) Golden ratio analysis of work

1. *Balance*: In this selected second miniature of the classical stage, similar to the first miniature studied, although the symmetrical balance seems dominant in the upper part of this miniature; the monotony was removed by changing the color of the trees and the number of portraits on the left and right. In the lower part of the miniature, approximate symmetrical balance is dominant even if the symmetric balance is not intensely perceived. The sequence of figures resembles circular symmetry (Table 1).
2. *Ratio*: There is a golden ratio in the whole work. At the same time, there are two parts with golden ratio in the pictorial area designed in three planes (Figure 7, b). The sultan placed in the center is also within the golden ratio (Table 2).
3. *Visual Continuity*: In this work, which is the second miniature of the period, the continuity between the figures and the textured surface units maintained in the background increases with the circular arrangement of the figures (Table 3).
4. *Unity*: Integrity was provided by repetition of the figure and repetitive textures on the surface and the repeating colors strengthened this integrity (Table 4).
5. *Emphasis*: An emphasis is placed on the warm - cold contrast. The emphasis of the large white area is also important (Table 5).



1603-1700

Late Classical- Stagnation Stage

6. Miniature: The first miniature which was examined from the Late Classical-Stagnation stage was taken from the work named “Acaibü'l-Mahlukat”. The miniature selected from this writing shows Hatur and Marut in the well they will hang upside down until the Day of Judgment (And, 118).

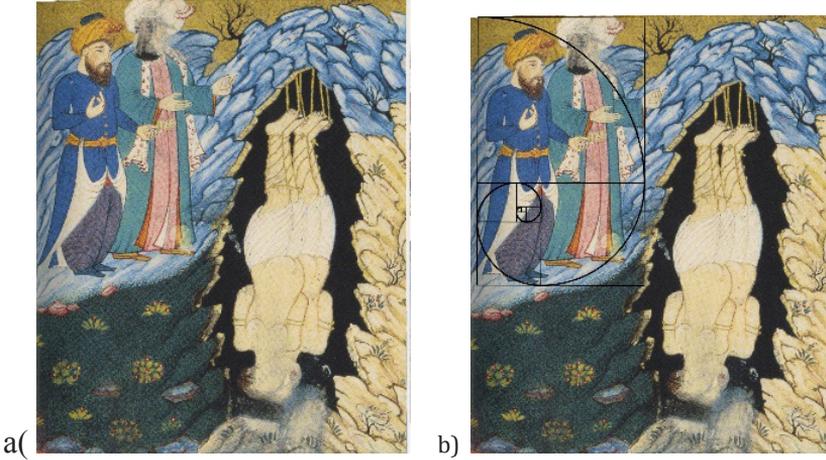


Figure 8: Harut and Marut in the well where they will hang upside down until the day of Judgement, Acaibü'l-Mahlukat, (And, 115)
b) Golden ratio analysis of work

1. *Balance:* Asymmetric balance is observed in the first miniature in the late classical stage (Table 1).
2. *Ratio:* There is no golden ratio in the pearl work of this period (Figure 8, b). It was observed only in the upper left part of the composition covered by two figures (Table 2).
3. *Visual Continuity:* In this study which consists of two different areas, it is possible to say regarding the visual continuity that the blue rocks changing the color from half to the other area provides visual continuity (Table 3).
4. *Unity:* In the first miniature of this examined fourth stage, the distribution of cold colors on the surface and the use of Golding as contrast and the use of alternative colors on the surface provide integrity (Table 4).
5. *Emphasis:* Light-dark contrast is emphasized and there is the dominance of cold color (Table 5).

7. Miniature: The second miniature of the Late Classical-Stagnation Stage shows the war between Keyümers' army and the jinn army and this was taken from the work named “Firdevsı-i Tusi, Şehname”.

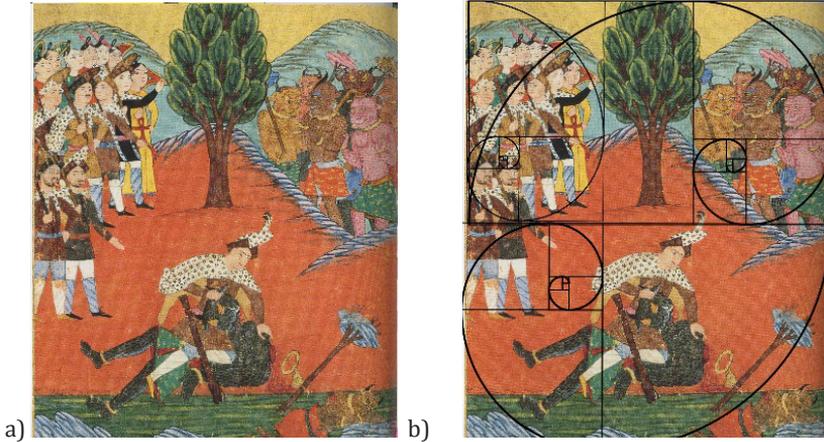
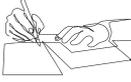


Figure 9: The war between Keyümers' army and the jinn army, Firdevsı-i Tusi, Şehname (And, 2014, 116)
b) Golden ratio analysis of work

1. *Balance*: In this miniature, the approximate symmetrical balance is dominant. The symmetry initiated by the tree in the upper half of the miniature was broken by the change in the number and types of figures on both sides, and an approximate symmetric balance was created (Table 1).
2. *Ratio*: In the second work, the whole composition complies with the golden ratio. The golden ratio was used in the interior parts (Figure 9, b). In particular, the areas with the figures in the upper parts fit the golden ratio (Table 2).
3. *Visual Continuity*: In the foreground and in the background, the mountain drawings appear to be the most important element that allows the eye to navigate on the painting surface (Table 3).
4. *Unity*: The division of the surface into two by the mountain ranges and the color transitions between these parts provide integrity (Table 4).
5. *Emphasis*: The emphasis was ensured with red color. The place of the tree, which evokes symmetry with the warm - cold contrast, is also an important emphasis (Table 5).

1700-1750

Second Classical – Neo Classical

8. Miniature: The first miniature examined in the Second Classical – Neo Classical Stage and showing the passage through the sugar gardens at the circumcision feast of the princes of Ahmed III was taken from the work named "Surname-i Vehbi".

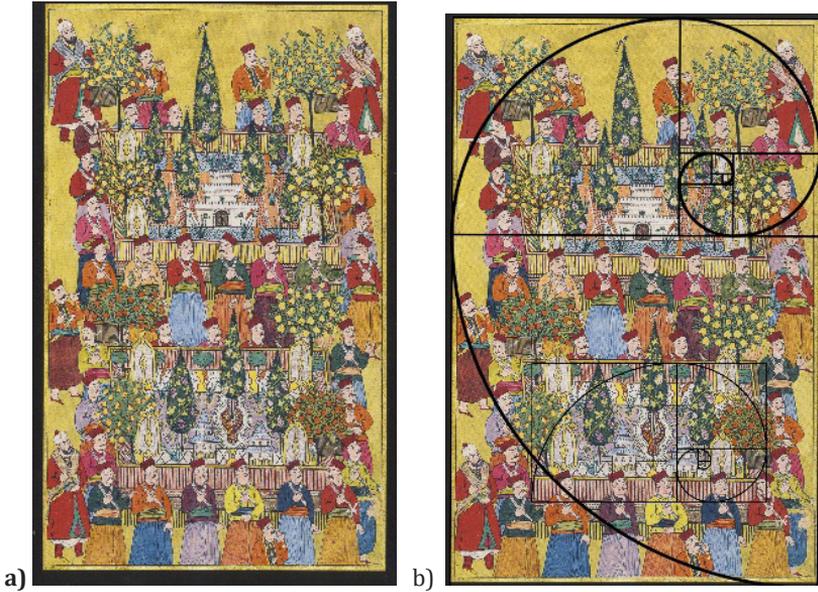


Figure 10: a) the passage through the sugar gardens at the circumcision feast of the princes of Ahmed III, Surname-i Vehbi, (And, 2014, 123)
b) Golden ratio analysis of work

1. *Balance*: Although there is an approximate symmetry perception in this first work of the Second Classical- Neo-Classical period, there is no exact symmetric balance. Recalling symmetry are quadratic fruit trees and shield-like forms (Table 1).
 2. *Ratio*: In this miniature, there is golden ratio in the whole (Figure 10, b). Plant settlements also match with the golden ratio (Table 2).
 3. *Visual Continuity*: The visual continuity initiated by the frequent and regular use of red color on all surfaces was transferred to other warm colors (Table 3).
 4. *Unity*: Integrity was ensured with the border around miniature, and the distribution of warm colors on the surface strengthened this integrity (Table 4).
 5. *Emphasis*: Since the red-yellow dominance in miniature is scattered all over the surface, multiple emphasis can be mentioned. The emphasis of the warm colors is also remarkable. The figures repeated in close intervals also create emphasis because being perceived together (Table 5).
- 9. Miniature**: The second miniature studied in the Second Classic-Neo-Classical period showing the snake biting the robber who trying to rob the sleeping passengers was taken from the work named “Hamse-i Atayi”.

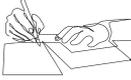
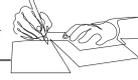


Figure 11: the snake biting the robber who trying to rob the sleeping passengers, Hamse-i Atayi, (And, 2014, 125)
 a) Golden ratio analysis of work

1. *Balance*: Asymmetric balance exists in the second miniature named “the snake biting the robber who trying to rob the sleeping passengers” (Table 1).
2. *Ratio*: There is golden ratio in the whole of this work (Figure 11, b) dominated by the concept of free composition (Figure 2).
3. *Visual Continuity*: This work with free composition was firstly provided with visual continuity by the Background Mountains (Table 3).
4. *Unity*: The close drawing of the figures in the lower part of the work and the writing area on the upper edge appear to be the elements that provide integrity (Table 4).
5. *Emphasis*: Placing the moving figure at the center, while creating the emphasis, the light-dark contrast of the colors contrasted, the figures on the open ground and the Cypress tree can be defined as the secondary emphasis area (Table 5).

BALANCE	Formation Stage (1451-1520)		Transition Stage (1520-1574)		Classical Stage (1574 - 1603)		Late Classical-Stagnation (1603-1700)		Second Classical-Neo Classical (1700-1750)	
	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2
Miniatures	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2



Symmetric Balance										
Approximate Symmetric Balance	X	X				X		X		
Circular Balance										
Asymmetric Balance			X	X	X		X		X	X

Table 1: Schedule of Balance by Stages

RATIO	Formation Stage (1451-1520)		Transition Stage (1520-1574)		Classical Stage (1574-1603)		Late Classical- Stagnation (1603-1700)		Second Classical - Neo Classical (1700-1750)	
	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2
Miniatures										
Golden Ratio in Whole	-	-	X	X	X	X	-	-	X	X
Gold Ratio in Composition	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

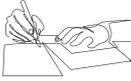
Table 2: Schedule of Golden Ratio by Stages

CONTINUITY	Formation Stage (1451-1520)		Transition Stage (1520-1574)		Classical Stage (1574-1603)		Late Classical- Stagnation (1603-1700)		Second Classical - Neo Classical (1700-1750)	
	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2
Miniatures										
Integrity in the interior order	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

Table 3: Schedule of Continuity by Stages

UNITY	Formation Stage (1451-1520)		Transition Stage (1520-1574)		Classical Stage (1574-1603)		Late Classical- Stagnation (1603-1700)		Second Classical - Neo Classical (1700-1750)	
	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2
Miniatures										
Unity in the interior order	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Integrity with border			X	X	X				X	

Table 4: Schedule of Integrity by Stages



EMPHASIS	Formation Stage (1451-1520)		Transition Stage (1520-1574)		Classical Stage (1574-1603)		Late Classical- Stagnation (1603-1700)		Second Classical - Neo Classical (1700-1750)	
	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2
Miniatures	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2
Color	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Size	X	X	X		X	X				
Repetition	X								X	
Contrast		X Light - Dark	X Color	X Warm - Cold	X Warm - Cold	X Warm -Cold	X Light - Dark	X Warm - Cold	X Warm color	

Table 5: Schedule of Emphasis by Stages

Conclusion

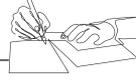
Although the symmetric balance seems to be dominated in the miniatures studied, it is observed that the asymmetric balance is used mostly in the transition stage and in the Classical-Neo Classical Stage. The approximate symmetry was used in the formation stage, but the use of full symmetry and circular balance was not observed.

When the miniatures are evaluated by ratio, it is observed that they provide the golden ratio. Except for the formation stage and the late classical stage, all the miniatures adapt golden ratio by means of the external dimension in all other stages. In the internal plans of the miniature, the golden ratio sizes were used.

Visual continuity is used in all miniatures studied, and the unity principle of almost all miniatures is reinforced by the border drawn around miniature. The emphasis on miniatures examined in four headings was provided by color and different contrasts particularly. There is also emphasis the differences between the forms.

When these results are considered, it is seen that the design principles, which are valid today and applied especially in graphic designs and dwelled on during the graphic design education process, are applied densely in Transition Stage, Classical Stage, Late Classical-Stagnation and Second Classical-Neo-Classical miniatures are applied.

According to the data obtained from all of these miniatures, as the asymmetric balance is preferred today in designs, the visual continuity in the compositions have been used in every stages, the integrity understanding is seen in the compositions and the color is primarily used in emphasis, it is detected that they correspond to each other to a large extent.



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**CHAPTER
32**

**THE CONCEPT OF GOOD
ADMINISTRATION IN
ADMINISTRATIVE LAW**

Bayram KESKİN¹

The Definition and the Scope

Together with multidimensional improvements throughout the world, the perception of administration developed as changing. In this respect, instead of traditional definition of administration, lately, it has been preferred to use the concept of good governance/"good administration" which is more inclusive and with nature of lessening the distance with state and society.² The good administration perception can be defined as a system which leaves the administration perception intervening every realms and undertaking public services such as economy, health and education with a monopolistic approach, and which priorities participation of individuals' to administration and transparency, only determines the market rules, gives up being an actor and turning into be a regulator, aims at improving private sector and civil society.³ The concept at the same time includes how the public authority can be used proportionately and required phases for ensuring participation of citizens.⁴

The concept of good governance, has been used widely as of early 1990s by international organizations such as, especially, the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and OECD to make public administration more rational, for its functioning as citizen-oriented and for improving it.⁵ The underlying idea of these works are generally to spread the "good administration principles" such as rule of law, separation of powers, pluralistic democracy, accountable administration approach, providing efficient, effective, fast and impartial services in administration models of the states.⁶

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), subsequent to world-

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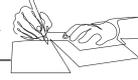
2 YALÇIN, Arzu: *"The Good Governance Principles and their Reflections to The Turkish Public Administration"*, Sakarya University Social Sciences Institution, Unpublished Master Thesis, Sakarya 2010, pg. 4.

3 GÜLER, Birgül Ayman: *The Essays on Reform in State*, Paragraf Yayınevi, Ankara 2005, pg. 39.

4 ABDİOĞLU, Hasan: *"The Ombudsman in Implementing The Good Governance Principles and their Importance During European Union Process"*, İstanbul Trade University Social Sciences Journal, S.11, Y.2007, pg.93.

5 DOORGAPERSAD, Shikha Vyas- Coşkun Can AKTAN: *Progression From Ideal State to Good Governance: An Introductory Overview*, International Journal of Business and Management Studies, Vol 9, No.1, Y.2017. pg.33

6 GRINDLE, Merilee : *Good Enough Governance Revisited*. Development Policy Review, Vol.25. No.5. Y.2007, pg.555.



wide work, has determined the “Good Administration Principles”.⁷ United Nations (UN), accepted that good administration perception has three dimensions in terms of economic, politic and administrative.⁸ In this respect, the good administration principles which were adopted by United Nations are as follows: citizen-oriented and mediating approach, strategic vision, efficient and effective administration, accountability, providing equal and impartial service.

In this context, the “good administration” can be accepted as a concept which focuses on citizen as a subject benefiting from services, with which contemporary administrative systems should comply, which is adaptive to new developments and which sets up framework of the principles of administrative proceedings and guidelines. To determine practice standards for lessening the distance between individuals and public institutions, improving the democratic decision making proceedings, promoting transparency in public services, facilitating to seek legal remedies for individuals’ affected adversely is determined within the “good administration” principles.⁹ In the administration systems which adopted the principles of democracy and the rule of law, with standards determined with “good administration” principle, the administration has begun to take account of participation in decision making proceedings, proportionality and transparency. Thus, the mechanism, proceedings and institutions have been established to enable the citizens and groups in the societies to express themselves effectively and to resort to their legal rights. Accordingly, it is deemed that the good administration principles are closely related with development level of the states, as level of development increases, the quality of the service offered to citizens’ increases.¹⁰ It supports this allegation that major part of the states are the most developed ones where good administration and good governance principles were voiced and were reflected to administration perception and the citizens were provided the public services equally, impartially and efficiently.

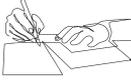
The concept of good administration is reflected into administration perception on different countries of Europe. In this context, the good administration principles have been stated in the constitutions of the states such as Finland, France, Germany and Sweden and in 2003, the legal framework was determined by adopting “*European Code of Good Administrative Behaviour*” for all member states of European Union.

7 GRAHAM, John- Bruce AMOS and Tim PLUMPTRE: Principles for Good Governance in the 21st Century. Policy Brief No.15, Institute On Governance Publications, Canada 2003. pg.5.

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A. The European Code of Good Administrative Behaviour

From 1954, when the European Union was founded, to 1980s, issues such as human rights and "good administration" were not prioritized.¹¹ The most important reason for doing so was the belief that the Union was established with economic goals and left the human rights to the internal affairs of each member state.¹² But, leaving this approach, "*The European Ombudsman*" was founded with Maastricht Treaty which was signed in 1992 to protect member states from misadministration of the EU institutions and to steer these institutions to offer more efficient service.¹³ As it was envisaged in Article 8 of the Treaty, the reason for establishment of this institution was explained as follows: "*in democratization process of Community life, enabling the transparency of Community institutions, establishing relationship of trust between community institutions and citizens, supporting democratic functioning of Union institutions subsequent to complaints by citizens.*"

After the establishment of the European Ombudsman, to ease the functioning of the institution, to enable incorporation into legislations of the member states and to strengthen the right to demand, right to "good administration" has accepted as a human right with Article 41 of Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union that was proclaimed in 2000, in Nice. According to this Article, it was set forth therein that the rights which are basis of administrative law such as right of every person to be heard by administrative institutions, right to access fast to his/her own files in public institutions and requisite of giving reasons for their decisions.¹⁴

In the wake of these improvements, in 6 September 2001, "*The European Code of Good Administrative Behaviour*" was adopted to determine the definition and scope of "good administration", to determine the principles in preparing the recommendations by the European Ombudsman.¹⁵ The aim of the administrative behaviour code is to set up a harmonization among the states

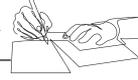
11 LANE, Robert: "The EU Charter of Fundamental Rights and The Subsisting Commitments of EU Member States Under the European Convention on Human Rights; More Variable Geometry", *Croston Yearbook of European Law&Policy*, C.3, Y.2007, pg. 357.

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14 ODYAKMAZ, Zehra-Bayram KESKİN ve Oğuzhan GÜZEL: "Human Rights Policy of The European Union and a Disregarded Issue: Good Faith", *Karatay Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesi Dergisi*, S.1, Y.2017, pg 21.

15 www.ombudsman.europa.eu/showResource?resourceId=1226503345059.pdf The European Code of Good Administrative Behaviour Handbook, E.T: 19.06.2018



which also constitutes basic philosophy of other international agreements.¹⁶ The European Ombudsman, as an external control mechanism, steers the institutions by examining the complaints as regards misadministration made by EU citizens and by producing guideline solutions that will improve the institutions. In carrying out this duty, guideline principles of the European Ombudsman is *"The European Code of Good Administrative Behaviour"*.

Article 41¹⁷ of Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union stipulates the scope of right to "good administration" as follows:

"Every person has the right to have his or her business handled impartially, fairly and within a reasonable time by the institutions and bodies of the Union.

This right includes:

-The right of every person to be heard, before any individual measure which would affect him or her adversely is taken;

-The right of every person to have access to his or her file, while respecting the legitimate interests of confidentiality and of professional and business secrecy;

-The obligation of the administration to give reasons for its decisions.

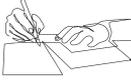
Every person has the right to have the Community make good any damage caused by its institutions or by its servants in the performance of their duties, in accordance with the general principles common to the laws of the Member States.

Every person may write to the institutions of the Union in one of the languages of the Treaties and must have an answer in the same language."

While the European Ombudsman renders decisions as regards the complaints, it has to take account of the principles laid out in the Decision of the European Union Parliament and in *"The European Code of Good Administrative Behaviour"* as well as the principles set forth in Article related to right to "good administration" in Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European

16 ODYAKMAZ, Zehra- Bayram, KESKİN ve Oğuzhan, GÜZEL: "Human Rights Policy of The European Union and a Disregarded Issue: Good Faith", *Pravni Zivot*, Y.2014, S.10, pg.154.

17 www.ombudsman.europa.eu/showResource?resourceId=1226503345059.pdf The European Code of Good Administrative Behaviour Handbook, E.T: 19.06.2018



Union.¹⁸ That the reflections of these kinds of agreements which improve the human rights and protect the individuals against the state to the court decisions, and their incorporation into domestic law is essential for increasing their implementation.¹⁹

B. The Aspects of the Good Administration Principles Related to The Administrative Law

The good administration principles are closely related with democratic state perception, because of the fact that the individuals participate in administrative act before it appears legally and are related with rule of law because of the fact that the citizens were conferred rights stipulated previously by law and imposes the administration to act in accordance with procedures prescribed by law.²⁰ With implementation of good administration principles, the citizen-minded service perception expands and the individuals will participate in administration, transparency of the administration will realise. On account of the transparency of administration, the administrative acts and actions will be more accountable, the administrative acts with unknown content will not be performed behind the closed doors, the individuals will be able to access to the required information by enabling them with possibility to be informed before the administrative act is performed.²¹

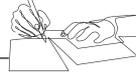
As requisite of the administrative principles respecting democracy and rule of law, government and public administrations cannot arbitrarily prevent the use of fundamental and human rights by ignoring law. In this respect, with expansion and practice of "good administration" principles, the individuals will understand better how the administration functions and will efficiently claim their own rights and will resort to legal remedies more bravely. This will have an improving element on the administrative law which deals with

18 The principles laid out in "*The European Code of Good Administrative Behaviour*" are as follows: the officials shall act according to law, every person shall be treated equally, the measures taken are proportional to the aim pursued, the powers shall not be abused, the officials shall abstain from any arbitrary action, the officials shall be impartial, independent, fair and objective, the officials shall be consistent in its practice and respect legitimate expectations, the officials shall be correct, courteous and accessible in relations with the public, the officials shall reply completely and accurately to applications, the decisions shall be rendered within a reasonable time-limit and in a proper way, the decisions shall state the grounds of decisions, the decisions shall contain the appeal possibilities for the decisions, the officials shall protect personal data and respect to private life.

19 ODYAKMAZ, Zehra- Bayram, KESKİN ve Oğuzhan, GÜZEL: "Human Rights Policy of The European Union and a Disregarded Issue: Good Faith", agm, pg.155.

20 EVREN, Çınar Can: "*Value of The Administrative Proceedings Principles in The Administrative Law*", Türkiye Barolar Birliği Dergisi, S.91, Y.2010, pg.111

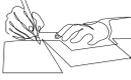
21 EVREN, Çınar Can: agm, pg.112



examination of acts and actions of the administration. ²²

The issue which the citizens are affected intensively in daily life is the binding acts of public administrations. The individuals may not have any interactions with judiciary and legislative activities during their lives. But, it is impossible not to be affected by acts and actions of the administration that is empowered to regulate nearly every realm such as birth, death, education and trade. Although, judicial activities are in public and can be appealed, legislative activities which can be followed by participatory democracy and individuals can convey their views by NGOs, it is not possible always to be informed of acts and actions of the administration and to participate in decision making processes. On account of implementation of "good administration" principles and administrative law, the individuals will be informed of decision making processes of the administration and will have access to information and documents in administration. This will be sign of the fact that rule of law was settled and adopted by all institutions.

22 GÜBAN, Sait: "Transparency in The Administration", İstanbul Law Faculty Journal, S.1-3, Y.1982, pg.104.



THE CONCEPT OF REASONABLE TIME IN ADMINISTRATIVE JURISDICTION IN THE LIGHT OF EUROPEAN HUMAN RIGHTS COURT (ECTHR) DECISIONS

Bayram KESKİN¹

I. INTRODUCTION

'The right to trial within a reasonable time' protects individuals from the undue delays in judicial proceedings and provide the elimination of the state of uncertainty during the proceedings².

The state of delay in the judicial proceedings is admitted by the Constitution of the Republic of Turkey (hereinafter: the Constitution), however the Constitution introduces the fair hearing within a reasonable time as the duty of judicial organ in comparison with Article 6 of the European Convention on Human Rights' (hereinafter: 'the Convention' or 'the ECHR') in which it is given as a right to individuals³.

When considering administrative jurisdiction, the consequences of undue delays in justice system and unreasonable delay in delivering judgment take a serious turn because of the immediate legal effect of administrative acts in consequence of the presumption of legal conformity and the executability of the administrative act⁴. Even lawsuit filed against an administrative act cannot suspend the execution of it and so that the related administrative authority carries out its act⁵. Therefore delivering judgment within a reasonable time in administrative disputes has an important role in order to prevent violence of the right to fair trial.

The member States of the Council of Europe have introduced effective domestic remedies for excessive length of judicial proceedings in the light of the suggestions and criticism under the judgments of the European Court of Human Rights (hereinafter: 'the Court' or 'the Strasbourg Court'). To this end, the Contracting States introduce preventive and compensatory remedies and individual application.

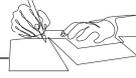
1 Associate Professor, Kocaeli University Law Faculty. ORCID ID:<http://orcid.org/0000-0003-0562-048X>

2 Kartal, Adem: "Makul Sürede Yargılanma Hakkı ve Anayasa Mahkemesine Bireysel Başvuru Yolu ile İnsan Hakları Tazminat Komisyonunun Söz Konusu Hakkı Korumadaki İşlevleri", Terazi Law Journal, V.100, Y.2014, p.39

3 Başpınar, Ahmet: "İdari Yargıda Makul Süre İçin Öneriler", Danıştay Publications, N.O:70, Y.2004, Sempozyum (Danıştay ve İdari Yargı Günü 136. Yıl), p. 21

4 Carlo, Romano, "Advance Tax Rulings and Principles of Law", IBFD Publications, Y. 2002, p. 130

5 Odyakmaz, Zehra: "Hukukta Zaman ve İdari Yargıda Makûl Süre Sorunu", the Journal of the Turkey Justice Academy, V.2, Y.2010, p.2-3



As regards to remedies introduced in Turkish law, with the constitutional amendment adopted on 12/9/2010 under Article 148 of the Constitution, individual application mechanism was introduced as a new remedy for redressing the violation of fundamental human rights and freedoms protected under the Convention and the Constitution. The Constitutional Court has rendered a number of judgments in the result of applications based on alleged violations of the right to trial within a reasonable time during administrative proceedings.⁶

In this study, the concept and scope of the reasonable time will be first analysed in the light of the case law of the ECHR and the Constitutional Court. Following the first chapter, the implementation of the criteria for the assessment of reasonableness regarding the trial within a reasonable time which are adopted by the Court in terms of administrative jurisdiction will be observed; besides the implementation methods of the condition specified under Article 6 of the Convention (civil rights and obligations) in terms of administrative justice will be discussed.

In the last chapter, the legal remedies introduced in Turkish law in the framework of the provisions of the Convention and the Constitution and the case law of the Strasbourg Court for the undue delays in administrative proceedings will be analysed and then the study will finish with the chapter of conclusion.

II. CONCEPT AND SCOPE OF REASONABLE TIME

A. The Meaning of “Reasonable Time”

The concept of reasonable time stated in the right to trial within a reasonable time which aims to protect individuals against excessive length of proceedings is not clearly defined in Article 141 of the Constitution, however it is only emphasised that *the judiciary is required to conclude trials as quickly as possible*.

According to Article 6 of the Convention: “*In the determination of his civil rights and obligations or of any criminal charge against him, everyone is entitled to a fair and public hearing within a reasonable time by an independent and impartial tribunal established by law.*” Article 6 does not determine time-limit for any sort of proceedings. Therefore, the violation of the time-limit prescribed in national law will not directly mean a breach of Article 6.⁷ In parallel with Article 6, Turkish national law does not specify any definite time period which is required for hearing, because determination of a definite time period applying to all types of proceedings is not deemed possible⁸.

Generally speaking, ‘reasonable time’ is a guarantee which provides for proceedings in criminal, civil and administrative cases to be held within a rea-

6 See: the judgment of the Turkish Constitutional Court 20.01.2016 dated and App. No.:2013/9507 (<http://www.kararlaryeni.anayasa.gov.tr/BireyselKarar/Content/cc65e74c-12c5-4947-a8c1-87d9af26b4be?wordsOnly=False>)

7 Dovydas Vitkauskas and Grigoriy Dikov, *Protecting the right to a fair trial under the European Convention on Human Rights* (first published 2012, Council of Europe) p. 73

8 Turan, Hüseyin: “*Avrupa İnsan Hakları Mahkemesi İçtihatlarında Makul Sürede Yargılanma Hakkı*”, the Journal of the Turkey Justice Academy, V.11, Y.2012, p.51



sonable time without undue delays jeopardising the efficiency and credibility of justice⁹. According to the judgments of the Court, the purpose of the reasonable time guarantee is to ensure trust in justice and protect the parties of a case against excessive procedural delays¹⁰.

B. Scope of the Right to Trial within a Reasonable Time in Administrative Actions

The determination of time period considered for the reasonable time guarantee in a case is significant. In other words, it is primarily required to determine the beginning and end of the period of time. Because of the procedural differences, the beginning and end of period in administrative proceedings are considerably different from both criminal and civil proceedings.

1. Beginning and End of Period for Reasonable Time in Administrative Action

Trial within a reasonable time in an administrative case, as a rule, begins with an action which aims to introduce procedure in a court of first instance or a court of appeal acting as first instance court that has authority to examine certain administrative disputes¹¹.

In some circumstances, for example, in case of stipulating the application made to an administration as a precondition for filing a case, the Strasbourg Court ruled that a date prior to case was filed, namely the date of compulsory pre-application, is the beginning of the period¹². For example, Article 13 of the Law nr. 2577 Turkish Procedure of Administrative Justice Act (hereinafter: Administrative Act) stipulates that an individual whose rights have been violated by an administrative act must apply to the relevant administration as a prerequisite for commencement of proceedings. The Court, in its case of *Aydan-Turkey*¹³, held that the date which application is lodged to relevant administrative authority is the beginning of the period to be taken into account.

As to the end of period to be taken into account, the reasonable time guarantee in administrative proceedings, as in criminal and civil proceedings, ends with final decision of the court¹⁴.

The Constitutional Court, in its *judgment of Zülfü Gürgöz*¹⁵, held that the end of period to be taken into consideration in administrative proceedings is the date on which the proceedings is terminated and as to pending proceed-

9 *H. v. France* App No. 6/1988/150/204 (ECHR, 24 October 1989), para. 58

10 *Stogmüller v. Austria* App No. 1602/62 (ECHR, 10 November 1969), para. 5

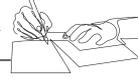
11 Edel, Frédéric: *"The Length of Civil and Criminal Proceeding in the Case-Law of the European Court of Human Rights"*, Council of Europe, Y.2007, p.7

12 Yılmazoğlu, Yunus Emre: *"İdari Yargıda Makul Süre Güvencesi"*, Journal of Danıştay, V.134, Y.2013, p.63; *Golder v. United Kingdom*, App No. 4451/70 (ECHR, 21 February 1975)

13 *Aydan v. Turkey* App No 16281/10 (ECHR, 12 March 2013)

14 Edel (n. 10), p.25

15 Zülfü Gürgöz, App. No: 2015/1188, 7 November 2013, para. 61



ings, it is the date on which the Constitutional Court renders its judgment for the application regarding the claim of violation of the right to trial within a reasonable time.

C. The Criteria of Determination of Reasonableness

When considering the scope of reasonable time guarantee, it is significant to determine the period to be taken into consideration. To this aim, the Strasbourg Court has adopted a number of criteria used in assessing whether proceedings extend beyond “reasonable time”. The criteria concern the complexity of the case, the conduct of the applicant (claimant), the conduct of the relevant administrative and judicial authorities¹⁶.

1. The Case’s Complexity

The Court generally rules that Article 6 of the Convention is not violated, if the case is complex due to factual situation and legal issues¹⁷.

The complexity may arise out of the various considerations. This may stem from the following; *the number of claimants and witnesses, the necessity for expert opinions, tackling with an enormous case-file*¹⁸, *international issues (such as interpretation of an international covenant), consolidation of the cases*¹⁹.

*There is no established guidance regarding situations in which the Strasbourg Court has considered the complexity of the case. The Court therefore examines each case closely in the light of the circumstances of the particular case*²⁰.

2. Conduct of the Claimant

As a rule, only delays which can attribute to the contracting State may justify a finding of failure in conformity with the reasonable time requirement²¹. Before evaluating the conduct of authorities in the case, the Court examines to what extent the plaintiff contributes to delays in proceedings²². If the proceedings extends beyond the reasonable time as a result of the conduct of the claimant, the state cannot be held liable for it²³.

Pursuant to the inquisitorial procedure in administrative jurisdiction specified in Article 20 of the Administrative Act, the judicial authorities are the pri-

16 Pretto and Others v. Italy, App No. 7984/77 (ECHR, 8 Aralık 1983)

17 The International Centre for the Legal Protection of Human Rights (INTERSIGHTS), *Right To a Fair Trial Under the European Convention on Human Rights (Article 6)* (manual for lawyers, 2009), p. 54

18 Bejer v. Poland, App No. 38328/9744 (ECHR, 4 October 2001); Valeriy Kovalenko v. Russia App No. 41716/08, (ECHR, 29 May 2012)

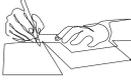
19 ERGÜL, Ergin, “Anayasa Mahkemesine Bireysel Başvuru”, Güncel Law, Y.2012, p.221

20 Edel(n.10), p. 25; Bejer v. Poland, App No. 38328/9744 (ECHR, 4 October 2001); Valeriy Kovalenko v. Russia App No. 41716/08, (ECHR, 29 May 2012)

21 *Idalov v. Russia*, App No 5826/03 (ECHR 22 May 2012)

22 Martin Kuijer, ‘Effective Remedies as a Fundamental Right’ (Seminar on human rights and access to justice in the EU Barcelona, April 2014), p.782.

23 Edel (n. 10), p.58



mary responsible to hold the administrative proceedings within a reasonable time; however the claimant is expected to act with 'due diligence'²⁴, avoid the delaying tactics resulting in excessive length of proceedings and benefit from opportunities enabling to shorten the proceedings²⁵. It should be stated that the claimant cannot be blamed for full using of procedural avenues which are available to him or her.²⁶

3. Conducts of the Administrative and Judicial Authorities

Article 6 of the Convention specifies that "*everyone is entitled to a fair hearing within a reasonable time*"; the Contracting States, therefore, should introduce legal regulations required and take every measure at national level to ensure the reasonable time requirement in accordance with Article 6²⁷. The Contracting State is responsible for the delays stemmed from the acts of administrative and judicial authorities²⁸.

There are a number of examples of the various ways which may attribute to the administrative authorities for the length of proceedings: *failure to coordinate between administrative authorities, delay in sending the file to the court, failure to submit evidence to the court in the period of time prescribed in the decision*²⁹. *The examples of the attribution to the judicial authorities for the length of proceedings may be due to the following: delays in receiving expert opinion*³⁰, *permanently postponement of hearing*³¹ and *frequently change in formation of the court*³².

D. Evaluation of the Implementation Conditions of Article 6 of the Convention on Administrative Jurisdiction

An applicant is required to become party of an administrative dispute regarding '*civil rights and obligations*' in order to apply to the Court with the claim of violation of the right to trial within a reasonable time prescribed in Article 6 of the Convention.

24 *Pretto and others v. Italy*, (ECHR, 8 December 1983), para.33; *Deumeland v. the Federal Republic of Germany*, (ECHR, 29 May 1986)

25 Akkurt, Kemal: "*AİHM Kararları Işığında Adil Yargılanma Hakkında Makul Süre*", *University of Ankara Institute of Social Sciences*, Unpublished Master's Thesis, Ankara 2012, s. 26-27; *Unión Alimentaria Sanders S.A. v. Spain* App No 11681/85 (ECHR, 7 July 1989)

26 Marc Henzelin and Héloïse Rordorf, 'When Does the Length of Criminal Proceedings Become Unreasonable According to the European Court of Human Rights?' (2014) 5(1) *New Journal of European Criminal Law*, p.88-89

27 Kasapoğlu Turhan, Mine: "*İdari Yargıda İvedi Yargılama Usulü*", *Journal of Ankara Bar*, V.3, Y.2015, p. 186

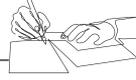
28 İnceoğlu, Sibel: "*İnsan Hakları Avrupa Mahkemesi Kararlarında Adil Yargılanma Hakkı*", Beta Publications, Y.2005, p.386

29 Kalay, Jale: "*AİHM Kararları Işığında Etkili ve Etkin Bir İdari Yargı Denetimi*", *University of Ankara Institute of Social Sciences*, Unpublished Master's Thesis, Ankara 2007, p.289

30 *Masar v. Slovakia* App No. 66882/09, (ECHR, 3 May 2012)

31 *G.O v. Russia*, App No. 39249/03 (ECHR, 18 October 2011)

32 *Simonavičius v. Lithuania* App No: 37415/02 (ECHR, 27 June 2006)



*The Strasbourg Court, in its case of König v. Germany*³³ emphasised that, whether the state is a private person or a party on the basis of the right to sovereignty is not decisive factor in case that dispute between individual and state, but it is required to consider the nature of the right in the case.

In this respect, the circumstances which are assessed as civil rights and obligations and involved in the scope of administrative jurisdiction are the following³⁴: *administrative acts with regards to working life and dismissal, disputes in respect of compensation for damages resulting from faults of administration, disputes arising from use of discretion of administration and disputes in relation to carrying out vocational, art and commercial activities.*

III. DOMESTIC REMEDIES IN ADMINISTRATIVE JURISDICTION FOR PROVIDING REASONABLE TIME GUARANTEE

A. Preventive Remedies for Reasonable Time Requirement

The Contracting States have particularly introduced a number of preventive or acceleratory remedies in order to ensure proceedings to be held within a reasonable time and expedite the proceedings in the light of the judgments of the Court concerning violations of the right.

The Court, in its case of *Brusco v. Italy*³⁵, held that the legal remedy adopted by the Pinto Act which aims to prevent delays in the proceedings is effective in the scope of Articles 13 and 35 of the Convention³⁶.

A new legal procedure, namely *summary proceeding*, was introduced into Turkish administrative law with the adoption of the Law nr. 6545 dated 18.6.2014 and Law nr. 6552 dated 10.9.2014 amending the Administrative Act. The French Administrative Procedural Law from which the Turkish Administrative Jurisdiction inspired, introduces the summary proceeding, however, the cases prescribed under this procedure in French law are related to matters not required a long time examination and subjects which are not complex³⁷.

B. Compensatory Remedies in Case of Excessive Length of Proceedings

Another remedy aiming to redress of the damage (pecuniary and non-pecuniary) at national level due to excessive length of proceedings is compensatory remedies.

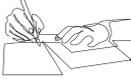
33 König v. Germany App No. 6232/73 (ECHR, 28 June 1978)

34 Gözübüyük, Şeref ve Feyyaz Gölcüklü, "Avrupa İnsan Hakları Sözleşmesi ve Uygulaması", Turhan Publications, Ankara 2005, . 272; Oğuz, Hüseyin: "İdari Yargı Yönünden Adil Yargılanma Hakkı Esasları", University of Sakarya Institute of Social Sciences, Unpublished Master's Thesis, Sakarya 2006, p.25-31

35 Brusco v. Italy App No. 69789 (ECHR, 6 September 2001)

36 Venice Commission, *Can Excessive Length of Proceedings Be Remedied?*(1st edn 2007, Council of Europe) p.36

37 Turhan (n. 26), p.200



In Turkey, the Compensation Commission was introduced with the adoption of the Law nr. 6384 dated 09.01.2013. In order to apply to this Commission, an application is required to be brought before the Strasbourg Court with the claim of the violation of the right to trial within a reasonable time. There was a legal impossibility to lodge with the Constitutional Court prior to the date of 23th September, 2012. Hence, the application to the Commission cannot be assessed as a domestic compensatory remedy because it is only related applications lodged with the Strasbourg Court prior to specific date.

C. Individual Application

The application to the national constitutional court aiming to prevent excessive length of proceedings is a common type of domestic remedies in the Contracting States. The individual application called as 'constitutional complaint' in some States has an important role to protect individuals from the violation of the right to trial within a reasonable time in certain member States (Germany, Spain, Austria) and Turkey.

With the constitutional amendment adopted in 2010, the Constitutional Court started to receive individual application as of 23.09.2012.

The Constitutional Court emphasised on its judgment³⁸, "*there is no effective domestic remedy which includes a remedy preventing excessive length of proceedings or a remedy redressing damages as a result of violation of reasonable time requirement*", therefore in case of violation of the right to trial within a reasonable time in an administrative action, individuals whose rights are breached can directly lodge an individual application with the Constitutional Court.

IV. CONCLUSION

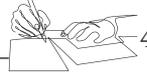
The right to trial within a reasonable time is the main subordinate component of the right to fair trial. The maxim of '*Justice delayed is justice denied*' ideally summaries this situation. The reasonable time guarantee becomes more significant when considering administrative proceedings.

In spite of the importance of this guarantee in administrative jurisdiction and need for administrative cases to be held as quickly as possible, it is unacceptable to violate the right to fair trial in order to quickly conclude trials. Long lasting proceedings in certain types of cases does not always mean to breach the right to trial within a reasonable time³⁹.

It is required to take steps for ensuring reasonable time guarantee in administrative jurisdiction. To this aim, the authorities should make legal reform to decrease the number of the case files at administrative courts and to recruit fully-staffed and capable personnel.

38 Güher Ergun and Others App No: 2012/13 (ECHR, 2 July 2013)

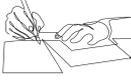
39 Yılmazoğlu, Yunus Emre: "*İdari Yargıda Makul Süre Güvencesi*", Journal of Danıştay, V.134, Y.2013, p. 46



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**CHAPTER
34**

**AN EXAMPLE OF TAX FARMING
SYSTEM FROM XVII TH CENTURY
AND THE ACCOUNTING RECORDS
OF BURSA MUKATAA ^{1*}**

Fatma ŞENSOY²

INTRODUCTION

Finance of expenditures in the Ottoman State had been provided by the historical development in various sources. These are taxes, duties, charges, fines, revenues of estate and entreprising, coinage, domestic and external borrowing and so on. The muqataa (or mukataa) income is one of three major sources of revenues in Ottoman State's budget. The other revenues are jizya (poll taxes) and avarız (extra ordinary wartime taxes). The share of the mukataa revenues in the budget ranged from 24 to 57 percent during the 17 th and 18 th centuries. In the middle of 17th century mukataa revenues build up two out of three of the budget. Mukataa, could be an economic unit besides an organization for tax farming. It's subject may be an operating business unit or the right of collecting taxes and fees. In this sense the collection has contained matters related to business and operation such as improving the source of revenues and preventing of its unprofitability. (Çakır, 2003, 2)

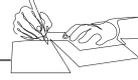
Accounting has a main role in Ottoman tax farming (mukataa) system. In this research, the mukataa system and its accountancy will be explained. Why and how the accounting book of Mukataa of Bursa was prepared which refers to 1012-1015/1603-1606 is mentioned in this research.

THE TERM OF MUKATAA AND ITS APPLICATION

The literally meaning of mukataa is a verb that means to cut or to intersect that is derivated from Arabic language. (Ahter-i Kebir; Kamus-ı Türkî) There is a general definition "mutual agreement on the certain amount". (Genç, 129-132) Further to that, the scope of this concept is wider. In other words this concept has more than one meaning. Mukataa (or muqataah) means tax farming, cut, fixed, lump sum and the concept also used as leasing/cost, financial unit, method, and an agreement. (Çakır, 2003, 4) To levy by the method of tender is prevalent in all Islamic World from Mediterranean to the Indian

1 This study is the extended version of my previous paper that was presented at III Balkans and Middle East Countries Conference on Accounting and Accounting History June 2013 in İstanbul with the title of "The Accounting Records at Mukataas and The Example of Bursa Mukataa from XVII. Century".* The abstract of this paper was oral presented at International Conference on Social Science Research (ICONSR 2018).

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Ocean. The institution of tax-farming, known in Medieval Egypt as Daman-Qabala, in Mughal India as Ijara and in the Ottoman empire as İltizam-Malikane, (Çizakça, 1999, 120) Mukataa term has used with the meaning of “tax farming with a specific amount” in Umayyads and Abbasids and Seljuks especially in Ilkhanids.

Initially the term of mukataa was used tax farm of state revenues. Withal it contains the meaning of the determined amount on the agreement. According to Ottoman financial text the term that was valid from XV th century to XIX th century has a meaning of the financial unit which consisted tax that is belong to treasury. (Genç, 129) One of each mukataa, is a source of income which is estimated its revenue and has been recorded to books of Finance. Most of these are tendered to private person with an agreement in the system of tax farming. (İnalçık, 2000, 93)

The minimum value of annual incomes was determined by Finance, and written on the book of Treasury. The maximum value occurred on the condition of auction with the competition of tacksman who are acting with profit. The tacksman was tendering with a payable annual amount after evaluate that is according to bidding income, arising expenses and rest profit. The Imperial Treasury was handing on the right of excise to mültezim who has given highest bid for generally 1 or 3 years. Mültezim act as an entrepreneur that limited by law and with fiscal, juridical and managerial conveniences given by state. Mültezim pay proceeds that amount to treasury in the auction, the rest of amount is his legitimate income. Thus, state could be find opportunity cash payment in budget which obtain in kind. In the case of taxes paid in kind, their collection in distant provinces, their storage, and conversion to cash for the state treasury had turned out to be a task of impassable difficulties for the central government. (Genç, 2000, 101; İnalçık, 1985, 330) The mukataa of “Emanet-i Samakocuk” is recorded in-kind that both provide cash income and iron in yearly to treasury. Again wheat must be given to soldiers from Girit Mukataa. (BOA, MAD 9982, from cited Genç, p. 101) Mültezim or emin carry authority for tax collection. He should be paid to regional troop directly and in regular intervals with the order of Sultan. Their reports that it contains new method for increasing income in his own area was adopted by central government. The payment order which has been given by central treasury to mültezims are domestic spending such as salary payments, construction works, military expeditions. After mültezims, were submitting these payment orders and receipts that had been taken local kadi while settle accounts with the government. The treasury didn't carry large amount money with this transfer system (money order). Also precious metals can quickly return to market and immediate payment can be done. (İnalçık, 2000,104)

Mukataas, are different size such as from a hundred akça to 10-20 billion akça in the way of annual income for treasury. Their geographical border can be involve one village or one district or one province and more. Generally there is an inverse proportion that varieties of tax items with wideness of coverage area. When mukataa's containing tax and duties increase, its co-



verage area become narrow. In spite of that the space limit of mukataa that has only one tax item enlarge. The mukataa of export duty of cotton and yarn is only one element. As one mukataa is organized covering whole empire except İstanbul. Another example is the mukataa of silk market tax. It covers İstanbul, Bursa, İzmir, Edirne and Selanik those of them are center of production and consumption of silk. But the mukataa of mizan resmi in Konya and Kıbrıs are enriched another tax items for examples bac, damga, mumhâne and boyahâne. Mukataas are fiscal unit of account in the sight of treasury are stable and has an estimative characteristic of their revenues. Mukataa's assess costs are not high. It can be accepted as normal %5-20 expense ratio of gross income. (Genç, 130)

Mukataas examples like as -receiving of state's income (land and sea customs),

-Operating right of an establishment that is monopoly (mintage)

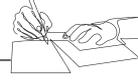
-To collect of state's share on underground riches or purchasing privilege from mine (monophony), (production units like as gold, silver, copper mine and alunite)

All kinds of agricultural, commercial, industrial establishment could be transformed the subject of mukataa by state. The mukataa incomes are mostly belongs to state but some of them are devoted to endowments. For example the Mukataa of Yeniil and surrounding is dedicated to the waqf of Üsküdar Valide Sultan Cami. Some of them are given for "ulufe" or "ocaklık". Some mukataas in Bosna are allocated to soldiers. There are mukataas which had been dedicated to governer as has. The mukataa revenue of Karahisar-ı sahib (Afyon) ihtisab ihzariye is given to the governor of Anatolia. (Tabakoğlu, 1985, 120)

Development Of Mukataa In Historical Process

It is understood that the Mukataa practice began with the Abbasids, continued with the Ilhans and was greatly developed by the Ottomans. It is possible to see examples of this practice from the second half of the 15th Century and it is known that this practice went on till Tanzimat in 1839. The practices which began in the 15th Century showed fast development. It is known that the number of sources which provided revenues under these contractual agreements increased to between 400 and 500 in the 16th Century. As a result of this numerical increase, it is known that the apportionment of the revenues provided by the Mukataa contracts increased faster than all the other State revenues. It is understood that more than half of State revenues were provided by the Mukataa revenues in the 16th Century and this rate increased to 66% in the 17th Century. It is seen that this rate decreased to 47% after the wars in the same century, but jizya taxes increased. However, Mukataa contracts dominated numerically and the number of Muqata'ah contracts increased to 997 in the 18th Century. (Tabakoğlu, 1985, 87-107).

The aim of the sources of income which is belonging the government be-



coming mukataa is to increase treasury's income. Fatih Sultan Mehmet, after conquest of İstanbul, he enhanced redouble central force. In that reason Sultan wanted a new and regular sources of financing, the system of mukataa was put into practise and high income was brought for the treasury. (Yücel, 1991, 83) It is accepted that the beginning of tax rate and collection method of the mukataa implementation on land in public sector in the time of Fatih Sultan Mehmed. (İnalçık, 1964, 12) At the private sector, it has been practised. Before the time of Rum Mehmed Paşa, the method which is collection of income has been effected at the area of mining and paddy. This system's concerning the agriculture as well had an inventive implementation of Ottoman at financial tradition of Turk-Islam. The mukataa system had been started to apply under the rule of Fatih. But its bureaucratic institutions had been improved under the rule of Kanuni (Lawgiver). The mukataas had been operated by the entrepreneurs with the charge. Generally farming out by iltizam meant selling, by auction a source of revenue for a specific period of time, usually for three years, to a private person.

In disorder time like as war and Jelali revolts, the mukataas couldn't be managed with the method of iltizam. The incomes of mukataas couldn't be collected. Applicant of mukataas were reduced in that case. (Tabakoğlu, 1985, 122-123)

The major changes that had taken place beginning with the 1580s were brought about mainly by the decay of the timar system. The timars and hases held earlier by beys and pashas and other officials, came at a rapidly growing rate under the direct control of the State Treasury. Once under government control, most of the timar and has revenues were farmed out by iltizam; that is the state, instead of assigning the revenues of sancaks to pashas or beys as has, farmed them out as mukataas to mültezims or to governors who acted as mültezims. (İnalçık, 1985, 330) Taking timar lands inside of mukataa system had accelerated the second half of the XVI. th century and had proceeded throughout XVII-XVIII. centuries. The second half of the XVIIth century the operation of tax farming by local management, it is started to do by center. (Çakır, 2003, 53) In this period the military class began to show increasing interest in acquiring control of iltizams, especially in the provinces. The effect of Kapıkulus were increased under the name of mülazım in this period. They organized financial informally with hierarchical structure in 1680's. The janissaries were also added to them and their effect had increased. The implementation of "hazine-mande" had been started that giving up the salary to treasure and getting in exchange a mukataa at the second half of the XVII th century. Thus, some part of salaried were taken out of treasure, with the profit of mukataa.

The tacksman could divide place and sell to another local sub mültezims who has easily collected incomes and is responsible to himself by the flexibility of Ottoman iltizam system. The bankers who are wealties of İstanbul at the top of hierarchy of İltizam. These are rich money-changers (sarraf) or big merchants are guarantor to mültezims and provide loan. In time, the system of iltizam are revealed an investor class. The speculative operations are im-



proved and effected the economy. The huge unit of iltizam had established for example the custom area of İstanbul or the mines of gold and silver of Serbia which appraised value of 10 to 20 milion akçe. Turk, Rum or Jew enterprisers had made a consortium and they had given security to another rich. The Italians who were allegiance of Ottoman or settled on Galata as a foreign merchant joined as big iltizam operations. (İnalçık, 2000, 104)

The mukataas were generally unprofitable and the candidates couldn't be find at the end of XVII. th century. Additionally the expenditures increased with long war years. In 1695 the malikane system had been put into action the area of Şam, Halep, Diyarbakır, Mardin, Adana, Malatya, Ayıntab, Tokat those areas close to Mısır that is effected life time iltizam system. (Tabakoğlu, 1985, 129; Çakır, 2003, 173)

The system of Malikâne was caused becoming stronger of class of ayan. Great families whose named ayân had managed mukataas with the method of malikâne in their region. The system of esham that is an internal borrowing method started to apply in 1775. In this system, annual income of mukataas had sold as share on the life time. Accounting has a main role in Ottoman mukataa system, either mültezims handover or collecting and following of state incomes and allocation of state's expenditures. (Çakır, 2003, 173)

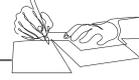
The Content Of Department Of Bursa Mukataa

(The Position At The Beginning Of XVII th Century)

The manager of the accounting department that is related to defterdar of Anatolia was named as "mukataaî-i evvel" (first mukataacı) or "mukataaî-i Bursa (Bursa mukataacısı) in the XVI th century. (Barkan, 320; Çakır, 2003, 105) This department has recorded the accounting entries of mukataas of Bursa (Hüdavendigâr), Biga, Bolu, Balıkesir (Karesi), Kastamonu, Çankırı (Kengri), Sinop, Kocaeli (the strait of İstanbul included Anatolian side) and Limni ve Bozcaada on Aegean Sea. This department also recorded some castellan's salary (mevacip) in Rumeli. When the department are joined with the department of Cedide-i Ula at the end of XVII th century; thus it contains provinces of Ankara, Kütahya, Afyon, Isparta (Hamid), Uşak. (Çakır, 2003, 105; Tabakoğlu, 1985, 95)

The revenues that are audited by this department are stamp duties, the silk market taxes (mizan-ı harir), saltern, amme and hassa beytülmalı, pazar bacı, damage of butcher (kasabiyye) and custom revenues.

It was connected with the department of Avlonya in 1125/1713. In 1128/1716 both of them were attached to Mukataa-i Evvel. For a while it became independent but again it connected with the mukataa of Avlonya in years of 1160/1747. (Çakır, 2003, 105) The important sources of incomes of Bursa Mukataa are Bursa ihtisab, bac-ı bazar and fabric stamp and the silk market taxes of Bursa, İstanbul and İzmir mizan-ı harir mukataası, the salina of Biga, Behram and İnöz, old and new salina of Avlonya, the stamp duty of Ankara, the custom of Sinop, Bolu voyvodalıği at the end of XVIIth century.



(Tabakoğlu, 1985, 98)

Because of the time period of this paper is the years of 1012-1015/1603-1605, the department's area is smaller.

Mukataa –The Elements And Content Of iltizam Agreement

The system of iltizam one of the most important method of income collection. The holders of iltizam were called multezim. The multezim who undertook the collection of taxes from a group of revenue sources would have the revenues dealt with either through his own agents or would further farm out the enterprise to a third person. The word of "amil" also had used in financial records. When the person who undertake the mukataa is used with the word of "mültezim" as synonym. Either the mültezim was promising the determined cost or he will do legally his work. Therefore the mültezims ought to be has administrative science which is defined as science of mukataa.

Auction

The institution which conduct the work of iltizam and custodial is Hazine-i Âmire. The state was holding auctions mukataas both in center or the area that is whereabouts for collecting in treasury. Mültezim who offer a higher price and accept pay cash one part to the state. The high cost of pay cash is preferred. The conditions of mültezims was writing on the book of Mukataat iltizam demand. The mukataat iltizam demands are written about Ulubad, Manyas lakes, Mihaliç, Bursa, Limni Island, İznik, Kastamonu, Bozcaada, Ezdin, Atina, Eğriboz, Tırhala at this book in the years of 1019, 1020 and 1021. (BOA. MAD, 4684)

The process was legalized by a contract between the Ottoman state and the multezim, who was given a kanunname, or the legal regulation that listed and specified all the sources of state revenues from which he could collect taxes. Malikâne that is the practice of life-long tax farms. The prepaid amount "muaccele" is 2 or 3 years of profit allowance of mukataa. It is set for the amount of due on later on. For example, after 1207/1793 no fewer than 8 years profit, it is based on 7 years profit in 1223/1808. In time the number could be 2-10 times of mültezim's profit. (Çakır, 2003, 156).

Mukataa, was holding an auction on Grand viziership and financial office until end of public interest. Solely, an official is sent for selling to the area of muhassılık by the center. When the auction money is sealed by çavuşbaşı ağa, the documents (malikâne beratı) is given by the department that is related to mukataa. The auction is conducted by the head of brokerman, also it is paid a due which is named dellaliye 2 percent of deposit to the treasury. The bureaucratic procedures are increased on the malikâne. The document (malikâne beratı) is given by Baş Muhasebe kalemı and related department too. Besides there is malikâne halifeliği. (Çakır, 2003, 154-156) Mültezim or emin who is accepted the highest price and deposit; on the records it is written "ber vech-i iltizam emin-i mültezim ve kâbız-ı mal nasbedip..." (Kuran, 2011, 329) If there is any willing, a state agent is assigned by the state for collecting revenues.



But his position is formulated as “ber vech-i emanet emin ve mültezim”. They were also liable for paying the specific amount to the treasury.

Enhance

The others could be enhance before end of tax-farm. In this case, former mültezim settle account in the presence of defterdar or local judgment. He has to transfer to the new mültezim. He can reclaim deposit that is former paid to the treasury. All conditions are indicated on the agreement. The customs zone of İstanbul was become the subject of competition between in October 1476 to December 1477. The three years customs revenues of İstanbul is estimated 9.5 milion akçe in October 1466. Palologoz, Lefteri and Andria tendered 1.500.000 akçe in 16 October 1476. After 5 months, Hoca Satı, Çiriş İlyas, and Şahin who is freeman of Yusuf Simsar and Hoca Bahaeddin offered 2.000.000 akçe. Then the Rum group, offered again annually 833.334 akçe for 4 years in 6 May 1477. Thereafter 4 months another group, they are Seydi Küçük who is from Edirne, Atlana Jew, Nikoroz Efrenci who is an Italian offered the price of iltizam 1.000.000 akçe more. Rum group have given a new offer after in 12 October 1477 Seydi, Atlana and Nikoroz submit a new offer for 4 years 20.000.000 akçe. (İnalçık, 2000, 261)

Guarantee

The Mültezims have to guarantee for deficit (zarar-ı mal) and the amount of his debt end of the tahvil (kesr-i iltizâm, noksan-ı kıst). He would be able to make a profit if the amount he collected surpassed the predetermined sum; otherwise, he

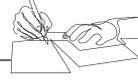
suffered losses. Mültezim has the right of deduction from his application money the conditions of war, internal disorder or naturel disaster. Mültezim ought to pay on the basis of daily. If he can't pay, it necessary to pay his own estate or from his guarantors. The bailing was cited on records as sufficiency amount. This amount is related to the risk of mukataa and the inspector can establish. The operation of guarantee must be done in the presence of inspector. If the residence of guarantors are far away, the local judges are also could be done this operation. (Çakır, 2003, 144)

There is two types of guarantee. “Kefil bi'l-mal”(credible to property) and “kefil bi'l-nefs”(reliable to character) First of them, the guarantor was giving security for paying some of the price of auction. Because he was sleeping partner of mültezim. Kefil bi'n-nefs was giving a guarantee for bail to authorities when the mültezim bust. (Çizakça, 1999, 130)

Farming Contract

The Conditions Of The State

After the auction a contract was doing between the mültezim and the state. The demands and undertaking was remarking each of side's conditions. The state could abolish the agreement unilaterally on the conditions of over



collections from taxpayer, miscalculation or wrongdoing. (Çakır, 2003, 118)

When the mültezims enhanced on the price of tax-farm also they could want to employ as they wish and to increase their salary. If the clerks and other officials have subsidy from state, theirs two parts (6 months) must be leave to treasury. This case is became the condition of the state and it is written on the firman. (MAD 4684; MAD 3281; Çakır, 2003, 42.)

The Conditions Of Mültezim

When mültezim demand a privilege, if his demand accepted by state, it must be write on the farming contract. Mültezims wants to settle account not principle of per diem deduction but until the new tax farmer undertake the mukataa. The same condition is also written on “has” that is given as mukataa. Furthermore the other condition of mültezim is if the bail, licence tax, or other expense don't pay to him mukataa can't give to another mültezim who is able to obtain such as enhance or other reason. One of the other conditions of mültezims is to prevent bereaving with the “temessük” of inspector and auditor.

When mukataas combine as “nezaret”. The operations of the group of mukataa were practiced by an auditor (nazır). There was written also without the offer of auditor not to give other mültezim. The other condition is without giving legal letter from İstanbul or note of auditor giving to another person with the letter of inspector or local judge. It was indicated that one mukataa's profit the other's loss setting off. There was double bail on “nezaret”. Either there was bailsman of “nezaret” or mukataas which is related to “nezaret”. However mültezim and his bailsman have prior responsibility in case of harm or failure to pay of mültezim.

Mültezims can accept the local judge as an inspector also they can choose another person who is kadı, retired kadı or mudarris; they recorded one of the their conditions. Kadis who is local judge either they implement of law and order with together sancakbeyi and subaşı or they are the lead auditor of finance corps and economic life in whereabouts. (Çakır, 2003, 135) The “kabzımal” who is in charge of collecting revenues was cited on the contract. Kabzımal who is responsible of paying mukataa's revenues. Auditor, bailee(emin), bailsman, partner, and so people could be “kabzımal”. When mültezim died, kabzımal must pay and his property was investigated. (Çakır, 2003, 137)

The mültezims demand the right of choice of clerk on their contracts. The clerk's salary was paid by treasure. This payment is generally appropriated from the dept of mültezim. The settlement operation could be done both with principle of per diem deduction and at the beginning of “tahvil”. Kâtip could be assigned with the tax farming. In this case, kâtip could be mültezim and could be taken wage. When an applicant couldn't be find the mukataa that is related to nezaret; if the auditor can hold and he can also get clerk wage too. (MAD 4683; MAD 4684; MAD 3281; cited Çakır, 2003, 137.) There was a clerk in “nezaret” and addition there was a clerk in each mukataa. Recording of mukataa revenues on daily basis is legal obligation. The clerk of mukataa was



working as an accountant who recorded financial operation of business and prepared fiscal report. For this reason the clerk had to have knowledge of accounting. The clerk's tasks were keeping books of accounting and preserving document, recording public property which have been held by *mültezim* and writing annual income and expenses. (Çakır, 2003, 138)

One of the conditions of *Mültezims*, is not to give the new applicant except as theirs deposit and expenses pay to themselves to the treasury. (Kuran, 2011, 329) The new applicant has accepted to pay the deficit of former *mültezim*.

The other condition of *mültezims* is given *iltizam* with the method of "na-iplik: ber vech-i nâibiyet" (regency). In this method, *mültezims* have a claim to collect of taxes that is named as "serbestlik resimleri" (exemption dues) like as "has" of Sultan. These are named as "Bad-ı heva" are murder (cürm-i cinayet), "arusane resmi" (The tax which had been collected from man who married woman) "kul ve cariyeh müjdegânesi" (herald of slave). "Niyabet" (regency) contains tax units more than "serbestiyet" (liberty). According to this condition *mültezims* also have the right of punishment like as robbery, forestallment, adultery as "naip" (viceroy). Nobody can't interfere to these taxes, only possessor can collect. The taxes of village that is related to mukataa as mine and saline was collected by *mültezim*. (Çakır, 2003, 198) The state had showed tolerans to *mültezims* for going to war and had been accepted as an exemption.

Procedure, Registration To The Documents And Books

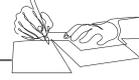
Submission Of *Multezim*, Auditor And Inspector

The tax farming operation of mukataas started at new year 4 months ago. (MAD, 1365; Çakır, 2003, 146) The requisition of tax farming was submitted by *mültezim*, auditor or inspector. If there is a ministry that related to mukataa, *mültezims* apply to the minister. In provinces, they apply to the defterdar of province. Sometimes they apply to the defterdars in İstanbul for being *mültezim*. The auditors and inspectors together or separately could submit to the central treasure.

Telhis

The submissions of *mültezim*, auditor and inspector are investigated in İstanbul. If the conditions proper, a document that is named as *telhis* is prepared by the department that is related to mukataa. These are written on *telhis*: the annual income of mukataa that is in previous period, also who is former *mültezim* and beginning and finish date of period and the conditions of petition. The upper part of *telhis* is written an order *buyruldu* that contains added conditions and whose undertaking. The process was legalized by a contract between the Ottoman state and the *multezim*, who was given a *kanunname*, or the legal regulation that listed and specified all the sources of state revenues from which he could collect taxes.

Mültezim, could undertake mukataa after preparing surety bond which is



written people's names they are his guarantors.

The Copies Ruznamçe

When mültezim pay the cost of iltizam by installment, while keeping account, for submission, the apograph of ruznamçe was given by the department of ruznamçe. The department of Ruznamçe is a central establishment. If there is a record mistake that concerning income and expenses of accounting departments which is related to Defterdarlık; these are found by compared with the accounting entries of ruznamçe. At this point, the importance of accounting that gives information to other side is come up.

Ahkam (Judgments) Books

It was written an order "buyruldu" for the mukataa which to give to tax farm. The department that related to mukataa was also giving the note which was named as "tezkere". To write order judgment and certificate that concerning to the problems and conflict of mukataas were given "tezkere". The one copies of them were registrated on the book of "defter-i tezâkir-i ahkâm ve berevât". The law of mukataa is constituted with the problems and their solutions on practical applications.

The Books of Fihrist (List)

The name of mukataa, whose given, the period of tahvil and the informations about the price of tax farm, are itemized in a book. The judgments and orders are also written as apostil. The raise is added and the reduction is reduced. The payment of mültezim can be easily followed to centre or location. These books were named as the book of mukataa "mukataa defterleri" in XVII th and XVIII th century. The information was written in this book. The mültezims's name, conditions cost and their period and guarantors, paid deposits and submission in the sancaks of Bursa, Bolu, Karesi, Biga in the year of 1001. The acceptance of "Baş Muhasebe" is referred in the book. (MAD, 4944)

The Books of Accounting

The mukataa accounting is investigated on site after has checked on center. For this controlling, the abstract account that was arranged and given to inspector was based on. Mültezim comes with the abstract account to center and he has been controlled and certified his accounting. The mukataas that have been undertaken by the method of emanet or have found infraction on their account had been kept detailed books. The bailees "emin" have kept account according to theirs proceeds, they must bring the detailed books to the center. If an infraction happened the books were wanted and controlled. (BOA. MAD. d. 915)

The Books of Tevziat

A list that contains payment which has been allocated from incomes of mukataa is given to official. Havâle, who is the official's name was delivering to necessary place in time. Such as the tevziat book the distribution to the



employees was written from İstanbul Commodity Customs, Bursa mizan-ı harir and İstanbul Coffee Taxes. (BOA. ML. MSF. d. 57)

The Books of Tahvilat

The department which related to mukataa was following the payments that have been to the treasury by mültezims too. These records were registered on the books of “defter-i tahvilât”. With the books, it was possible to follow the collected incomes from mukataas.

The Books of Zimmet/Bakaya

The debits which they paid or didn't of tax-farmers were recorded on the books of “zimmet”(debit) / “bakaya”(remain).

THE PROFIT MARGIN OR WAGE OF TAX-FARMERS

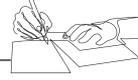
The bidders join to tender with looking for annual profit at the sale time. The highest bidder obtained the right to collect the taxes from a mukataa. The bidders couldn't obtain the value with doing capitalization. But, they could accept as a normal profit of average of annual incomes of former mültezims. (Genç, 2000, 119) The rivalry of mültezims were in direct proportion to the profitability of the tax sources. (Çizakça, 1999, 124) If the multezim managed to collect more revenue than his total cost (the auction price paid plus operational expenses he enjoyed a profit, otherwise he suffered a loss).

Mültezims sometimes could make a loss with the unfavourable conditions or the others and they couldn't pay cost of iltizam. If they add prejudice for protection of their right in the extraordinary conditions, they couldn't benefit from discount. In this case, themselves and their guarantors whom sureties were jailed or confiscated. (Tabakoğlu, 1985, 123) The financial organization which consisted “Başbakikulu” and his personnel was following unpaid taxes or deferred liabilities, even they were jailed. Thus, many of tax farmers who couldn't pay their debts were jailed some of them also hanged during Sultan Mehmed II nd. (İnalçık, 2000, 103)

THE ACCOUNTING RECORDS ON MUKATAAS

The accounting has a major role in Ottoman mukataa system. The state's accounting has been recorded with the accrual basis. The amount that must be paid by obligator is informed at the beginning of the year. When the amount was collected periodical, this amount was reduced from loan at the beginning of the year. Mültezim, was in dept about in his agreement to the state. Mültezim, had paid to state while reducing his own wage during the agreement. The state's accounting has been debited the mültezim on written amount. When the money collected, it was deduct from his debt.

The main department of mukataa in the center had subdivided according to geographical region. Such as Haslar, Bursa, İstanbul, Avlonya... Every department determines both necessary and collected amounts end of the year. All of the mukataa incomes were annualized as a sum. These accounts was



used for final account. These information can help either to follow delinquents of mukataas or can designate the total amount which can be planned for next year.

Here is the procedure: Each encashed is registered to the journal that is in Başdefterdarlık. With the record, the information is conveyed two places. One of them is the cash income is reported to record to the treasury (cash of the state). The second notice is to the accounting of mukataa that related to collection. The clerks of sergi who are under the order of Sergi halifesi and the minister of Sergi “Sergi Nazırı” record the money that had come to the treasury. The department of Mukataa, records to the account of mültezim which has been dept before, and deduct from mültezim’s account. Başdefterdar, follows these operations and he prepares a weekly report to the prime minister (sadrazam) as a finance minister. Başdefterdar, is responsible to sadrazam and the top authority of all affairs of treasury. He has power of adjudication on financial problems. To prevent cruelty of mültezim and to protect reaya and peasant were among the duties of him. He authorized on directing mukataas. (Tabakoğlu, 1985, 40)

The operation of relaying information is used “tahvil belgesi”. The entry number of journal is written on the document. The officer kept in department after recording in his own book for using the solution of probable problems in future. (Erkan- Aydemir, 2013)

It is necessary that to close all accounts (kat’-1 alâka) of former period of mukataa for giving in a new period. The period named as “tahvil” (BOA. MAD 5954; MAD 9847; Çakır, 2003, 68.) The three-year span of operating the tax farms was called *tahvil*. The aim of this 3 years the normal operation time can become with neutralizing the eligible and ineligible conditions. (Tabakoğlu, 1985, 123)

The clerck who is responsible of accounting, if they do malpractise, they have been punished. When the aggrement was annuled, the accounting records were being wanted from mültezim.

There are two methods for keeping books on mukataas.

a) Kısta’l-yevm: The accounting is based on with the cost of one day multiplication number of days which undertaken of mukataa. The part of incomes occured the amount that calculated by “kısta’l-yevm” method in this statement. The reason of this method is incomes can be collected specific time for example harvest time. (Çakır, 2003, 68) The another reason is for transferring to new mültezim. The new mültezim could calculate the remaining part of tahvil. When the cost of tax-farm divide day numbers of tahvil is equal to mültezim’s debit. (Tabakoğlu, 1985, 123)

b) According to detailed book “müfredât”: This method was used on settlement of account of the emanet system. The state agent (emin) records the incomes which he has been collected from mukataa and together the local judge and him sign the sealed book. In this method the collection voucher is important to settle of account. Besides both method had been used for accounting. (BOA. MAD, 2695; Çakır, 2003, 69)



The profit and loss account statement contains accounts with the state and the person who has undertaken of mukataa. All incomes that have been obtained couldn't be shown as the profit of mültezim. The part of expenses all expenditure couldn't be shown as cost. In other words, the incomes is the part of assets of the state from mukataas. The expenses is predicted by the state like as eliminations (mahsuplar), the wages of state agent, clerk and auditor and the records of delivery to the treasury.

The documents that is named as "zahriyye" which receipt against payment from mukataa incomes were settled account. (BOA. MAD 3208; Çakır, 2003, 69) These payment is done by local judge or the inspector of mukataa. The written document that named as "hüccet" is given to the state agent(emin), he submit these documents and set off to state while settlement of his account. They must also pay to the treasury an accounting charge. The charge's rate to the cost of iltizam was %0,2 in 914/1508. (BOA. KK. 4988; Çakır, 2003, 69)

İcmâl-i muhasebe (abstract account) is prepared with detailed documents. This abstract is signed by the defterdar who related to the department of mukataa. The abstract is protected at the mukataa books in the archive of relevant department. The state agents and mültezims were breaking off with taking "temessük" after given to them the certified copy. Auditing of mukataa's accounting was done in three places.

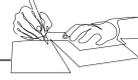
1. By the department in center: The accounts of every mukataa were audited by the department which related to mukataa. Mültezims could want to audit only in İstanbul, they didn't intervention of inspector and other officials in local.

2. In mukataa's location: The inspector of mukataa could audit. The inspector either could send the copy that signed and sealed to treasury or could send through the tax collector.

3. In the defterdarlık of provinces. If mültezim remained due to treasure, his dept was registered the book of "zimmet" and was followed as a lien of state. Baki kulluğu assumed this job. Mültezim has personnel and financial liabilities. When he fall into arrears, his goods sale and collected by the name of treasure. If it is not enough, the liabilities assume is taken from guarantor. But it is not possible, mültezim arrested. Sometimes mültezim died in prison or he get out of jail as a bankrupt with an amnesty. The dept is recorded as the state's write off. (BOA. Bab-ı Defteri Bursa mukataası Kalemî (D.BRM) 24240; Çakır, 2003, 71) Eventhough the state's receivable is demanded and collected from mültezim's inheritors. The assets of senior manager was confiscated, for the state's liens. (Çakır, 2003, 71)

THE INCOMES AND EXPENDITURES STRUCTURES OF MUKATAAS

The mukataa incomes, is one of three major sources of revenues in Ottoman State's budget. The others revenues are jizya (poll taxes) and avarız (extra ordinary wartime taxes). The share of the mukataa revenues in the bu-



dget ranged from 24 to 57 percent during the 17 th and 18 th centuries. In the middle of 17 th century mukataa revenues have been two out of three of budget. (Tabakoğlu, 1994, 177)

It can be classified into two part income and expenditure account of mukataas. First part occurs with the cost of tax- farm or the amount incomes of previous period is based on calculating increase and decrease in the period. These are: discount, raise, difference, exempt, increasing, avoidance, raise, excess, over payments, annexation (control transferring of income source from one income department's to another), segregation, etc. These operations were done for correction or rewriting or revealing for disposable income. The next phase is the part of "minha" (from). At this part, it has been written the negative accounts. For example, appropriation for ocaklık, discharge, deduction, wage payment to collector of jizya, detinue... In conclusion, it can be get dispatch note "irsaliye". This amount that has been sent to center.

THE EXPLANATION OF ACCOUNTING RECORDS OF THE INCOMES OF BURSA MUKATAA IN HIJRI 1012,1013,1014 / AD 1603,1604,1605 YEARS.

(Explanation of preparation process and examination of reason of accounting book)

1. The accounting book which is related to Bursa's mukataa incomes that is collected from state's incomes, in the years of Hijri 1012,1013 and 1014/ AD 1603,1604 and 1605). The book is recorded in the Prime Minister's Archive from the serial of Maliye'den Müdevver Defterler with the number of 311. Başbakanlık Osmanlı Arşivi, Mad d. 311.

2. The central accounts of state register this records with the method of Merdiven and siyaqat writing, occasionally it have been researched for controlling. This accounting records is a special audit report for render to defterdar.

3. The collection process of the mukataa units's incomes were become study case. This operation's aim was to determine the belated amount of Bursa mukataas in between the years of 1012-1014/1603-1605. The Ottoman- Persian war can be the reason of this delay. In the first page it had been written, this report is prepared by examination of mukataa's mültezims. The mukataas as below. Sericulture, the mukataa of mint incomes, damage of butcher (kasabiyye), kassamiye, custom revenues, citation duties, bazaar taxes, taxes of dried fruits weight, stamp duties of fabric manufacturer, the incomes of house of whirling dervishes.

The taxes that had been collected from raw silk trade is the important sources of income. According to the law that dated in 1570, every 30 lidre (lidre: for silk 1 lidre=384,84 gram, 1 lidre= 120 dirhem=384,840 gram) or approximately for 9,6 kg raw silk's tax is determined 104 akçe. This tax was divided equally vendors and purchasers as 52 akçe. The annual incomes of Bursa Mizân-ı Harir Mukataa, was 9.000.000 akçe in 1598, but it became 5.200.000 akçe in 1606. (İnalçık, 2008, 304) Ottoman- Persian war which



started in 1603 had caused this decline.

The mukataa of “Zarar-ı Kassâbiyye” (damage of butcher) is a tax that collected %1 per cent from highly tradable goods like as silk, mohair, saffian for subvention of meat consumption of janissaries. This tax had been started to collect 1 akçe from every 100 akçe worth of silk in 1589. (İnalçık, 2000, 308) This tax had been taken only Ottoman merchants, foreigner merchants had been exempted. (Ergenç, 1975, 160).

Initially the amount of 3 years income have been determined. After the encashing of these incomes have been examined. The names of collecting person and the amount of collection were recorded in this examination. Next, the expenditures which had been spent in Bursa were detected. In this detection Mültezim’s wage has reduced; at the same time the cost for military unit in Bursa has been documented and recorded. Later on, balance from 3 years in other words, the receivable amount was written.

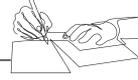
The subject of “Kasamiyye mukataa” is the heir of the state. The inheritance of those who do not have heir to inherit is up to the state. The state has collected them with the mukataa method. If the person military staff whose inheritance was captured by “Hassa Beytülmal emins”. If the person from general whose inheritance handled by “Âmme beytülmal emin”. The civil person whose inheritance value is 10.000 akçe or more was handled by “Hassa beytülmal emin” too. The aim of “Beytülmal mukataa” is to transfer this revenue to the state treasury or to spend this revenue for any expenditure directed from İstanbul. Mukataa officers were responsible to ascertain died people extinct and confiscated their estates (terekes), they also made census of that property and put it up for sale. Bursa Beytülmal-ı Âmme and Hassa mukataa was concerned income of Bursa and surrounding towns. There was no differences between Âmme and Hassa Beytülmal in Bursa mukataa. It was guided by an officer, “Hassa harç emini” who is finance officer is in Bursa. (Bilgin-Bozkurt, 2010,31).

4. The accounting records was ended. But probably, the officers of central treasury will determined delayed amount of collection. They will want to collect. The auditing reason is surplus of balance. Because the record’s date is in 1015. It should be collected previous years incomes. But the balance is more. (The first page of this book is given at the Annex 1. The examples of the book are given at Annex 2. The records of incomes and expenses of Bursa Mukataa as according to double entry bookkeeping in Hijri 1012- 1014/AD 1603-1605 is given at Annex 3.)

CONCLUSION

The mukataa incomes is one of the three major sources of revenues in Ottoman

State’s budget. The other revenues are jizya (poll taxes) and avarız (extra ordinary wartime taxes). The share of the mukataa revenues in the budget ranged from 24 to 57 percent during the 17th and 18th centuries. In the



middle of 17th century mukataa revenues have been two out of three of budget. Mukataa, could be an economic unit besides an organization for tax farming. It's subject may be an operating business unit or the right of collecting taxes and fees. Mukataa, could be an economic unit besides an organization for tax farming. The subject of mukataa had been to use and operate of a business or right to receive some taxes, duties and charges. Mukataa's semantic shifts in time from tax farm to tax unit of subject of the tax farming.

Each mukataa is the main source of revenues which estimated its income as a different unit and recorded at financial books. The state revenues divided into smaller revenue portions whose collection was farmed out to individuals for a mutually agreed upon price. Generally mukataas are given to iltizam with an auction for 3 years that is named as tahvil. The agreement had been done with the state and the tacksman. The demands and obligations of both sides are written on the contract.

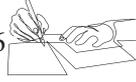
The minimum value of annual incomes was determined by Finance, and written on the book of Treasury. The maximum value occurred on the condition of auction with the competition of tacksman who are acting with profit. The tacksman was tendering with a payable annual amount after evaluate that is according to bidding income, arising expenses and rest profit. The Imperial Treasury was handing on the right of excise to mültezim who has given highest bid for generally 1 or 3 years. Mültezim act as an entrepreneur that limited by law and with fiscal, juridical and managerial conveniences given by state.

Mültezim pay proceeds that amount to treasury in the auction, the rest of amount is his legitimate income. Thus, state could be find opportunity cash payment in budget which obtain in kind. In the case of taxes paid in kind, their collection in distant provinces, their storage, and conversion to cash for the state treasury had turned out to be a task of impassable difficulties for the central government.

The mukataas were generally unprofitable and the candidates couldn't be find at the end of XVII. th century. Additionally the expenditures increased with long war years. In 1695 the malikâne system had been put into action. In this system had initiated the practice of life-long tax farms.

The accounting has a major role in Ottoman mukataa system. The state's accounting has been recorded with the accrual basis. The amount that must be paid by obligator is informed at the beginning of the year. When the amount was collected periodical, this amount was reduced from loan at the beginning of the year. Mültezim, was in dept about in his agreement to the state. Mültezim, had paid to state while reducing his own wage during the agreement. The state's accounting has been debited the mültezim on written amount. When the money collected, it was deduct from his debt.

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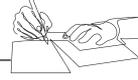
The subject of this paper is the accounting book which is related to Bursa's mukataa incomes in the years of Hijri 1012- 1014/ AD 1603-1605. The book is recorded in the Prime Minister's Archive from the serial of Maliye'den Müdevver Defterler with the number of 311.

The central accounts of state was registered this records with the Merdiven method and siyaqat writing, occasionally it have been researched for controlling. This accounting records is a special audit report for render to defterdar. The collection process of the mukataa units's incomes were become study case. This operation's aim was to determine the belated amount of Bursa mukataas in between the years of 1012-1014/1603-1605. The Ottoman- Persian war can be the reason of this delay. In the first page it had been written, this report is prepared by examination of mukataa's mültezims.

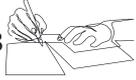
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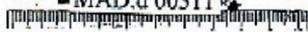
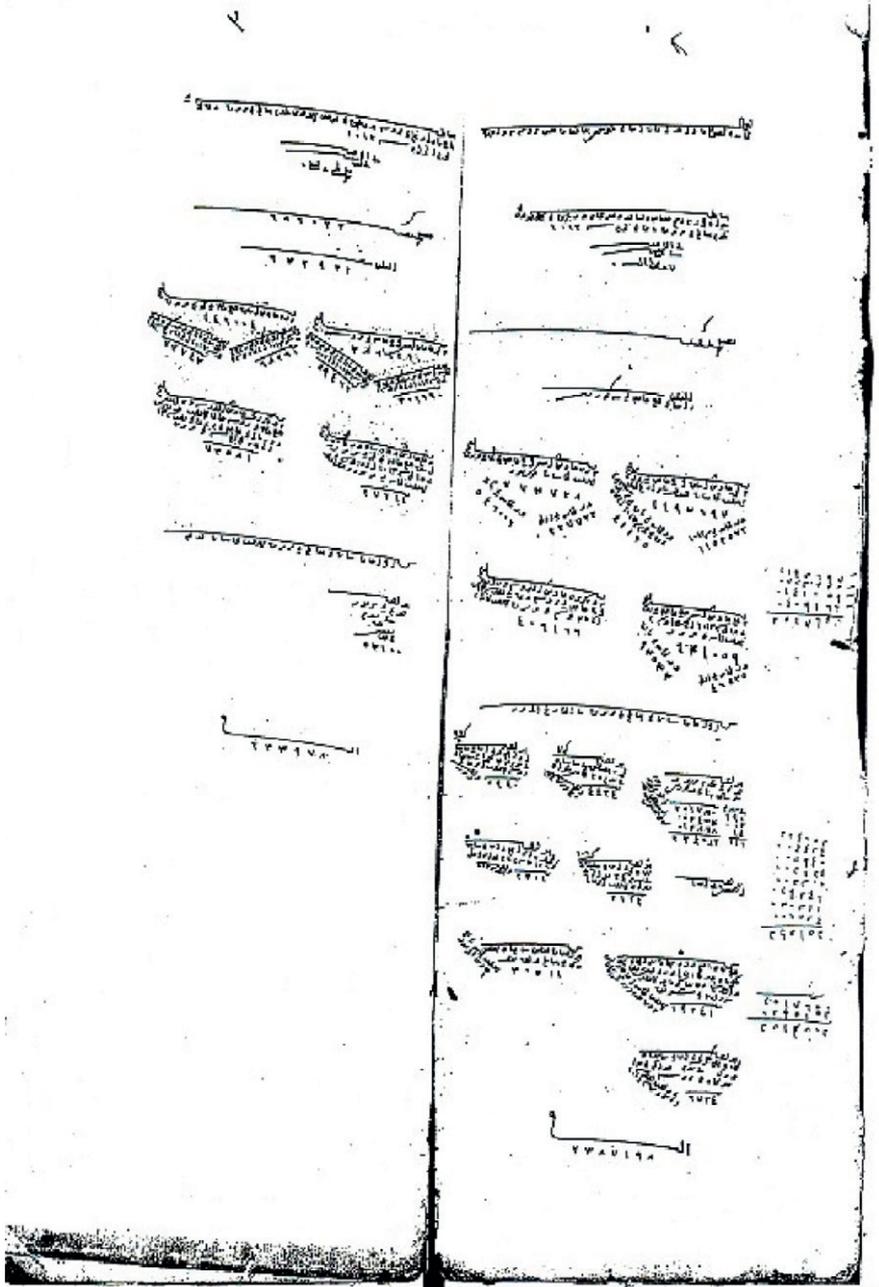
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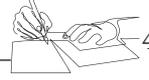


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22. MAD. d. 404.
23. MAD. d. 693
24. MAD. d. 501
25. MAD. 3237
26. Kâmil Kepeci (KK.) D. 5032
27. ML. MSF. d.57.
28. D. BRM.d. 24300
29. D. BŞ. ZMT. d.13757



ANNEX 1 : The original 2 pages of incomes and expenses account of Bursa Mukataas in Hijri 1012-1014/ AD 1603-1605 (BOA, Mad. D. 311)





ANNEX 2: The transcription of Income and Expenses of Bursa Mukataas
in Hijri 1012 -1014/ AD1603-1605 (BOA, Mad d. 311)
Book.....

The accounting of emins of Bursa mukataas

Where in the presence of Anatolian Defterdar who is Abdulkhak Efendi

Writing date Hijri 13 Reb'ülevvel 1015

Abstract.....

The incomes and expenses accounting of mültezim emins in Bursa and periphery mukataas

Mukataa.....

Balance (incomes and expenses) of Mültezim Kemal's responsibility silk market taxes, damage of butcher, kassamiye and mukataa of mint in 1012 the beginning of Muharrem mount (Miladi)

Main amount - 3 years-

Akçe

5.200.000

From deducted.....

Delivered to center.....

Delivery.....

Delivery.....

To Mehmet Çavuş who is official in
Bursa

To Piri Çavuş

1.193.697

773.728

The year in the beginning of 1013

The year

next year

1.152.572

41.125

227.722

546.006

Delivery.....

Delivery.....

To Ali Çavuş, in1012

To Piri Çavuşa second delivery

Among 15 Şevval-15 Zilhicce 1012 yılı Recep-Zilhicce

141.059

the year's incomes

Previous Following year

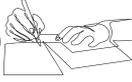
409.166

46.525

94.534

Payments.....

From the mukataa incomes

**Akçe**

295.152

	Wages.....	Wages.....	Wages.....
	To former mültezims	From military unit	To Sipahi
	224.082	to Mustafa 4.424	İbrahim Kete 5.940
	Wages.....	wages.....	Wages.....
	Abdullah son İsmail	from Sipahi bölüğü	To Sipahi
Osman Mehmed'e	İbrahim'e		
		2.124	2.301
	To Yenice district.....	Wages.....	Wages.....
	For ammunition	To Sipahi bölüğü,	To Sipahis Yenijeri Ali
19.246	To Davud Paşa's hold	by order	in care of son Mehmed
	30.311	6.724	

Balance

2.387.198

Mukataa.....i

Mukataa incomes of market taxes in Bursa, Musa's responsibility,

In 1012 the beginning of Muharrem

Main amount - 3 years-

Akçe

920.000

From deducted.....

686.022

Delivery.....

632.922

Delivery

Delivery

Official in Bursa, Ömer Çavuş

Official in Bursa Piri Çavuş

386.126

145.504

1012 Zilhicce

1013 Muharrem

1012 Şevval- 1013 Zilhicce

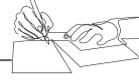
At the end at the beginning 013 Cemaziyelevvel- 1014 Cemaziyelahır

306.660

79.466

68.261

77.243



Delivery.....	Delivery.....
To Ali Çavuş	Official in Bursa Piri Çavuş
1012 Zilhicce- 1013 Şevval	1012 Zilhicce-1013 Recep
27.711	73.581
Expenses.....	
According to former account	
For 3 years	53.100
Balance	
233.978	
Mukataa.....i	
The mukataa of stamp duties of fabric manufacturer in Bursa, Musa's responsibility	
In 1012 at the beginning of Muharrem	
Main amount – 3 years-	
Akçe	
426.000	
From deducted deducted.....	
241.598	
Received.....	
180.002	
Delivery.....	Delivery.....
To Mehmed Çavuş	To Piri Çavuş, according to pevious and present account
According to 1012 year's account	
141.466	38.536
Delivery.....	Delivery.....
To Ali Çavuş	To Piri Çavuş
Taken with	Taken with weight taxes
Weight (kabban) taxes	
Expenses.....	
Expenditures from the mukataa's incomes	
For three years	



According to former mültezim's account

61.596

Balance

184.402

Mukataa.....i

The mukataa of fruit weight tax in Bursa

Musa's responsibility, in 1012 at the beginning of Muharrem

Main amount - For three years-

Akçe

365.000

From deducted.....

239.418

Received from officials

179.946

Delivery..... Delivery.....

Mehmed Çavuş who is Piri Çavuş,

official in Bursa according to his account

in 1012

148.722

15.891

1012 year from 1012 Zilhicce-to 1013

121.666

27.056

Delivery Delivery.....

To Ali Çavuş, 1012 To Piri Çavuş again,

Zilhicce - 1013 Şevval Recep 1012 - 1013 Zilhicce

6.753

8.580

Expenses.....

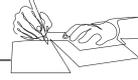
Some expenditures from Mukataa's incomes

The wages of former mültezims -for three years-

59.472

Balance

125.582



	Mukataa.....i	
	Mukataa incomes of Bursa Semahane (Mevlevi monastery) Mültezim Nusreddin's responsibility, from 1011 Safer-to 1014 beginning	
	Main amount – for three years-	
	Akçe	
	165.000	monthly
4.582		
	From deducted	
	83.833	
	Received from officials.....	
		67.903
	Delivery.....	Delivery.....
	To Mustafa Bey who is Brigadier of Bursa	To Hacri Bey
	31.698	1.000
	Delivery.....	Delivery.....
	To Mehmed Çavuş who is official in Bursa	To Piri Çavuş, according to his account
at 1012		
	21.305	13.900
	Expenditures.....	
	The wages of former mültezims	
	15.930	
	Balance	
	81.167	
	Mukataa.....	
	The incomes of citation fee mukataa in Bursa, under Nasreddin's responsibility	
	At the beginning of 1012 Zilkade	
	Main amount – for three years	
	Akçe	Prepaid to Brigadier of
	120.000	Bursa Mustafa Bey
		22.125
	Rest.....	



As per diem deduction 1015 year, at the end of Safer month.

97.875

From deducted.....

46.250

Received.....

Delivery..... Delivery..... Delivery.....

To Official in Bursa Mehmed Çavuş To official Piri Çavuş Again Piri Çavuş

5.930

29.320

11.000

Expenses.....

Expenses from mukataa incomes

The wages of former mültezim

15.930

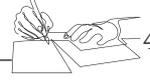
Balance

35.695

ANNEX 3: The record of incomes and expenses of Bursa Mukataas according to double entry bookkeeping in Hijri 1012- 1014/AD 1603-1605

1 -----13 Rebi'ülevvel 1015-----

	Akçe	Akçe
Cash (Treasure)		2.517.650
Collection of Mehmed Çavuş	1.193.697	
Collection of Piri Çavuş	773.728	
Collection of Ali Çavuş	141.059	
Collection of Piri Çavuş (second)	409.166	
The wage of Mültezim and other payments		295.152
Wages of former mültezims	224.082	



Payments to Sipahi Mustafa	4.424
Payments to Sipahi İbrahim	5.940
Payments to Sipahi Osman	2.124
To Sipahi M. İbrahim'e	2.300
To others sipahis	20.311
Wages of mültezim	19.246
To Yeniçeri Ali	6.724

The mukataa of silk and mint (reminder) 2.387.198

Mukataa of silk and mint

(İncomes)

5.

Collection, spending and reminder of Bursa silk and mint mukataas's incomes in 1012-1013-1014 years

2 ----- 13 Rebi'ülevvel 1015 -----

Cash (Treasure)	632.922
Collection of Ömer Çavuş	386.126
Collection of Piri Çavuş	146.004
Collection of Ali Çavuş	27.211
Collection of Piri Çavuş (second)	73.581
Wage of Mültezim	53.100

Incomes of Bazaar taxes mukataa (reminder)

233.978

Incomes of Bazaar taxes mukataa

(for three years)

920.000



Collection, spending and reminder of Bursa Bazaar taxes mukataas incomes in 1012-1013-1014 years

3-----13 Rebi'ülevvel 1015-----

Cash (Treasury)	180.002
Collection of Mehmed Çavuş	141.666
Collection of Piri Çavuş	38.336
Wage of Mültezim	61.596
Fabric stamp duties mukataa of Bursa (reminder incomes)	184.402
Fabric stamp duties mukataa of Bursa (three years)	426.000

Collection, spending and reminder of Bursa stamp duties of fabric mukataa incomes in 1012-1013-1014 years

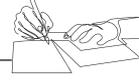
4 ----- 13 Rebi'ülevvel 1015-----

Cash (Treasury)	179.946
Collection of Mehmed Çavuş	148.722
Collection of Piri Çavuş	15.891
Collection of Ali Çavuş	6.753
Collection of Piri Çavuş	8.580
Wage of Mültezim	59.472
The mukataa of fruit weight stamp of Bursa (reminder income)	125.582
The mukataa of fruit weight stamp of Bursa	365.000

Collection, spending and reminder of Bursa fruit weight stamp mukataa incomes in 1012-1013-1014 years

5 ----- 13 Rebi'ülevvel 1015-----

Cash (treasury)	67.903
Collection of Brigadier Mustafa Bey	31.698
Collection of Hacri Bey	1.000



Collection of Mehmed Çavuş	21.305
Collection of Piri Çavuş	13.900
Wage of Mültezim	15.930
Mukataa of Bursa Mevlevi Monastery	
(reminded income)	81.167

Mukataa incomes of Bursa Mevlevi Monastery 165.000
 Collection, spending and reminder of Bursa fruit weight stamp mukataa
 incomes in 1012-1013-1014 years

6 ----- 13 Rebi'ülevvel 1015-----

Cash (Treasury)	68.375
Brigadier Mustafa Bey	22.125
Collection of Mehmed Çavuş	5.930
Collection of Piri Çavuş	29.320
Piri Çavuş's second collection	11.000
Wage of Mültezim	15.930

The mukataa of citation fee in Bursa

(reminded income) 35.695

The mukataa incomes of citation fee in Bursa 120.000

Collection, spending and reminder of Bursa citation fee mukataa
 incomes in 1012-1013-1014 years



**CHAPTER
35**

**NEGATIVE RELATIONSHIPS IN
SOCIAL NETWORKS AND THE ROLE
OF WOMEN-ONLY NETWORKS IN
EMERGING NEGATIVE NETWORKS:
A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

Hale ALAN ¹

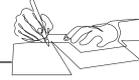
1. INTRODUCTION

Negative relations have been investigated from a number of disciplines including exchange theory, game theory, social identity, categorization theory, and social psychology studies. Negative networks are conceptualized as a concept of unfriendly and adversarial manner, fundamentally related to the social, cultural, and political structure in which intergroup force are discussed (Bobo & Tuan, 2006). The people in a society continue their lives by becoming a member at least one group. The groups in which they become a member and their activities conform to the group norms and shape the members' behaviours. Organizations consist of formal groups, which are created by the organization itself to accomplish its objectives, and informal groups to meet its members' social requirements.

Labianca, Brass, and Gray (1998 :55) stated that negative relationships are associated with higher perceived intergroup conflicts in workplace. Often individuals realize that different groups of people in a workplace have a variety of expectations and they generally cannot meet all these expectations. Under the effect of changing world conditions, organizations must adopt to continuous development if they want to survive and prosper. Conflicts might generate creativity, innovation, and high performance in organizations (Song, Dyer, and Thieme, 2006). Therefore, dealing with conflict becomes increasingly critical for today's modern and successful organizations. Conflict situations in organizations include poor communication, ambiguity of authority resource allocation, personality trait conflicts, and poor leadership (Morrison and Nolan, 2007 ; Sias et al., 2004 ; Monroe et al., 1992).

The growing interactions among members from different groups with different professional specializations may lead to more complex and dynamic relationships in organizations. As the perspectives of group members are so different, the main goal of intergroup relations research is shedding light on this disparity. Group members believe that they receive rewards for achieving different outcomes and goals. When they are interacting with members from other groups, usually take their own groups' goals and interests as their own goals and interests. Many social science studies have referred to intergroup conflict (Brewer, 1979 ; Tajfel, 1982 ; Brewer & Kramer, 1985) and most of the network research has focused on only the positive aspects of relation-

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ships, including attraction, physical attractiveness, friendship, social support, commitment, and love (Blau, 1977; Wiseman and Duck, 1985; Huitsing et al., 2012; Rook, 1984; Benne, 1979; Coser, 1956; Janis, 1972). Unpleasant, irritating, destructive, and painful aspects of relationships received much less attention (Labianca and Brass, 2006).

We expect that a member's perception of intergroup goal interdependencies would affect the way that the member deals the conflict with members from other groups. Specifically, when employees from different groups with a perception of cooperation rather than competition, they are able to utilize their conflicting views truly and constructively, which might in turn lead to productive outcomes. Most organizational members admit that conflict is inevitable and that not all the conflicts are negative (Labianca and Brass, 2006). Studies have confirmed that individuals generally avoid conflicts (Monroe et al., 1992; Gross and Guerrero, 2000; Jameson, 1999). However, studies have revealed that conflict situations can provide creative and innovative ideas.

Even though their aims are the same, the gains and benefits that women and men achieve in accessing social networks and in acquiring social capital differ (Carter et al., 2001). It is known that women are pursuing social goals in networking, and men are seeking more business and profit-oriented benefit-oriented links (Vinnicombe and Colwill, 1996 :88). As a form of social capital acquisition, it can be said that women have a strategy of networking only through women. Firstly, revealed by Coleman (1988), the binding social capital is considered to be detrimental to women's position in their working life and their career development, as it is the type of capital most women have (Portes, 1988).

In this paper, we contribute to the approaches of networks and conflict, and the role of women-only networks concerning on the issue of negative relations. We discuss the importance of women-only networks' in-group network, specifically in emerging conflict situations in an organization. We hope to contribute to the study of interpersonal and intergroup relations by adding the concept of negative networks in the management literature from the women's perspectives. Conflict is not necessarily negative and conflicts are very common at work. In addition, the resolution of conflict often leads to mediating problem solving, as well.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

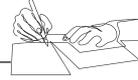
2.1. SOCIAL NETWORKS AND INTERGROUP RELATIONS

An organization primarily consists of individuals, teams, and groups. On the other hand, a group consists of different individuals with different competencies in various situations. An organization is a network and consists of many members (node) and the relationships (ties and edges) between these members (Wasserman and Faust, 1994). Simmel (1950) and Homans (1950) indicated the critical role of dyads, triads, and groups in social interactions. Brass, Butterfield, and Skaggs (1998 :17) defined a social network as a set



of actors and ties representing some relationship or the lack of a relationship between the actors, and they suggested that the social network in an organization could be an important factor that explains unethical behavior. Social capital literature includes both networks and relationships (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998 : 243). Social capital can be understood as an asset available to individuals embedded in their social networks and derived from their location on the structure of social relations (Adler and Kwon, 2002 :18). Bourdieu (1985) and Coleman (1988) focused on individuals and their roles and relationships with other individuals within a network. The literature on social capital has argued for apparent network connections such as positive feelings (Bollen and Hoyle, 1990). Many scholars believe that social capital increases from the positive interactions that occur between members in a network (Lesser, 2000). The importance of an individual's structural position in a work place can occur in terms of its centrality (Brass, Butterfield, and Skaggs, 1998). The highly central actor may be well known person within network and due to their centrality in the network may be able to take on leadership roles (Krebs, 2004). Understanding the effects of strong and weak ties provide advantageous to all groups and others in order to resolve conflict and turn negative relationships into positive ones (Brass, Butterfield, and Skaggs, 1998). The interpersonal ties between groups are inconsistent. According to Granovetter (1973, 1982) some ties are weak (such as acquaintances) while others strong (such as family and friends). Strong ties are most valuable when a person looks for a job, support or high level of trust. However, weak ties are more valuable when persons are looking diversity and more acquaintances than strong ties. Lin's (2000 : 786-787) study examined the common characteristics of group formation and pointed out that unequal opportunity created a disadvantaged status compared with the members of other social groups. Moreover, this principle closely associated with homophily, which is the frequent interaction of members in the same group or in-group with common characteristics. Because of this phenomenon, members of weak groups might share less information and affect than members of strong groups (Muñoz-Goy, 2013).

Intergroup relations have been studied by numerous researchers (Morrison and Nolan, 2007 ; Nelson, 1989 ; Blake, Shepard, and Mouton, 1964 ; Brewer, and Kramer, 1985; Hogg, Abrams, Otten, and Hinkle, 2004; King, 2008; Labianca, Brass, and Gray, 1998; Rothman, 2014). The purpose is to search intergroup relations in a workplace that any conflict can be noticed and solved by the management. Even though the success of the organization as a whole relies on balanced and consistent relations among individuals, studies show that conflict remains an unavoidable situation among groups in organizations (Thomas, 1976; Smith, 1987; Green, 2012). Problems may arise when the group objectives do not match the organizational mission and goals. Managers, bosses, leaders, or supervisors, in short, individuals working in all managerial positions, should take responsibility to ensure a complementary and voluntary connection between the organization and groups goals within it. In-group members feel like unique individuals with high moral standards, and in contrast, they view other groups' members as harmful



and immoral people. The studies have revealed the many harmful causes of in-group thinking, which causes certain conflict situations in organizational life (Kinicki and Kreitner, 2008).

2.2. INTERGROUP CONFLICT AND NEGATIVE RELATIONSHIPS

The study of social networks has generally been on existing ties, links and nodes, their creation, and their mobilization, but there is little research on negative relationships in the workplace and work life (Morrison and Nolan, 2007). Hewstone, Rubin, and Willis (2002:577) defined negative intergroup relations as an assessment including the attributes of group features (stereotypes), group evaluations, and dissimilar attitudes toward in-group and out-group goals. Morrison and Nolan (2007: 204) note that no certain description has defined negative relationships until now. Social network researchers seldomly have studied this type of relationship (Moerbeek and Need, 2003). Negative relationships, including broken relationships that were previously positive, may involve kinds of emotions, but they obviously do not include the constraining effects of empathy and psychological proximity (Brass, Butterfield, and Skaggs, 1998). Thomas (1992: 653) states that the personal level conflict begins "when one party perceives that the other have negatively affected, or is about to negatively affect, something that he or she cares about." Intergroup conflicts are conflicts between different groups, teams, and departments (Labianca and Brass, 2006; Morrison and Nolan, 2007).

The empirical results on negative networks are comparably uncommon, but have currently taken into consideration the large number of issues dealing with workplace relations, such as work difficulties, gossip, bullying, mobbing, and health outcomes, and relational problems in organizations (Rubin, Bukowski, and Laursen, 2009; Ellwardt, Labianca, and Wittek, 2012; Zapf, Knorz, and Kulla, 1996; Labianca and Brass, 2006). The studies of negative relations are interesting precisely because these relations are different from positive ties. Disliking another person can be conceptualized as a negative relationship on the opposite end of the continuum of strong and weak ties (Brass, Butterfield, and Skaggs, 1998:18). Theoretical and empirical studies show little detail about which negative relations becomes more matter in an organization (Nelson, 1989). Attitudes that develop through daily relationships such as inequity, rivalry, jealousy, and gossip may evoke breakdowns in communication (Berman, West, and Richter, 2002: 219). Recently, there has been a proliferation in the organizational literature about negative ties such as distant relationships, difficult relationships, preference for avoidance, disliking each other, distrust, duty conflicts, relationship conflicts, task conflicts, disruption, social exclusion, supplanting, and mutual hostilities. Negative relations are related to a decrease in cognitive trust received from others (Chua, Ingram, and Morris, 2008). Bridge and Baxter (1992) stated that negative workplace relationships could be diminished by bosses or managers if they effectively manage the relationships among their employees.

In the literature, the major dimensions studied under the category of workplace conflict have been at the intrapersonal, interpersonal, intragroup,



intergroup, and intra-organizational level. The current study examines intergroup conflicts from the perspective of emerging negative networks in organizations.

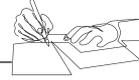
As mentioned earlier, employees of a group might dominate other group members. Such situations of conflict can occur due to the dissimilarities in status and contradicting goals of the group members. Intergroup conflict often leads to miscommunication or causes an interruption of communication between members, and prevents an organization's ability to function. Conflict between different groups or teams damages organizational performance value. Intergroup conflict is a critical but frequently underestimated cause of organizational inefficiency and low performance (Sherif, 1967).

Many researchers have defined five basic strategies for handling and reducing the impact of behavioral conflict. Follett (1940) was the first researcher that developed five phases in which to categorize conflict resolution, including domination, compromise, integration, avoidance, and suppression. Although different researchers have created various classifications to define these strategies, the fundamental meaning and procedure of these strategies remain the same. Commonly studied conflict resolution strategies are ignoring the conflict, smoothing, balancing the demands of the conflicting groups, forcing, and problem solving.

Group cohesiveness has critical importance in terms of group members (in-group member) and in-group members view themselves positively, as unique people with high moral standards but they view other group members negatively, as immoral and antagonistic individuals (out-group member). Outsiders are viewed as a threat to the group. In-group members' exaggerate differences between their group and other groups. In-group thinking is an inseparable part of organizational life, which is why it guarantees conflict. Evidence from empirical studies show that during conflicts, compared to situations with no conflict, employees evaluate their groups more precisely, express high level of commitment to their group, and are more eager to make valuable support to improve their group comfort (Blake, Shepard, and Mouton, 1964; Sherif, 1966).

Although the outcomes of negative relationships have gained little attention to an organizational setting in recent years, it could be acceptable to hope that the existence of such relationships might negatively influence individuals in their professional life. The intergroup hate network concept has integrated social comparison, intergroup relations (Tajfel, 1974), intergroup conflict, structural balance, and in-group projection model studies around negative relationship studies.

Social comparison and intergroup relations presented by Tajfel in 1974 and published by Tajfel and Turner in a 1979 article. According to social comparison theory, people struggle to improve distinctions between in-group members and out-group members in a similar way as one's own and other groups (Hogg, Abrams, Otten, and Hinkle, 2004: 254). During the phase of



intergroup relations, group members compete with each other to maintain similarities in groups and avoid adversarial effects of the out-group.

Self-categorization might affect the perception of group members. The effect of categorization is important in determining the quality of relationships between members of different categories, particularly in-group and out-group members. The social categorization perspective indicates that people categorize themselves into one group as the in-group and others as the out-group (Turner, 1982). Social identity theory is important in intergroup conflict, discrimination, and prejudice (Hogg, Abrams, Otten, and Hinkle, 2004). The social identity perspective (Tajfel, 1978) has caused a wide array of research in particular, on the emergence of groups, group identity, and intergroup discrimination. Social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel and Turner, 1979) assumes that people struggle for positive self-respect as members of the social groups they belong to and out-groups more negatively. Intergroup conflict is defined as adversely appraising out-group members and positively perceiving in-group members.

Realistic intergroup conflict theory (RICT), as a well-established intergroup conflict theory in the management literature (Campbell, 1965), is an enlightening point which causes a reduction of the value of other groups and states that intergroup conflicts are rational "in the sense that groups do have incompatible goals and are in competition for scarce resources" (Campbell, 1965: 287). In organizations, groups can compete with actual or perceived shortage of sources including high salary, power, status, reputation, and respect. This theory clarifies how intergroup enmity increases because of competing goals and rivalry for a shortage of sources, and proposes a distinction toward out-group members that join the intergroup conflict (Bornstein, 2003).

Mummendey and Wenzel (1999) developed the in-group projection model (IPM), in which individuals of a particular group tend to make their own group's norms and characteristics widespread, thereby using their own group's perspective as the standard. Enforcing group norms on other groups and neglecting their identity might be main reasons for conflicts between groups.

When mentioning negative intergroup relations, we consider the results of distrust, due to situations that prevent people from being trusted (Adali, 2013). A mix of positive and negative relationships occurs within a network. If relations create an imbalance (negative) between individuals, a social relationship is activated when individuals change their connections to transform a balanced (positive) network. Structural balance theory gains importance by clarifying such configuration ties in networks (Heider, 1946, 1958). All balance theories generally use aspects of the affective content in creating balanced networks (Davis, 1963; Heider, 1946). Structural balance theory highlights how groups evolve to the potential balanced situations. In this theory, positive relationships result in trust and negative relationships result in distrust. People like each other or dislike each other; in the meantime, if individual has a different action, an imbalance relationship consequently occurs (Taylor, 1967). Furthermore, the balanced approach is based on individuals' comments, and the enactment and prediction of other people's behavior

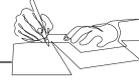


(Khanafiah and Situngkir, 2004). Behavioral change is caused by an intentional purpose that creates imbalanced relationships, such as dislike, hostility, and hatred among individuals.

2.3. THE CAUSES AND OUTCOMES OF NEGATIVE RELATIONSHIPS

In recent years, the causes and outcomes of conflicts between groups have been evaluated extensively in social science literature; however, the role and importance of secretaries in intergroup negative relations have received less attention in the management literature. According to Morrison and Nolan (2007), there is a variety of reasons for creating negative workplace relationships among employees: jealousy or competition, personality characteristics of individuals, problematic personality, and envy or hostility in the workplace. Common causes of negative workplace relations are personal differences, ignoring rules, policies, politics of organization, misunderstandings, lack of listening, and communication without criticizing others. A wide array of differences in characteristics is brought together within an organization such as genders, cultures, education or background, beliefs, and political choices. Luthans (1998) stated that situations of conflict might occur at an individual, interpersonal, intergroup, or organizational level. Relational based conflict is more destructive to achieve the desired objectives. Understanding the causes of negative relationships could help organizations resolve conflicts and potential future conflict situations from causing major dilemmas. Each organization approaches negative relationships in different ways. For example, the tendency toward conflict resolution is influenced not just by people's ignorance, but also negotiation and collaboration are good ways to resolve situations of conflict.

Moerbeek and Need (2003) stated that individuals who are extensively exposed to negative relationships at work resign more frequently and the turnover rate increases and job satisfaction and organizational commitment levels decrease. Another result of negative relationships is a lack of communication among individuals. A major outcome of conflict is job stress in the organization. The stress level of conflicts can increase as the position and role of members' increase in an organization. Although secretaries, with their lower positions in organizations, are expected to experience less stress than others with higher positions in the organizational hierarchy. Very little affects the performance or outcomes of organization, secretaries tend to be used as a mediator or third party between the opposing sides by utilizing the advantages of their central position by having more information about both sides. Due to poor communication in the workplace, people may make inappropriate deductions and assumption, which cause gossip and decrease the welfare of employees. The negative relationships tend to provide opportunities for harmony and solidarity in the organization if they are dealt with. They create opportunities to learn from each other, as well. We can also consider the advantages of negative relationships, if they make people creative or productive. Although negative relationships or behaviors are unavoidable in the workplace, the main issue for management is how to effectively respond to



them. To manage the negative relationships within a group, managers can design resolution plans to cope with situations of conflict. According to Gordon (2003), improperly and carelessly resolved situations of conflict may increase unemployment rates and prevent employees' contributions to work, and lead to the collapse of the groups.

2.4. WOMEN-ONLY NETWORKS

The concept of women-only networks began to appear in organizations in the early 1990s (Coleman, 2008b). It is emphasized that it should not be associated with feminism and that women should be clarified through the merit of mentoring and networking for career advancement (Coleman, 2008a). Women, like men, are communicating with similar individuals and it is stated that organizational networks concentrate around women (Ibarra, 1992). It is stated that women only networks only have detrimental effects, which is why women do not have important contacts and supporters on their own (Groysberg, 2010; Ibarra, 1992). Women's ties with women lead to the concept of homogeneity, which leads to gender inequality. These network assemblies have less instrumental value and require more time to form. The number of bonds with strong bond properties is higher in homogeneous network assemblies (Ibarra, 1993). The concept of homogeneity is thought to be closely related to the fact that women have only a network of females and that the network is homogeneous or heterogeneous, emphasizing the network of relations between the same sex. Women-only networks constitute a negative perception due to the implications of society and culture (Pini et al., 2004). The reason for this is only the belief that women's networks are perceived only as a community of conversation and gossip, and for unnecessary purposes. Women's roles, knowledge and hierarchical positions in the organization are shaping the network. Having similar demographic characteristics to the people they are related to, they will increase the benefits that they will have. On the other hand, the fact that men are intense in organizations makes it difficult for women to relate to their fellowmen; for this reason, women develop fewer homogenous relationships within men than in men, due to the low number of women in organization. Having a homogenous composition of the social network means that the interacting individuals have similar characteristics. The homogeneity of the network characteristic, in other words, the individual similarity, facilitates communication, enhances the predictability of behaviors, strengthen relationships based on trust and mutuality. Individuals' similarities in their socioeconomic and behavioral characteristics are influential in shaping their social ties and forming social networking. The most common and widespread direct links to the form of social capital acquisition include those in which individuals have developed very similar life standards at the same socioeconomic level that they classify themselves with the group, class, or society in which they belong (homogenous and binding ties) (Putnam, 2000; Lin, 2001; Burt, 2005; Sabatini, 2005).

The facts that women have closed networks block their career progress. This is because, due to gender-based job relations with men are less and ex-

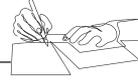


clusion causes them to establish close ties and relationships with women, which in turn prevents them from being selective in network relations and developing network relations and ties from a wide variety of characteristics and groups. Having only a woman network is among the advantages for the organization to come from above the impressions like distinction and symbolism. In such a network, women are not expected to face discrimination. When the women at different levels in the organization are examined, it can be said that the number of senior women is very few at the top level in organization. In the working life it was argued that women's networks only occur when men's networks can not be reached (Coleman, 2010).. It is argued that women who can not access advantageous social networks have many negative influences, primarily preventing their career development, but that they provide friendship and social support (Ibarra, 1993:56).

It is evaluated that having women-only associations, establishing relationships and connections with other women who will support their career development in networking relationships, and having only the binding social capital attached to women's networks will prevent their career development. In organizations, only women's networks continue to exist for more than 25 years, although sometimes they are accepted, sometimes treated tolerant, sometimes they are taken from the office. Using a network map within an organization to assess the position of a women's network has been advocated as a powerful way to capture success. According to the researchers, companies that are considering the future give importance to women's networks. According to them, the importance given to women's networks affects the company's budget and resources positively. The establishment of women's networks should be supported because women's networks are very important for companies (Donnellon and Langowitz, 2009). It is thought that women only networks are less powerful because they are made up of women. Some women who think that women-only networks are mothers' meetings (Perriton, 2006: 100) prevent them from participating in these networks. According to Ibarra (1992), it is stated that women can not network in the same way as men.

3. THE ROLE OF WOMEN-ONLY NETWORKS IN EMERGING CONFLICT AND NEGATIVE RELATIONSHIPS IN ORGANIZATIONS

Gender differences are the biggest conflict and communication gap between men and women when dealing with a stressful situation in working life. These differences in communication often lead to a distinction between women and men in working life (Tannen, 1990). Women are more constructive and problem-solving, especially in situations of conflict, using a politer language than men (Basow and Rubenfield, 2003). In trying to solve a problem, women tend to offer empathy and understanding, while men tend to offer unwanted demands naturally (Gray, 1992). Because of the different approaches of women and men, women's careful and solution-oriented approach to conversations often reveal disconnection among men while communicating with women.



Gender issues are often discussed in the literature as power relations and stereotypes about hierarchy, inequality, masculinity and womanhood. It is evaluated that brokers will be in a very valuable and important place because the information and control advantages obtained by the individuals who have negative relations with each other in the organization or even between the groups formed by employees who have established hate relations and the other group formations are very many. Burt (1997) suggests that employees who bridge structural gaps are more successful.

According to Livesey and Rotheroe (2007) women-only networks can be trusted to develop; encouraging cooperation, increasing social capital; bridging structural gaps, promoting creativity through ideas sharing, and contributing to sustainability. Women's networks create accessibility by providing a facilitative environment and contribute to sustainability. According to researches in the field of women's networks within the organization, the communication network with other women proved to be advantageous both in terms of career and social (Brass, 1985; Travers et al., 1997; Pini et al., 2004).

Despite the lack of access to the opportunities, women network relationships: emotional support; companionship; informative support and financial support (Neergaard et al. 2005:368) offer an alternative to innovation and good ideas (Inkpen and Tsang, 2005:156). Since women-only networks are active in supporting conflicts and negative situations, it is not enough to conclude that giving women a greater role, particularly will lead to regulation in organization.

Participation in women's networks can provide valuable benefits, such as opportunities for women to develop leadership, self-efficacy and social support resources, and greater value in the workplace. Women in women's networks acquire leadership skills and gain the opportunity to practice, communicate with women's leading role models and gain career support. Women's networks help women develop leadership and self-efficacy. Women's networks can provide a source of social support by increasing opportunities to network with other women in a business. Thus, by providing leadership, self-efficacy and social support development resources, women's networks can enable women to cope better with men and women who create stress and negative relationships in the working environment.

It will be useful to talk about the concept of psychological well-being in this study to emphasize the benefits of women's networks in relation to situations such as negative relationships and conflict. Psychological well-being refers to a situation in which one feels positive emotional growth and lacks negative emotions (Warr, 1990)

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) have described various methods that people use to preserve peace in the face of negative relationships and conflict situations. Among these methods are the positive beliefs about self and social support and the potential resources that can be provided by women's networks to help women respond to their goals and demands. Positive beliefs about the

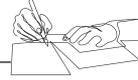


self are particularly important in determining strategies to deal with negative relationships and conflicts, and this includes beliefs about one's activity in certain situations.

Research suggests that social support is a key benefit for women in networking. (Stroh, Langlands, and Simpson, 2003; Singh et al., 2006). Women's networks can reduce the problems women face at work, which reduces turn over rates and increases organizational commitment (eg, Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). Networking is an important part of participating in women's networking activities (Stroh et al., 2003), and the most important networking that women get is social support. What is important in this study is how women's networks can help women cope with negative relationships and conflict situations that are a source of stress in working life in order to assess the influence of women's networks within organizations.

It is generally expected that women working in male jobs should be gentle, but often they are perceived as coarse and autocratic. In fact, even though gender behavior is the same between men and women managers, women still seem to be gentler. In this respect, it is generally expected that in women's work, although women are autocratic, they are perceived as much politer than women in male works. It is also expected that the sense of courtesy will change according to the gender of the employees. There is a possibility that male employees, even female leaders in general, are more likely to be rude to female subordinates. Gender differences and affecting tactics in communication styles causes stereotypical gender roles that affect the behavior of both men and women in the workplace. Some of these roles have had negative effects on women's behavior and perceptions as women, managers and leaders in the workplace. Women are often more comprehensible, thoughtful, and polite when communicating, while men are more ambitious and turn to themselves (Basow and Rubenfield, 2003). Men and women are also different in relation to other people in society. While women try to be more social in their interaction with others, men value their freedom and independence. On the other hand, in the famous works of John Gray and Deborah Tannen, they emphasized that men were aimed to establish and maintain status and sovereignty in their relations, while women emphasized that they were aimed to communicate in order to create and develop a sincere bond (Gray, 1992, Tannen, 1990).

Women communicate to enhance their social dominance while communicating to improve social ties and relationships (Leaper, 1991; Mulac, Bradac, & Gibbons, 2001). On the other hand, men are more constructive than women in solving problems to prevent conflicts and debates that seemingly unnecessary between persons or groups (Baslow & Rubenfield, 2003). According to research on gender differences in problem solving in conflict or adverse relationship situations, it is emphasized that men tend to be self-assertive and see themselves as a tool to achieve a concrete result such as communication, power, or sovereignty (Maltz & Borker, 1982).



It is known that the feelings of anxiety, self-sacrifice, and the desire to unite with others for women are less clear for women's individual identities, defined as the boundaries of women's boundaries and their associative links. Women can evaluate talking for relationships; communication for women is more valuable (Hartmann, 1991; Statham, 1987; Surrey, 1983).

One of the most popular metaphors used to describe inequalities between women and men in the workplace is the glass ceiling. This metaphor emphasizes that women are able to come to the first levels of administration, but they are an invisible obstacle that prevents them from coming to higher levels. therefore women are reluctant to raise more (Baxter and Wright, 2000). Glass ceiling refers to inequalities that limit women's career successes, and this is gender discrimination. shows the effect of women on promotion and salary increases in business life. These obstacles that make up the glass ceiling that prevents women from progressing in their careers success. Both the glass ceiling and the gender discrimination are the problems that women face in today's working life. Although companies have begun to see a larger representation of women in their management positions, women's presence in management positions is disproportionate to men's representation in leadership positions. These inequalities between men and women in rights, stances and opportunities stem from the already existing gender differences between men and women in the style of communication, impact tactics and leadership style.

4. CONCLUSION

The literature is full of studies about how to solve cooperation and relational problems between groups who do not like each other. For example, through negotiated agreements, functional cooperation, promoting positive contact and attitudes that renewed confrontation. Rothman (2014) reported new ways to foster intergroup collaboration beginning first with intragroup conflict resolution. It is also crucial that organizations understand intergroup relationships between supervisors and employees, and how to best reduce subordinates' relationship conflict level where they can still trust in their bosses, managers or supervisors and intend to remain in organization. However, it is not easy to establish a climate of agreement between groups. Even when conflicting groups decide to cooperate with each other to achieve superordinate goals, they require a mechanism to initiate the first leap from conflict to collaboration (Sherif, 1966). There are a number of ongoing debates in the management literature about conflicts between groups (Rook, 1984 ; Morrison and Nolan, 2007 ; Monroe et al., 1992 ; Abrams and Hogg, 1998 ; Alderfer and Smith, 1982 ; Giles and Evans, 1986 ; Sherif, 1966). In the literature, researchers examined whether and under what conditions conflict in workgroups might be beneficial. They also explored the idea that group members may not always perceive the same level of conflict.

Negative networks of hate, dislike, and conflict relations are important to women-only networks in the everyday work routine. Women in women-only networks can assume responsibility with their mediator and brokerage roles in the network. When women takes the initiative to prevent or end a conflict



by using their position power in their women-only networks, and they can transform the conflict into something functional for an organization.

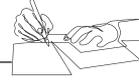
Empirical studies on conflicts in organizations have continued to focus on attitudes, traits, or interpersonal dynamics, and have been limited to women-only networks within organizations. Theoretical and experimental studies add little understanding to identify thresholds at which conflict becomes problematic and becomes useful in an organization. No research in the literature that we are aware of has examined the roles of women-only networks in conflict resolution at junior, senior or top levels in organizations. Therefore, this study provides a perspective that focuses on the potential and role of women-only networks on the issue of intergroup conflict resolution.

In conclusion, people, in general, want to work in a workplace where they are happy, motivated, safe, respected, encouraged in their career developments, able to work in harmony with their colleagues, and free from harassment, mobbing, or bullying. These factors with judicious boss, manager or leader were promoted to inspire their employees. If there are unresolved issues, hostilities, discrimination, inappropriate behavior, harassment, and bullying among members in the workplace, these factors would lead to difficulties in being effective and productive. In this paper, we addressed the role of women-only networks, which have crucial importance in terms of balancing relationships between different group members. We emphasized that women's abilities to cover problematic situations essentially reduces negative relations and hostility between dissimilar groups. The network centrality of the women amplifies their informal role within their groups and between other groups in the organization. The personal network ties of women influence in-group members and provide brokerage positions for out-group members. In our opinion, building a positive workplace atmosphere is a women's responsibility. Building strong relationships by means of strong and open communication, interpersonal skills, trust, respect, and equality among members in workplaces, women should be considered to have a critical structural position.

This study was formed within a conceptual framework for understanding women's networks and negative relationships. As gender-based work has been increasing day by day, it is clear that the concept is important when women are organized in the company using various informal working groups. When women and men have a negative network, women are more likely to show a woman as a negative relationship.

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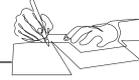
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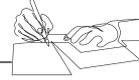
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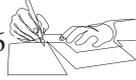


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THE EFFECTS OF GEOGRAPHICAL ENVIRONMENT COMPONENTS ON THE GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION AND DEVELOPMENT PROCESS OF SAMSUN (TURKEY) WOODEN MOSQUES

Seyfullah GÜL¹

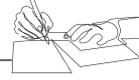
1. Introduction

Dwellings and their extensions that form settlements and religious and cultural structures are organized units that had been created by the natural environment as well as people and their activities. The existence and development process of these units is shaped mainly by the influence of the natural environmental components. However, historical and cultural features also play a role in the development and shaping of the settlements.

People have built a variety of structures to meet their many needs, such as sheltering, protection and work. Wood is one of the building materials that has been used for thousands of years in the construction of these structures in the rural settlements in the region and on many unique techniques have been developed. People built wooden structures such as mosques, churches and tombs in order to fulfill the orders of their religious beliefs alongside the local dwellings and extensions (barns, haystacks, straw baskets). These religious constructions, which appear in different forms in different religions and places, are shaped primarily by the religious features of belief. Besides belief characteristics of the religion believed, the social and economic characteristics of the society and the natural environment are also influential on the features and types of religious structures. The influence of the natural environmental factors on the preference of the materials used in the construction and the plan and size of the religious buildings found especially in the rural settlements is seen more clearly.

The tradition of making wooden mosque, very first examples are dated 800 years before the present time in Turkey is one of the most important cultural values of Samsun (Yılmaz 2006, 62). Samsun with its 115 wooden mosques and its stylistic process and architectural continuous development from Seljuk Empire to today, has the biggest wooden mosque potential in Turkey. These mosques, which have a historical connection between the past and present by integrating the cultural, civilization levels and architectural tastes of their time with the features of climate, vegetation and topography; are the most beautiful reflection of the harmony among human beings and the environment and the effect of this harmony on religious buildings.

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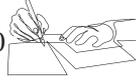


Wooden structure remains found in the excavations in Bafra-İkiztepe and Oymaağaç-Nerik Mound (Danışman 1986, 135; Oymaağaç-Nerik Report 2011) demonstrates that the tradition of wooden building extends to Samsun and its surroundings around 4000 BC. The tradition of making wooden mosques in the province of Samsun has a history of about 800 years from the 13th century (Seljuk period) to today. These mosques, which show similar architectural features with different construction dates, have remained in the Seljuks' era, the Tacettinids' era and the Republic Period through the Ottomans. In fact the results obtained by tree ring dating method demonstrate that the oldest wooden mosque is Çarşamba Göğçeli Mosque in Turkey (1206) (Can 2004). Also, Samsun Yayıncılar Village Şeyhhabil Mosque (1211) is one of the oldest wooden mosques in our country. After this date, hundreds of mosques were built in Samsun, the last in 1957 (Alan Village Mosque), but some of them were destroyed and destroyed due to natural and human reasons.

The most prominent feature distinguishing wooden mosques from other mosques is the use of simply wood. Today timber framing is generally used for wooden constructions built in Anatolia and the type of trees that make up the building material differs according to the flora characteristics of the region. Wooden windows are built with the technique called *kurtboğazı* (literally wolf throat) by passing through the paddle without using nails from long wooden pieces made of chipped wood or timber.

The reason for the basic construction is the wooden mosques which is a place of worship shows Cuma Mosque (Cuma means Friday and also the day of gathering) feature in the whole region. Cuma Mosques; are religious buildings where more than one village in the region come together to perform only Cuma and Eid prayers. In the Ottoman Empire, Cuma mosques were usually built in specific locations where Muslims lived in large settlements in order to perform the Cuma prayer in a single location. In these built-in mosques, Cuma prayers could only be performed only after preachers were chosen and is given a warrant by Sultan (Dikmen 2014: 129). The presence of the Cuma Mosques in many provinces of Samsun (Çarşamba, Vezirköprü, Salıpazarı) and in some rural neighbourhoods is also known today (Gül 2015). In determining these mosques; a number of factors are influential such as location, population and transportation. For this reason, some large villages that are centrally located had been appointed as Cuma Mosque location, and warranted preachers had been assigned charades to these mosques to enable people to perform Cuma prayers. With this practice, the people living in the nearby settlements had been brought together at least once on Fridays (Gül, Gültekin, 2017). A large number of people from settlements, villages and towns near these warranted Cuma mosques had come in order to perform Cuma prayer and large groups of people gathered around these mosques.

Wooden mosques that can be found almost in all the districts of Samsun and carrying historical features are spread throughout the provincial area however there is a concentration in some districts such as Salıpazarı (27) Çarşamba (16), Ayvacık (14), Alaçam (13) and Terme (11) In addition to



this, wooden mosques can be found in some other districts such as Bafra (7), Asarcık (6), Kavak (5), Tekkeköy (5), Vezirköprü (5), Yakakent (4) and 19 Mayıs (1). There are no wooden mosques in the districts of Havza and Ladik (Figure 1).



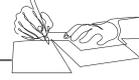
Figure 1. The map shows distribution of wooden mosques in Samsun.

2. Research aims

The geographical elements of the environment are important factors on the history and development of an inhabitant in the area and in the emergence of the building units (residence and annexes, religious and cultural structures) constituting this settlement. The development of the building architecture, which is the most preferred and most available building materials, has been developed with the experience gained and has become the architectural codes that constitute the building culture of the society. The influence of the geographical environment components (climate, flora, ground shape, slope, population, economic and cultural structure etc.) is great in the emergence and development of the tradition of making wooden mosques with a number of over a hundred in Samsun region. In this study, it is aimed to reveal the relationship between the local distribution of wooden mosques in the province of Samsun and the geographical environment components. In addition to the differences that arise in the distribution, the purpose of the study is to investigate the influence of the geographical environmental components of the region in the development of certain architectural features such as the choice of the place where they are built, plan types, sizes, ornaments, construction techniques and wood species used in mosque construction.

3. Methodology

The main material of the study is the wooden mosques in Samsun province. In addition, the maps, data and documents used in the analysis and evaluation phases of the study were evaluated as research material. Previous



national and international literature and resources on the natural and human environmental characteristics of the research area have been used. About the wooden mosques in Samsun in the literature survey (Danışman 1986; Gül, Gültekin, 2017; Can 2004; Nefes 2010; Nefes, Gün 2012; Nefes et al. 2015). It has been determined that many researchers and the Governorship of Samsun have had studies on this subject. In these studies, Samsun wooden mosques have been examined in terms of architectural style and no detailed studies have been found about the geographical environmental components which are effective in the development of the distribution and architectural characteristics of these cultural properties. This study distinguishes from previous studies at the point of eliminating these deficiencies.

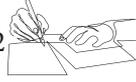
Field studies and observations were made in the places where the wooden mosques, which are considered as historical values of Samsun's cultural characteristics, are located. Wooden mosques in these areas have been studied in terms of preservation status, architectural characteristics and natural environment characteristics of the places where they are built. In the places where the Samsun wooden mosques are located, photographs of the wooden mosques were taken and interviews were conducted with the local people regarding their construction and usage. In addition, information and documents were obtained from Samsun wooden mosques inventory of Tourism Provincial Directorate. The obtained information was digitized with ArcGIS10.3 software and the distribution map of wooden mosques was prepared by supporting findings with field studies. At final stage, the geographical environment components which are effective in the distribution and development of Samsun wooden mosques have been compared with each other.

4. Geographical Environment Features of Samsun

Historical and Cultural Environment Features

The first known settlements in Samsun, which is believed to date to the 10th century BC, are located in the district of Tekkeköy (Kökten, Özgüç, 1945). Again, Oymaağaç-Nerik in Vezirköprü and İkiztepe in Bafra district has a settlement history dating back to the Chalcolithic age (4000 BC). Findings from surface surveys and excavations indicate the presence of Hittite and Phrygian periods in the region (Tekkeköy, Bafra, Vezirköprü). The great part of the region had become the territory of the Pontus state by the middle of the 3rd century BC, and the region is dominated by the Roman, Byzantine and Anatolian Seljuk states respectively.

The region was under the rule of the Byzantine Empire when the Seljuks first settled in Anatolia; the Turks began to take over the region at the end of the 12th century by the establishment of Samsun city on the sea shore by the Seljuks. Havza, Ladik and Vezirköprü areas that had been achieved Turkization before relative to the Samsun coastal belt, had taken over by Turks in the age of Danishments. Many of the imarets, inns, souks, foodbanks, baths, mosques and tombs belonging to the Seljuk period were preserved until present day. After the Ottoman rule in the 15th century, Samsun was shaped by



Ottoman architecture.

Samsun is a city constructed by Turks dominantly but also throughout history it had been a city that hosted historical structures built by different cultures and nations and preserved. Especially after the second half of the 19th century, with the development of trade in the city, Greeks and Armenians from Trabzon, Aegean and Central Anatolia and a certain number of European merchants settled in Samsun (Darkot 1980; Yolalıcı 1991). The non-Muslim population had built their own buildings such as church, school, residence, cemetery, etc. that reflects their cultural and belief values.

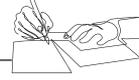
One of the important events that adds the feature of multi-culturalism the city is migration. In the 19th century, due to the social changes that accelerated in parallel with the political movements in the Ottoman geography, Samsun, with masses of people which came from the Caucasus, became an important immigrant center. These people, who were placed in the districts of Samsun and its surroundings, brought cultural values such as agriculture culture, hand art, architecture and culinary culture from the places where they had used to live to their newly-settled lands. With the population exchange made as a requirement of the Treaty of Lausanne, thousands of immigrants from Greece settled in Samsun and continued to let the cultural values of their homelands live in the city.

Natural Environment Features

Climate; is the sum of atmospheric-based meteorological events such as air pressure, wind, temperature, humidity, and precipitation, all of which are observed over a long period of time in a place that directly or indirectly influences the natural and human systems and shapes the earth. The influence of climate on the natural environment is easily seen and perceived. The effect of climate on the human environment acts slower than in the natural environment and is more difficult to perceive.

Province of Samsun is in the humid temperate climate zone that called Black Sea climate, one of the three main climate type characters seen in Turkey. In this type of climate; all seasons are rainy, summers are cool, and winters are warm. Besides, the local conditions between Samsun and coastal regions cause differentiation of the climate characteristic (Nişancı 1988: 223). In the province of Samsun, as it goes from the coast to the inner parts, the original Black Sea climate deteriorates and due to the increasing elevation, the degree of saturation and cleavage, the transition climate of hinterland takes place.

Samsun has 14⁰C average temperature and temperature amplitude of 7.2⁰C yearly according to the long period data of Samsun Meteorology Station. However, temperature averages and amplitudes vary between shoreline and coastal backstroke depending on the general atmospheric circulation, winds and short-range changes in elevation factor. As a matter of fact, the average annual temperature in Vezirköprü drops to 12.9⁰C and 11.5⁰C in Havza (Figure 2-3).



According to the long period (1929-2016) average precipitation (714 mm), Samsun receives less rainfall than the other coastal regions of the Black Sea Region. Nevertheless, Samsun is rainier and have a more regular rainfall distribution relative to the average of Turkey (Regional Directorate of Meteorology 2018). The average amount of precipitation seen in the Samsun coastal line decreases towards the inner part due to changes in the conditions (Havza 448 mm, Vezirköprü 512 mm).

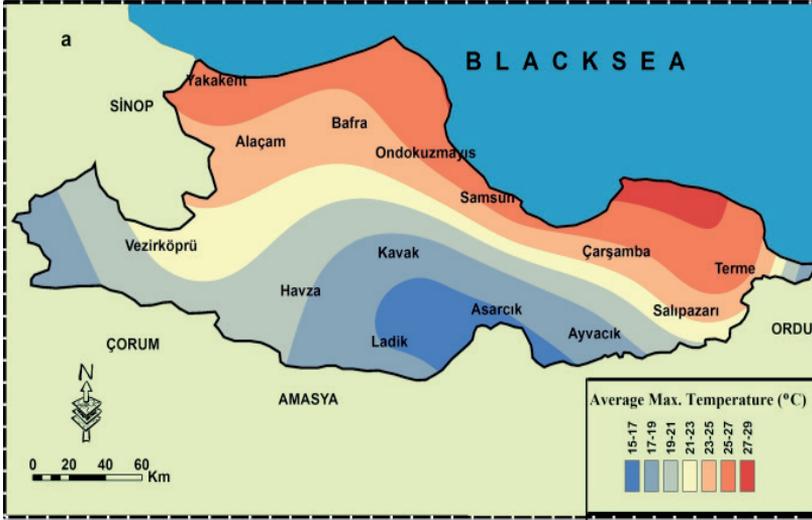


Figure 2. Distribution of long period average temperature in Samsun province (Bahadır, 2013).

Vegetation cover is a group of naturally grown plants and plants that are developed as a result of climatic conditions. Samsun province has a feature that can be considered as rich in vegetation. Undoubtedly, the most important factor in this situation is moist and temperate climate seen in Samsun. Again, significant changes in climatic types due to local factors in the region and changes in the characteristics of climatic elements at short distances caused the diversity of the vegetation cover.

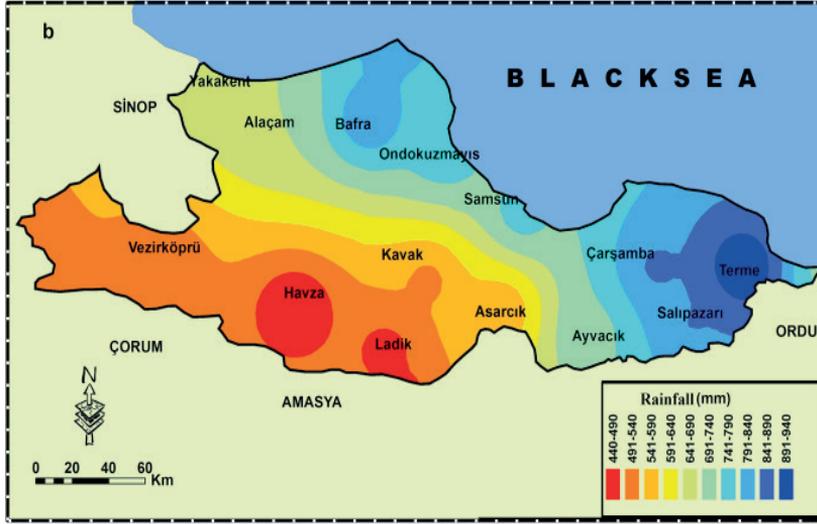


Figure 3. Distribution of long period average precipitation in Samsun province (Bahadır, 2013).

Two large plains and shoreline of Samsun Province are covered by agricultural areas, vineyards, gardens and meadow areas, while the mountains to the south of these plains are generally covered with forests. In the interior; forests in Havza, Vezirköprü and Ladik depression zones and platelets were mostly destroyed by the influence of human factors. Approximately 50% of the province's territory is covered with forests and shrubberies. Although the tree species in the forested areas in Samsun province are different; quercus, carpinus and fagusorientalis are the most common tree species. On the northern slopes of the Canik Mountains there are castaneasativa mill, ulmus minor, tiliatomentosa, fraxinus excelsior, quercus, carpinus and fagusorientalis trees; and between 1200 m.-1800 m. altitude conifer trees are found. The Kunduz Forests in the west of the Vezirköprü depression zone attract attention with different tree species according to the coastal belt. In these forests, there are tree species such as pinussylvestris, pinusbrutiata and pinusnigra, which are different from coastal bushes, tree species can be seen which are similar to coastal species and such as quercus, carpinus and fagusorientalis. In the vicinity of Altınkaya Dam Lake, pinusbrutia and macula elements are seen. The dominant tree species around the Tavşan Mountains and Akdağ, which form the southern border of Samsun province, are quercus, carpinus and fagusorientalis. In the western part of the province, around the Nebyan Mountain, quercus, carpinus and fagusorientalis are found and the pinusnigra forests are noticed as going upwards. In the west there are forests of quercus, carpinus, and fagusorientalis and pinusbrutia in the north of Yakakent, Alaçam and Bafra (Figure 4)

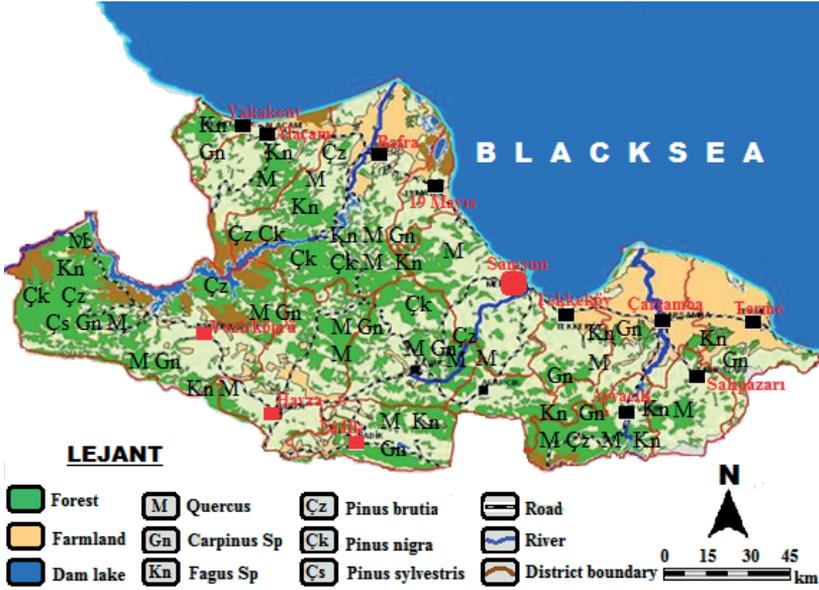


Figure 4. Samsun vegetation cover and land use map.

The research area is located in the coastal part of the Middle Black Sea Region and have five main morphologic units and these are dip slope areas (including cliff steepes and valley slopes), low plateau plains (extending in places as ridges and threshold areas), mountainous and hilly areas, and coastal plains and delta plains (Bafra, Çarşamba) and river valley plains and lastly basin and plains (Vezirköprü, Ladik) (Nişancı ve Şahin). Kızılırmak and Yeşilirmak delta plains, coastal plain and river valley plains have very low elevation and slope values. The southern basin and plains areas, which form another morphological unit, consist of flat and lowly-sloped areas where the elevation changes between 100-600 m. The elevation of mountainous hilly areas, which divide the depression areas and the coastal area and form the main morphological unit, varies between 1000-1500 m. To the south of this elevation, known as the Canik Mountains, the second mountain range is formed by Akdağ (2058 m.), Tavşan Mountains (1903 m.) and Kunduz Mountain (1783 m.) which are among the highest summits of the province (Figure 5).

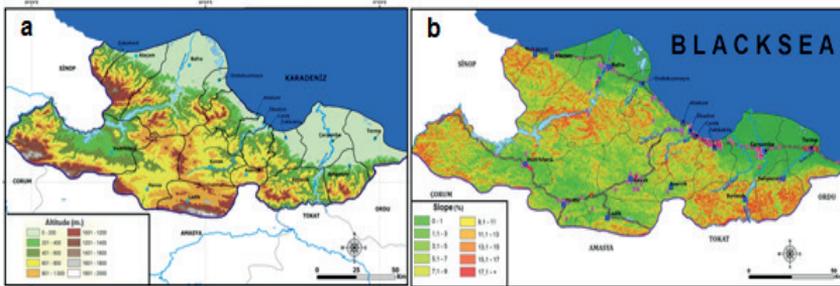


Figure 5. a) Elevation map of research area b) Slope map of research area



Conclusion and Discussion

Building tradition and culture is one of the factors affecting the shape and nature of the shelter that develops due to the spatial material in the geographical area. The architectural tradition that emerged as a product of knowledge and experience from past generations can be carried along with migration to places where people have migrated as well as maintaining their presence in the developed region. The investigations indicate the presence of wooden mosques bearing historical features found intensively in the depression areas behind the Samsun coastal belt and in coastal belt starting with Sinop and extending to Artvin. These mosques, which are built with wooden frame technique, are entirely made of wood as building material. Wooden curtains are attached to each other by wooden nails called *zivana* in some regions, while in the corners they are connected with *kurtboğazı* technique. (literally wolf throat) (Figure 6).

There are two different views about shaping of the wooden mosques in Samsun and the history and traditionalism of these wooden structures. First of them is that this culture has been developed from time to time by the tradition of timber construction and has reached today via cultural transmission. Danişman (1986: 135-144) encountered burned remains of wooden structures dating to 4000 BC, in the excavations at İkiztepe (Bafra). In the evaluation, it was found that the ruins of architectural structures found in excavations there show distinctive features in terms of architecture and construction apart from other ruins found in Turkey. These findings have led to the idea that there may be examples of a similar building heritage in the area. Danişman has encountered similar structures such as dwellings, warehouse, and haystack in the same style around the excavation area. Again, the findings of the Göçceli wooden mosque in Çarşamba reveal that the stone bases on which the mosque was placed, the style of the stitching of the wooden sutures and the bonding style of the wooden curtains are largely similar to the architectural features of the building remains in İkiztepe. However, the findings also show that the architectural tradition of the wooden construction and architectural style of the structures found at the excavation site of İkiztepe has changed in time. Because it is determined that the base building material in İkiztepe is wood boards covered with mud on both sides and it means buildings constructed with a mixture of mud and wood.

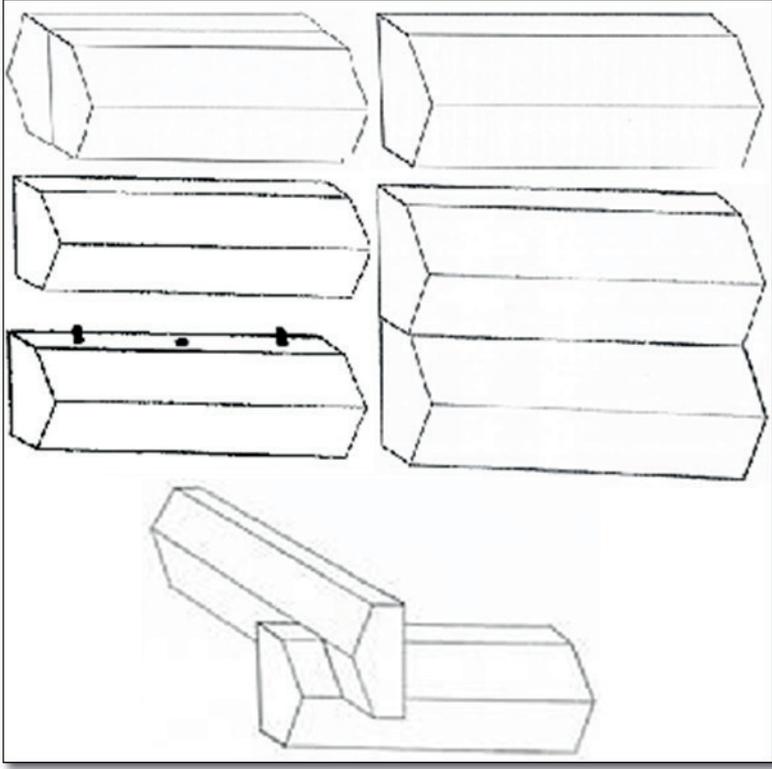


Figure 6. Wooden curtains connected to each other with wooden studs and with kurtboğazi technique in the corners. (Unscaled)

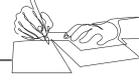
Other findings supporting the fact that the wooden construction culture had been existed in the area since old ages are seen in the excavation reports of Oymaağaç-Nerik mound in Vezirköprü region. In the Oymaağaç-Nerik mound, dating to the Chalcolithic Age, the existence of the wooden building architecture, which had used the clay similar to that of İkiztepe, has been determined.

Iron Age settlement Zindankaya in Vezirköprü region is considered as a settlement area with wooden temples which are thought to be existed in the region since Iron Age (Dönmez, Dönmez 2017: 214; Dönmez 2015). In addition to finds such as terracotta pots, architectural veneer sheets and roof tiles, it is also shown that wooden building remnants have been used in religious buildings since the Iron Age (Figure 7).



Figure 7. a) Wood and mud filled dwelling (Vezirköprü-Çorakdere) b) Log haystack (Vezirköprü-Susuz). c) Wooden dwelling (Vezirköprü-Kaplancık) d) Granary (Vezirköprü-Kaplancık).

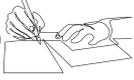
Another idea of how the wooden building culture develops in Samsun is that this culture has come to these lands with the Turks' migration to the region. Xenophon (4 BC) in his work *Anabasis* refers to the existence of *serenders* (a building similar to Spanish Horreo) similar to the wooden mosque structure in the Black Sea region. The information given by Xenophon points to the existence of houses constructed by stacking trees horizontally over in the Black Sea region. Demir (2004) claims that the outer walls of the wooden mosque structure resemble the formation of the walls of the serenders, and thus the source of this structure is the mother land of Turks, Central Asia just as in the case of serenders. According to the information in *Anabasis*, Ten Thousands met Massagetae who are a line of Scythians and lives in the east of Caspian Sea and registered as Turks in Byzantine sources claimed by Strabon as they went to west of Trabzon, between the cities of Ordu and Giresun. It is reported that Massagetae built serenders, wooden towers and wooden castles alongside wooden houses. Similar to this structure in which the base are made of stone and the walls formed by horizontal trees, is found in the Republic of Tuva, near Arzhan, as it appeared in the greatest monument of the Seyhan-Altay area dated to XI century. According to this view, many wooden tombs found between Ordu and Giresun resembles to the simplified form of the monument in Tuva Republic, the wooden mosques which is a structure form unique to Middle and East Black Sea Region are a result of re-designation of this architecture style and that Uyghurs and the Siberian Turks built their houses with same architectural style supports the fact that the tradition of wooden construction has moved from Central Asia to Anatolia with the Turks.



Undoubtedly the millennia old building culture has a significant influence on the history, number and distribution of the wooden mosques in the Samsun region. However, it is more logical to look for the cause of the tradition of wooden construction is the most common kind in the region as the abundance of wood as building material throughout the Black Sea region. It is thought that the very first samples of wooden mosques were revealed by applying the architectural tradition used in the construction of the houses and annexes to the religious structures in this region with the settlement of Samsun and its surroundings during the Seljuk period by Turks. Because the presence of wooden structures (4000 BC) in excavations at Bafra-İkiztepe and Oymağaç-Nerik Mound, the presence of wooden structures such as houses and annexes (grain barrel, straw) and wooden houses with similar architectural features still remain around these excavation areas. With the development of the local architectural technique of the mud-wood mixture technique in İkiztepe and Oymağaç-Nerik, the use of mud between the timbers in this construction technique has decreased over time and this reflected to wooden mosque, residence and granary as more developed architectural features. For this reason, this wooden structure style had been developed due to the flora features around Samsun and thus the source of this culture being a local culture of Samsun seems to be more valid rather than the culture had been developed as a consequence of migration.

Culture is also influential in the choice of the location of these mosques and the shaping of their surroundings as well as in the architectural characteristics of the wooden mosques. When the locations selected for construction of the Cuma Mosque in the region were examined, several common features of these places were observed. Among them, Göğçeli, Aşağısöğütlü, Şeyhhabıl, Kavakdere, Kocakavak, Karacalı, Çorakdere and Salur Mosques are the places where the mosques are located within the cemetery area. The second feature is that the building site is located in the middle of more than one neighborhood (Gül, Gültekin 2017). Lastly, the construction site is selected at the intersection of major roads.

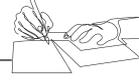
In many parts of the world, mythology have been influential in the location or the naming of the architectural structures and lands they had been told. Anatolia, with its historical and natural beauties as well as its mythological richness, carries the characteristics that impress the human-beings. In Samsun region, it is seen that many of the legends are effective in naming. The names of the thermal sources in Havza are "*Aslan Ağzı Kız Gözü*" (literally Lion's Mouth, Maiden Eye) and the name of the promenade area whose name is "*Geyikkoşan*" (literally where deer run) in Alaçam are the examples of the use of legends in naming places in the vicinity. It has been seen that legends are influential also in the selection and designation of the locations of wooden mosques in the area research and interviews conducted in the region. In naming process, the existence of similar myths and anecdotes are often found. Among them, many of the religious legendary figures such as the "*Aksakallı Dede*" (literally grandfather with white beard but replaces the wise old man figure in Turkish tradition) and the deer figure were influential in



the selection of the location of the wooden mosques and the naming of them. Inspired by these myths, especially in east of Samsun most of the mosques are located in the cemetery; it is thought that the name of Geyikçeli derived from "Göç Ehli" (literally People of Migration) legend or the name "Geyikçeli" given as a reference to "Aksakallı Dede and Geyik" legend changed with time and transformed to "Göğçeli". The presence of deer horns on the entrance gates of Sofular and Çamalan wooden mosques and existence of many wooden mosques with the same name in the districts such as Çarşamba and Salıpazarı in the region supports that fact.

Though they usually have a poor decorative feature, the effect of the natural environment and cultures on the decoration elements of Samsun wooden mosques is in the forefront. Göççeli and Şeyhhabıl, Çaltu, Bekdemir, Porsuk, Ekle, Gökgöl, Sofular, Ordu village, Yarımca, Döngel, Çamalan, Hamzalar, Gökçeli, Karaaslan and Şehitler Mosques are wooden mosques rich in decorations. Techniques such as engraving, relief and nailing along with local techniques *ajur*, *kündekâri* and *çitakâri* have been frequently applied in wood-working whereas embroidery made with madder had been used in ornamentation (Yılmaz, 2013). Geometrical lines which are the expression of the eternity principle which is an element of Turkish art of decoration have been used extensively. This decoration style was an important decoration element in Ottoman architecture and maintained this importance for centuries. Tree of Life (Kıbış, Yavaşbey, Elmalı, Dağdırlı Mosques), Wheel of Fortune (Aşağı Söğütlü, Yarımca, Orta and Karşidöngel and Kaplancık Mosques) geometric shapes (Aşağı Söğütlü and Muslubey Mosques) that are formed by past triangles and describing infinity, ewer and cauldron motifs symbolizing fertility (Sofular and Mehmet Efendi Mosques), flag and clan signs (Kemik Mosque) and astragalus (Gökgöl and Yeşilköy Mosques) motifs are seen. Flora-specific flower and plant species; hydrangea macrophylla (Dağdırlı Mosque), cupressus (Orta Mosque), rosa canina (Koşaca Mosque), paeonia officinalis (Bekdemir Mosque), quattuor folium trifolium (Ekleş and Hamzalar Mosques), matricaria chamomilla (Porsuk ve Gökgöl Mosques), hyacinthus orientalis (Bekdemir Mosque), nymphaea alba and papaver rhoeas (Porsuk Mosque) lonicera caprifolium, rhododendron ponticum, geranium kaya, curled branches and flower badges (Göççeli Mosque) are painted with madders in red, green, yellow and white colors bearing a more rural character (Figure 8). Another cultural reflection that affects the decoration element on the wooden mosques is the tulipa gerneirana motif that holds a special place in the Turkish-Islamic culture. In the vast majority of the knowledge of Hun art and in the findings of cairns dated to the 5th and 6th centuries BC the artifacts and accessories with intensive use of the tulip motif are found. Even Ayvazoğlu (Ayvazoğlu, 2001) claims that the tulip cult has come to Anatolia with the Turks. The Tulipa gerneirana figure is often seen in the Samsun region with many wooden mosques (Karaaslan, Bekdemir, Porsuk and Göççeli Mosques) reflecting the influence of Turkish culture on ornamentation.

Mühr-ü Süleyman (The Seal of Solomon) is a motif used in wood carvings decoration and *çitakâri* ornamentation. This motif was judged to be a sym-



bol of God's protection by the sense of God's sign with the desire to possess supernatural powers and force, and it was used as a symbol of decoration everywhere as needed (Yılmaz, 2013). Mühr-ü Süleyman, often used as an ornamental element by the Turks in pre-Islamic and Islamic periods that might be seen in Ordu Village, Kaplancık, Kuşhane, Aşağı Söğütlü Mosques and in the barn with wooden inscription that is exhibited in Ladik district center.

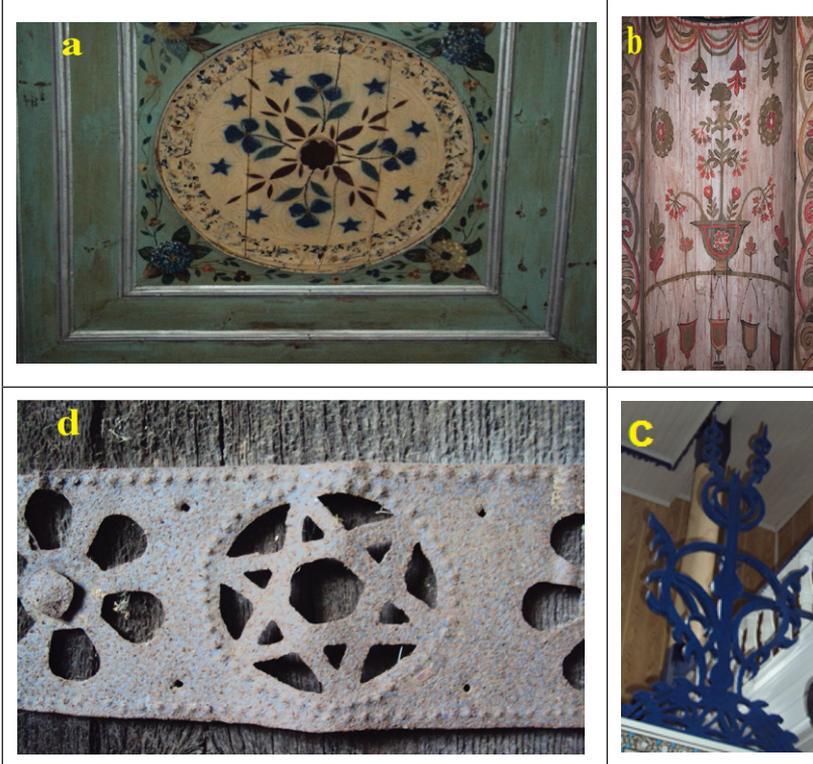


Figure 8. Decorative elements in wooden mosques; **a)** Clover figure painted with madder (Koşaca Mosque) **b)** Hyacinth motifs painted with madder (Bekdemir Mosque) **c)** Middle Asia Turkish decorative style double headed eagle figure (Salıpaazarı Gökçeli Mosque) **d)** Mühr-u Süleyman figure (Ordu Village Mosque)

One of the important factors that are effective in the construction and distribution of wooden mosques in Samsun region is the presence of rich forests. It became an obligation to use timber as a construction material in building religious structures as well as dwellings in rural neighbourhoods as a consequence of nearly half of the province's total land area is made up of forests. When Samsun vegetation map and the distribution maps of the wooden mosques are compared, the parallelism in the distribution of the two elements is clearly visible. Because the richest forest areas of Samsun province are located in Çarşamba, Alaçam, Kavak, and Vezirköprü districts. When the distribution map of the wooden mosques is examined, it is seen that these mosques concentrate on the rich lands of Samsun's eastern, west-

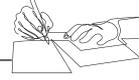


ern and south-western forests. In the northern and southern parts (Ladik, Havza) which are poor in terms of forest existence, the fewness of wooden mosques is remarkable.

Vegetation is a factor which is effective on the distribution of wooden mosques and also on the type of wood used for making wooden mosque and the dimensions of them. The most common (65 wooden mosque) tree species used as building material in the Samsun local wooden mosques is the quercus known as *pelit* by local people. The use of quercus as material in the construction of wooden mosques seems to be used in all the districts of Samsun except Vezirköprü. When the Samsun vegetation map is examined, it will be seen that the oak tree is the most widespread tree species in the province. The presence of this tree in almost every part of the province ensures the existence of wooden mosques made of quercus. Another factor that is effective in the use of quercus in the majority of wooden mosques is that the quercus is more durable than the other wood species. Other tree species used in the construction of the wooden mosques are; *castanea sativa* mill (14 wooden mosques), *pinus sylvestris* (9 wooden mosques), *abies nordmanniana* (2 wooden mosques) and *ulmus minor* (1 wooden mosque). In the area survey, it was observed that the number of wooden mosques built with oak timber in the east of the region is higher than the west. Another finding that shows the relationship between the use of the genus of the wood material used in the structures and vegetation is that *pinus* trees is used in highlands and the use of *quercus* trees in places near the shore as the building material in the region. Because the broad-leaved trees leave their place to coniferous forests due to the decrease in temperature values after a certain altitude.

One of the most remarkable facts about the building materials used in wooden mosques is that some kinds of woods are mixed with several kinds of trees instead of single kind tree. When these mosques are examined, it is seen that most of them are moved from their original construction site. In the process of relocation and re-establishment, some of the wooden frames on these glasses lose their characteristic because of decay or other reasons. Instead of these materials, which have lost their specialties, wood species found in the places where the mosques are to be newly established is installed in order to eliminate the deficiency. The most commonly used wood species in mosques made with mixed wood material are *quercus-castanea sativa* mill (9 wooden mosques), *pinus-quercus* (7 wooden mosques), *quercus-abies nordmanniana* (2 wooden mosques), *pinus-castanea sativa* mills (2 wooden mosques), *castanea sativa* mill-*quercus-ulmus minor* (1 wooden mosque), *carpinus betulus-quercus* (1 wooden mosque), *quercus-juglansregi* (1 wooden mosque).

Plant cover and wood species have a significant influence on the dimensions of wooden mosques. The dimensions of the wooden mosques are largely dependent on the length of the wood, which will form the walls of the sanctuary. It has been determined that the wooden frames used in the construction of tall tree species such as *pinus sylvestris* and *abies nordmanniana* are smaller in size than the wooden frames used in shorter trees such as



quercus and ulmus minor. However, the people of the region needed to make wooden mosques in larger sizes, which emerged with population increase; they had solved the problem by connecting wooden curtains of the sanctuary walls with the channels.

The local climate has a direct influence on the properties of wooden mosques such as window and door size, the length of the fringes and the roof cover. Wooden mosques are very poor in terms of windows. These windows are mostly protected by wooden shutters and cages. It is thought that preserving the strength of the wooden structure has an effect on the small size of the windows (Figure 9) because the connection between the wooden curtains is weakening as the window grows. It can also be said that let the heating be easy in the winter months is also effective in the small window sizes. It is noteworthy that the wooden doors that serve as an entrance to sanctuary are quite flattened. This kind of flattening of the doors is a feature that can be seen in many mosques and schools in forms of classroom cells and entrance doors. That might be explained as maintaining bending of a person in entrance to and exit from by a consequence of the necessity of having a certain respect for the entrance to the place of worship in the Islamic religion (Can, 2014; Bayraktar, 2005; Nefes, 2010).

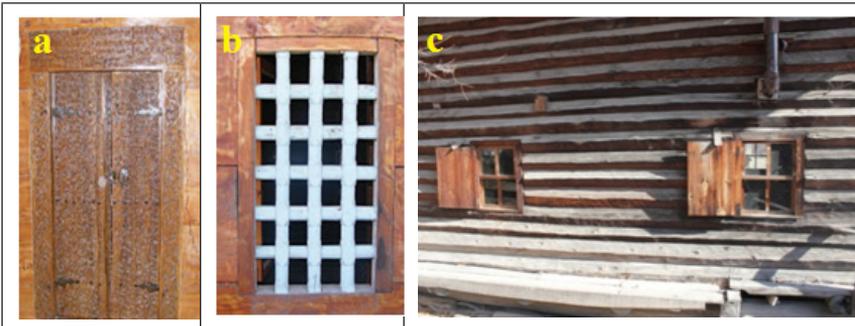


Figure 9. a-b) Kocakavak wooden mosque door and wooden spotted window. c) Çorakdere Mosque window and outer wall of sanctuary.

Most of the wooden mosques in Samsun have a simple ceiling system. The top of the wooden material, which is mostly in the form of inverted ceiling, is covered with *a la turca* roof tiles. However, it was understood that the first forms of these constructions were covered with wooden boards known as *hartamain* the region. Because in these structures there are still wooden thrones with grooves on the bottom of tiles or somewhere in the mosques. This finding is supported by the information obtained from the interviews.

Another element of wooden mosques which moist and rainy climatic conditions have an effect on is portico. In the majority of the Samsun wooden mosques, there are porticoes supported by *elibelindes* (a local construction form) to protect the wooden curtains from rainfall. In the mosques without portico, it is seen that fringes are widened. In this way, it was tried to prevent the walls of the wooden curtains from getting wet by raindrops and slets falling and being decayed. In order to protect the wooden mosques from the



torrential moisture and precipitation, some mosques were raised from the ground with wooden poles or large stones. When raised with wooden poles, they are protected from moisture by placing stones under the poles again.

Having a rugged topography in line with the climate and vegetation has been a major factor in the preference and distribution of wooden mosque construction. As seen in Figure 4, the region has a relatively rough topography. This topography leads to the use of this easy-to-carry and easy-to-construct technique.

Samsun local wooden mosques; the selection of the construction site, the plan, the type of tree used, the construction technique, usage, size and construction style is somewhat different from one another. In other words, it can be said that there is no exact standard in the construction of wooden mosques in Samsun region.

The majority of Samsun wooden mosques are built in small size, meticulously, modest and not too tall. After the determination of location where the mosque would be built, according to the slope characteristics of the area, the base where the mosque will be built is flattened according to the mosque plan. According to the slope of the land of almost all the wooden mosques in Samsun region, it is seen that the stretcher was placed on the big stones and raised to 50-100 cm above the ground. The mosque is placed on the stumps, which are called pillows. The ends of the wood are notched and joined together by a fitch beam technique. The logs used as pillows are preferred as the juniper, quercus, *pinus sylvestris* tree species because they are particularly durable and also depending on the tree species most commonly found in the area. In this application, the effects of humid climatic conditions and topography are clearly visible because this application has become a necessity against the deterioration and rotting caused by the accumulation of moisture or water in the wood material. In the field survey, it is seen that many of the mosques (Çaltu, Guided, Sekecek, Gümüşova, and Mecitli) were placed on stone walls built up to the water basement level due to decaying logs. Another benefit of these stones is that the mosques can be easily placed on the floor of the built-in area such as Çaltu, Karanar, Çorakdere, Tatarmuslu and Şeyhhabıl mosques. Larger stones are placed on the side where there is more slope, while smaller stones are placed on the side where there is less slope (Figure 10).

The descent of the Black Sea mountain ranges in the Central Black Sea region has made it possible to have a land structure that is more flat and less inclined than other coastal areas of the region. Again Samsun owns Turkey's two major delta plains (Çarşamba and Bafra) and this led to an increase of the settlement around these deltas. In these places where the slope values are extremely low, the groundwater level is also closer to the surface than the mountainous and plateau areas. In some rainy periods of the year, there are occasional floods in these areas. Due to this feature in the topography, the wooden mosques are higher than the ground where they are located near the shore and where the slope is low than the lands slope is high. Mosques are raised above by wooden pillars, stone walls or large stones in order to protect them from water and humidity.

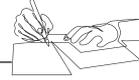
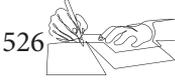


Figure 8. a) View of Çorakdere Mosque from southeast **b)** View of Salur Mosque from southeast

The descent of the Black Sea mountain ranges in the Central Black Sea region has made it possible to have a land structure that is more flat and less inclined than other coastal areas of the region. Again Samsun owns Turkey's two major delta plains (Çarşamba and Bafra) and this led to an increase of the settlement around these deltas. In these places where the slope values are extremely low, the groundwater level is also closer to the surface than the mountainous and plateau areas. In some rainy periods of the year, there are occasional floods in these areas. Due to this feature in the topography, the wooden mosques are higher than the ground where they are located near the shore and where the slope is low than the lands slope is high. Mosques are raised above by wooden pillars, stone walls or large stones in order to protect them from water and humidity.

Many of the wooden mosques in the present day had been moved to other places rather than where they were originally built. This transportation process, which is mostly due to natural causes, is also possible for human reasons such as selling the mosque to another village when the old one is not needed anymore because a new one had been built. Bekdemir, Karanar, Iğdir Village Ağanın Neighbourhood, Iğdir Village Kaluk Neighbourhood and Bengü Village Ambaryanı Mosques are examples of wooden mosques that had been moved and re-established. The wooden mosque in the Kılcanlı Neighbourhood of Ordu Village is a wooden mosque that has been relocated several times due to floods (natural causes).

As a result, Samsun province is notable as the place where the maximum number of wooden mosques exists in Turkey. In the distribution of wooden mosques that are one of the important elements of the rural architecture; historical and cultural structure, topography (slope, elevation and view), climate (precipitation and temperature), and the vegetation cover that develops depending on these last two are effective. Findings show that the tradition of making wooden structures around Samsun (İkiztepe, Nerik) is dated to 4000 BC. These structures which were found in the houses and annexes of the first examples changed architectural form with time. After the conquest of Samsun by the Turks, this wooden building tradition was applied to the religious construction (mosque) and the first examples of wooden mosques (1206) appeared.

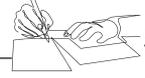


The forest property developed thanks to the moist climate characteristic of the region supports the use of wood as building material especially in rural areas and the increase in the number of wooden mosques. The distribution of the wooden mosque is paralleled by the density of the vegetation cover and the eastern part of the province where the vegetation cover is lush. It is thought that this cult started from the construction of the dwellings and that the wooden mosque tradition in Samsun and its surroundings became rich due to the fact that it is rich in vegetation covering a great extent. It is thought that other cultures in the region (grain barrel, haystack, etc.) Still, the wooden mosques that are concentrated in rural areas; have different architectural styles, plans, floors, materials and construction techniques.

Related to wooden mosques; climate, flora and topographical features of the region have been influential on many features such as size, plan, building material preference and site selection. In the preference of the tree species chosen as building material, the properties such as strength, durability and resistance to nausea are kept in the foreground. *Castanea sativa* mill, *quercus* (pelit), *ulmus minor* and some *pinus* varieties that gives the possibility to be processed as monolith thanks to their sizes have become the most widely used wooden building materials as Black Sea Region's rich flora extended the options. Wooden elements such as walnut tree which is more easily processed and madder in design have been preferred in these mosques which can be accepted as poor in terms of ornamentation. Motifs and shapes used in ornamentation with madder reflect the motifs of plants found in the region's flora. In the ornaments made by laths and wood carving, Allah and Muhammed wordings and crescent, star and various flower motifs are preferred. In the first examples of wooden mosques where there is a roof system depending on the climatic conditions, clues were found indicating that the roof was covered with wooden boards known as *hartama*. The information gained from the talks and channeled boards that still exist near many mosques support this. It is seen that the doors and windows are small in size no to deteriorate architectural feature of the wooden material and because of the effect of the climatic conditions and they are covered with wooden balustrades according to the wooden architectural tradition.

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