
Rasim Yilmaz
Mehmet Ali Icbay
Hasan Arslan

Research and Development on Social Sciences

IASSR

International Association of Social Science Research

Rasim Yilmaz
Department of Economics
Namik Kemal University, Turkey

Mehmet Ali Icbay
Department of Curriculum and Instruction
Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Turkey

Hasan Arslan
Department of Educational Administration
Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Turkey

ISBN: 978-83-948896-4-7

© E-BWN - Bialystok, Poland 2017

This work is subject to copyright. All rights are reserved by the Publisher, whether the whole or part of the material is concerned, specifically the rights of translation, reprinting, reuse of illustrations, recitation, broadcasting, reproduction on microfilms or in any other physical way, and transmission or information storage and retrieval, electronic adaptation, computer software, or by similar or dissimilar methodology now known or hereafter developed. Exempted from this legal reservation are brief excerpts in connection with reviews or scholarly analysis or material supplied specifically for the purpose of being entered and executed on a computer system, for exclusive use by the purchaser of the work. Duplication of this publication or parts thereof is permitted only under the provisions of the Copyright Law of the Publisher's location, in its current version, and permission for use must always be obtained from the Publisher. Violations are liable to prosecution under the respective Copyright Law. The use of general descriptive names, registered names, trademarks, service marks, etc. in this publication does not imply, even in the absence of a specific statement, that such names are exempt from the relevant protective laws and regulations and therefore free for general use. While the advice and information in this book are believed to be true and accurate at the date of publication, neither the authors nor the editors nor the publisher can accept any legal responsibility for any errors or omissions that may be made. The publisher makes no warranty, express or implied, with respect to the material contained herein.

This book is a publication of International Association of Social Science Research.

© 2012-2017 - <http://www.iasr.org>

Preface

Table of Contents

Arts and Language

Ayşenur Ceren Asmaz, Tolga Şenol

A Research on Stanislav Libensky's Pure-Geometric Glass Sculptures in the Context of Light and Color Usage..... 9

Habibe Demir

An Examination of Güngör Dilmen's Drama Named "Canlı Maymun Lokantası" in the Context of Expressionism 19

Sema Önal

The Importance of Philosophy in Linguistic Studies 29

Nur Gülümser İlker

Bohemian Lights and Severe Criticism against Reality 33

Murat Özdamar, Betül Bilge

The Interaction of the Design Studios with the Professional Life in Interior Architecture/Design 41

Gönül Reyhanoğlu

Sacredness of the Olive Tree For The Turkish Cypriots And The Ritual of Burning Olive Tree Leaves As Incensing To Be Protected From Evil Gaze 47

Çiğdem Sakici, Banu Bekci, Elif Ayan

Investigation Of Different Water Corridor Be Therapeutically 55

Murat Özdamar

Protecting During Re-Functioning in Interior Architecture: "Gazi Train Station" 61

Kazım Yıldırım

Atatürk's Management Philosophy 69

Neşide Yıldırım

Virginia Satir's Family Education And Therapy Model 75

Zühal Özcan, Mehmet Tunçer

Urban Archaeology and Preservation Solutions to Prevent Destruction of Roman Period Remains beneath Old Ankara (Ulus), Turkey 83

Abdullah Bakir

The Strategic Importance Of Apollonia/Sozopolis City In Byzantyne Period And Its Conquest By The Seljuqs 93

Behset Karaca

Being A Yoruk In The Ottoman State 103

Burcu Tekin

Evaluating the Women Image in Juan Valera's Works 113

<i>Mine Yazıcı</i>	
The Potentialities of Research in Translation Studies as Interdisciplinary	119
<i>Reşat Yıldız</i>	
A Search for a Translation Method for Proverbs and Idioms as Cultural Language Elements: The Cases of Russian and Turkish	125
Business and Management	
<i>Yeter Aytül Dağlı Ekmekçi</i>	
A Value Chain Approach to Turkish Sports Sector	133
<i>Betul Balıkcıoğlu</i>	
The Influence of Need for Uniqueness and Fashion Innovativeness & Opinion Leadership on Buying Impulsiveness and Impulse Purchase Behavior	141
<i>Yasemin Bozdağlıoğlu, Hatice Küçükkaya</i>	
Where are the Transition Economies in Income Inequality Path?	149
<i>Fatma Çakır, Mesut Çakır, Semih Solak</i>	
The Effect of Using Mascot on Products and Services to Remind the Brand	155
<i>Daghan Dogan, Senem Gol Beser</i>	
Classification and Comparison of Characteristics of Project Managers of a Government Research Center and Private Sector R&D Centers in Turkey	163
<i>Murat Esen, Gönül Kaya Özbağ</i>	
A Scientometric Overview Of Corporate Social Responsibility (Csr) (1975-2016)	179
<i>Umut Evlimoğlu, E. Yasemin Bozdağlıoğlu</i>	
With Evaluation of Performances of Selected Transition Economies Overall Transition Indicators .	191
<i>Severin Hornung, Denise M. Rousseau</i>	
Revisioning Evidence-based Management: Developing Propositions Towards Rapprochement of Concept and Criticism	201
<i>Yeliz İlgar</i>	
The Position Of Sports In Strategic Plans Of Local Governments	211
<i>Selçuk Kendirli, Fazlı Irmak, Emrah Şahin</i>	
Global Financial Crisis and Working Capital: A Research in BIST Production Sector about Performance	221
<i>Metin Reyhanoglu, Evren Kiran</i>	
The Relationship between Locus of Control and Organizational Cynicism in Term of Being Unionized	233
<i>Pınar Başar</i>	
The Effect of Organizational Justice on The Organizational Commitment	243
<i>Simay Kızılkaya</i>	
The Impact of Health Expenditures on Development: An Econometric Application on OECD Countries	261

<i>Durdu Mehmet Biçkes, Celal Yılmaz, Mustafa Karaca</i> The Effects of Knowledge Management Practices on Organizational Performance: Mediating Role of Organizational Social Capital	271
<i>Nuran H. Belet</i> Harmonization Of Work And Family Life And Its Impact On Women's Employment	281
<i>Serkan Akçay</i> Evaluation of The Advances of Information Technologies on Advanced Levels on The Organization of Government Accounting Audit in Turkey	289
<i>Umut Çil</i> Turkish Business System and Diversification	301
<i>Oya Zincir</i> A Conceptual Framework Suggestion Based On Quadruple Helix Model To Increase Open Innovation Practices In Turkey	313
International Relations and Politics	
<i>Olga Brusylovska</i> International Consequences of Russian-Ukrainian Conflict	323
<i>Baris Cagirkan, Gunal Bilek</i> A Cultural And An Ethnic Identity In Multicultural Societies: The Example Of Ahiska Turks	331
<i>Nedret Çağlar</i> Women's Representation In Turkish Political Life – A Study Into The Ways Of Nomination Of Political Parties For General Elections Of 2015	339
<i>Lucia Fortini</i> Rethinking Sociologically Global Conflicts	347
<i>Yücel Bozdağlıoğlu, Hikmet Mengüaslan</i> The Lonely Hegemon: the Rise and Fall of Turkey's Hegemonic Ambitions during AKP era.....	353
<i>Selda Çağlar</i> An Assessment on the Mobbing Decisions of the Republic of Turkey Ombudsman Institution	363
<i>A. Baran Dural</i> Portraits From The National Economic Policies Of The Union And Progress Party	373
Social Sciences	
<i>Rüştü Ilgar</i> Sustainable Ecotourism Possibilities in Çanakkale Area	383
<i>Gazi Kısa</i> Developing a Likert-type Scale for Measuring Women's Attitude toward Sexist Men	395

<i>Hatice Küçükkaya, Sedat Alataş</i> Quarter Of The World GDP: Inequality And Growth Analysis For Four Countries From Historical Perspective	403
<i>Dilek Eroglu, Esra Acar</i> Rural Theaters In Turkey And Women's Possitions	411
<i>Mensure Öztürk</i> Pınarhisar's of Ayan Proprietor Hadji Ali Agha The Bosphorus Minister	417
<i>Durmus Ummet, Halil Eksi, Yakup Ozkapu, Fusun Eksi</i> The Existential Concerns Questionnaire (ECQ): A Study of Validity and Reliability.....	423
<i>Augustine Oghanrandukun</i> Yorubic Osmosis: A primal African Civilisation in Osmotic Flow: The Yorubic Example	431
<i>Mehtap Araci Kazici</i> Older Workers in Working Life: An Assessment of the Factors Affecting Their Performances, Employment Situations and Attitude Towards Them	437
<i>Kamil Kaya, Semra (Yılmaz) Uz</i> The Sociological Analysis of the Tomb Visiting: The Case of Mawlana Tomb	445
<i>Gülcan Güzel, Meral Uzunöz</i> Gender Inequality in Turkey: A Regional Analysis	455

A Research on Stanislav Libensky's Pure-Geometric Glass Sculptures in the Context of Light and Color Usage

Ayşenur Ceren Asmaz, Tolga Şenol

1. Introduction

Glass is a material that has been used as an ornamental material in the lives of people, from its discovery to the European Industrial Revolution, and has become more accessible after the machinery coming with the Industrial Revolution. The earliest examples of natural glass are found in many sources dated to 3000 b.c., according to jeweler historian Jack Ogden, artificial glass is mainly made of developed in mid-2000 b.c. (Ogden 1992: 39). Glass, which has been used in many areas and has evolved its production techniques over time, has become a material for various production processes. It was realized with the Studio Glass Movement at the beginning of the 1960s that the glass, which became more easily accessible with the Industrial Revolution, emerged from the master apprentice relation and became a modern art object.

In addition to modern art, paintings and sculptures are created, and pure forms of art are created on glass. These are generally art objects in free or geometric form. For example, Harvey Littleton and Martin Lipofsky for glass artists producing freeform pure works, and Stanislav Libensky for artists producing pure geometric glass works.

Libensky, who is a painter first; began working with glass in 1937 and trained at Novy Bor and Zelezny Brod, avant-garde glass schools. In 1953, he began studying glass at Zelezny Brod, and from 1954 onwards, he started to work with Jaroslava Brychtová, who deals with glass casting, molding and carving (Corning Museum of Glass 2017). When the works of Libensky, who has been working with glass since 1937, are examined; the vasoler produced by simple glass techniques predominates. Generally, parts produced by hot glass blowing method are painted in place and painted in place by sandblasting or engraving. He started working with mold and casting techniques.

When the early works are examined, the artist also finds facial representations using his master and casting technique under the influence of his wife, Jaroslava Brychtová. Due to the transparency of the glass and the effect of light, the effect of these face depictions has a visual effect that can overcome the works produced from different materials of the same size and form. Among these works, "Head I" (a) 35.5cm high, is a effective glass sculpture but not too large.



Figure 1. 'Head I' (a),
(Designed 1957, Produced
1958)



Figure 2. 'Head I' (b), (Designed
1957, Produced 1958)



Figure 3. 'Der Kuss', (1958)

The other sculptures of the series were also produced by the mold as in Head I (a) (See Figure 1). With the help of color selection and technique, the clarity originating from the inner structure of the glass combines with the relief structure of the model and enhances the effect of the sculpture. The fact that the depicted human face has little detail and sharp lines brings with it clear, distinct shadows and balances the brightness caused by the permeability of the glass. In Figure 2 and 3, in contrast to Head I (a), which is the first part of the series, human face representation; it is located on the inner surface of the glass by a different molding technique, not as a relief to the glass surface. This form of production is accompanied by a smooth outer surface and light reflections, plus an inverted 3D effect caused by the reliefs on the inner surface. This presents both the light bursts on the surface as well as the light-shadow relationship resulting from the glass transparency. Having acquired a figurative approach in his works of this period, he gradually stepped away from the figurative effect by playing in production methods with time.



Figure 4. 'A Spherical Vase', (Designed 1970, Produced
1979)

After this serie, the artist, who produced similar sculptures with similar effects, confined the colors into the glass and at the same time he used clear images together. This process can be seen as a step towards moving the artist away from the narrative that can be called figurative, and turning only to produce the works of light and color inherent in the glass. As an example of this transition process; "A Spherical Vase", which he designed in 1970 and produced in 1979, can be shown. The color and vague image of the vase trapped in the glass is an example of the fact that Libensky's relationship with glass

has gone to a different dimension and has become increasingly pure, with the surrounding glass surrounding it (See Figure 4). The effect of this work, which is only 15 cm in diameter, is derived from a classical sphere with the effect of the technique used, helping to capture an pure effect by complementing the light and the color. At the same time, when viewed from certain angles, the image, which resembles a certain ambiguous vase, is successfully trapped in glass.

Following these and other experiments, Libensky produced more early, more pure and geometric designs, but did not start the production process.

2. Method

2.1. Aim

The aim of this study is to examine pure-geometric glass sculptures of glass artist Stanislav Libensky in light of the use of light and color.

2.2. Samples

The sample of this study is Stanislav Libensky's glass sculptural works.

2.3. Data Collection Tool

As the data collection tool of the study; artwork review and literature search methods were used.

3. Findings

Just as the artist's production history is in his nine-year-old 'A Spherical Vase', the 195 cm long "Five Parts" completed in 1973 and then the 120 cm long "Heart-Red Flower" glass sculptures designed in 1973, are signaled that Libensky and Brychtová are now starting to produce artifacts in more pure and higher dimensions.



Figure 5. 'Five Parts', (1973)

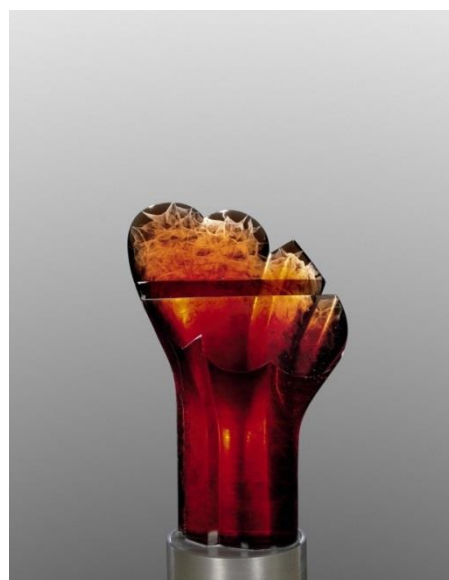


Figure 6. 'Heart-Red Flower', (Designed 1973, Produced 1976)

Artist in the glass sculpture named 'Five Parts' (See Picture 5); did not color the glass, but the unit was broken with the repulsion and increased the effect of reflections. This piece can also be seen as a signal that Libensky's sculptural dimensions will also grow. Contrary to previous works, the fact that there is not any name or form as a form of name supports the pure-geometrical characterization of the sculpture. Likewise, in the work 'Heart-Red Flower', which has a larger measure than the previous ones, the artist using small units cut out from the tip has used a gradated color transition to a change

of color usage (See Picture 6). In this case, while the effect of the light is perceived more heavily and intensely at the bottom of the sculpture, it creates a lighter and fragile light effect on the light colored area at the tip. The capillary vein structure inside the glass increases the angle of refraction of light and reflects more intricate texture on this side.

After these two works, the figurative influences in some places, even if they go beyond the abstraction/purification with the names of the works; until Libensky lost his life in 2002, he always produced bigger works with the influence of technology and experience. However, there are sculptures with locally repeats of units, and artifacts of light effect more often and as pure as possible, with a single color (and / or color with occasional degraded color with the effect of changing color with light). In addition, it has also been possible to produce many of the works that were designed earlier and sketched, after 80's, thanks to both personal and technical developments. An example of this is the sculpture 'Cylinder in the Sphere' which he designed in 1984 and which he could only produce in 1997 (See Figure 7).



Figure 7. 'Cylinder in the Sphere', (Designed 1984, Produced 1997)

In this sculpture, which the artist did not use color, he used a cylinder as a cylinder space close to the cone form. Also in this sculpture, which can be called pure-geometric, the glass structure and the effect of light are used from every angle with both permeability and smooth surface.



Figure 8. 'Free Through II', (Designed 1992, Produced 1997)

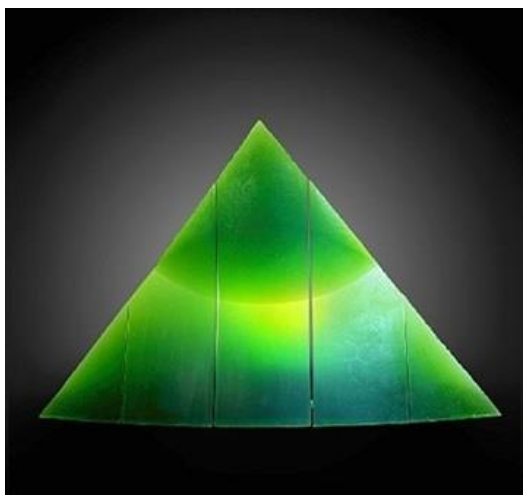


Figure 9. 'Green Eye of the Pyramid', (1993)

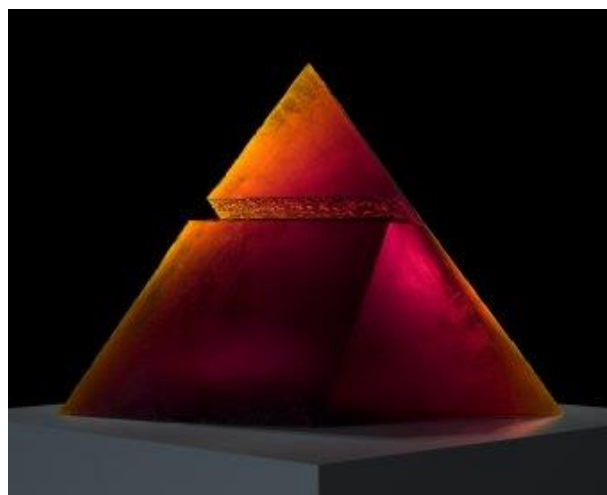


Figure 10. 'Red Pyramid', (1993)

In most of the sculptures he produced in the 90's, angular geometrical forms such as pyramids and cubes are encountered more frequently than the spherical forms he used in his previous sculptures. The use of color is generally the color shades used with single color and light effect (See Figure 8-9-10). In addition, there are artifacts on the outer or core surface of the spherical forms in forms where the artist has a chance to produce with the effect that he designed but wanted. The sculpture 'Sphere in Cube' (See Figure 11) is one of the best examples of this situation. 20 years after its design, the sculpture became a form, its own color was used, and spherical images were obtained thanks to the recesses opening in the middle parts of 5 square prisms. The unit recovers its own reflection and shadows by causing the light to break as in other examples.

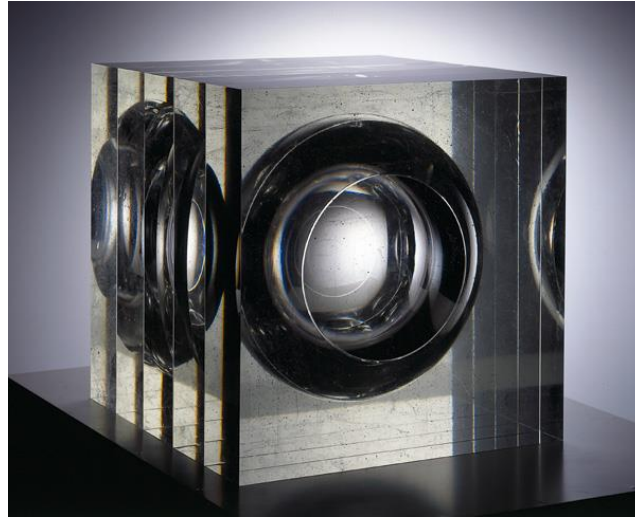


Figure 4. 'Sphere in Cube', (Designed 1970, Produced 1990)

Another one of the sculptures that have passed the design after much of their design; The sculpture is named 'Cube in Cube' (See Figure 12).



Figure 5. 'Cube in Cube', (Designed 1983, Produced 2002)

Although sometimes used without changing the natural color of the glass, the use of a single color and a light that will increase the effect of this color is indispensable in the works of Libensky (See Figures 13-14).



Figure 6. 'Horizon', (1992), (Left)- 'Methamorphosis V', (Designed 1994, Produced 2008), (Right)



Figure 7. 'Spectrum', (1996)

Although the sculptures produced by the artist in the middle of the 90's does not go beyond the pure-geometrical structure as a form, it directs the audience with the name given to his works, even if it is for a short period of time. 'Head T', 'Imprint of an Angel', 'Leaning' and 'Vestment' are examples of this direction (See Figures 15-16).



Figure 8. 'Head T', (1996), (Left)- 'Imprint of an Angel', (1999), (Right)

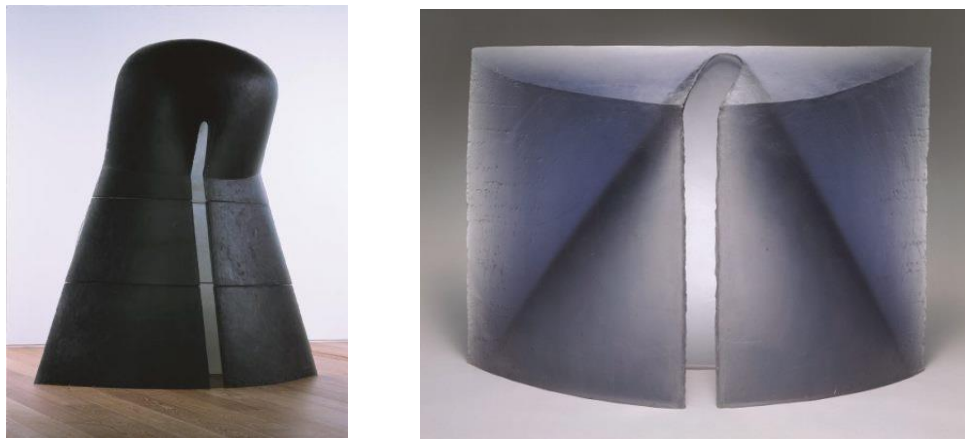


Figure 16. 'Leaning', (2000), (Left)- 'Vestment', (1996), (Right).

4. Discussion

The glass structure is a material that exists by means of light. Libensky, in the design and production process; it is obvious that it works by knowing and taking into account the importance of light and permeability as well as form-concept association. In particular, it is possible to see how light has been used with caution in post-1970 works and that it progresses to this light-permeability balance until the end of form investigations. In the works of the artist; "Glass itself is considered to be a direct space existence, not only as a part of the mechanism but as independent, singular shaping, especially with its values such as transparency, reflection, light-shadow effects, enlargement, distortion (flawed image), fluidity" (Atalayer 2008:23-24). In this context, these forms that integrate with the viewer and space, become an entity on their own and do not need narration, can be described as pure-geometric sculptures. Libensky's saying, "Glass is light for me, light is not easy to capture and imagine. You can not determine where to start and where to start. The light exists within a certain inner void" (Kehlmann 2002) which also supports this argument.

Faruk Atalayer tells about glass and the individual perception of glassware; "Radiance spots, reflections, strips formed on the glass; (disabling) the 'glucose' processes in the neuron cells, creating direct identification. This relationship is the reality of an object with glassware, which is grasped by the emotional dimension regardless of the state of consciousness" (Atalayer 2008). At this point, it is necessary to discuss the works of Libensky and its influence on the audience. Post-1970 works such as

A Research on Stanislav Libensky's Pure-Geometric Glass Sculptures

Cylinder in the Sphere, Cube in Cube, Horizon, Metamorphosis V, Spectrum have a monochrome color scale. This means that the light is only broken by one color, the color absorption in the light darkness increases and the light gets more transparency in the open parts. Color and transparency of the glass create an pure perception in the color viewer. At the same time, the geometrical structures and intersection points of the forms give the impression of almost the air, which is not piled up by the influence of the light, by disturbing the mass of the sculptures, their specific weight.

A similar effect can also be seen in 'Meteor, Flower, Bird' (1980) and 'Relations' (2001). Contrary to their volume in space, they are presented with a curtain effect viewer, which is composed of reflections of light and reflections rather than the density and mass of the masses (See Figures 17-18-19). Mustafa Agatekin said that for the works of Libensky; "Libensky transforms the way he holds the light sculptures into a labyrinth of stunned negative-positive reliefs on the surface. Sometimes, with the large smooth surfaces it creates in the sculptures, the light has created an effect that would dissolve the spatial space and make it disappear" (Ağatekin 2008:8). In this connection, it is a general judgment that Libensky's sculptures can not be considered independent of the light. Compared to the early works of the artist, an explanatory attitude forms concrete examples of pure-geometric art by combining with light and permeability, which are mostly in geometrical forms. Although he produced some sculptures such as 'Leaning' and 'Vestment' which direct the audience with the names of the works (See Figure 18); the overall stance did not go far beyond this concept. Therefore; it can be said that Libensky has an pure-geometric sub-structure even in the early period of his design process.

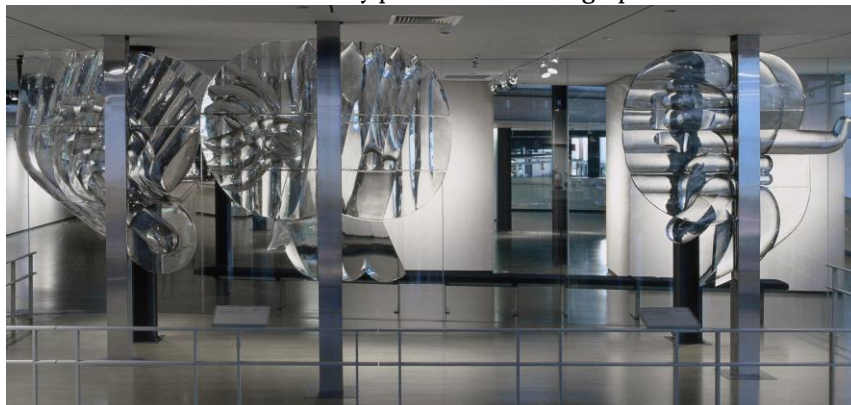


Figure 9. 'Meteor, Flower, Bird, (Designed 1978, Produced 1980)



Figure 10. 'Meteor, Flower, Bird, (Designed 1978, Produced 1980)



Figure 19. 'Relations', (2001)

Stanislav Libensky, who is one of the leading figures in the field of glass sculpture and who contributes to the participation of glass in plastic arts through continuous development of production processes; he lost his life in 2002, but the influence of geometric glass sculptures that meet with his pure attitude that it is only the meaninglessness of creating objects of glass left behind and the facts are concepts and concepts continues to be influenced by many artists and audiences.

5. References

- Ağatekin, Mustafa. «Cam Sanatında Işık Etkileri ve Stanislav Libensky'nin Çalışmaları.» *Anadolu Sanat Dergisi* 19 (2008): 7-10.
- Atalayer, Faruk. «Cam Gizeminin Kavramsal Değerleri.» *Anadolu Sanat Dergisi* 19 (2008): 21-28.
- Corning Museum of Glass. *Jaroslava Brychtová and Stanislav Libenský*. Mayıs 2017.
- Kehlmann, Robert. *The Inner Light Sculpture by Stanislav Libensky and Jaroslava Brychtova*. 2002.
- Ogden, Jack. *Ancient Jewellery*. Londra, 1992.

An Examination of Güngör Dilmen's Drama Named "Canlı Maymun Lokantası" in the Context of Expressionism

Habibe Demir

1. Introduction

Canlı Maymun Lokantası was penned by Güngör Dilmen in 1963 and was grandstanded by Engin Cezzar (Caner, 1975). This drama which is in the 1960s Turkish theatre generation takes place in the category of "social disorder, economic insecurity and created moral collapse by it, their negative effects on the family, colonization, exploitation" subjected dramas that are written in the context of "social plays in the city-level" (And, 1983). Özdemir Nutku defines *Canlı Maymun Lokantası* as a drama that creates a contrast between the West and the East, mysticism and capitalism, presence and absence, sensibility and dryness in the personality of "a human brain eating American oil king and a Chinese poet who sells his own brain" (Nutku, 1972, p. 779).

There are many concurrences between the fiction, stage layout, dialogues and social criticism of *Canlı Maymun Lokantası* and the characteristics of expressionism. Thus, before discussing these points, it would be useful to provide information about expressionism.

Expressionism which was occurred at the end of the 19th century as a period of time, as Yvan Goll states, "affected everything like an epidemic in the intellectual space, it was born as a world perception and production concept directing not only poetry and art, also prose, architecture, theater, music, science, university and school reform" (Richard, 1999, p. 7).

Expressionism which was emerged as a form of expression more than being a movement is a generated reaction to regain the human who was deadened and dehumanized by the industrial revolution and to be a spokesperson for those people.

"Expression" is a term of French origin and includes the meanings of "statement, style, wording" (Berk & Bozdémir, 2009, p. 7). Although there are many variety of determinations about when this term was used for the first time (see Richard, 1999, p.7-8), general usage statement of this term is "artists' reflection the depth of their own" (Richard, 1999, p. 9).

To be able to understand the term of Expressionism better, it should be evaluated together with the social conditions of the period. Between the years 1890-1915, especially in Germany and France, significant progresses in terms of industry and science were recorded and important changes like quantum, relativity, psychoanalysis, the invention and development of x-rays were occurred. In this period which is described as "Industrial Revolution," major changes were seen in lifestyle with the change of the mode of production. By the establishment of factories, cities were become crowded by migration. The people who maintained their life based on agricultural production, migrated to the center of cities by leaving their homes and fields behind them. While long hours of works, unhealthy working conditions, darkness, noise, inadequate salaries were shaping people's life in the factories which were the home of the industrial revolution, modern urban life was founded in this period. Beside the heavy and unhealthy working conditions, concepts such as "being rich, labor" gained importance and consumption society became a life style. Hasan Bülent Kahraman explains the development of the expressionism which wants to be a spokesman of "new man" emerging in such an environment as follows:

"The begining of XX. century constitutes a period when the value judgment of bourgeois society were come up for discussion, bourgeois culture and the subconscious were resolved, changes occurring in industry and science with objective truth were even tested. The early years of expressionism which were occurred after two major tests that were improved by Einstein on substance and Freud on awareness which shook human consciousness extensively and still have a widely intense today, can not be explained as a coincidence" (Kahraman, 2002, p. 137).

Meanwhile “a peaceful, blissful, delightful” life that Impressionists described was like “a rosy picture, the brutal fact was difficult living conditions because of “poverty, imperialism, capitalism and bourgeois regime and war.” The emergence of “employers and workers” class with the Industrial Revolution caused the biggest competition in the way of economic gains, exploitation of workers, the huge gap between profits. As Gombrich says:

“For the expressionists felt so strongly about human suffering, poverty, violence and passion, that they were inclined to think that the insistence on harmony and beauty in art was only born out of a refusal to be honest. (...) They wanted to face the stark facts of our existence, and to express their compassion for the disinherited and the ugly. It became almost a point of honour with them to avoid anything which smelt of prettiness and polish, and to shock the 'bourgeois' out of his real or imagined complacency” (Gombrich, 1953, p. 427).

The things triggered expressionists were dominated political structure, industrial bourgeoisie, the class differences in society, worries about the future, prominent consumer values and concern of it and also “ownership” concept emerging as a result of the industry and the industry's rapid development in the community (Keküllüoğlu, 2010). How the Expressionists “refused the industrial community's vulgar world which revealed artificial construction,” they also rejected Impressionist art and literature which presents external surfaces that are flashy but lack of essence and hide the evils of society that feeds them (Sheppard, 1998). Expressionists were also strongly opposed to the naturalism which was dependent on all kinds of concrete reality by avoiding commenting (Richard, 1999).

The common point of all expressionist representatives was to be opposed to nineteenth century bourgeoisie, the positivistic thought in psychology and physical science, the materialist philosophy in a hard way; and to be vilified to capitalism, the industrial revolution, bourgeois morality and they denied to the world they lived in. Like expressionists, also Güngör Dilmen denies “the colonial and exploitation order” between East and West and he criticizes them.

2. *Canlı Maymun Lokantası* in the Light of Expressionism

In *Canlı Maymun Lokantası* living monkey brains serving restaurant for private customers in Hong Kong is selected as a place. Mr. and Mrs. Jonathan are a rich couple who travel different countries for their honeymoon. They aim to spend their honeymoon in the most perfect way and try to test the changes in everywhere they go. When they come to Hong Kong, they hear that there are living monkey brains serving restaurants and want to try it, too. After going to the restaurant, American couple order for living monkey brain and at that time they meet Chinese poet named Mr. Wong and Chinese hunter Çoo who wants to catch everything escaping. Çoo captures the monkey that is ordered by Mr. and Mrs. Jonathan. Mademoiselle Lülü is another person in the restaurant and she comes there everyday to watch monkeys when they are eaten, because she hates them. After “monkey food” escapes from restaurant, Mr. Wong who has financial difficulties, offers to sell his brain to American couple. Mr. Wong goes to post office to credit the cheque with vast sum of money to his wife and children, after he returns, the stage ends in the meantime his brain is going to be eaten.

Canlı Maymun Lokantası incorporates many aspects of the Expressionist theater. It will be useful to sort these features by titles with the characteristics of Expressionist theater.

2.1. Horror scene: Eaten Alive Brains

Expressionist writers express their reaction to the horrors of war by “demonstrating the anarchist case of the world” with such as terrifying and violent scenes like “bloodshed, killing, burying alive, suicide, torture (Şener, 1998). At *Canlı Maymun Lokantası*, Güngör Dilmen expresses his criticism of the system he reacts, by “eating alive monkey/human brain” scenes. However, “completely destroying the existing world order and starting all over again” reformer feature of the expressionist movement (Şener, 1998) can not be seen in this drama.

2.2. Language and Style of *Canlı Maymun Lokantası*

“A style like telegram, exclamations and ‘explosive’ short sentences” create expressionist style. In this style, exaggerated metaphysical meanings of words and indiscriminate syntax are used; the meanings

An Examination of Güngör Dilmen's Drama Named "Canlı Maymun Lokantası"

of symbols are deliberately left vague, they are made understandable only for the people who have comprehensive knowledge of that subject (Wolf, 2005). This "enthusiastic, predator/shaker" style of expressionism can also be seen in *Canlı Maymun Lokantası*. Cynical/critical irony dominating in the drama were interpreted by different reviewers in different time periods and places. Yücel Pazarkaya who translated this drama in German and staged it at the the University of Stuttgart theater in 1965, explicates that the drama got many reactions from German reviewers because of ideological structure of that time, the West/East perception and political relations between Germany and America and their describing the drama as "a cheap anti-American inclined text" (Pazarkaya, 2010). In 1998, after thirty three years when the drama was staged by Wupper Theater in Germany for the second time, aesthetic dimension of the drama was prioritized and it was subjected to more objective assessments. Besides, the author's position in drama was perceived in different ways by some critics. For example, İnci Caner (1975) and Fatma Keçeli (2010) express that "Güngör Dilmen holds the side of the East which is oppressed by the Western capitalism." As Yvan Goll says, "expressionism is the literature of revolution and war, resisting intellectual to strong, conscience's rebellion against obedience blindly, heart's cry for genocide storm and silence of oppresseds" (Richard, 1999, p. 20). If *Canlı Maymun Lokantası* is considered in this context and the cynical irony and dramatic style of the drama are read with a careful eye, it can be observed that Güngör Dilmen criticises the both sides – East and West – in the fiction. Just as the Expressionists "want to suprise the human world, remove the numbness of people and make people become aware of the danger and the uncertainty of the future" (Richard, 1999); in this drama, Güngör Dilmen also subjects to severe criticism against as well as imperialism of the West and the East which remains silent in the fact of imperialism and accepts exploitation and even tries to profit from it by a terrifying plot and symbolic characters.

In Expressionist theater, logical connection of the stages and events, the normal flow of speech are broken. In *Canlı Maymun Lokantası*, entwined dialogs, irregular and illogical speech system take part:

"Waiter: Mademoiselle Lülü hate monkeys.

Mademoiselle Lülü: Today I have a feeling saying that you would get rid of, my honey.

Mr. Wong: The things I've seen last can withstand for forty years, perhaps even a hundred years.

Mr. Jonathan: Does she hate?

Mademoiselle Lülü: How ever Hong Kong has changed, is it runnig out of the woods, isn't it?

Çoo: And how hatred.

Waiter: Yes she hates it. She comes to see monkeys whose brains are eaten to our restaurant.

Mrs. Jonathan: What does she want from monkeys?

Mr. Jonathan: It's not an understandable thing.

Çoo: Yes, she hates it, and how.

Mademoiselle Lülü: How do you feel yourself now?

Mr. Wong: It has calmed down a bit, but it may start again...

Mademoiselle Lülü: Your forehead is all in sweat, your face is pale. (...) If we can get way. Today I better understand essentiality of returning.

Mr. Wong: It can withstand even a hundred years, but ahhh.

Mademoiselle Lülü: Is something wrong?

Mr. Wong: No no...

Mademoiselle Lülü: I saw the new kids on the streets.

Mr. Jonathan: We have not seen anyone who hates monkeys.

Mrs. Jonathan: Happily we are in Hong Kong.

Mr. Jonathan: I told you my darling, you got angry bootlessly, we will also write Mademoiselle Lülü to our memory book. Can we meet with her?" (Dilmen, 1964, p. 22–23)

As it is seen from the above quotation, everyone continues to talk on their own interests, people are strangers to each other in the same place even they wonder each other. Wong and Miss Lülü's speech

takes on a task of a “material of memory” for American couple to be saved in the memory book. They are not interested in suffering Wong.

In Expressionist theater, contrasts are utilized in image and meaning; real with fantasy, supernal with wildness of the world, brief description with long monologues, prose with poetry take place side by side; conflicting elements are replaced often with each other (Şener, 1998). In *Canlı Maymun Lokantası*, sometimes short sentences, sometimes long monologues and sometimes poetic expression are observed; characters and dialogues are positioned opposing each other. The words of narration and dialogues that are used in the drama text, facilitate the revival of visual fiction in mind; drama “plays” in the reader’s mind. Repeated words, short sentences, striking expressions make easier to portray the stage and increase the tension. For example, the monkey’s escape scene is depicted vividly:

“Mrs. Jonathan: Oops, it ran away.

Çoo: Hah, hah, hah, ha it’s fleeing, it’s fleeing.

Mr. Jonathan: Capture, hold.

Waiter: Cut it’s front, it can’t escape, hold, hold...

Mrs. Jonathan: Oops, come Çoo, I’m going to faint...

Waiter: Dash it, it escaped. Run into the street. Run Çoo...

Mr. Jonathan: Grab it hold, it ran away.

Çoo: How did it run away? Who did cause to escape?

Mrs. Jonathan: It suddenly jumped and rushed out from the cage.

Waiter: Also it bit barber’s hand.

Mrs. Jonathan: Oh it bit barber’s hand.

Mademoiselle Lülü: I tell you to catch it, catch it, it ran, oh ran...

Mrs. Jonathan: Oh, huh, huh, see how it goes, by leaping.

Mrs. Jonathan: Where did it run away from?

Waiter: From the window, from the window. Look, how it is confounding the street.

Mademoiselle Lülü: Shame shame, it is a disaster, it escaped, it escaped Wong, monkey escaped.

Mr. Jonathan: Oh, see how it goes? Oh, it blew the man’s hat. Aaa, it made three people tumbled down together... But what an escape it is” (Dilmen, 1964, p. 27).

2.2.1. The Existence of Dream with Reality in the Fiction

Expressionist theater artist stays away from the logical structure of the drama for articulating the crisis in his inner world which is caused by community problems of era and makes an editing which emancipates to make frequent relocation among the fantasy and reality (Şener, 1998). Also in *Canlı Maymun Lokantası*, it is seen that reality and dream take place together, sometimes one replaces the other, and sometimes the boundaries between dream and reality are eliminated. Before capturing the monkeys Çoo’s lying “in the trees for monkey dream” (Dilmen, 1964, p. 19), again Çoo’s narration of how he is chased by the animals he caught in his dream by a realistic plane (Dilmen, 1964, p. 18), intermingling of dream and reality in the action of capturing monkey are the examples of this:

“Çoo: It is all about to be able to overlap the reality and dreams, well in my dreams monkeys are chasing me, just when I’m about to catch them, I jump and catch one of them in the reality. So I jump into reality from the dream. When I’m caught in dream, in reality I catch” (Dilmen, 1964, p. 19).

In Expressionist drama, dream, image, fairy-tale world and concrete reality are inseparable, they create a game world that is an extremely complex and only take place in the life of the people doing an act (Çalışlar, 1993). It is totally incomprehensible whether the killing old man incident is true or not in Çoo’s capturing the “zonk zonk” insect story. After taking money from Mr. Jonathan, Çoo again “lies for a dream” for catching Mr. Wong. Çoo establishes a game world founded on dreaming for being a catcher. In the drama, dreaming people is Easterner characters. Mr Wong is also a dreamer, he dreams when he is awake and for this reason he can not even look after his children (Dilmen, 1964). Even as Mr. Wong is suffering from this situation that he can not resist falling into a dream (Dilmen, 1964).

Chinese poet Wong says that "his brain turned into a dragon spraying dreams" before presenting his brain to American couple and he tells the story of exploitation of the East (Dilmen, 1964) like a dream by a symbolic and poetic language.

2.3. The Representation of the Characters in *Canlı Maymun Lokantası* and Expressionist Drama

In Expressionist theater, the characters are reduced to symbolic types, the author's thoughts come to the forefront, thesis of the drama is expressed with bold and efficient lines and the plot of the drama is organized with regard to declaration that the drama wants to offer (Şener, 1998). In *Canlı Maymun Lokantası*, the contrast of the Eastern and the Western fronts is drawn correspondingly with Expressionism's exaggerated and stunning style. In the drama, the "Oriental" restaurant which draws an "otherworldly/mystical landscape" with its paper Chinese lanterns with their sweet light hanging from the ceiling which host "exotic East ambiance", carved small instrument box airing lovely Chinese melody (Dilmen, 1964) and a hole which is in the middle of the bold and bare table showing the contrast with the slim and elegant things and is big enough to fit into a head, represent the "colonial head" which pierces the idiocratical structure of the East and distorts the ambiance of it.

In Expressionist theater, there are only flat characters with their typical few lines. These flat characters symbolize the individual or social feature in concern with the view that is desired to be transmitted, they are abstract and cognitive types (Şener, 1998). American Jonathan couple represent the face of the West which colonises the East all the way and Mademoiselle Lülü represents the side of West who hates and despises the people of the East. Chinese monkey catcher and Chinese waiter represent the part of the East who is reckless of being exploited and even tries to profit from it. Besides that, Mr. Wong symbolizes the side of the East who feels "the pain of being exploited" but in case remains passive. As being the protagonist of the drama, Mr. Wong becomes the victim of "the devotion of material value and the evil" like in Expressionist theater.

Characters in every respect reflect the East-West mentality and "other" perception at the plane of contrasts successfully. At the beginning of the drama, when Mrs. Jonathan who accepted to eat Mr. Wong's brain, saw Chinese poet for the first time, her consideration was in the direction of "Mr. Wong's looks were like he was going to eat them" (Dilmen, 1964). So it is a good example of this situation. Another example of "spirituality-materialism" conflict is laughs and talkings of Mr. and Mrs. Jonathan who think "Easterners were unique to descend into the depth of the spirit" about "biting the monkey before it bites them" (Dilmen, 1964).

The East is represented by emotion and feeling and the West is represented by a "materialist" thought which is free from feeling: Mr. Jonathan warns his wife when she "pities their food monkey when it is eating its last banana": "It is necessary to be realistic." The excitement of eating living monkey is for American newly-wed couple's "happiness" (Dilmen, 1964). Even though Mr. Wong's darling Mademoiselle Lülü is upset at first for Chinese poet who is going to be eaten, after he is placed under the table, she conceives him like a monkey and hates him. Thus Miss Lülü fulfills the Dilmen's duty of criticisms against the "stony and callous West."

As a symbolic meaning, Mr. and Mrs. Jonathan and Mademoiselle Lülü who hate their colonies "East" and are happy from "eating" it, are accepted as a "restaurant's polite customers" by Chinese waiter (Dilmen, 1964). So that it is an critical irony against "East's acceptance of exploitation as a fate." What is more, despite Wong's offering his brain as a food to American couple is a spooky and scary offer, his Chinese friends do not find it strange, on the contrary waiter and Çoo drive a hard bargain for Wong's brain not to "be sold cheaply" and give suggestions to Mr. Wong in this way. After all, Mr. Jonathan, "is the king of oil" (Dilmen, 1964, p. 32). Even waiter's enthusiastically detailed depiction of how Wong's brain was going to bleed when it was open, carries the tragic dimension of the regardlessness to the highest level:

Waiter: So, of course, does Mr. Wong mail the cheque in vain, of course it will bleed a little, but it will be more blood after, it will be widely open. Brain will emerge by its lobe; slightly smoky, warm, the blood will splash down from his two temples, do not worry Mrs. Jonathan..." (Dilmen, 1964, p. 44)

Mr. Wong who wants to escape for a moment is captured firstly by Çoo and Chinese waiter. Also the people who tie Mr Wong coldly like an animal to be sacrificed by ignoring his fear of death, cover his mouth to shut him up with a stopper, blame him for his moaning against death, make jokes with laughs about Wong's brain's position before it is eaten (Dilmen, 1964) are these Chinese waiter and Çoo. Thus, as well as accepting to be exploited, also the "benefit effort" from exploiters is criticized by Dilmen.

Mr. Jonathan's emulating Chinese monkey hunter Çoo initially like a monkey that they are going to eat (Dilmen, 1964), and his calling Çoo with an –American name – "Joe" are the examples how the West evaluate the East – seeing "the other" nonhuman, not accepting their cultural characteristics and desires for assimilating them – as a metaphorical expression. The answer of a Westerner becomes sharp against a self-defense of an Easterner. The negations for the Orientals are done by generalising. While American couple try to confirm whether the table is clean or not, over the Chinese waiter's answer toward that he cleaned the table in front of their eyes and appealing them by a false name, the Chinese waiter is branded to "be rude" and then generalized: "All Chinese are rude" (Dilmen, 1964, p. 26).

The more tragic/ironic situation is, the marginalization of the two side of the Western who are in the same situation by each other, –and also by marginalizing, humiliating the East at the same time– and by overlooking their wrong, mercilessly critising the other part. Eagerly waiting American couple for eating alive monkey brain, mercilessly criticize Mademoiselle Lülü who hates monkeys and loves to watch them eaten alive; even though she is an European and not a "torture-loving Chinese," her situation is "a perverted pleasure," and mademoiselle is an "degenerate type" for Mr. and Mrs. Jonathan. Likewise, despite American couple command Mademoiselle Lülü that "people should love each other and it is hard to live with the emotion of hate", recommend her not to hate monkeys and to think that all creatures should be free, over American couple's enthusiasm of alive monkey food is remained half, they label the monkey as a "dirty, treacherous animal". So that this situation is an example of the continuation of irony.

2.4. The Criticisms Against the East and the West

In Güngör Dilmen's dramas, author's "infinite faith in the mind" is often voiced by the drama characters (Keçeci, 2010). On the one hand Dilmen pursues the rational, on the other hand, he criticizes the the inequalities it generates. In *Canlı Maymun Lokantası*, the gray sponge "in the form of a huge brain" that is used by the waiter while cleaning uneaten of the table that is used for eating monkey is significant in this regard. When considering Mr. Wong who offers his own brain instead of fleeing monkey, how the Expressionist theater "wants to protest the numbness caused by the fatalistic notion" (Richard, 1999, p. 162), Güngör Dilmen underlines one of the most important criterion of "people should predestinate on their own" in his dramas (Yüksel, 2010). Accordingly, it can be said as a review that Dilmen desires to make the readers/audience understand his criticism in the direction of "East can not use it's mind correctly in the face of Western imperialism" by metaphorical expression.

Mr. Wong knows the suffering of exploited people but remains passive in the face of this situation. Mr. Wong who is the symbol of "being incapable of using the mind" and on the contrary falls into dreams, "grieves like looking into a deep abyss" to the hole in the middle of the monkey table (Dilmen, 1964). Despite the suspicion of Wong caused to escape the monkey American couple was going to eat, by his quatrain "The monkey between cage/I dislocated the latch/Monkey rushed, escaped/It's mourning was with me" (Dilmen, 1964, p. 34), eventually he succumbs to Western capitalism as symbolic. This Chinese poet who is incapable of looking after his children and family only sad for them but has love with an elderly European woman, proposes his "soulful and thoughtful brain" for being a food like a monkey brain, in order to be an income to his family, so his passivity would be turned into an "action" ironically. Because against the exploitation, he can not do more than selling himself to the exploiter. Also he wants to get rid of his brain that shouts out the pain of the East by "screaming" (Dilmen, 1964), the cure for desperation is the death of his brain. Wong's symbolic freedom would come after when the sponge which was going to erase his brain's blood and "would be thrown into the sea's purple abyss and then the blood and pus would be cleaned by the deep waters of the ocean" after Wong's death (Dilmen, 1964).

An Examination of Güngör Dilmen's Drama Named "Canlı Maymun Lokantası"

One of the concerns of the comparison of the East and the West is technological developments. The Chinese who catches grasshoppers and "puts them into a cage and sounds them," is from a nation that "has an ability to make sounds from insects hardly and more spirituality than Western people but technically falls behind them".

While American couple are talking in their own, they indicate that once upon a time Chinese invented the "compass" but the West has advanced technology to go to "the stars."

"Mrs. Jonathan: Chinese used to have a lot of technique did not they?"

Mr. Jonathan: Yes, they used to have, even they had invented the compass.

Mrs. Jonathan: But we're going to the stars" (Dilmen, 1964, p. 20).

East's "old technology" and their inability to supply the needs of the day's developments on their own are mentioned in a sarcastic manner by American couple. The umbrella in Mademoiselle Lülü's hand with its spilled and interwoven pictures is a detail that shows the lack of production quality of the East. As can be seen from these examples, it can be said that Güngör Dilmen criticises the East about "not to use the mind as needed." In addition to this, Mr. Wong who is "the representative of the East that is in difficulties" is consoled and commanded for acceptance of fate and is told to grin and bear it by an Eastern again: "Waiter: Do not mind him Mister, such cases comes to Mr. Wong. He is a poet, after has a lot of family troubles... / Çoo: (By tranquilizing Mr. Wong) Never mind Wong, you're one of us, don't care, grit your teeth a little bit. " (Dilmen, 1964, p. 20).

The dream of the West is the reality. As well as Mr. Jonathan says, dream and idea are together, "earth has pitch-black dreams" and, a financial reality is born from this dream; "petrol" (Dilmen, 1964). "Earth thinks in the West's head," by the thought pains "West sweats petrol" (Dilmen, 1964). The dream of the West is to be rich by "petrol" and working people to remove the petrol from the soil, occupational accidents, the inadequate and inhuman working conditions are always for the realization of this dream (Dilmen, 1964, p. 48). While Mr. Jonathan tells the story of exploited territories, at the same time East's backwardness is in the line of fire by Dilmen.

"(...) no longer compasses are shrunk, rulers are repressed,
The workers undress, cranes thunder, hoses flood,
Sweat starts to leak in streams, curses, encouraging songs,
Then dynamites are transported under rocks, diamond drill
Is buried by twisting, my workers' hearts are sweated
Steels are broken, divinity is like the strings of harp, what kind of vibrations you know
Mr. Wong, which vibrations
Silver gongs? Or waxed paper lanterns?
You always remained in languishing incense, how do you know
The earth breathing petrol? Towers start to be shaken. After blood:
Many accidents happen. I am Jeremiah Jimmy Jonathan,
They are the those who satisfy their stomach with my blessing I disturbe
The army I kept with gold and shiny speech
They only exist to implement my big dream" (Dilmen, 1964, p. 38).

About the matter of "finding the truth by mind and putting it into action", both sides, the East and the West are criticized. East's virtuous behavior is caused by stereotyped behavior code, it is not conscious. Monkey catcher Çoo's handing over the pickpocket to the police is not because of his belief in truth and justice, this is because he is "just used to chase the things escaped.": "Çoo: I did not catch him because of his theft, who cares his theft, he was running away this is why I caught him" (Dilmen, 1964, p. 29).

The critics of East's analytical intelligence and quantitative aspects can be conceivable in two-way direction. Although Eastern mysticism is confronted with Western positivism, East's carelessness about the "numbers" is criticized closely. Poet Wong who has sometimes "seven", sometimes "seventeen", sometimes "twenty-seven" children symbolizes the the weakness of the East's "quantitative aspects" and Chinese waiter's conversation shows that this case is accepted: "Our Chinese people's numbers can not be certain madam. Recently he was calm and I said seven, now I say seventeen. Numbers are deceiving..." (Dilmen, 1964, p. 29). Yet Mr. Jonathan states, "Chinese people do not give importance to

numbers, they look behind of the numbers to understand them. Number exists in the West and it's called science of "statistics" (Dilmen, 1964, p. 21).

Mr. Jonathan who is the representative of Western intelligence agrees the existence of the philosopher in China but philosophy that requires deep thinking "is an enjoy at most for a few minutes" for the West (Dilmen, 1964, p. 36). Just as West devotes its mind to materialist thought and to earn money, before Mr. Jonathan accepts to eat Wong's brain for adding excitement to their honeymoon and "for their happiness", his talking about that "he did not believe that the happiness could be purchased and money was a tool," (Dilmen, 1964, p. 36) is a big irony.

The West that holds the financial possibilities, recognizes itself to obtain everything by the power of money. Chinese poet Wong who represents the East desperation, has no right to complain by trembling and howling with his words "Enough is enough, enough! Finish, enough! Oh, I can not stand, stop, enough, enough..." It is also the symbolic meaning that the East has no right to make itself understood to the West: "Mrs. Jonathan: Did he say to us? What a lout, he is, what if he said to us?/Mr. Jonathan: Darling, he can not tell us, we pay such an amount of money" (Dilmen, 1964, p. 20). What is more, despite Mademoiselle Lülü who waxes lyrical the sufferings of monkeys which were eaten before and by the way increases the level of tension in the incident, American couple are just interested in monkey for serving erewhile, they are not affected by Mademoiselle Lülü's talking. Cleanliness of the table is much more important for them (Dilmen, 1964).

The financial power that the West has, legitimates to commodify human and all kinds of violence and normalizes to eat a human brain; and when it's needed, to use the human head as a paper for "drawing a map by a lipstick" (Dilmen, 1964) and to see the "Easterner person" as non-human. The brutal murder who eats alive human brain, tries to acquit himself for "suicide of the person that is going to be eaten" (Dilmen, 1964). Even Mr. Jonathan feels justified to take legal action and call the police to arrest Wong who gets out of the restaurant to imburse the cheque to the post office, on suspicion of that he was running away from them (Dilmen, 1964, p. 40). Against the criticized moral corruption of the West, Mrs. Jonathan's loathing of Çoo's pinning the butterfly wings by stretching but behind the folding screen this American lady's who is in honeymoon making love with Çoo, increases the size of corruption still more.

Materialist thinking also influences the Western art. Just as the rhyme American couple propose to poet Wong is "petrol/central", Wong completes the rhyme of "Wong/Hong Kong" that is offered by Chinese waiter, with tapping the "gong on the wall" by his subtle wit. So this example is important to show the artistic approaches of the two sides.

2.5. Stage-Setting of Expressionist Theatre and *Canlı Maymun Lokantası*

In Expressionist theater, bare stage layout, hard play of light, reducing the light are utilized for the expressive narration and constrained voice emphasis are used. For the concentration of the criticized tragic tissue and increasing the rate of violence, the necessary arrangements of light and scene descriptions are made in *Canlı Maymun Lokantası*. Before Chinese poet Wong's brain is eaten, the arrangement of last scene is as follows:

"The stage gets dark, only the overhead lights enlighten Mr. Wong's bare head. Mademoiselle plays the gong on the wall quickly. Everyone edges around the table, waits with forks in their hand. Waiter raises the hand axe sidelong. Silence. Solo music from the instrument. Waiter suddenly swings the axe. Mr. Wong's broken shouting and screams mixed with joys and cries of the people at the table: Oooh Music..." (Dilmen, 1964, p. 56).

In Expressionist theater, the scream which is a common feature of all the important dramas, is directed against the social situation as an aesthetic value and it calls to be much more effective than impressionists and naturalists which only examine or reflect the condition of the subject. At the end of the drama, as Wong's broken shouting while his brain is eaten remain as a "silent scream" for the name of East, "Western" screams mixed with joys and cries are the dominant screams of the colonialism.

3. Results

As a conclusion, Expressionist theater's "fundamentalist revolt, tragic situation, paradox highlighting, the fantastic narrative, dream world, the displacement of the subconscious and mental reality with each other by exaggeration and grotesque expression" (Çalışlar, 1995, p. 164–165) features are reflected in *Canlı Maymun Lokantası*. From the beginning to end of the drama, the tension is kept high and the plot and dialogues are designed in a striking way. By criticizing the world order in a sarcastic manner and selecting extreme people from both sides, the drama is able to leave a deep impression on the audience.

4. References

- And, M. (1983). *Türk tiyatrosunun evreleri*. Ankara: Turhan Bookstore.
- Berk, C. & Bozdémir, M. (2009). *Dictionnaire général français-turc*. İstanbul: Doğu Library.
- Caner, İ. (1975). *Güngör Dilmen Kalyoncu'nun piyesleri üzerinde bir inceleme*. (Unpublished undergraduate dissertation). İstanbul University, Turkey.
- Çalışlar, A. (1993). *20. yüzyılda tiyatro*. Ankara: Mitos-Boyut Press.
- Çalışlar, A. (1995). *Tiyatro ansiklopedisi*. Ankara: Ministry of Culture.
- Dilmen, G. (1964). *Canlı maymun lokantası*. İstanbul: İzlem Press.
- Gombrich, E. H (1953). *Story of art* (5th ed.). London: Phaidon Press.
- Kahraman, H. B. (2002). *Sanatsal gerçeklikler, olgular ve ötelere* (2th ed.). İstanbul: Everest Press.
- Keçeci, F. (2010). Güngör Dilmen'i yeniden okumak. In *Güngör Dilmen'in 50. sanat yılı sempozyumu, 25 March 2010* (pp. 87–102). İstanbul: Mitos-Boyut Press.
- Keküllüoğlu, H. (2010). *Resim sanatında dışavurum anlayışında tarihsel bir bakış ve tek renk hâkimiyetinin bir tavır olarak kullanımı* (Unpublished master dissertation). Anadolu University, Turkey.
- Nutku, Ö. (1972). *Dünya tiyatrosu tarihi: XVIII. yüzyıl sonundan günümüze kadar* (Vol. 2). Ankara: Ankara University Language, History-Geography Faculty Press.
- Pazarkaya, Y. (2010). Canlı maymun lokantası Alıncada. In *Güngör Dilmen'in 50. sanat yılı sempozyumu, 25 March 2010* (pp.29–44). İstanbul: Mitos-Boyut Press.
- Richard, L. (1999). *Ekspresyonizm sanat ansiklopedisi*. (B. Madra, S. Gürsoy, İ. Usmanbaş Trans.) (3th ed.) İstanbul: Remzi Bookstore.
- Sheppard, R. (2006). Alman dışavurumculuğu. (G. Özkan Trans.) In E. Batur (Ed.) *Modernizmin serüveni* (pp. 239-249). İstanbul: Alkım Press.
- Şener, S. (1998). *Dünden bugüne tiyatro düşüncesi*. İstanbul: Dost Bookstore.
- Wolf, N. (2005). *Dışavurumculuk: ekspresyonizm*. (M. T. Yalım, Trans.) İstanbul: Remzi Bookstore.
- Yüksel A. (2010). Güngör Dilmen tiyatrosu'nun trajik boyutu. In *Güngör Dilmen'in 50. sanat yılı sempozyumu, 25 March 2010* (pp. 53–64). İstanbul: Mitos-Boyut Press.

The Importance of Philosophy in Linguistic Studies

Sema Önal

1. Introduction

People communicate by the virtue of language, transfer culture and civilization from generation to generation. Every language has a history. Every language is influenced by the culture it encounters. When we say Classical Age, Classical Culture we think of ancient Greek and Roman Cultures. The level of civilization today is affected by the products of these two civilizations to great extent. At the base of modern civilization is an immense philosophical literature. Hence the requirement of linguistic studies to have philosophical groundwork is manifested in the very first texts. Classical Culture can have a value when examined along with its philosophical and historical bonds. Classical Age has unreached aspects that are worth to examine even today. Literature in this context tell us about the *cosmos* which is the product of the mind, *nomos* that is to say the principles of justice in the universe and society. The cosmos, social order, state order, human relationships cannot be understood, expressed without philosophy.

Holy books are word of God. Christians, bow to Jesus in person as word of God (logos, faith). The word of human is ephemeral. Whereas the word of God is not evanescent. Language is a grace of God. Language is deemed extraordinary when it is thought by these means. In ancient Greek *logos* (word) is understood both as orderly, harmonious universe (cosmos) and its principle, its action force. In antiquities whatever the being was, was the name and whatever the name was, was the being. In other words existence and name of a being were not apart from each other. In Plato's *Kratylos* dialog the relation between name and object is examined, ideas were suggested that language is a human creation or derived from the essence of the object. Language is an instrument of information, beginning of information. And true information is the information that reveals the essence. Yet according to sophists, language is an art of oratory which is slippery, moving owing to such quality, manipulating behaviours arbitrarily. Sophists, regard rhetoric as better than uttering true words. In our language the power of language is evidently manifested in the proverbs such as "a piece of advice substitute sorcery", "good word charm a snake abandon its hole, evil word turn away human from religion". Language is the change of natural sounds. Language is reason, if there is no language there is no reason either. The mind reveals itself in language. Language is what set the whole boundaries of human knowledge, the actual creative activity of the mind. The existence of human in the world become meaningful and apparent. Human is human, as a talking being. Aristoteles says, talking is the symbol of the passions in the soul (Altuğ, p.104). According to Aristoteles there are two kinds of virtue; virtue of thinking and virtue of character. Virtue of thinking rather occurs through education and grows. This necessitates experience and time. When it comes to virtue of character it is obtained by the means of habits; this in turn requires education and living. Virtue of thinking bounds to have an enhanced literature in order to be evaluated. And this means processing language and thought together (Aristoteles, 1988; p.14,27).

3.A Few Comments on Language

The pioneering works in our century are concentrated on language. To examine language as an event commenced in 18.century. These studies had started by the quest for the essence and root of the language. Considering Humboldt language is the occurrence of thinking and its imperative condition. Language should design the concepts of the mind in the truest modality. Just as God created the spiritual cosmos by the courtesy of "Word", humanbeing formed his own spiritual cosmos too. All of our thinking faculty is based on language (Altuğ, 2001; p.61).

Since the time of the Bible humanbeing was asked to speak one language. By this means it was hoped that such disputes and wars would not happen. However one language idea to be spoken in the whole world just as *Esperanto*, *Ido*, *Pigeron* is illusionary. There is no necessity of one language unity to reach world solidarity. Troubles wrap around the world are entirely non-linguistic. One language

cannot solve these issues. There is no need to start from language union to reach world solidarity. It is required to find the fundamental reasons of conflicts and solve them.

According to Humboldt, if Ancient Indian civilization was taken as a base instead of Ancient Greece, the West would have been less favorable to establish science and art... Whereas the fact that Ancient Greece and Rome are being superior arise from the supremacy of their thoughts and mastery of their language as well as the convenience of their historical conditions (Türker-Küyel, 1978)

No language is eminent than the other. What improves, enriches, empowers, processes, ennobles, matures, beautifies, sublimates the language is an engagement field which use this language; such as science, art, philosophy, ethics, law, politics, religion, language etc. Hence advanced civilization means advanced language.

4. Translations

Translation means to give insight to different meaning fields of a language by the means of reconceptualization as a result of interaction with different languages. Translations are required to create a new world of thought... When today's English as a sophisticated language was just in the age of babyhood in 13. century, Robert Grototeste, said: "There were merely two languages in England; one was French and the other one was Latin; Normans were deemed from high class and were speaking French. English, was the language of lower class"... At the beginnings of 14. Century translations from French started and English commenced to be thought in schools.

Ascham Toxophilus who was a professor of Greek in this period, presented his work to King Henry VIII and was awarded. The novelty of the work was: It explained the English matter in the English tongue for English men. Whereas it was easier for him to write this work in Latin or Greek, his reason to have this manner was to demonstrate that such beautiful treatises could be written in English as well. He defended English so sincerely, attacked to English writers who used Latin, French and Italian words and argued that the way which Aristotle suggested shall be followed: "to speak like a person from public." (Tekeli, 1978; p.216,220).

When translating from one language to another, a language absorbs another language into itself that comes from outside, internalize it in its own meaning layers and makes it into its own property. For instance to translate a text from a foreign language into Turkish, means to go in the pursuit of meaning possibilities, to regenerate the contingencies of another language, to force expression capabilities of that language.

Philosophy, makes great contribution to expression power and conceptual structure of language. It aids to analyse accumulations of idea and knowledge which underlies the conceptual structure of other languages. My language is my home and world, just as in other languages. To understand another world in the context of my own world means new expression potentialities and points of view. The consistency between language and the world constructs the meaning of what I philosophize. The possibility of my language is the possibility of my philosophy and in turn the possibility of my philosophy is the possibility of my language. As Wittgenstein said, "The boundaries of my language are the boundaries of my world" Our world reflects in language, emerges in language (Taşdelen, 2015:p.31-39).

3. Universal Culture and Classics

As every culture has classics, universal culture has its own classics as well. These are mostly Latin and Greek classics which constitute the basis of modern world civilization that has reached from antiquity and medieval ages up till today through the translations. These translations are first translated from Greek to Arabic; Arabic to Latin and then from Latin to world languages. For this reason, they constitute the foundation of world civilization. Studies of Greek and Latin are called Humanities (humanitas). It is known that people who deals with these Humanities in and outside of Universities are called Humanist. For so long in the West the unique secondary education and training have been Humanities. *Humanities* are Greek and Latin teachings through traditional methods. For if the aim of secondary education and training is to analyse another language apart from the mother tongue by the means of translation, Greek and Latin is admitted as thought, phrase and delight school tailor-made for this

study. Hence, the virtue of education, *precision* (subtle temperament in reason and speech) and *finesse* (delicacy in sentiment and taste) that is expected from classes by secondary education and training occur. In this regards education and training owing to Greek and Latin are named as Classics. Although this education today does not take place through Greek and Latin, classics of these two languages having been studied by translation is still proceeding in the whole civilized world (Türker,1977; p.31,32). Along with the classical initially was being determined in such manner, new kind of *Humanities* were composed as national languages developed in time. Classes are opened without Greek and Latin. Classical, by degrees primarily become the verb of class and what studied in classes.

The roots of classical education and training are in “Artes Liberales” in medieval age and medieval is rooted in “Paideia” in the antiquity....

The roots of classical education and training *precision* and *finesse* are originally nothing but *esprit de geometri*, *esprit de finesse*. What fulfills the first virtue is “*quatrivium*” of “Artes Liberales” that is to say arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, music. What fulfills the second virtue is “*Trivium*”, in other words; grammer, rethoric, dialectic. All of these are the foundations of education system of today’s world (Türker,1977; p.31)

Grammer, rethoric and dialectic have been the engagement field of philosophers for centuries. Since word reflects the thought. The accuracy of thought is in proportion with the word to be accurate, temperate and consistent as well. Thought is talking internally, word is talking externally. In that case both thought and speech shall be in a logical system. Logical system is the groundwork of grammer, rethoric and dialectic. It is to master language logic, language games, power of word. As philosophy belongs to the culture it emanates from it is also directly proportionate to expression power and culture of language. Philosophy provides conceptual groundwork and richness for art, science and language. Philosophy evaluates the advancement of language and its conceptual structure as well its contribution to thought that result from all these cultural activities with a higher perspective. It makes contribution to true expression of the conceptual structure which enables the verbalization of thought. A language with an advanced conceptual structure, a language enriched by the means of art, literature, mythology; a language that has experiences and accumulations of knowledge, a language has a log, a language which has tradition, is a language that possess emotional and spiritual dimension. A language that we are familiar with, is the language encapsulate our lives within. A language born in the environment of our own culture and life finds a convenient ground to generate ideas, to use the language elegantly, to enhance rhetoric and to philosophize. The proverbs, jokes, elegies, ballads, legends, mythes, passions, literature works which are the accumulation of thousands of years gathered in language. Just as historical, religious and mythological components come into play in the evolution of philosophy; philosophy makes an influence and contribution to the analyses of these works in the same way. Since all these are the elements of an idea and culture. For this reason it is evidently manifested in the last studies of linguistics and philosophy of language that, language of philosophy cannot be reduced merely into language of science.

4.Result

Today almost all of the world languages are reading each other and influenced by each other. Every language bound to have such an improved conceptual structure in order to reach the same level as the sophisticated world languages. Especially hardship of finding and deriving word as well as concept which arise during translations is intensely perceived. Philosophy extends, enhances, unveils, enforce evolution of a conceptual structure of a language. Philosophy is an engagement which widens, improves the ways of perception, meaning layers, the expressions of emotions, category and schemas of the language that people lives in. Language of philosophy both has a universal quality with its conceptual structure and it is the implicit and explicit expression of the lives of the society, culture, family, even the individual which it resides in... It is absolutely required for language to reach a certain power of expression, refinement of culture. Yet merely language, history and culture are not sufficient, tradition is essential too. It is the philosophical tradition that constitutes and reinforces this tradition. If we take into account the fact of they are being influenced by each other with enriching their worlds of meaning

which emerges in language analysis regarding history and culture; art, philosophy, mythology, history, cultural traditional accumulation gets flourished and developed through a philosophical perspective.

In oral tradition we mostly come across with a philosophical style, wise discourses that we can name as folk wisdom (Hızır,1985; p.17,19). A language of a nation is the mind and memory of that nation. Language means the common knowledge of a nation. It means notion of the world and human... The vocabulary in language is the own property of the mental structure that language belongs to. The means of expression of a language is also related with the power conceptualization in that language. And philosophy enables this. Philosophy views the mind, pursuits where the knowledge of truth comes from. When philologists work they also examine the languages and deeds of people in terms of grammar, history, customs, laws, wars, peaces, travels, trades etc. When both philosophers and philologists don't take into account of each other's production they get half failure (Vico, 2007. p.94). That means philology and philosophy have to get support and aid from one another inseparably. In that case, when examine classical philosophical text should be considered as well as literary texts.

The meaning and communication possibilities between the ones speaking different languages are unchanged. Although word changes meaning endures. The language itself is a transport instrument. This instrument is for the transport of meaning. Meaning is loaded on language... What weigh in loading of meaning are civilization ambience and cultural environment. Language does not exist in nature, human mingled language into the nature along with his culture and environment and attributed meaning to it. Language is the house of the being. It is the articulation of the being. Knowledge in regards to existence, reveals itself in language. Since language is the carrier of knowledge and culture it naturally has thinking and conceptualization in its structure. To comprehend this structure better in language analysis, requires philosophical accumulation of groundwork. As the power of understanding and interpretation is only possible through having ideational conceptual background.

5.References

- Aristoteles (1988). *Nikomakhos'a Etik*. Çev:Saffet Babür.[*Ethics to Nikhomakhos* Translator: Saffet Babür] Hacettepe Üniversitesi yay. [Hacettepe University Publication]
- Küyel, M.T. (1978). *Bilim ve Kültür Dili Olarak Türkçe* [*Turkish as a Language of Science and Culture*] “İleri Dil ve Dil Transferi” [“*Advanced Language and Language Transfer*”].Ankara. Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi.[Turkish Historical Society Print].
- Platon (1989) *Kratylos*. Çev:Suad Baydur. [Translator: Suad Baydur.] İstanbul.M.E.B. [İstanbul.Ministry of Education].
- Taşdelen, V. (2015). *Felsefe Kültürü* [Culture of Philosophy]. Ankara: Hece Publication.
- Taylan, A.(2001). *Dile gelen Felsefe* [Philosophy Began To Talk]. İstanbul.YapıKredi Publication
- Tekeli, S. (1978). *Bilim ve Kültür Dili Olarak Türkçe* [*Turkish as a Language of Science and Culture*] “*Bilim Dillerinin Tarihsel Gelişimi*” [“*The Historical Development of Languages of Science*”].Ankara. Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi. [Turkish Historical Society Print].
- Türker, M. (1977). *Klasik çağ Düşüncesi ve Çağdaş Kültür* [The Thought of Classical Age and Contemporary Culture] “*Klasik ,Skolastik, Modern*”[“*Classical, Scholastic, Modern*”]. Ankara. Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi.[Turkish Historical Society Print].
- Vico, G. (2007). *Yeni Bilim* [New Science]. Translated from English to Turkish: Sema Önal. Ankara: Doğu Batı Publication.

Bohemian Lights and Severe Criticism against Reality

Nur Gülümser İlker

1. Introduction

The authors of '98 generation is a bright light carrying lots of hopes in the dark cliff where Spain is included at the end of the 19th century. Living in a country which was drifted into chaos after losing Philippines, Puerto Rico and Cuba, the last colonies of Spain in South America, the authors of '98 generation would courageously want to revive and provide a promising future for their country as a result of loyalty to their homeland in a period when there was an excessive level of injustice and despotism which was dictated by the government as well as superficiality and lack of intellectual thinking in scientific, artistic and intellectual development across the country. They would use the weapons of literature, art, philosophy and innovation while doing this.

Ramón del Valle-Inclán is maybe one of the most courageous, sarcastic and sometimes aggressive authors of '98 generation. He explicitly writes, talks about and expresses the state of mistake, hypocrisy and burnout of his country. In his works, Valle-Inclán courageously and honestly expresses his ideas and severely criticizes that his country is in a dark situation; the society is alienated against its own values and ideal concept of ethics; integration is gradually substituted by deception; academicians unnecessarily occupy the personnel cadre although they should think about the facts, produce information and carry out intellectual activities; government bodies are not administrated by qualified people, on the contrary there is an excessive level of backing and nepotism; government bodies employ unqualified sycophants instead of people who think and write about facts as well as contributing to development of the country; there is a wide gap between the rich and the poor and the public has an extremely low level of welfare. He also adds -to reflect the situation in the country- when it comes to "do art": "Art is a game ... It is not art. We should not do art now, we do not have to do art, because it is unfortunate to play during periods of immorality. First, social justice must be provided" (Ruíz Fernández, 1981, 22). In fact, he does not describe his literary works as artistic works. On the contrary, he uses his style in his works as a harsh and realistic instrument for criticism by donating it with the elements of irony, humor and esperpento.

Valle-Inclán is a critic who has loudly expressed the mistakes and corruption in the society through his works and struggle throughout his life without getting tired of being an instructor at all times. "Sensitiveness, experience and authority of the critic aim at impressing the readers and shaping the development of literary life strategically as well" (Ataç, 2016, 231). His interest in addressing to these facts, in which his country and society is included, in his works and delivering them to the readers through a realistic attitude motivated him to write with an attitude, language and style which is more different than his contemporaries. Of course, it was also affected by his harsh character which does not permit any injustice and his courage which allows him to reveal all the realities directly to the faces of responsible people. In this current case, it is possible to see the tracks of his character and resistant spirit. "The influence of the Galician countryside -an evocative land of wind and mist and chiaroscuro coloring- the influence of its insistent rhythms and love of melody would remain with Valle-Inclán and form an inseparable and consistent element in his life and work" (Heyden, 1971, 91-92). Unique characteristics of the author provided him with an original and different variety in literary terms. What makes him an original author is for example the esperpentist style, irony, humor, harsh language, outspoken personality and courage in his works which allows him to express what should be avoided under the circumstances of that period.

This study aims at analyzing the points of view Valle-Inclán had for the literary works while working on literary work criticism and the criteria he used for evaluations and comparisons as well as the relationship between the elements of literary evaluation and his own character. In his criticism which he wants to deliver through literature, the main themes to be addressed will be esperpentismo, irony and humor. Outspoken personality, colloquial discourses and brief expressions will also be addressed as his style. Main elements which are used in order to reflect the mistakes which are tried to be expressed in "Bohemian Lights" are esperpentismo which delivers the facts by distorting them; irony

which similarly challenges against and ridicules the facts; humor which is hidden between the dialogues and points out the weaknesses of the criticized party as well as wit of the author; courageous attitude and harsh language which reveals the themes which are deemed as inappropriate to be expressed. This study will try to describe them with specific examples and address how they are included in the work and reflected from the author's character.

Following sections of the study will briefly touch upon the work under the title "Bohemian Lights" and express how the author reflects his country's situation in his work. The section titled "Esperpentismo" will address how this concept has emerged, why it is used and through which language or style it is expressed by giving examples of esperpento from the work. "Irony and Humor Nourished with a Severe Style" will touch upon the fact that the author reflects the themes ironically and builds the dialogues with a sense of humor. "Targets of Criticism" will throw light upon Spain at that period by giving examples from the author's criticism against his country and society. "Dark Side" will analyze the fact that Valle-Inclán courageously reveals his unknown dark side in his daily life. He believes that realities should be expressed easily and mistakes should be criticized severely as well as deriving benefit from the strength of the literature with the help of ridiculous attitude of irony, humor and esperpentismo.

2. Bohemian Lights

In the drama named "Bohemian Lights", the author introduces desperation and burnout of the society as well as injustices of the government by depicting with artistic, philosophic and literary elements within a wisely-built scenario. Máximo (Max) Estrella, the protagonist, is a blind, poor but dignified poet. Readers have a chance to look at the situation in Spain and hypocrisy of the society in a large perspective through Max who can barely make his livings with his wife and daughter. Indeed, Max is a protagonist who is created by being inspired from Alejandro Sawa who is a valuable poet thanks to his ideas and poems. While this work includes real characters, it touches upon real entities and institutions in dialogues as well. For example: Nicaraguan poet Rúben Darío is also included in the work as a character.

In this drama which depicts one-day and one-night story of Max Estrella, we witness the happenings between the protagonist and his friend Don Latino. Don Latino does not make any payment to Max in return for his poem and the drama starts by delivering a critical signal that even your best friend may be a hypocritical person. They go out together and we witness lots of critical dialogues about the country and society with the help of other characters which are included in the bars and on the streets. We see that Max is taken into custody after he has a dispute with a watchman on the street and he has a realistic and misery conversation with an anarchist Catalan convict there.

"Max: Are you an anarchist?"

Convict: I am the person what the laws have judged." (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 58).

After that, a diplomat whom Max has previously known helps him to be released from the custody and the blind poet finds himself on dark streets by throwing light upon the dark side of Spain once again. We see the courageous criticism of the author again by witnessing the criminals, prostitutes, conflicts, deaths etc. At the end of the work, it is also an ironic and severe ending for the poor blind poet to freeze to death in front of his house while he is drunk. So, the readers find themselves in a miserable period against the events which are severely reflected in a realistic and also absurd manner. María Delgado expresses Valle-Inclán's manner of handling real life with an ironic and absurd style as follows:

"The author springs from purely artistic considerations to such sociopolitical concerns as the succession of inept governments that could neither better the miserable state of the peasant in the countryside and the worker in the city nor rectify the many inequities of daily life in a nation that had not learned the hard lessons of 1898 when Spain lost remnants of its once-vast empire through incompetence and an unrealistic belief in the viability of past glories. It was such concerns that formed the rationale for the new aesthetic of the grotesque and the absurd" (Delgado, 1998, 39-40).

3. Esperpentismo

Valle-Inclán developed a style which he called as *esperpentismo* and used this style as a method to criticize the situation in Spain by mostly including it in *Bohemian Lights*. *Esperpentos* are composed of unrealistic, exaggerated, absurd, weird and extraordinary words, expressions or metaphors. In this way, the author introduces hypocrisy and injustices under the absurdism of *esperpentismo* in order to express them as a deformity and corruptness. In *esperpentismo* animals find voice as humans while humans make sounds like animals. They may meow like a cat or grumble like a pig in the mud. Valle-Inclán's characters, except for main characters, have an animal-like roughness in their acts and behaviors while their expressions may be unreasonable as well. These are all *esperpentos*. Here, readers fall into a suspicion in all these realities: "Is it real? or an illusion? or a transition between both?" (Todorov, 2012, 7). In this way, the author displays an ironic and sarcastic approach towards reality. José Amor y Vázquez states about *esperpentismo*:

"*Esperpentismo* is the first to designate the Valle-Inclán's tendency to stylize throughout his literary career. This stylization, based on selective techniques exaggerating, deforming, therefore, is manifests as artistic constant with different degrees of intensity and embracing. In its strictest sense, the *esperpentismo* occurs at a certain moment in the artistic trajectory of Valle-Inclán. It is characterized by a voluntary and systematic deformation, with a ridiculous intent, loaded with criticism. The ironic attitude, distanced, between the author and his creatures, is based on parody techniques and combinatorial procedures" (Amor y Vázquez, 1973, 191).

The author says that he discovered *esperpento* in unrealistic and absurd paintings of Goya which includes criticism for the first time while he also states that mirrors which skew the silhouette of humans are exactly the examples of *esperpento*. "It is Goya who created *esperpentismo* in his paintings" (Toledo, 1996, 19). So, he aims at making a severe criticism and humiliation against corrupted, unmerciful and superficial section which is remote from spiritual and mental prudence and which is not aware of the value of intelligent identities while this section is ridiculed through a ridiculous way of expression. It can be also said that his *esperpentos* to reflect what was going wrong can be also defined as grotesque. "Valle-Inclán's literary contributions are clearly a form of aesthetic and political revolt. He coined the designation of the *esperpento* and developed its aesthetic characteristics in his writing, which are known for being grotesque and radically political" (Riley, 2013, 179-180).

In the work, the following sentences can be given as the best examples of *esperpento*:

"Don Latino interrupted the speech like a coward dog barking between the legs of its owner" (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 35).

"That clownish man was holding a sputtering candlestick with a leaking wax. [...] Parrot was hiding its beak under its wing" (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 36).

"Her tall husband in his slovenly-shabby clothes was a newsagent. He was grinning like a dog scratching its louses" (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 43).

"He was sitting like a sad pig" (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 78).

"Meow, you're completely off your head!" (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 93).

"At the door was a tall man in buttoned casual clothes having a long red beard like a villain and dragon eyes like a zebus" (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 102).

Apart from these expressions, some words and verbs gained new meanings in *esperpento* literature created by the author. For example: "tapadillo" (brothel), "coima" (prostitute), "paloma" (prostitute), "calamocano" (drunken), "papalina" (drunkenness), "poner la parienta al toreo" (prostitute) etc.

Reason of Valle-Inclán's inclusion of *esperpentos* in his works is sarcasm. By resembling human beings to animals, he delivers the idea that people are getting far away from sanity and commonsense. These selfish people who live with their instincts, consider their own interests and are far away from thinking are not taken into consideration as "humans". Moreover; the metaphor of appearance of the characters between the legs of the others in *esperpento* examples is a reference to their sycophancy and worshipping to the others. It's something to be humiliated and disdained. So, it can only be expressed with an absurd manner.

4. Irony and Humor Nourished with a Severe Style

Another characteristic of Valle-Inclán is that he is severe, sometimes aggressive and mostly courageous in his literary style and attitude. He never expresses his ideas by using insinuations remaining in the background while he always flourishes his criticism against dark side of the country and society through an explicit and clear expression. “He speaks brutal and antiacademic” (Aznar Soler, 1992, 159). Maybe, weakness of academic structure under the sovereignty of a slummed mentality forced him to have an antiacademic style. Of course, it may be taken naturally that the author reflects his harsh characteristics on his works as he also highlights this aspect in his relationships with the others in his daily life. Ramón Gómez de la Serna will make the following sentences for Valle-Inclán afterwards:

“To ignore Valle-Inclán’s character in order to concentrate solely on his works is, in my opinion, totally absurd since personality and creation, in his case, form an inseparable whole. Don Ramón de Valle-Inclán deliberately and artfully designed an image for himself. There is no dichotomy at all between the man and his work; what he wrote began with the stylized projection of his inner self. His greatest creation was his personality from which followed his written works. Hence the legend that surrounds him” (Serna, 1968, 34).

His concern is not to produce works in literally deep and academically strong language, but to reveal explicitly what he is criticizing without touching upon the art. He uses his outspoken personality as a remarkable element while doing this. “Valle-Inclán plays constantly with language, in all its forms and variants causing laughter and amazement” (Ortega, 2012, 12). Humorous and amazing elements in his colloquial style have absolutely an important role for increasing the number of readers who read his works. Moreover; his outspoken characteristics is also an example of his courage. Many intellectuals, scholars and authors hesitated from the ruling of Primo de Rivera, the tyrant general of that period, while it is worthy of esteem that Valle-Inclán had the virtue of standing daringly and fearlessly - although it is one of his characteristics - like the other authors of ‘98 Generation. He has definitely some aspects which are different from the others: He uses more hitting expressions and focuses on reviews having the elements of criticism, irony and contradiction without building deep paragraphs. He believes that insults, depreciatory discourses, humor and metaphors are the best way to reflect what he knows.

“Max: Like a sea roaring heroically! I feel the public inside!

Dorto de Gadex: I don’t feel it.

Max: ‘Cause you are nothing but an brainless foolish!” (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 49).

In another scene, we see the blind poet yelling at the policemen angrily:

“Max: God damn on you, double-dealer backstabbers! [...] Damn it, dirty creatures!

I severely condemn you and your supporters (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 54).

Max: Your policemen are gathered up among many despicable people” (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 71).

In the following scenes, the blind poet talks to a city police does not refrain his words from him either:

“Max: Of course you don’t know anything because you are nothing but a worm of bureaucracy. You even do not know how to think” (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 56).

The rich who ignores the public is also snubbed by the blind poet:

“Max: Despicable men! Cowards! You fu*king rich! [...] Rigged men” (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 58).

While he simply and courageously discloses his ideas through the characters in the work, he also tries to throw light upon that period by attracting attention for his characters. He does not focus on the inner world, mental structure and emotional aspect of the individual like Unamuno, Baroja or Azorín; on the contrary he aims at defining the general structure of the environment through simple dialogues and clear depictions. The author is anxious about the environment, wrong attitude of the people and society as well as the course of events in the country. “Irony shows up as an eternal absolute negativeness. It is the negativeness because only it makes the phenomenons negative; it is eternal because no other things make the phenomenons; it is absolute because it makes the phenomenons negative through a higher thing” (Kierkegaard, 2010, 318). Although irony definitely adds an appealing

aspect to the author's works, things which are targeted and criticized are negative. So, negative aspects are highlighted, ridiculed and so that mistakes are harshly expressed. He tries to uncover and make this wrongness visible through sarcastic and ironic conversations which make the author unique for the irony in his severe style because "irony is an extraordinarily good path going towards an integrated art of interpretation" (Booth, 2016, 81). He clearly uses irony to make criticism.

"Max: Spain is a just weird and deformed version of European civilization" (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 93).

"Don Latino: We are doing nothing but a verbal one-upmanship. We, the Spanish, console ourselves with our starvation and misconduct.

Dorio de Gadex: We also console ourselves with bad artists, bad comedians, bad tramways and bad pathways as well" (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 65).

Don Latino and Dorio de Gadex talk about the bad situation in their country ironically. On the other hand, Max talks about the situation in the country again with the following sentences:

"Max: It's a black legend. These depression days are the history of Spain. We have a terrifying life. Hatred and embarrassment. I die from my grief. But I'm glad that I am not included in tragic events" (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 91).

On the other hand, Don Latino and Basilio Soulinake express their ideas as the following:

"Don Latino: Being talented is a crime in Spain!

Basilio Soulinake: The biggest deficiency of the Spanish is that they do not have a world-wide authority" (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 102).

Apart from all these foregoing, it is noted that Valle-Inclán has a skill and good sense of humor. He unexpectedly puts humorous sentences between the dialogues and keeps the attention of the readers alive. He also adds a nice irony while doing this with the help of purity and beauty of his nature and inherited talent.

"Max: Venancio, don't confuse me with Castelar. Castelar was an idiot! Could you give me one more glass of wine?

Don Latino: I agree with your idea of wine, I also agree that Castelar is an idiot" (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 43).

Poor Max who is always anxious about what he will eat tomorrow distorts the subject ironically:

"Minister: I am deeply envious of your sense of humor!

Max: I am the universe, everything smiles at me, I'm an untroubled man" (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 74).

He sarcastically adds the following sentence as well:

"Max: You did well by giving up authorship and preferring to make us happy by managing us" (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 72).

Max sometimes becomes excessively humorist towards Don Latino:

"Max: Help me. Latino, where are you?

Don Latino: Next to you.

Max: I couldn't recognize 'cause you are like a zebus" (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 93).

Valle-Inclán's sense of humor may be one of the reasons of his dynamic scenarios as in "Bohemian Lights".

6. Targets of Criticism

Given the target of the author's arrows of criticism, it is seen that heartbreaking situation of the country deeply hurts the author while he will still defend what he believes fearlessly and courageously because "criticism has a mission of making order indeed" (Eliot, 2007, 37-38). Religion, ethics, society, church, academy, bureaucracy etc. will also receive their shares from the author's criticism both separately and wholly. Valle-Inclán explicitly criticizes that state administration has some deficiencies; there is a high level of injustice in the country; academic structure has become too old and close to any intellectual and scientific development; government authorities employ only people whom they believe to be their "supporters" regardless of their qualifications; bureaucratic entities are composed of materialist and greedy individuals having a low level of thinking capacity instead of well-qualified individuals knowing

the values of the country and being aware of the needs of the public. “It’s worthless to be virtuous in Spain. Impudence and stealing is awarded. The worst is awarded in Spain” (Valle–Inclán, 2016, 105). Scholars, thinkers and laborers are not awarded for their labor while people in the contrary are dignified and appreciated in the country. “Labor and intelligence have always been underestimated in Spain. The only thing which rules the roost here is money” (Valle–Inclán, 2016, 59). We see the reactions of Max in the following sentences:

“Dorio de Gadex: What about applying for a cadre in the Academy.

Max: Don’t make fun of me, idiot. I’m highly talented! But this poor press boycotts me. They hate me as I’m a rebellious and talented person. [...] Academy behaves as if I don’t exist. I’m the first poet of Spain. First! I fast, but I never lower myself by begging for money. I protect myself! I’m really immortal. I’m not like those worthless undignified academicians” (Valle–Inclán, 2016, 49-50).

“Max: I have the honor of not being an academician” (Valle–Inclán, 2016, 55).

On the other hand, partisan and self-interested attitude of the church wipes out the dignity of the perception of religion while it also blunts religious values and ethical perception of the society and consequently people adopt a perception of ethics which is deprived of inner conscience and intelligence. Therefore; society becomes a cruel and “blind” community which is contaminated by hypocrisy, injustice and greedy under the name of “ethics” alienated by its own values.

“Don Gay: There is no other country to be compared with England. There, religion has such a dignity and solemnity that religious families are the most respectable ones. If Spain achieved this dignity for the fact of religion as well, it would liberate itself. [...] Now, look at the divine love of this public.

Max: Spain is alike a clan in the middle of Africa with regard to the fact of religion.[...]

Zaratustra: If there is no fact of religion, there is no trust in trade as well.

Don Gay: [...] If people have a lack of religion in addition to some ethical values, policy is solely inadequate for that society.

Max: Honorable Don Gay, I agree with you. Poverty and moral corruption of Spanish public lie behind the indifference of the society against the obscurity of death and life. [...] This poor society establishes all the concepts of value on the stories of religious druidesses. Religion of this society is nothing but the dotage of an elder who keeps the body of a dead cat by filling straw in it” (Valle–Inclán, 2016, 37-38).

People who produce, think, labor, sweat blood and try to hold on to life under difficult conditions are deemed as worthless; men of letters, artists are unfairly judged as they courageously defend the reality. “Life of the laborers is not the business of the government” (Valle–Inclán, 2016, 90). In fact, they just have dreams which are condemned and humiliated. Act of “dreaming” which is of high importance in the infrastructure of the civilizations is deemed as a ridiculous fact. The author believes that being an artist means leading an honorable life while being a politician means leading a dishonorable life. In Spain of that period, politicians are superficial and greedy people who are deprived of the capabilities of thinking and judgement. On the contrary, artists – wretchedly – keep their dignity and honor by holding on to their dreams or avoiding being involved in hypocrite games. That’s the important part.

7. Dark Side

Valle-Inclán criticizes the wrong structure while he also includes hidden experiences in his work in order to reveal Spain’s dark-hidden side explicitly. Max, the blind poet, and Don Latino encounter with prostitutes ranging from young ones to old ones on the dark streets of Spain at night. “Bohemian Lights reaches the reader as an outpouring of the way of life that appears as an alternative to the historical fact and the heroic lifestyle of the modernist era, on the other hand, to the evocative of the past identified with bohemian and night life” (Şahin, 2013, 66).

The author tries to disclose and make visible the hidden parts and realities through dialogues and conversations between them. Characters deliver sexual and rude expressions which few authors can barely venture to do at that period. If this is the reality, why don't you write it?

“Young woman holds the poet's hand, moves it on her shoulders first and then her breasts with a bastard smile while the other dirty old woman having applied mascara on her eyes show her mouth without any teeth and try to seduce Don Latino. [...]

Dirty old woman: Touch my breasts! Don't hesitate. You're a poet” (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 85-86).

Reading between the lines of the work, we also see the dead bodies of young people shot in the conflicts at night. “We survive miraculously. People are hungry” (Valle-Inclán, 2016, 89). So, Valle-Inclán makes a severe criticism against reality by reflecting Spain without hiding anything. “The violence and the politicized atmosphere continue throughout the work with a concrete pattern of police crews and patrols, firing at prisoners attempting to escape, shooting at innocent people and street battles leading to material corruption” (Lyon, 1983, 105).

8. Conclusion

It is concluded in the study that the author provided many literary characteristics in the plot by including real characters in a real scenario while he originally aimed at expressing “a severe criticism against the reality”. Having made himself responsible from observing, talking and writing about the hypocrisy of the government and society, Valle-Inclán used many literary elements and methods in his works. He did not use a soft and deep literary attitude like Unamuno, Baroja or Azorín, the other scholars of his period. On the contrary, he aimed at talking about the realities in his literary works without hesitation by using a harsh, explicit, ironic, sarcastic, absurd and grotesque attitude. So that he adopted esperpentismo, irony and humor as his milestones while his harsh language, daring themes and dialogues had a strong impact on Spain of that period.

He used a harsh language while criticizing the social hypocrisy, distance from justice, employment of unqualified and incapable people in the government organizations and observation of self-interests by the statesmen and academicians; and he achieved to create an original style by combining many elements with the help of his point of view towards political issues and his commonsense of determining missing parts in the social structure as well as his literary skills and amazing characteristics. So that Valle-Inclán strengthened his criticism through harsh expressions and discourses, sexually explicit dialogues and depictions. Finally, he achieved to be an original author. He reflected his lifestyle, relationships, characteristics and style on his literary works. “Bohemian Lights” remained out of the perception of that period and differently reflected. It also became an inspirational value to have an impact on the next generations with the help of the author's character and works which would be discussed in literary and philosophic terms in the future.

“Bohemian Lights” of Ramón del Valle-Inclán, who will be universally appreciated in every period thanks to his courage, fearlessness, intelligence, sense of humor and intellectual depth, is a drama which will throw light upon the next generations. The authors of '98 generation and Valle-Inclán who endeavor to fill the intellectual gaps in many aspects in their period will always be appreciated for their distinction and importance thanks to their works.

9. References

- Amor y Vázquez, J. G. (1973). Valle-Inclán, Esperpento. *Actas del Primer Congreso Internacional de Estudios Galdosianos*. Ediciones del EXMO. Cabildo Insular de Gran Canaria, 189-200.
- Ataç, G. (2016). *Genel Edebiyat Bilimi*. Ankara: Doğu Batı.
- Aznar Soler, M. (1992). *Guía de lectura de Martes de Carnaval*. Barcelona: Anthropos.
- Booth, W. C. (2007). *İroninin Retoriği*. Tl. Suzan Sarı. Ankara: Hece Yayınları.
- Delgado, M. (1998). *Spanish Theater (1920-1995)*. Amsterdam: Harwood Academic Publishers.
- Eliot, T. S. (2007). *Edebiyat Üzerine Düşünceler*. Tl. Sevim Kantarcıoğlu. İstanbul: Paradigma Yayıncılık.
- Heyden, B. S. (1971). *Some Contemporary Aspects of the Esperpento of Ramón del Vall-Inclán* (Master thesis). Department of Foreign Languages, North Texas State University, Texas, USA.

- Kierkegaard, S. (2010). *Ölümcül Hastalık Umutsuzluk, Korku ve Titreme, Kaygı Kavramı, İroni Kavramı, Ya/Ya da*. Tl. Kamuran Gödelek. İstanbul: Say Yayınları.
- Lyon, J. (1983). *The Theater of Valle-Inclán*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Ortega, L. (2012). *El esperpento del honor en la obra de Valle Inclán* (Master thesis). Central Connecticut State University, Connecticut, New Britain.
- Riley, S. M. (2013). *Absurdist Ethics and Radical Agency in Aids Cinema: Erotic Genealogies, Absurd Laughter and Grotesque Aesthetic*. (Doctoral dissertation). Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina.
- Ruíz Fernández, C. (1981). *El Léxico del Teatro de Valle-Inclán*. Salamanca: Universidad de Salamanca
- Şahin, H. G. (2013). İspanyol Yazınında Esperpento Gerçeği: Valle-Inclán'ın Bohemya Işıkları Oyununda Esperpentist Yansımalar. *Ankara Üniversitesi Dil Tarih ve Coğrafya Fakültesi Dergisi*, 53:2, 43-68.
- Serna, R. G. (1968). *Valle-Inclán and the Invention of Character*. Austin: Valle-Inclán Centennial Studies.
- Todorov, T. (2012). *Fantastik*. Tl. Nedret Öztokat. İstanbul: Metis Yayınları.
- Toledo, H. (1996). *Ramón del Valle-Inclán'da Esperpentizm ve Bohemya Işıkları*. Ankara: ISBN: 975-94981-0-3.
- Valle-Inclán, R. (2016). *Luces de Bohemia*. Madrid: Leelibros.

The Interaction of the Design Studios with the Professional Life in Interior Architecture/Design

Murat Özdamar, Betül Bilge

1. Introduction

All through the educational period of Interior Architecture/ Design, the “designing courses” has the most important place, as, both the educational and the professional phases of Interior Architecture/Design mainly begins with the designing procedure which is formed by the abstract decisions and conceptions of them.

The designing ways of the students is the most important point during their educational period. But the designing characteristics, ways or the procedures of the students is not the only need of them for their professional life. That is why, during the educational period, we have to be dealing with the professional life for the students in order to show the forthcoming life that they will be facing with. Beside the designing procedures of the students, we have to make them ready for the professional life of them.

As IFI (International Federation of Interior Architects / Designers) which was founded in 1963 describes that;

“Theoretical, applied, and innate knowledge are fundamental to the practice of interior design and interior architecture.”

within IFI Interiors Declaration (2011).

But we have to know how to use it, and in order to know it, we can be learning it during our educational period, as there is a Latin sentence “verum ipsum factum” that is inscribed above the entry doors of Venice School of Architecture. In English it means “understanding arises through making.” (McCarter 2008). This sentence or aphorism causes an exposing of a question, “what does the interior architects/designers make?”

Firstly we make the interior architectural/design of the projects, after those; secondly the presentational and technical drawings and thirdly for some of the Interior architects/designers; they “make” the construction of their own or his or her colleagues’ projects.

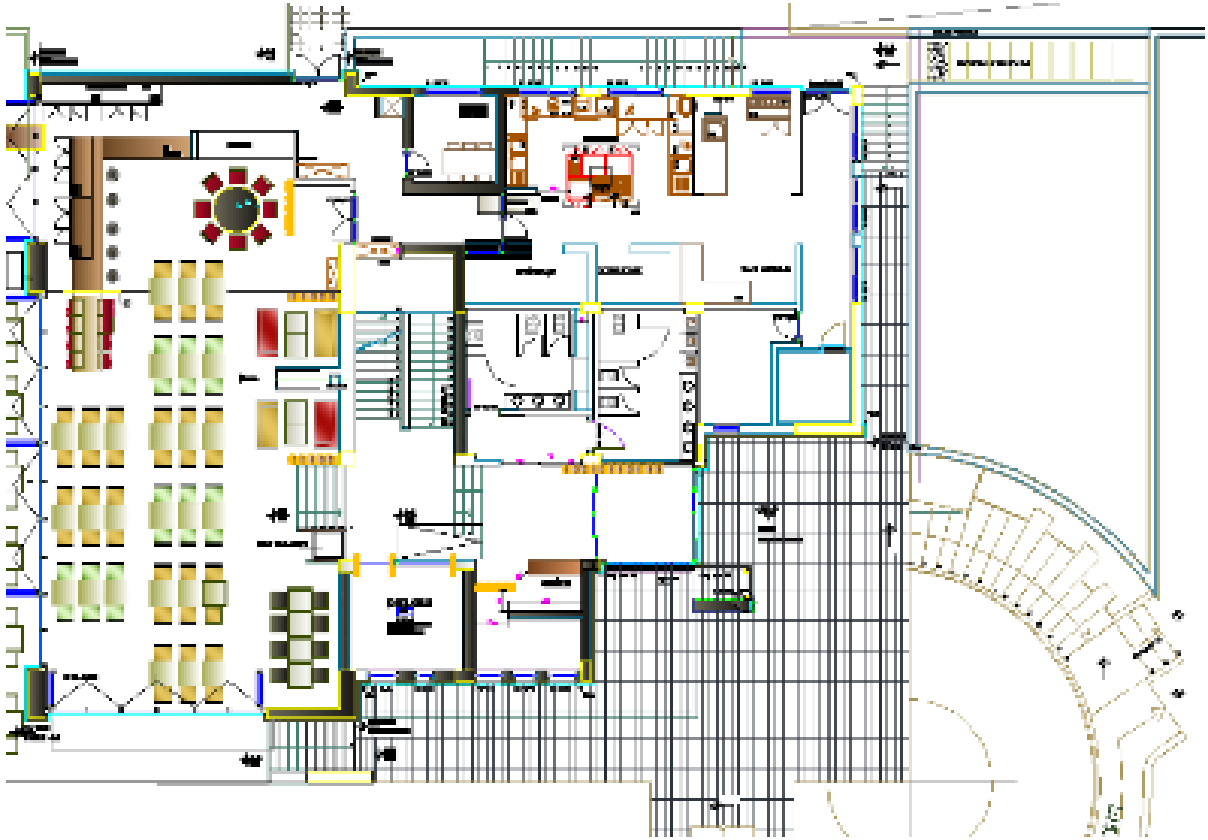


Figure 1: Plan Drawing, 2009
Photo: Murat Özdamar



Figure 2: General View 1, 2009
Photo: Murat Özdamar



Figure 3: General View 2, 2009
Photo: Murat Özdamar

That is why we have two different decisions as; Matthew Crawford discusses the conflict between ‘knowing that’ and ‘knowing how’ within his book “Shop Class as Soulcraft”. According to him, “knowing that” has a really important role which we have during the educational period, but also he states that “knowing how” should be done and understood during the same period in order to learn about the construction of the designs of the students (Crawford, 2010). Also Kahvecioglu (2007) suggests that the complex structure of design education forces the use of creative management strategies or organizational processes, both individually and in groups, which is a real need for the candidates of professional interior architects/designers.

2. The “Project”

Snodgrass, discusses the correlation between the theoretical and practical for the educational period of designing. Firstly the terms “theory” and “practice” were examined by the correlation with the Greek origins of the words. The word “theory” in Greek “*episteme*” means, the knowledge that pre-exists; and the word “practice” in Greek “*techne*” means making something according to the episteme. (2000), so firstly we have to teach and show about the differences between the theory and the practice to the students.

Through the “Studio Sessions” of Interior Architecture/Design educational period/life, the students are dealing with many functional subjects about the main design problem, where they have to be able to decide all about them in order to complete/finish their projects; the historical background of the profession, the structural, mechanical, constructional and attractional knowledge, the presentational tools or ways, drawings and drawing techniques and computerized showing ways (Ertek, 2014).

But generally during that period, they do not enforced for the constructional decisions of the projects. They mainly deal about the theoretical part of their projects, The sentence in Latin words at the beginning part of the work here comes again, “understanding arises through making”, so that is why we call them “apprentice” when they are new graduated. So we have to make them experienced for those knowledge during their educational period.

In order to make them know about such things with their projects, the chosen project types and size of them should be cared;

Firstly, in order to teach about something, the content of the project is much more important than the size of it. The big size of the project is not the applicable way of teaching for interior architecture/design. Of course, there will be big projects within their professional life, but the students of us should learn about the problem solving methods or wright designing ways. By that way it will not be important whether the size of the project is big or small as the answer for the question or the reaction for the problem will be same.

Secondly, after having the general layout, the profession Interior Architecture/Design mainly deals about the “Details” within a project, and in order to be dealt with the details they have to know about the materials and constructional equipment and ways for those. And to know about those, the theoretical knowledge will not be enough. Because of that, there has to be practical education during the projects of them. By that way the students will be able to design by deciding about the materials or ways according to their interior architectural/design projects.

This means that, the project is not a drawing only, it has many branches. But for a project we have firstly 5 questions, those are;

- For what?
- Where?
- For whom?
- How?
- When?

But when we are asking for those questions for designing a project, we meet 3 main points apart from those, especially beginning by the educational period of the profession;

- Function, functionality,
- Aesthetics,
- Durability,

of the design. So in order to answer for those headlines the students have to answer those by the beginning of their educational period in the “design courses”.

3. Educational Access

The educational programs should be used in order to show the students the need for the professional needs especially for the materials those will be used for the projects.

When we search for the academic programs of the schools, we meet with the lessons those are getting on especially with theoretical ways, the students may see the photographs and the drawings of the materials, but that has to be done in a much more active way by getting on with the materials itself.

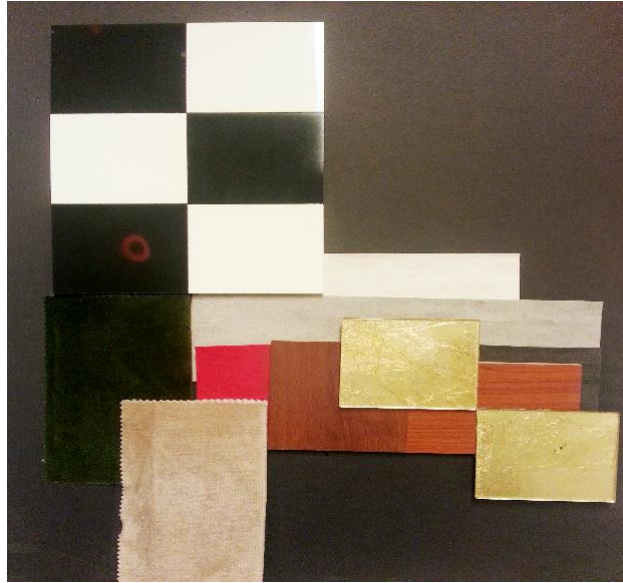


Figure 4: Material Board, 2015

Photo: Murat Özdamar



Figure 5: Material Board, 2017

<https://coloursandmaterials.wordpress.com>

This means that the educational programs of the departments should be considered according to those needs, or in another way the courses should be done with the materials themselves.

So this way of educational approach will make a new kind of program which will make the students ready for a new trend within the building industry; “Design-built”. It is a way for managing all the things with integrating a business from start to finish, as can be done by our students in the future, to

provide the clients with a fully designed and totally integrated interior architecture/design projects (Haddad, 2014).

4. Hypothesis

In order to confirm the idea, we have to have a hypothesis about the subject which is;

“The students of Interior Architecture/Design has to have the constructional and material data and knowledge in a living way”

5. Data and Methods

With the purpose and need of getting the data for the hypothesis depending on the topic;

Qualitative data collection method was used;

The examinations by searching for the sources on the subjects are done,

The observations are done,

The conduct interviews,

And the surveys are done with the students and the professionals of Interior Architecture/Design.

Mainly the surveying method was used/done by filling out the surveys, but during the surveying method it is seen that the student respondents did not like to answer the whole questions during the questionnaire or the survey. That is why, some main questions were chosen in order to ask, and their scope were reduced in order to get the elegant and pure answers.

The hypothesis was mainly related with the “interior architect/design students” and “interior architects/designers”. The surveys were done with 34 students and 21 interior architects/designers. Identical questions were asked during the survey in order to get the real decisions of them and to get the accurate inference.

6. Research Results

During the research, the problems about the new Interior Architect/Designer candidate format was asked to the Professional ones, and the main answers about the questions are;

- The problem of not dealing with the details of the designs,
- The problem of not knowing about the materials,
- The problem of timidity or hesitating.

And according to the students;

- The problem of time scheduling with the projects,
- The problem of cannot finding all the related things on internet,
- The problem of “hard to find the materials”.

Generally the students want the knowledge directly prepared for them and want to get it without any occupation.

The main research way for them is “internet”, and they want to learn everything about the subject by getting on with those internet sites.

“Hesitating to ask for something”, is another problem that both sides are approving. So it has to be analysed.

According to the questions and the answers with the Interior Architects/Designers and the students of the profession; the main problem is seen with the correlation of the professional life with the education.

7. Conclusion

All the things that we get through is for the development of our professions, that is why we have to be correlating the two sides of the profession.

In order to get them together, the main solution will be by having courses which can be getting them together, but the new question arises there;

“do we have to give them the chance of having the professional, technical education?”;

or

“do we have to wait for them in order to find their own answers or ways by finding those professionals?”

That is really a hard question. But according to the elderly ones “direct observation of something or to be participating within an event” is the main idea for learning and understanding.

So in today's conditions we have to be correlating with both sides within the educational part that we have; and get them together in a consistent way in order to have developing profession of Interior Architecture/Design within the future.

References

- Ciravoglu, A. (2003). Mimari Tasarım Eğitiminde Formel ve Enformel Çalışmalar Üzerine (Formal and Informal Studies in Architectural Design Education). *Yapı*, 257, 43-47.
- Crawford, Matthew B. 2010. *Shop Class as Soulcraft: An Inquiry into the Value of Work*. New York: Penguin Books.
- Cross, N. (2006), *Designerly ways of knowing*. London:Springer-Verlag.
- Design-built. (199999). Retrieved at January 20, 2017, from <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Design%E2%80%93build>
- Ertek, H., (2014). “İçmimarlık Eğitiminde Ekolleşme”. 1. Uluslararası İçmimarlık Eğitimi Sempozyumu. Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Türkiye.
- Haddad, R. (2014). “Research and Methodology for Interior Designers.” *Social and Behavioral Sciences* 122, 283 – 291.
- IFI, International Federation of Interior Architects (2011). *IFI Interiors Declaration*. Retrieved at January 19, 2017, from <http://www.ifiworld.org/#Homepage>.
- Kahvecioglu Paker, N. (2007). Architectural design studio organization and creativity, *ITU A/Z*, 4/2, 6-26.
- McCarter, R. 2008. “The Thought of Construction.” In *Ghost: Building an Architectural Vision*, by Bryan MacKay-Lyon, 190-212. New York: Princeton Architectural Press.
- Schön, D.A.(1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner: toward a new design for teaching and learning in the professions*. San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Schwartz, C. (2013). Drawing Conclusions: A Student's Introduction to the Realities of Their Designs, *Design Principles and Practices: An International Journal – Annual Review*, 7, 19-28. Retrieved at June 11, 2016, from <http://ijgar.cgpublisher.com/product/pub.282/prod.14>.
- Snodgrass, A. (2000). “On Theorizing Architectural Education.” *Architectural Theory Review* 5, no. 2 (November): 89-93.

Sacredness Of The Olive Tree For The Turkish Cypriots And The Ritual Of Burning Olive Tree Leaves As Incensing To Be Protected From Evil Gaze

Gönül Reyhanoğlu

1. Introduction

Turkish Cypriots believe that some people have the potential of negative energy that harm both the living and non-living beings by their gaze, which is generally regarded as the evil eye, envy or covet of some people. Different methods for being protected from the effects of the gaze have been used and one of these protection methods has been burning the olive leaves as a kind of incensing. Dry olive trees are usually burnt in a clay censer or a steel strainer and those who are thought to need protection from the evil eye are incensed by the distributed smoke of the burning leaves. The sacredness of the olive tree and the belief of the evil eye as well as the belief that the harms of the evil eye can be prevented by using the olive tree leaves have a mythic characteristic. Myths that provide solutions to social problems continue to live as beliefs in modern societies unless the problem exists. Thus, by trying to understand a community's myths and the related rituals and practices can be a guide for understanding humanity.

2. The Aim and Method of the Study

The aim of this study is to examine the belief and the ritual of burning olive tree leaves in order to be protected from the effects of 'gaze'. The target context of the study is Turkish Cypriots that live in the northern part of Cyprus. The findings of the study have been gathered by some observation (participant or non-participant) and interview notes taken in various dates in Cyprus. Some studies and researches of other researchers have also been used. In this study, the belief and ritual of burning the olive tree leaves will be examined within the context of the Mediterranean identity and in relation with Malinowski's *Theory of Functionalism* as well as the mythological studies of Mircea Eliade in terms of questioning the usages, functions and meanings of such rituals for the society.

3. Turkish Cypriot, Islander and the Mediterranean Identity

After the Ottomans conquered Cyprus in 1571 from Venetians, the Turks settled in the island by coming from different regions and cities of Turkey, and they constituted the Muslim population of the island (Islamoğlu, 2004, p.13). After the Turks' settlement, some of the Venetians, Lusignans and Greeks who were then inhabiting on the island converted to Islam, and the rest is recorded to be constituting the Christian population (Erdengiz, 1993, ps. 20-21; 24), which majorly have been the Greeks that Turkish people lived together with until 1974.ⁱ

The ancestors of the Turks immigrated to Anatolia from the Middle Asia which constituted the Turkish culture. As a result, the ones who settled in Cyprus had brought their culture, beliefs, traditions and customs to Cyprus since 1571, which ended up constituting the identity of the Turkish Cypriots. Besides the traces of the Anatolian culture as well as the old Turkish culture and belief systems (Artun, 2001, p. 28), the cultural elements belonging to the Mediterranean can also be identified within the identity of Turkish Cypriots. That is to say, there have been common traits belonging to the people of Mediterranean due to their life connected with sea, busy trade life and connection with other colonies. Therefore, not only the cities, but also the itinerant merchants have played a role on constituting the distinctive dynamism and multiplicity belonging specially to the Mediterranean people (Tekeli, 2006, p. 142).

Atun (2008) remarks that the island has been defined as a 'mosaic of cultures' in most of the written resources (p. 259). Thus, Kefeli (2006) defines Mediterranean as an 'intersection of cultures' for being a location to bring various civilizations together (p. 24). In fact, the beliefs, traditions and customs, but also the common life in the same geography and climate have all played a role on

constituting the upper-identity of the Turkish Cypriots (Tekeli, 2016, p. 11). That is to say, the Islander identity, or the Mediterranean identity can be said to be the upper-identity of the Turkish Cypriots. To illustrate, within religious context, Christianity or Islam refer to the upper-identity; Orthodoxy and Protestantism, or Sunnism and Alawism refer to the lower-identity of people (Çağatay, 1996, p. 6).

In brief, Turkish Cypriot identity is not only constituted by the beliefs, traditions and customs of the Turks who migrated from Anatolia, but also by the influence of the Mediterranean geography as well as the multicultural life especially with the Greeks. To repeat, the Islander identity, but above that the Mediterranean identity has become the upper-identity of the Turkish Cypriots which is also shared by the Greek Cypriots.

4. Olive, Olive Tree, the Sacredness of the Olive Tree in Cyprus.

When some academic literary texts concerning the olive tree is viewed, it is observed that the sources have almost no information about the olive tree. Some sources write that the olive tree is regarded to be the first of all trees, or it was the oldest tree —according to some sources, they date back to 4000 years before.ⁱⁱ Moreover, it is confirmed by most of the researches that the olive's homeland had been Anatolia, which was later spread to Greek, Italy, France or Spain.ⁱⁱⁱ

In a Cyprus village called Kalkanlı, there are some monumental trees which are considered to be planted by Lusignans in 1200 A.D.^{iv} Furthermore, there is a village called 'Zeytinli' ('Zeytin' in Turkish means 'Olive' and 'Zeytinli' means 'From Olive' in terms of stating where a person is from) whose name was initially 'Tempos', which is believed to be related with the Knights Templar when they were in control in Cyprus. It had been the village where olive oil was majorly produced (Nesim, 2002, p. 29). According to some archaeological excavations, it is identified that olive farming was irrigated in the II. Century, B.C. Besides, the olive or olive oil were the primary products in trading (Atun, 2008, p. 260). Atun (2008) also informs that "wild olive trees had been tamed initially in the eastern part of the Mediterranean and then spread to the west by Phoenicians that had a leading role in maritime trade" (p. 259). The olive has also played an important role on improving the Mediterranean economy because of its economic value as well as its essential place in people's lives.^v

Some trees are considered to be sacred in the culture of Turkish Cypriots and the olive tree is one of them. Moreover, some of the trees are regarded to be auspicious while some of them are regarded to be inauspicious, so the olive is accepted to be auspicious (Atun, 2008, p. 266). The olive is also considered sacred in the Holy Quran —that is the sacred book of the Muslim Turkish people. Thus, in the month of Ramadan, which is the month of fasting, Turkish Cypriots break their religious fasting with an olive (one of the foods that fasting can be broken with). In addition, in the ritual of burning olive leaves, it is a common belief that one should cut the olive leaves from the direction of 'qibla'^{vi} (Özokutan, 2002, p. 196). That is to say, the direction of qibla is considered to be sacred, so accordingly the act of cutting leaves from the olive tree is considered to be sacred.

Hessenburg (1998) mentions that the olive oil in the ancient times is regarded as sacred and it is used as a treatment for curing some illnesses in their daily lives (p. 50). It is believed that the olive oil has a curative power and it is commonly used among people. Nesimi (2002) similarly states that olive oil is majorly used among people in the village of Zeytinlik as it is believed that the olive oil has a power of healing (p. 34).

Olive tree is identified in some of the mythological texts. In other words, the olive is mentioned in some mythologies and legends. Atun (2008) remarks that "according to the Ancient historian Herodotus, the olive tree is a gift to the mortal humans by the Gods in Greek mythology" (p. 259). Similarly, Hessenburg (1998) states that the olive trees are given as a gift to the humans by the Greek Goddess Athena, and it symbolizes victory and peace (p. 50). Furthermore, one of the ancient writers Pausânias notes that olive trees are carried by Hercules from the far countries to the North in order to award the winners in the Olympic games (Atun, 2008, p. 259). The olive is also mentioned in the Genesis flood narrative. The Biblical story of Noah tells of a dove returning to the Arch with a plucked olive leaf from the mountain of Ararat (Atun, 2008, p. 259). It should be noted that the pigeon or the dove holding an olive branch in its beak is a common symbol for peace for the Turkish Cypriots. In other words, olive branch or olive leaf symbolizes peace for the Turkish Cypriots. Above all, İsmet Vehit Güney designed

the original Cyprus Republic^{vii} flag with two branches of the olive tree^{viii}, which makes a reference to the desire for peace in Cyprus as well.

It can be said that by studying the myths, a lot of elements or features about a society can be found. Therefore, this study about the belief on the effect of gaze demonstrates some features about Turkish Cypriots. Thus, burning the olive leaves for the belief of being protected from the gaze has a mythical feature. In other words, the mythic element of burning olive leaves can be related to Malinowski's *Functional Theory* as well as to Mircea Eliade's mythological studies which will be explained in the next part.

5. The Belief on the Effect of Gaze and the Ritual of Burning Olive Leaves in relation with Malinowski's *Functional Theory* of Culture and Eliade's Mythological Studies

Gaze can be defined as a malignant or fatal power of some humans that inflict harm to some people, animals or objects. According to the Greeks, the *Matiasma* is considered to be the classic Greek evil eye symbol. It is called the "evil eye" in English, and "Bednezer" in Persia (Bağışkan, 2007, p. 105). Turkish Cypriots use the terms of 'haset' (covetousness), 'kem göz' (indivous eye), 'göz-haset' (evil eye-covetousness), etc... to define the 'gaze'. There is also an expression, "The indivous eye has consumed me", which shows the degree of the negative effect of the gaze among people. It is believed that some people are capable of a certain power which can take another person under control in terms of creating his/her happiness or misery. There is a common belief among people that human gaze can consume and destroy not only a person's property, but also his/her own life (Gökdemir, 2002, p. 62). It is also believed that the roots of the belief of the gaze go back on the feelings of jealousy and envy (Üçer, 1997, p. 164; Öztürk, 1982, p. 3).

The belief on the effects of the gaze dates back to the ancient times (Öztürk, 1982, p. 4; Artun, 2014, p. 379), and it is identified that many different objects are used in order to be protected from the effects of the gaze for many centuries in Cyprus. The Turkish Cypriot researcher and archeologist Tuncer Bağışkan writes that this belief dates back to the pre-historic times of Egypt, Babylon, Sumer and Anatolia, and the one who was exposed to the effects of the gaze was absolutely paralyzed. Bağışkan adds that before the invention of the glass or tile, people used to wear various periapts or amulets for protection (Bağışkan, 2007, p. 105).

Not only in the ancient times but also in our modern time, it is still believed that some people have an evil gaze which inflicts harm, bad luck or even death. Among Turkish Cypriots, being affected by the evil gaze is considered to be a belief which a person or a family's life, property or possessions are destroyed for no apparent reason (Gökdemir, 2002, p. 62). In order to be protected from the effects of the gaze, there are many rituals and practices that people perform, e.g. praying, or sacrificing an animal. Some simply say "masallah", which means "praise be" (—but generally stated for asking protection; sometimes written and hung on their cars or houses), and at that moment s/he pulls one of his/her ears and then knocks on something made of wood, e.g. a table, etc. with one of his/her finger bones. This is a common gesture that is done to be protected from the possible harms of the gaze. In other words, this gesture is believed to protect the one from the effects of the gaze. In addition, some carry periapts, amulets, or a blue bead worn against the evil eye either on their necks or on their wrists. Blue colour is especially used against the people with blue eyes, as blue color is associated with evil. That is to say, some people are hesitant and distrustful towards people with blue eyes as blue eyes are commonly considered to be inflicting harm. Such amulets or blue beads are also put in the cars or houses. What is more, some people use some other objects to protect their houses or possessions. For example, they put horseshoes or dead rams' horns on their houses or garden gates. They also use animal feathers and bones or tree branches (Gökdemir, 2002, p. 61).

As stated, different methods, rituals, customs or practices are implemented for being protected from the gaze, and one of those traditional protection rituals has been burning the olive leaves. In other words, the smoke of the burnt olive leaves are used as incense to protect the people who are considered to be under the effect of such a gaze. Dry olives are usually burnt in a clay censer or a steel strainer and the holder of the censer or the strainer waves the resulting smoke towards the person who is thought

to need protection from the evil eyes. Meantime, the holder recites a prayer or a rhymed statement. People sometimes use especially three or seven leaves in the censer (Bağışkan, 2007, p. 114).

In relation with Malinowski's functional theory of culture, the olive tree or an olive branch can be said to be 'a cultural object' which is used as a method for a solution to a problem (Malinowski, 1992, p. 89). According to Malinowski (1992) culture is regarded as a "vast apparatus, partly material, partly human and partly spiritual, by which man is able to cope with the concrete, specific problems that face him" (p. 25). Malinowski (1992) further argues that "culture functioned to meet the needs of individuals..." (p. 27). The ritual of burning olive leaves, then, has a similar function, and can accordingly be related to Malinowski's approach. In other words, the ritual of burning olive leaves is satisfying the need of being protected from evil. In fact, humanity has tried to control nature since the early ages and feared from the unknown things or some supernatural events which could not be comprehended or logically explained. In such cases, some people have accepted and used some solutions found by someone who had a similar experience (Öztürk, 1982, p. 4; Gökdemir, 2002, p. 62). Malinowski (1992) also states that "...the feelings of people and their motives were crucial knowledge to understand the way their society functioned" (p. 21). Therefore, the ritual of burning olive leaves is based on finding a solution to a problem, so this process makes this still-continuing ritual gaining a mythic element.

In addition, the ritual of burning olive leaves can be associated with Malinowski's approach that fire can be related to all performances or traditions because of the fire's fundamental biological function. Malinowski (1992) states that, "one of the simplest and most fundamental primitive crafts is that of fire-making. In this, over and above the manual ability of the craftsman, we find a definite scientific theory embodied in each performance, and in the tribal tradition thereof" (p. 26). In relation with this statement, it can be said that fire has an archaic feature. The pre-historic humans used fire for being protected from wild animals or dangers. Thus, the act of warding off the evil or malignancy can be said to be an archaic performance or practice. Above all, it can be said that the ritual of burning olive leaves can be dated back to Shamanism which is considered to be the Turks' oldest religion before adapting to Islam.

In Shamanism, it is mentioned about the power of warding off the evil with fire. It was also believed that the fire had a soul as well as purifying power to ward off the evil spirits and illnesses (Çoruhlu, 2000, p. 49). It is also mentioned about some beliefs and rituals about burning the leaves of the juniper tree in terms of asking the protection of a living object. This was also an attempt to find a solution to a supernatural power. Therefore, it is thought that the Turkish Cypriots's ritual of burning olive leaves exist in the Turk's Shamanistic belief system (Çoruhlu, 2000, p. 49), and relates to Malinowski's argument that culture functions to meet the needs of people.

The mythic element of burning olive leaves can also be related to Eliade's mythological studies. According to Mircea Eliade (2001), "To know the myths is to learn the secret of the origin of things," and "knowing the origin of an object, an animal, a plant, and so on is equivalent to acquiring a magical power over them" (p. 17). Therefore, knowing the myths provides a way to learn things about the origins of a culture. Eliade (2001) also remarks that "'living" a myth...implies a genuinely "religious" experience, since it differs from the ordinary experience of everyday life" (p. 29). At this point, it can be identified that the Turkish Cypriots also perform the ritual of burning olive leaves in a religious manner. As stated, the holder of the clay censer or a strainer recites a prayer, but this is generally the Falaq and/or the Naas Surah^{ix} from the Holy Quran, which is/are recited for being protected from any witchcraft or magic. It is a common belief that one should cut the olive leaves from the direction of qibla (Özokutan, 2002, p. 196). This is the part of the belief that one believes in the power of God which has the ability to ward off the evil.

Eliade (2001) additionally states that every magical chant must be preceded by an incantation telling the origin of the remedy used, otherwise it does not act...For the remedy or the healing chant to have its effect, it is necessary to know the origin of the plant, the manner in which the first woman gave birth to it (p. 27). Eliade focuses on the importance of reciting, reading from the memory. In this context, it can be said that the Falaq and Naas Surahs are recited from the memory and for seeking a kind of a remedy. In fact, people commonly recite these prayers in order to be protected from evil by

asking God's help (Tekerek, 2003, p. 81). It is primarily based on the trust and belief in God for its protection as well as its justice and power. This recitation for being protected from the evil eye is also performed in other contexts, e.g. when a couple gets married; when a mother gives birth to her child; when the puerperal is helped to get up from the bed and walk; when a child has henna within his/her palms and/or legs in his/her sixth month; or when a boy is circumcised, etc... (Mear, 1992, p. 40; İslamoğlu, 2004, p. 60; Reyhanoğlu, 2016).

In addition, the holder of the clay censer or the steel strainer generally recites a rhymed statement which asks protection from certain people whose physical features are attributed to evil characteristics. Bağışkan writes (2007) that the holder of the censer utter the words asking protection "from the ones who have blue eyes; from the ones who scowls/frowns; from the ones whose legs are hairy", and continues with a curse "let the eye come out of the one who has an evil eye" (p. 114). This statement, which is rhymed in Turkish, shows, for instance, how people with blue eyes are associated with evil, so one should be careful from them. It seems that hazel eyes are associated with evil too. This can be seen in a similar rhymed statement which includes another curse: "Those who have hazel eyes; blue eyes; those who have hairy legs; those who are gap-toothed; those who scowl/frown; let their eyes twirl like these leaves that twirl while burning" (Bağışkan, 2007, p. 114). This ritual, after all, has one common purpose: to ward off the evil and malignance, and to invite the goodness and health.

While the olive leaves are burning, there is a cracking noise of the burning leaves which is assumed that the evil is cracking likewise (Yorgancıoğlu, n.d). Some believe that the number of the cracking leaves show the number of the evil eyes (Bağışkan, 2007, p. 114). The ritual of burning olive leaves concludes by putting the censer or the strainer outside of the house; or the remains of the ashes of the olive trees are buried in the ground (Tekerek, 2003, ps. 82-83; Bağışkan, 2007, p. 114). With this concluding act, it is believed that the effects of the gaze is also burnt and sent away from the house.

6. Other Functions of Burning the Olive Leaves

In the culture of Turkish Cypriots, olive leaves are not only used for the intention of being protected by the evil eye, but also for other purposes, e.g. for telling fortunes, making a wish, etc. As an example, when a person loved someone secretly, s/he would throw the olive leaves onto the fire, so if the leaves of the olive branch had a cracking noise, it was assumed that s/he was also loved (Parlaktepe, 2001, p. 186).

The same thing was sometimes done for an expectation; in a way, making a wish expecting it to become true in the future. For this reason, it can be said that this usage of the olive leaves has a mythical element as the olive leaves are used for the purpose of receiving information about future. It can be said that the usage of leaves for telling fortunes or making a wish carry the traces of Shamanism, so it is important in that sense. This usage of the leaves can also be considered to be a kind of relief of coping with the unknown. Nesim (2002) states that "the cracking leaves and the smoke of the burning leaves still continue to be the most readily available substance for bringing people inner peace" (p. 34).

A survey with the Turkish Cypriots shows how burning the olive trees is related to their identity. At this point, the olive seems to be a symbol for being an islander, a Mediterranean. In other words, some Turkish Cypriots were asked how or with which symbols they express themselves in social media, and one of the answers were burning the olive leaves and incensing. This incensing has become a symbol which is often mentioned when they chat among themselves. It seems that this is used to maintain their unification so that the group continues to exist. Such sharings, then, reveal that the olive functions as a cultural item which provides a context for cultural communication between people. Finally, it can be said that such sharings show the final form of the tradition.

7. Olive Tree and Olive Branch within a Cultural Corporation between the Turkish Cypriots and the Greek Cypriots

Turkish Cypriots and the Greek Cypriots have been living on the same island for a long time, but they lived together until 1974. Therefore, they had commonly exchanged many cultural customs or traditions for many years. As stated before, olive tree is sacred in the culture of Turkish Cypriots and it is sacred in the culture of Greek Cypriots too. Gökçeoğlu (1994) states that olive tree is considered to

be sacred for the Christians and the priests have a ritual of reciting religious prayers on the olive tree; moreover, olive tree is sacred for the Greeks because it had been a tree which protected Jesus from the malice of the Jews (p. 220-223).

Bağışkan (1998) remarks that the belief of regarding the olive tree as sacred had belonged to the Greeks, and this belief is adopted by the Turkish Cypriots afterwards (p. 267). In some cases, olive branches were brought to the priests of the churches, and the priests were reciting prayers on these branches. Not only the Greeks, but also the Turks were writing their names on the branches and giving them to the priests. Bağışkan (1988) adds that “the olive branches were remaining 40 days in the church” (p. 13), and it is identified that the priests were reciting prayers on the branches especially on a day which was regarded as ‘the Olive Day’ joint with their Easter celebration (Gökdemir, 1997, p. 39). Similarly, some Greeks were giving olive branches to the imams in the mosques. Bağışkan (1988) quotes from Dr. Stylianos that “the ritual of burning the olive leaves with the belief of warding off the evil had been both in Greeks and Turks not only for the objects or living beings, but also for the dead” (p. 13). Bağışkan (2007) also writes that the Greeks similarly believe that the gaze has a power for causing people’s death, drying up the trees, and eradicating not only the trees, but even the mountains (p. 109).

It should be added that the ritual of burning olive trees was included in Shamanism. At this point, it can be said that reciting the Falaq^x or the Naas^{xi} Surahs, or asking from the imam^{xii} to pray on the olive branches show the Islamic adaptation of this ritual. However, some other prayers or rhymed statements are considered to belong to the belief of Shamanism, and therefore being more archaic. This can be said especially by referring to the rhymed statement Bağışkan (2007) mentions that the holder of the censer utters the words asking protection “from the ones who have blue eyes; from the ones who scowls/frowns; from the ones whose legs are hairy; let the eye come out of the one who has an evil eye” (p. 114). There is also a similar statement: “May the covetousness of those with blue eyes; those with hairy legs; those with big boobs; those who are gap-toothed; and the head of the covetous go to the Kaf^{xiii} Mountain —go to the ends of the earth” (Tekerek, 2003, p. 81). Therefore, the ritual of burning olive leaves date back to the belief of Shamanism with the fact that there is not certain information when exactly this belief had started.

8. Conclusion

To sum up, the olive leaf as well as the beliefs and practices to use the olive leaf for protection from the supposed supernatural harms of the gaze can be considered to carry a mythic feature. Despite the modern society, urbanization or technological progresses, there is an unchanged mythical method for seeking a solution to a modern-day problem which still continues. In other words, the continuation of the ritual of burning olive leaves shows that the so-called problem —the belief of the existence of evil gaze, still exists. Therefore, mythology functions as a way for providing a solution for a social problem nowadays. Besides, myths and beliefs, rituals or practices related to myths function as transmitting the oldest form of the recollection to the next generations. When such beliefs and practices are examined, many elements about the roots of humanity can be found. Thus, trying to understand a community’s myths and the related rituals or practices can function as a guide to understand that community better.

Turkish Cypriots, whose roots date back to Anatolia, has formed a distinctive identity in Cyprus because of being exposed to the effects of the geography of Mediterranean. The collective life with other islanders, but especially with the Greeks has also influenced the identity of Turkish Cypriots in terms of sharing some common traits or practices with the other islanders. Therefore, it can be said that Turkish Cypriots have formed their Mediterranean identity, which can be considered to be the common upper-identity shared with the Greek Cypriots.

When the origins of the mythological narratives about the olive are examined, it can be concluded that they carry the characteristics of the Cyprus Island and Mediterraneanism. Thus, before converting to Islam, the Turks had rituals and practices for being protected from the belief of the gaze, but it seems that the ritual of burning olive leaves has taken its final form after coming to the island. This final form includes some particular attributions which are also commonly shared with the Greek Cypriots. So, the ritual of burning olive leaves and the sacredness of the olive tree in the Mediterranean function as connecting the two communities with a common upper-identity.

9. References

- Artun, E. (2014). *Ansiklopedik halkbilimi / Halk edebiyatı sözlüğü [Encyclopaedical ethnology / glossary of folk literature]*. Adana: Karahan Kitabevi.
- Atun, S., & Fevzioğlu, B. (2008). “Kıbrıs türk geleneğinde zeytin ve kahve” [Olive and coffee in the tradition of turkish cypriots]. *Kıbrıs Türk Kültürü Üzerine Belgeler-Bildiriler*. Cyprus: Suna ve Ata Atun Mağusa Tarihini Araştırma ve Yazım Vakfı.
- Bağışkan, T. (1988). “Karşılaştırma yöntemiyle Kıbrıslı Türk ve Rumlarda ortak inanç ve uygulamalar.” [Common beliefs and practices between the Turkish Cypriots and Greek Cypriots by comparison method]. *Halkbilimi*. 3(12), 6-17.
- Bağışkan, T. (2007). “Kıbrıs’ta ‘Göz Dutması’na Dayalı İnanç ve Uygulamalar” [Beliefs and Practices About ‘Gaze Sickness’ in Cyprus]. *Halkbilimi*. 21(55), sayfa numarası.
- Çoruhlu, Y. (2000). *Türk mitolojisinin anahtarları [Keys of the Turkish mythology]*. İstanbul: Kabalıcı Yayınevi.
- Eliade, M. (2001), *Mitlerin özellikleri [Characteristics of myths]* (Sema Rifat, Trans.) (2nd Ed.). İstanbul: OM Yayınevi.
- Erdengiz, A. (1993). “Kıbrıslı Türklerin kökeni ve tarihi süreç içerisinde Kıbrıs Türk toplumunun oluşumu” [The roots of Turkish Cypriots and the formation of the Turkish Cypriot community within history]. *Halkbilimi*. 7(29), sayfa numarası.
- Gökçeoğlu, M. (1994). *Tezler ve Sözler [Discourses and Words]*. Lefkoşa: Yakın Doğu Üniversitesi Matbaası.
- Gökdemir, G. (1997). *Kuzey Kıbrıs Türk Cumhuriyeti’nde küçükbaş hayvancılık [sheep and goat farming in Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus]* (Unpublished undergraduate thesis). Hacettepe University, Ankara.
- Gökdemir, G. (2002). Kıbrıs Türk kültüründe (göz değmesi) ‘nazar inancı’ [the Belief of gaze sickness in the culture of Turkish Cypriots]. In *İnançlar, Halk Hekimliği, Kötü Sözler. Kıbrıs Türk Kültürü Çalışmaları III* (pp. sayfa numaralı lazım), Gazimağusa: Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- Hessenburg, C. (1988). Kutsal koruluklar ve bitki mitolojisi [Sacred forests and plant mythology]. *Halkbilimi*. 12(46), sayfa numaraları lazım.
- Honko, L. (2003). “Miti tanımlama problemi” [Problem in defining the myth] (Nezir Temür, Trans.). *Milli Folklor*, 59(sayı), sayfa numaraları.
- İslamoğlu, M. (2004). *Kıbrıs Türk folkloru* [Turkish Cypriot folklore]. Ankara: Ürün Yayınları.
- Kefeli, E. (2006). *Edebiyat coğrafyasında akdeniz*. [Mediterranean in literature geography]. İstanbul: 3F Yayınevi.
- Malinowski, B. (1992). *Bilimsel bir kültür teorisi*. [A scientific culture theory] (Saadet Özkal, Trans.). İstanbul: Kabalıcı Yayınevi.
- Mear, H. (1992). *Kıbrıs Türk toplumunda doğum, evlenme ve ölümle ilgili adet ve inanışlar* [Customs and beliefs about birth, marriage and death in the community of Turkish Cypriots]. Ankara: Milli Eğitim ve Kültür Bakanlığı Yayınları.
- Nesim, A. (2002). Zeytinlik köyünün inanç ve efsaneleri [Beliefs and legends of the zeytinlik village]. *İnançlar, Halk Hekimliği, Kötü Sözler Kıbrıs Türk Kültürü Çalışmaları III*. (pp. 29-37). GaziMağosa: Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- Özokutan, T. (2002). Kuzey Kıbrıs Türk halk kültüründe ağaç kültü [Tree cult in the Turkish folk culture of North Cyprus]. *İnançlar, Halk Hekimliği, Kötü Sözler. Kıbrıs Türk Kültürü Çalışmaları III*. Gazimağusa. Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- Öztürk, I. (1982). Göz değmesi (nazar) inancı ve gözboncuğunun tarihçesi [The belief of gaze sickness and the history of evil eye talisman]. *Türk Folkloru*. October, 39.
- Parlaktepe, D. (2002). Yeni Boğaziçi Köyünde halk inançları.” [public beliefs in the Village of Yeni Boğaziçi]. *İnançlar, Halk Hekimliği, Kötü Sözler Kıbrıs Türk Kültürü Çalışmaları III* (pp. 183-187). Gazimağusa: Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- Raglan, L. (2004). *Mit ve ritüel [Myth and Ritual]*. (Evrin Ölçer, Trans.). *Milli Folklor*. 16(61), sayfa numarası lazım.

- Reyhanoğlu, G. (2016). Bir kadın alanından başka bir kadın alanına anlam ve işlev kayması: Kıbrıslı Türklerde lohusayı yataktan kaldırma ritüelinde ‘çivit’ [Function and semantic shift from one realm of a woman to another realm of a woman: Indigo-colored in the ritual of helping the puerperal get up from the bed]. In Ö. Çobanoğlu, Z. Kaderli, P. Karataş, & B. Acınan (Eds.), *Proceedings of the IV. Uluslararası Halk Kültürü Sempozyumu* (pp. 410-418). Kazan, Ankara: Hacettepe Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- Tekeli, İ. (2016). İzmir tarihi'nin içine yerleştirilebileceği bir akdeniz üst anlatısı üzerine”. [A mediterranean metanarrative that can be situated in the history of Izmir]. In A. Yücel Kaya, A. Sabuktay, D. Akyalçın Kaya, & E. Akpınar. (Eds.), *Akdeniz Tarihi, Kültürü ve Siyaseti*, İzmir: İzmir Akdeniz Akademisi Tarih Kitaplığı.
- Tekerek, Ö. (2003). Nazar değmesi [Gaze sickness]. *Meslekler Törenler Kıbrıs Türk Kültürü Çalışmaları II*, Gazimağusa. Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi Yayınları, [sayfa numarası lazım](#).
- Üçer, M. (1997). Sivas yöresinde nazarlıklar ve nazarla ilgili inanışlar [Amulets and beliefs about the gaze in the region of Sivas]. *Gelenek-Görenek-İnançlar V. Milletlerarası Türk Halk Kültürü Sempozyum Bildirileri*. Ankara: Hacettepe Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- Yorgancıoğlu, O. (n.d.) *Kıbrıs Türk Folkloru Duydum, Gördüm, Yazdım*. [Turkish Cypriot folklore I've heard, seen, written]. Publication Place is not found.
- ⁱ Turkish Cypriots and Greek Cypriots started to live in different parts of the Island after the Turkey's Peace Operation in 1974. Since then, the island is divided into two and Turkish Cypriots are living in the northern part of Cyprus, while the Greek Cypriots are living in the south.
- ⁱⁱ Retrieved from <http://www.ozaydin.com.tr>, 2016.
- ⁱⁱⁱ Retrieved from [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Eternal_return_\(Eliade\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Eternal_return_(Eliade)), 2017.
- ^{iv} Retrieved from <http://northcyprusuk.com>, 2016.
- ^v Retrieved from <http://northcyprusuk.com>, 2016.
- ^{vi} The direction of the Kaaba in Mecca toward which Muslims turn while praying.
- ^{vii} Republic of Cyprus is now officially governed by the Greek Cypriots, but it was shared with the Turkish Cypriots before 1974.
- ^{viii} Retrieved from <http://northcyprusuk.com>, 2016.
- ^{ix} “These Surahs were revealed to the Holy Prophet (S.A.W) during a time when His health was slightly affected by witchcraft or black magic.” Retrieved from http://www.janathimessage.co.uk/ramadantopics/ramadan_topics08/Surah_Naas_and_Surah_Falaq.html, 2017.
- ^x Surah Falaq: “In the name of Allah, the Most Beneficent, the Most Merciful. Say: I seek refuge in the Lord of the Daybreak from the evil of that which He created; from the evil of the darkness when it is intense, and from the evil of malignant witchcraft, and from the evil of the envier when he envieth.” Retrieved from http://www.salmanspiritual.com/falaq_naas.cfm, 2017.
- ^{xi} Naas Surah: “Say: I seek refuge in the Lord of mankind; the King of mankind; the God of mankind, from the evil of the sneaking whisperer, who whispereth in the hearts of mankind, of the jinn and of mankind.” Retrieved from http://www.salmanspiritual.com/falaq_naas.cfm, 2017.
- ^{xii} Muslim priest.
- ^{xiii} Kaf Mountain is a mythical mountain which is used often in fairy tales, connoting the farthest place on earth.

Investigation Of Different Water Corridor Be Therapeutically

Çiğdem Sakici, Banu Bekci, Elif Ayan

1. Introduction

The open green spaces that exist in our cities and should be are very important in terms of urban health and human health. Nature-nature, which is a source of life, is always concepts that are thought together with human beings (Kutay and Kesim 2006). The open green spaces offer a landscape and a source of nature to the city man. It affects people's spiritual selves, increases their commitment to the place, and helps renew their lost energy. In short, open green spaces are very important areas in terms of physical, aesthetic, psychological, social, recreational, technical, economic and urban health. Urban open green spaces aim to increase the health of people and to strengthen their health (Stigsdotter 2005). The most important factor in the establishment of the cities today is the interrelationship of the natural features of the places where the civilization takes place. Characteristic features of the area play a big role. Besides these properties, water is also very important. They are the bases of the "Urban Ecological Corridor", which have streams, river beds, and social roles (Wilcock 1992). On the riversides or on the deltas formed by these rivers, there are coastal cities which have developed on the meeting places of two or three rivers or on the lakes and seashores (Proshansky, 1995).

In addition to its relation to the immediate vicinity of the green path formed along the river corridor in the city, the relationship between the open green spaces in the city and the parks and squares and the recreational, functional as well as the urban contribution to these areas is very important. Since the urban rivers are different structures in terms of coastal and water relations, the regulations to be made and the functions to be achieved should also be appropriate for this structure (Önen 2007).

Water corridors are the most suitable natural environments in terms of recreational use due to the diversity of the natural elements they have (water, different vista, water like sound, moving topography, rich plant community etc.) and the strong sense of space they give. The connection of residential areas with waterways and canals is the ideal landscape elements for urban recreational features. Marinas, terraces that descend to waterways, zoos and botanical gardens and other public parks and gardens, amphibians, scenic hiking trails, riding and bicycle paths are examples of these spaces. In order to raise the quality of the environment and offer alternatives for outdoor recreation in the cities of today's western countries, river valleys have an important place in the planning of green road and green belt as linear corridor. The green channels or corridors formed by the river valleys extend into the city center and provide an organic integrity between the urban open and green space system and the rural environment (Öztan and Çalık 2000). Water corridors in the city contribute to the city and the people of the city from many directions. These corridors are rehabilitated in all major cities with almost river corridor. In recent times, river corridors have an important place in terms of cultural and recreational resources as well as natural networks (Baschak and Brown 1994). High water canals are areas used for sporting activities and various recreational activities due to lack of open green space in increasingly intensified urbanization (Asakawavd, 2004). Kaplan (1977) has shown that the river and its immediate surroundings create an admiration for people with a sense of order, mystery and loyalty. It offers a natural environment with vegetation in and around the river corridors. In many studies it has been found that people prefer bituminous natural landscapes (Kaplan and Kaplan 1989; Ulrich 1986; Smardon 1988).

1.1 Water Corridors Of Value in Terms of Therapy

"Healing", development of state on health or the of a person's self-development in new conditions means and often refers to expressed useful process as completely well being himself (Sakıcı 2009).

Water is important in terms of human existence provides a difference between life and death. Also the water creates mental and spiritual life center. Water image in landscape has been fouhe benefits in

terms of health and psychological effects (Burmil vd. 1990). It has an important with restful and healing effects in the design and planning. After the passing of time were visited youthful, energetic, feel refreshed stress away from areas that are defined as provide therapy (Sakıcı 2009).

Natural areas designed to provide therapy must be away from the monotony, providing multi-sensory (Brawley 1992; Ghose 1999). This monotony distance is valid value of all resources of the field (water element, the morphology of the land, green space, plant composition, rocky environment, etc.). Sensory stimulation with vision, hearing, taste, touch and smell the 5 senses for our live provided by the presence of water. The stream evaluation in terms of therapy contributes water and plant for tarrangements appealing sensory organs. Eyesight that simulates the water surface, the characteristics of the plant, the flow volume of water to the hearing, the presence of wildlife, to establish contact with water and sense of touch to the plants of different tissues, the presence of plants showing characteristics associated with the smell of scent, taste and edible plants to people in terms of therapy suitable for rehabilitation are features (Sakıcı 2009).

2. Material And Method

Study area is selected Bartın, Kastamonu and Eskisehir. These cities within located within the water corridor aimed to determine the contribution of therapeutically. first study area, Bartın Stream contribute to the city in terms of visual also used in the recreational aspect. The second study area Karaçomak Stream made the reclamation the city in contributing visually, Porsuk Stream that negative factors because of urbanization and the identity of the loser after positive again with rehabilitation the third area contaminated by nature, and the citizens of contrubiton to therapeutically it is selected. The map of the place selected as the study area is presented in Figure 1.

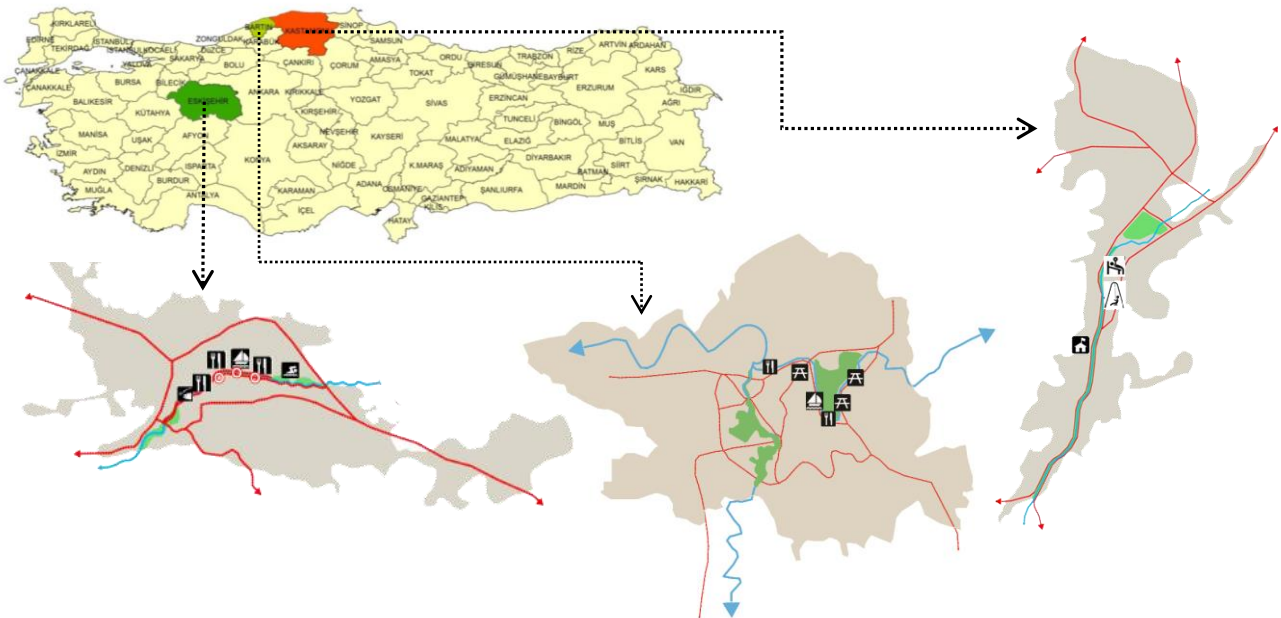


Figure 1. Study area

Bartın City; between $32^{\circ} 22'$ east longitude and $41^{\circ} 40'$ northern latitude is located. The area is 2143km^2 , covers about 0.3% of the country of territory. Bartın is bordered East Kastamonu, Karabük in the south, the north by the Black Sea west of Zonguldak. Bartın Stream integrated with the city and the forested areas is the city center also a 12km of water transportation. The stream throught are quite native species (Url1 2016).

Kastamonu City; is located in the western Black Sea region between $41^{\circ} 21'$ north latitude and $33^{\circ} 46'$ east longitude. It has 13.1081km^2 area, Karaçomak Stream is located city center but the water level due to be connected to Karaçomak Dam. It is very poor in terms of plant diversity (Url2 2016).

Investigation Of Different Water Corridor Be Therapeutically

Eskişehir City; between and 39° 46' east longitude 30° 33' north latitude is located. It has 13.653km² area. Stream offers visual beauty in terms of plant density also is positive value the area with proximity to water and gondola rides in terms of usage (Url3 2016). Sections existing of the study area showed Figure 2.



Figure 2. Sections existing of the study area

In study was used the survey method. Many studies have indicated that their preference judgments based on the photograph is results obtained by making direct field (Meitner 2004; Schroeder & Daniel 1980; Stamps 1990; Zube1984). Bartın, Kastamonu, Eskisehir field made survey after these area was carried out inventory with the help of photographs. The individual user are addressed questions relating to the use of all areas related to at the detected three areas. Figure 3.



Figure 3. Study areas images (Orginal, 2012)

Sakıcı (2009) used scoring table in the study, percentage of success in terms of water use created and assessed by researchers, in questioning the therapeutic value of the field 'arrangements that appeal to the sense organs', 'natural environment relationship', 'field differences', 'peace', 'quiet/tranquility', 'relaxing / comforting', 'mystery', 'natural sounds' (birds, ducks and so on.), 'wildlife', 'plant diversity', 'land mobility' questions were examined headings. All the criteria were evaluated by using the user of areas. For each property in the scoring table; the user giving score from 0 to 3 is requested and in scoring represented 0 not, 1 few, 2 moderate, 3 much.

According to participated from each cities the they gave score to was used t test for whether sex of the statistically significant differences show to determine. city of residence of the people given answers to each water corridor the to whether there is among this water corriodor a statistically significant difference made simple variance analysis. if significant differences were between groups, in intergroup pairwise comparisons by Tukey test was used to create homogeneous groups.

3. Findings

A total of 120 students of the study carried out with the participation of 40 students from the cities gave points to each question. These students is composed the Kastamonu University, Bartın University and Anadolu University. Percentage of sex distribution by cities are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Gender Distribution

	Bartın		Kastamonu		Eskişehir	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Female	21	52,5	29	72,5	18	45
Male	19	47,5	11	27,5	22	55

According to survey results, arrangements that appeal to the senses in terms of therapeutic value shows the percentage of 78.61%, the highest Porsuk Stream. Porsuk Stream and Bartın Stream percent in terms of success to establish a relationship with the natural environment is higher compared to the Karaçomak Stream. Water visually 'reflection', 'loss', 'flow' like in terms of attractiveness 80.83% Porsuk Stream the highest score while Karaçomak Stream has the lowest score and 35% because of the water is quite low level stream. according to the seasons showing characteristic plants therapeutically is seen that 73.33% of in Porsuk stream. Water detectability in terms of 'acoustic' in Porsuk Stream a maximum percentage of 73.88%, while it is seen that the low Karaçomak stream with 35.83%.

Of respondents between water corridors they have given score, in terms of people surveyed cities where live people in these cities is observed statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$). Descriptive statistics by city water corridor are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics

Water Corridor	City	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Bartın Stream	Kastamonu	40	25,28	9,04
	Bartın	40	17,00	6,41
	Eskişehir	40	20,23	8,45
	Total	120	20,83	8,68
Karaçomak Stream	Kastamonu	40	11,80	8,04
	Bartın	40	14,88	8,39
	Eskişehir	40	17,40	8,76
	Total	120	14,69	8,64
Porsuk Stream	Kastamonu	40	30,28	5,30
	Bartın	40	33,80	6,48
	Eskişehir	40	29,30	8,86
	Total	120	31,13	7,24

According to the Tukey test results, score of participants from Eskişehir and Bartın is similar for Bartın stream and the lower the score the participants from Kastamonu. According to respondents from all three cities it appears to be significant differences between water corridor. Variance analysis to evaluate the choice of water corridor by cities is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Evaluation of preferred water corridor variance analysis by cities

Water Corridors		Sum of squares	Degrees of Freedom	Quadratic Mean	F	P
Bartın Stream	Between Group	1391,717	2	695,858	10,748	0,000
	Within Group	7574,950	117	64,743		
	Total	8966,667	119			
Karaçomak Stream	Between Group	629,217	2	314,608	4,456	0,014
	Within Group	8260,375	117	70,601		
	Total	8889,592	119			
Porsuk Stream	Between Group	448,350	2	224,175	4,525	0,013
	Within Group	5796,775	117	49,545		
	Total	6245,125	119			

4. Results and Discussion

Water corridor where in city center to be livable must be able to fulfil human needs. Besides these areas of the technical specifications, in the design of should be at the forefront of psychological and physiological needs of the people. This area evaluated as greenway for benefit cities sholud be prefer to design not harm to nature of the city. In today's business life and social life get away from influence caused by the of psychological stress, cities should be evaluated according to the needs of the users for more available.

In this study, water corridor is located in the city center was investigated young users of (18-24 years old) formed on the affect and fulfilled the therapeutic needs.

According to result in surveys based on the percentages, in each of the three cities and the city center and also forming a greenway corridors on water corridor to had the aspect therapeutic highest percentage of the Porsuk Stream in Eskişehir city. This area more successful than other corridors in terms of criteria such as availability, socializing, perceptible, visual differences, plant diversity, to establish close contact with water, water-related activities. Proposals for the cross-sectional area show Figure 4.

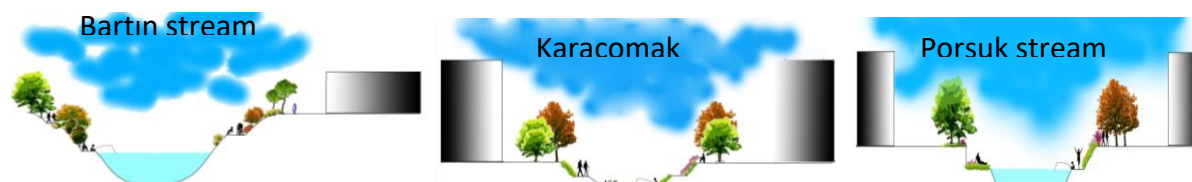


Figure 4. Proposals for the sectional of study area

As a result of the study in terms of therapy for all three corridors with water and close surroundings must be given the relevant sensory stimulation. Water auditory, visual, tactile, olfactory characteristics must benefit from the maximum level. The protection and use policies in terms of therapy should be provided intensive exploitation from these corridors in the urban centers. It should be noted to exhibit a scenic view of natural, plant species used from place of the native species of the region while at the same time kind of plants that vary according to the season should also be harmonized.

People living more stressful remain under increasing pressure has such water corridors for an important place in our cities. in this study results, therapeutically positive effects of the water corridor

has been demonstrated that people have a healing effect on mental disorders into the problems experienced in daily life.

5. References

- [Asakawa S](#) [Yoshida K](#) & [Yabe K](#) (2004) Perceptions of urban stream corridors within the greenway system of Sapporo, Japan *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 68(2-3):167-182.
- Brawley E C** (1992) Alzheimer's disease: designing the physical environment. *American Journal of Alzheimer's Disease and Other Demants*, 7(1): 3-8.
- Burmil S, Daniel T C & Hetherington J D** (1999) Human values and perceptions of water in arid landscapes. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 4, 99-109.
- Ghose S** (1999) *The Healing Dimensions of Hospital Gardens: Three Case Studies Assessing The Use*. Master Thesis. The University of Texas, 95.
- Kaplan R & Kaplan S** (1989) *The Experience of Nature: A Psychological Perspective*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Kutay E L & Kesim G A** (2006) Kentsel Açık ve Yeşil Alanların İnsan Psikolojisi Üzerine Etkileri, *Kent ve Sağlık Sempozyumu*, Bursa, s. 394.
- Meitner M L** (2004) Scenic beauty of river views in the Grand Canyon: relating perceptual judgments to locations, *Landscape Urban Planning*, 68,3-13.
- Sakıcı Ç** (2009) Ruh Ve Sinir Hastalıkları Hastanelerinde Açık Alan Terapi Ünitelerinin Peyzaj Tasarımı:Ataköy(Trabzon) Ruh Sağlığı Ve Hastalıkları Hastanesi Örneği.Doktora Tezi, KTÜ, Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Peyzaj Mimarlığı Anabilim Dalı, Trabzon, 315s.
- Schroeder H W ve Daniel T C** (1980) Predicting the scenic quality of forest road corridors. *Environmental Behavior.*, 12, pp. 349-366.
- Smardon R C** (1988) Perception and aesthetics of the urban environment: review of the role of vegetation. *Landscape Urban Plann.*, 15 pp. 85-106
- Stamps A E** (1990) Use of Photographs to Simulate Environments. A Meta-Analysis, *Perceptual Motor Skills*, 71, 907-913.
- Stigsdotter U A** (2005) *Landscape Architecture and Health, Evidence- Based Health-Promoting Design and Planning*, PhD Thesis, Faculty of Landscape Planning, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences.
- Ulrich R** (1986) Human responses to vegetation and landscapes. *Landscape Urban Planning*, 13, pp. 29-44.
- Wilcock D N** (1992) River and Inland Water Enviroments, Enviromental Managment. *Volume II. The Ecosystem Approach*, VUB University Pres, Pleinlaan, 1050, Brussels-Belgium.
- Zube E H** (1984) Themes in Landscape Assessment Theory, *Landscape Journal*, 3, 104-110.

Protecting During Re-Functioning in Interior Architecture: “Gazi Train Station”

Murat Özdamar

1. Introduction

During the development of cities, there are some points playing active roles within the formation of urban spaces and architectural structures. The “railways” is one of them, and it is an important development by the history of the world that has also brought many influences and developments for the life.

By the time, the intercity communication and transportation became easier and faster with the railways by the early 19th century and later got the process of rapid development and progress. New architectural constructions and urban areas formed with station buildings built together by the construction of railways.

That is why the railway station buildings, which have lived the historical process of the era, that symbolizes the period of them within the new urban area, and the changes they brought to the city (Başar-Erdoğan, 2009).

During the construction of the railways, new developments also took place by architecture. In this rapid process, the railway stations along the railway lines and buildings serving different functions started to be built-up. These buildings sometimes exhibit a different style by their traditional architecture, with their materials, forms and façade characters.

This divergent style partly shows the design culture of the country, which generally includes traditional elements as well as the country that made the line.

Although the stations are build out of the city at first, they became “a center”, of attraction over time and became an important industrial structure that attract towards itself, influencing the development of the cities and defining the direction of this development at the same time. These structures, equipped with appropriate functions for the purpose of construction, and stamped on a certain turning point. They are different from many structures by their unique identities and characteristics (Başar-Erdoğan, 2009).

2. Historical Process of Train Stations in Turkey

Instead of the Anatolian designers (generally not known during that period), foreign designers formed the first railway buildings of Turkey. Generally with their rounded surface on the front side of the facade and the symmetrical design attitude of the general layout, with the material choice of them.

Immediately after the western designers of the Middle and Far East fan, Sirkeci Train Station, which is one of the first and eldest station building was designed and applied with an “orientalist understanding under the influence of nature”. During that period, the craftsmanship was by the local cheap labor force and the main technical works were done by Prussian or Armenian masters.

In the following periods, especially at the beginning of the Anatolian National Architecture Movement or the National Renaissance of Architecture, Kemalettin and Vedat Bey, have begun to give national examples.

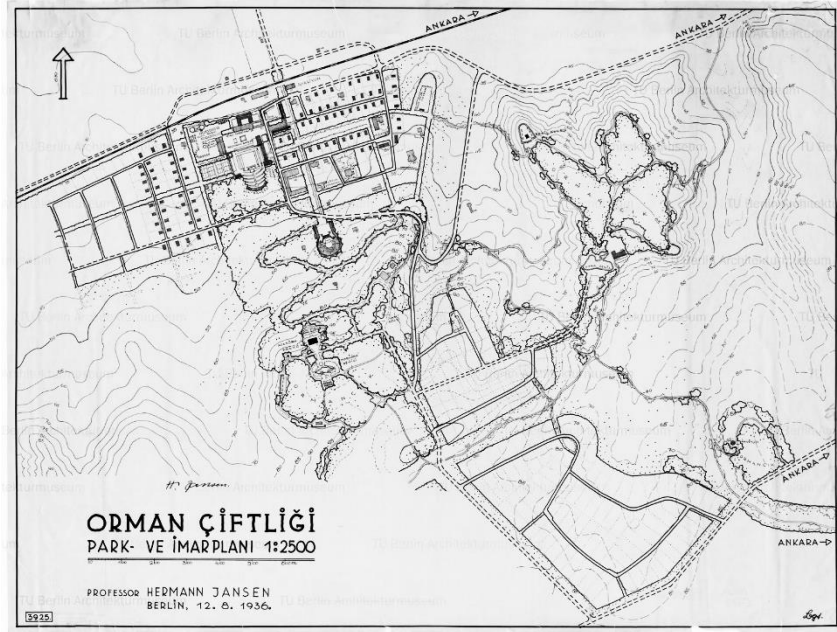
Edirne Karaağaç and Ankara (old) Train Station buildings were designed by Kemalettin Bey; Ankara Gazipaşa Station Building by Ahmet Burhanettin Tamcı, and they are the first monumental structures of that period (Başar-Erdoğan, 2009).

Other products of this period include the buildings of Adana, Kayseri, Ankara, Eskişehir, Konya and Adana. During that period, Ottoman traditional decorative items are used on the facades, but their plans were still suitable for western charts (Yılmazığit 1991).

By the following years, the national identity has gradually lost its clarity. Before the Second World War, the Nazi understanding emerged during the era of modern German nationalism, influenced also the Turkish designers. Moreover, traditional motifs have been lost in and on the garage buildings. The heavy, bulky, Nazi characterized ideological structures were formed.

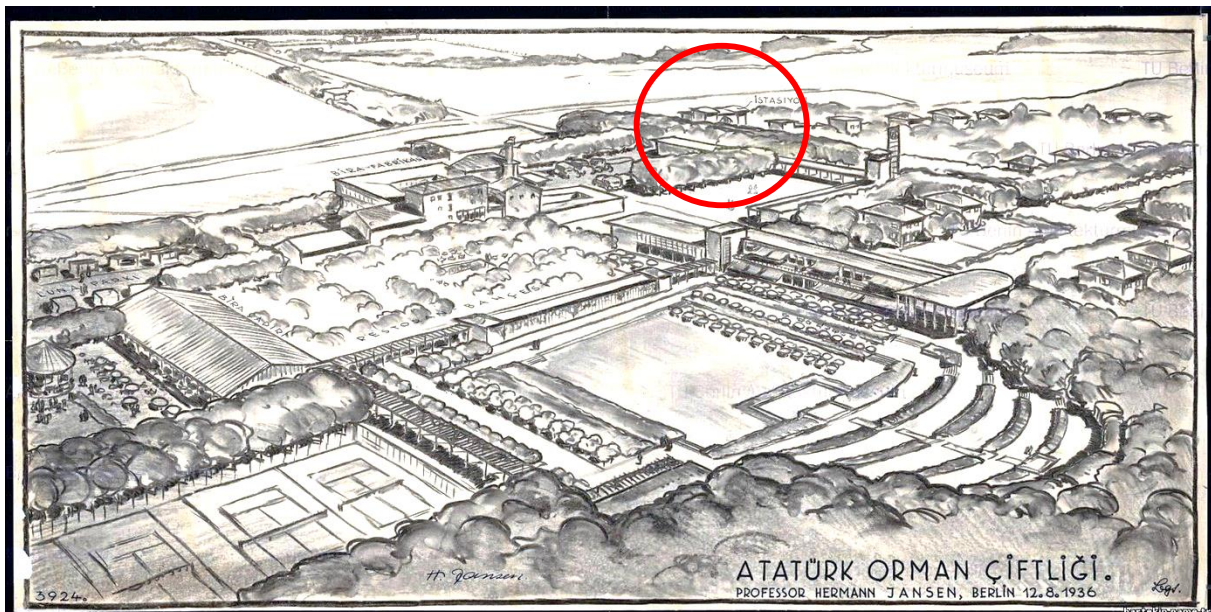
The concept of international design started to spread all over the world by the developing technology, facilities of building materials, rational use of steel and concrete. The Turkish designers, who returned from Europe and USA, tried different styles during that time. The railway station of Eskişehir; one of the typical examples of that period which is introducing the rational first use of building materials since the 18th century in Anatolia.

3. Ankara Gazi Train Station



Picture 1. "Forest Farm" Plan, Hermann Jansen, 1936 (Architekturmuseum der Technischen Universität Berlin in der Universitätsbibliothek, Inv. Nr. 23340).

It is an important building that has a special meaning among the station buildings; "Ankara Gazi Train Station", which is designed by Ahmet Burhanettin Tamcı, and built in 1926.



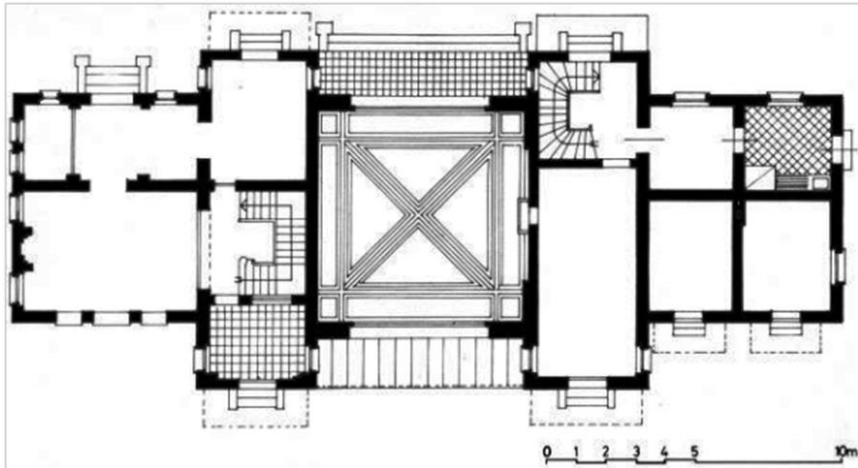
Picture 2. "Forest Farm" Drawing, Hermann Jansen, 1936 (Architektur museum der Technischen Universität Berlin in der Universitäts bibliothek, Inv. Nr. 23343).

Protecting During Re-Functioning in Interior Architecture: “Gazi Train Station”

The Gazi Railway Station was the key point for the region when Ankara's plans were done. It is one of the monumental works of the First National Architectural period. That was the first point of Ankara by the train route from the west. The transportation to "Marmara Residence" where Atatürk resides and welcomes his guests within the "Farm" region through Gazi Railway Station.

In the following years (1936), Hermann Jansen paid attention to the functional properties in designing the region by paying attention to its importance. This shows us that, “ease of access” is an important point in the design of a social space. Another factor is; the social influence of the region on the city dwellers. While making plans, Mustafa Kemal Atatürk decided the continuation of the effort to bring people together and form a unity; that is why; it is one of the first studies that is trying to create a commercial and economic value within the social and industrial structure of the region.

Gazi Railway Station is the first garment structure, which is an example of National Architecture Period in Turkey. There is an entrance hall with a square plan. On both sides of the entrance hall, there are spaces where there is a rectangular plan rising like a tower and a staircase leading to reach the upper level. A fringe supported by the wooden beams marks the arched entrance door. Traditional figures used on the building. The façade is decorated with Kütahya tiles (Sobutay, 1996).



Picture 3, Ankara Gazi Train Station, Ground Floor Plan. Sözen, 1984.

The ground floor was allocated for the station administration and the upper floors allocated for the lodgings of three families within the building.



Picture 4, Ankara Gazi Train Station, front façade. Başar, M.E., Erdoğan, H.E., 2009.



Picture 5, Ankara Gazi Train Station Front Façade Drawing. Başar, M.E., Erdoğan, H.E., 2009.

The station started to work on February 1, 1926, as mentioned before; it is one of the first monumental works of the First National Architecture period of Turkey, and Mustafa Kemal Atatürk participated in the opening ceremony of the station.



Picture 6, Ankara Gazi Train Station, Front Entrances, Özdamar, M., 2015



Picture 7, Ankara Gazi Train Station, Back Entrances, Özdamar, M., 2015

By the years, the industrial buildings and spaces passed away with the architectural history and turn into shells for protection. However, those are the first experimental constructions built with new technology and materials from the Industrial Revolution.

Of course, the most influenced constructions of developing and changing technology have become industrial structures. In parallel with the technology that has changed since the 19th century, but many of them have lost their functions and forgotten.

Conservation and survival of cultural heritage, architectural heritage, cultural life and historical generations are important for the healthy and conscious growth of the generations. These structures, which bear historical evidence of living resources and historical evidence, which is a necessity for the future life to be preserved.

However, at the beginning of 2000, the station removed from the service and now it is being used as a restaurant.

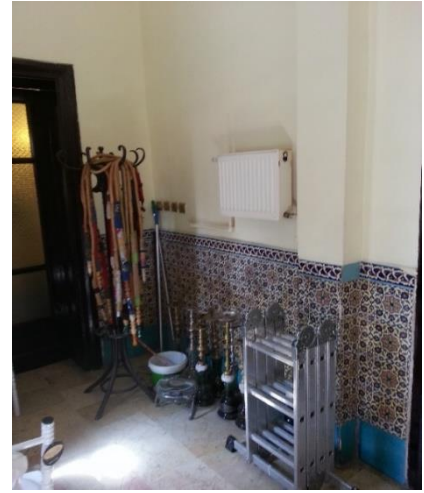
Protecting During Re-Functioning in Interior Architecture: “Gazi Train Station”



Picture 8, Ankara Gazi Train Station, Entrance, Özdamar, M., 2015



Picture 9, Ankara Gazi Train Station, WC, Özdamar, M., 2015



Picture 10, Ankara Gazi Train Station, Side Entrance, Özdamar, M., 2015

It is a matter of debate, which is the sensitivity of the maintenance of the building, which continues to operate as a restaurant today.



Picture 11, Ankara Gazi Train Station, Inside Wall Maintenance, Özdamar, M., 2015



Picture 12, Ankara Gazi Train Station, Inside Wall Maintenance, Özdamar, M., 2015

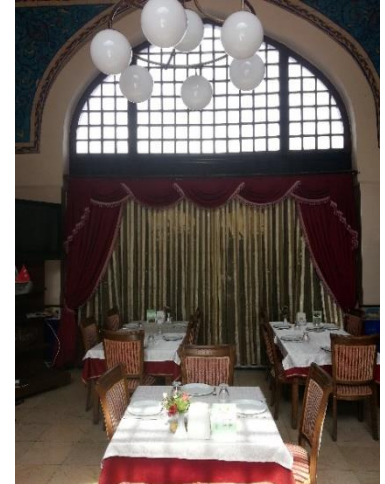
We are facing a clear statement with a blast, which is structurally related with the design history of the Turkish Republic and not related to the original experience of the building.



Picture 13, Ankara Gazi Train Station, Interior – Ticket Window Özdamar, M., 2015



Picture 14, Ankara Gazi Train Station, Side Entrance, Özdamar, M., 2015



Picture 15, Ankara Gazi Train Station, Main Hall, Özdamar, M., 2015

Therefore, the studies and researches carried out within the structure, and it shows that the values that we have, are destructible.



Picture 16, Ankara Gazi Train Station, Kitchen, Özdamar, M., 2015



Picture 17, Ankara Gazi Train Station, 1st Floor – A Room, Özdamar, M., 2015

4. Conclusion

Restoration efforts take place in many of our historical spaces and buildings, but re-functioning is not a concept that can be by regarding its planning and value.

To be faithful during the maintenance of it; we are confronted with two titles while conducting research on the subject; Restoration and Restitution. The most accepted definition of these is “repairing without breaking the original.” Celal Esad Arseven defines restoration as “repairing art”.

Restoration; it is to repair and rehabilitate damaged parts of an artwork or an architectural work without harming the old way.

The restoration, which is very different from a normal repairment, needs great knowledge and expertise. It is necessary to respect the old sanctuary.

4.1. Why Restoration?

In order to have the historical value of those days, it is necessary to repair and protect the works with their documentary. It is the beauty of restorations and restorers.

Today in some countries, it has gained an importance in restoration with the importance given to archaeology. The aim of restoration is preserving the historical works and textures in their original forms and transferring them to future generations, which is the hardest thing. In order to achieve this, it is necessary to use a professional work and the latest technical facilities that we have.

4.2. Why Restitution?

The restitution is getting on the plan, the section, the appearance, and the axonometric views of the buildings. The structures or settlements those are altered, partially destroyed or mainly destroyed, from the original designs of the constructions or settlements, or from documents of a certain date, archive records, traces on the structure. It is a scientific and compulsory work by drawing and/or modelling which is, "restitution".

When the restitution project is being prepared, it is possible to reconstruct the demolished, resized, or filled openings, windows or doors in the old layout by drawing, using the similar structures from the protected parts of the traces on the structure.

The changes in Gazi Railway Station are getting the building from Restoration to Restitution work. That is why it has to be protected in order to save it with its originality by the restoration works. By interior architecture, thinking about the design work and making a decision is not a very difficult work.

"Functional changes can, of course, come to life by providing the features of the work to be preserved, so that the generations of the future can have the examples in learning."

With the educational period of the design procedures, we have to tell the students about the values that we have with the buildings and their lives. Moreover, we should teach about the protecting ways of those merits instead of choosing the easy way of knocking down.

References

- Akdemir, Z., Keskin, M., 1993. *Gidilen, Geline ve Unutulan İstasyon Yapıları (Outbound, Arriving and Forgotten Station Buildings)*, *Arkitekt Art of Living*, 402, pg.60-75. İstanbul.
- Alpagut, Leyla, 2010. *Atatürk Orman Çiftliği'nde Ernst Egli'nin izleri: Planlama, Bira Fabrikası, Konutlar ve "Geleneksel" bir Hamam (Tracks of Ernst Egli at Atatürk Forest Farm: Planning, Brewery, Houses and a "Traditional" Turkish Bath)*. *Journal of the Faculty of Architecture – Middle East Technical University*, 27(2), 239-264, Ankara.
- Alpagut, L., 2012. *Marmara Köşkü: Atatürk İçin Modern Çiftlik Evi (Marmara Mansion: Modern Farm House for Atatürk)*, *METU – Journal of Faculty of Architecture*, 29(1), 69-94, Ankara
- Başar M.E., Erdoğan H.A. 2009. *Osmanlı'dan Cumhuriyet'e Türkiye'de Tren Garları (Train Gases in Turkey from Ottoman to the Republic of Turkey)*. *Journal of the Engineering and Architecture Faculty of Selçuk University, Selçuk University*, 23(3), 29-44, Konya.
- Çelebi, R. (2008, October 22). *İki İstasyon, İki Tarihi Miras Anlayışı (Two Stations, Two Historical Heritage Insights)*. *Kent ve Demiryolu (City and Railways)*. Retrieved from: <http://kentvedemiryolu.com/iki-istasyon-iki-tarihi-miras-anlayisi/>
- Kösebay Erkan, Y., Ahunbay Z. 2008. *Anadolu Demiryolu Mirası ve Korunması (Anatolia Railway Heritage and Preservation)*. *İstanbul Technical University Journal A (Architecture, Planning, Design)*. 7(2), 14-25, İstanbul.
- Özkan, T., 1998. *Ankara'da Atatürk'e Ev Sahipliği Yapmış Tarihi Mekanlar (Historical Places Hosted Ataturk in Ankara)*. Retrieved from <http://ankaraarsivi.atilim.edu.tr/shares/ankara/files/AAE.pdf>
- Sobutay Çoğun, G.L., 1996. *Türkiye'de İstasyon Yapılarının Geçmişten Günümüze*

- Değişmesi (Daily Change of Station Buildings in Turkey), Gazi University, Graduate School of Natural and Applied Sciences, Master Thesis, Ankara.
- Sözen, M., 1984. Cumhuriyet Dönemi Türk Mimarlığı (Turkish Architecture during the Republican Period), Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları (İşbank Culture Publications), İstanbul.
- Yilmazyiğit, K.B., 1980. Ankara'da Gazi Paşa İstasyon Binası (Gazi Paşa Station Building in Ankara), İstanbul Technical University, Bulletin of Institute of Architectural History and Restoration, 11-12, pg: 10- 18, İstanbul.
- Yilmazyiğit, K.B., 1991. Demiryolu Boyunca Mimarlık Eylemleri, Dosya: Garlar (Architectural Actions Along The Railway, File: Train Stations). Arredemento Decoration Magazine, 21, 137-138, İstanbul.

Atatürk's Management Philosophy¹

Kazım Yildirim

Introduction

Atatürk, the founder of the Republic of Turkey, with whom we have come to know and respect with infinite love and respect; in the third phase of his 57-year life, between 1919 and 1938 he laid the foundations of a new state among the ashes of the Ottoman State. The foundation of the state is based on the essence and truth of the nation by receiving pleasure and inspiration from the vast historical traditions of the Turkish nation. Therefore, Atatürk's philosophy of governance at the beginning of the system is based on national sovereignty. The management philosophy of the Republic of Turkey created for this purpose is; based on the Turkish Nation's sovereignty; to have complete independence, peace and refinement in today and in the future, and to bring the Turkish culture to the level of contemporary civilization under the guidance of mind and science. He thought that the Turkish Nation, which had a rooted state tradition within the history of thousands of years, would continue its existence in the face of other nations and established the Republic of Turkey which is based on realistic ideas and principles determined by its basic principles. He wanted to modernize the Turkish nation under the guidance of mind and science, wanted to take his place deserved among the nations of the world without losing his national identity, and did not make the smallest concession from national honor and independence.

1. Atatürk's Foundations of the Administration Philosophy

While it is not possible to imprison Atatürk's administrative philosophy within certain lines, we can classify his bases as outlined below;

- 1- In the administration of the state adopted the will of nation and nation sovereignty,
- 2- The way of thinking of the Turkish people is considered as the Republic and democracy,
- 3- The management approach is based on rationality and realism,
- 4- The Turkish Nation and wants to move the culture beyond the contemporary world,
- 5 - I have an understanding of Eurasia,
- 6- In administration, language, history, geography has given importance.

1.1. Nation and Nation Sovereignty in State Administration

All the achievements earned by the Turkish Nation, always boasted of this nation has come out of pride and pride. In his own words: "In 1919, when he went to Samsun in May, there was no material force in his hand, only a high and spiritual force arising from the nobility of the great Turkish nation and filling his conscience; He started to work by trusting this national power, the Turkish nation. He was as talented as he was in heroism, and had superior qualities in her talent. According to him, "Turks were a nation that at the same time was hardworking, intelligent, and high in character, knowledgeable in defeating difficulties in national unity and solidarity". He gave great importance to the Turkish people to have the word and decision in the state administration. "My ghastry is to strengthen and to perpetuate the sovereignty of the nation in the Republic of Turkey," explains Atatürk, the importance of the sovereignty of the nation; "The nation is the base of freedom, equality, justice and stability. Understanding national sovereignty, giving it to the nation and holding it in the hands of the nation is a force above all the forces. Today, nations of the whole world recognize only sovereignty; Room is ruled by nation. "Masters, you know that there is something called will. Just as a person is a will, there is a will of any society made up of human beings. Will; the tendency of conscience is desire; so this is a spiritual thing. If you want to express the holy will to God and to express it with the shari'ah language, you are the will to do it. There is a need for a means to set this spiritual will, and there is a saying that they call it sovereignty! A person or society who does not have sovereignty can never use his will. A person who leaves his sovereignty to anyone cannot be sure that his own will will be used and applied. For this, people and nations; if they want to exercise and exercise their will and the tendency of their consciences, they must absolutely hold their sovereignty in their hands. The whole world must know

that there is no force in this state and this nation at the moment; there is no authority. There is only one authority; it is the heart, the conscience and the existence of the nation. "Here," sovereignty is the unconditional nation "is to keep sovereignty on the responsibility of the nation and to give or not to give any authority, regardless of who is this ruler." According to him, but this is not possible in physics or in the field. There is no other way for him to implement it through parliament. However, this authorization cannot be given to a single man.

1.2. Delegation of Administration to Republic and Democracy

The developing countries of the world had finished the period of the empires and shifted to the model of the national state. The Turkish Nation could not have been deprived of it, but during the struggle for liberation it shouted to the world that "sovereignty belongs to the millet unconditionally"; it was done for him, proclaimed as a republic, "sovereignty" taken from the hands of individuals, given to the real owner of the nation and its representatives. The state model of New Turkey should now be a republic. For this purpose, Turkey, the Turkish Nation; to be a distinguished partner of the contemporary world in a completely independent manner. By the contemporary world, it meant the countries that went forward in science and technology that day. The way was clear; rationalism was put on the foreground, and the idea of educating and educating the mentality of guidance was spent. Science said, "It is not an interpreter, but an examination", and for this Turkic education and science language has come forward. After winning the triumphs, Atatürk had spent a considerable part of his life prove the rights of the Turkish nation, his services to humanity, and his superior capabilities he deserved in history. There was unshakable belief in the size, power, superior qualities, contributions of the civilization, and the humanitarian duties of the Turkish nation.

By opening the Turkish Grand National Assembly, it has shown that the sovereignty belongs to the nation. With the foundation of the Republic, the Turkish nation has taken its place among the civilized nations that choose their own rulers and implement democratic life style in their daily lives. In this respect, Democracy was among its objectives; "We are neither Bolshevik nor communist. Because we are nationalist and respect our religion. Our government is ours, the government of a democracy." For this purpose, all corps, independent divisions, independent regiments, all provinces to the centers of Müdafaa-i Law and the mayor of municipalities on April 21, 1920 to invite the Assembly to the meeting in Ankara on 23 April 1920: On the 23rd Friday, after the Friday prayers, the Grand National Assembly will convene in Ankara. "He made the opening of the parliament.

1.3. Rationality and Realism based on Management Understanding

It was realistic, of course, as a consequence of his being intelligent and intelligent. His realism was an inseparable part of his "wisdom," Atatürk had great ideals about the nation. But he was a leader who did not care for empty dreams when he was evaluating the facts of the country and the world very well. In a speech he made in 1921, he said: "The masters are not those who look after great dreams, who seem to do things that they cannot do." By walking on the path shown by the mind and the science, it shows that the most difficult obstacles can be met with determination and perseverance.

1.4. The Request to Move Turkish Nation and Culture beyond the Contemporary World

Atatürk believed that the national culture and the integrity of the Turkish world and the integrity of the Turkish world should be learned for the continuation of the national culture. The national culture, on the other hand, required a common history to explore and develop common language elements that spread and developed culture. He said that the work to be done in these areas should be directed to two main objectives: 1-Providing national consciousness and solidarity within Turkey, 2-The realization of language and culture unity in the whole Turkish World. At this point, Atatürk emphasized Turkish culture very strongly in his speech after his declaration. With the expression of ambition: "The foundation culture of the Republic of Turkey." "The Republic of Turkey is the support of the Turkish nation. If the members of this nation are full of Turkish culture, the Republic based on that nation will be so strong. "

In fact, there was a "Turkish Union" work since the Balkan Wars. While one of the groups that carried out this study advocated that the idea of political union was given an emphasis and especially the Turks who lived in the Russian occupation were included in this union, another group led by Gaspıralı İsmail Bey was a member of the Turkish Union as "unity on culture, unity in culture" he sees. The second group believed that the establishment of a cultural union with the Turks outside Turkey would be more suitable for the political environment of the period. Atatürk's preferred was in the direction of the second group. From this perspective, we can discuss the prominence that Atatürk gave to studies in the field of language and history in particular. Atatürk, one of the greatest tasks of the Republic of Turkey, representing our national history and our rich history of our culture. In other words, it emphasized the development of the common history and common language consciousness which constitute the foundation of the national culture for the formation of the conservation and unity of the Turkish nation and the Turkish world. Already, the Turkish Language Association (Turkish Language Institute) and the Turkish Historical Society (Turkish Historical Society) have been established for this reason.

First, the Turkish history will be explored from the beginning, and the contributions of the Turks to the world of culture and civilization will be revealed to the humanity of the great personalities they have cultivated. Secondly, the world will learn the glorious history of the Turks and Turkish young people will find the opportunity to spread the consciousness of national unity to the Turkish world and the whole world by raising this history with consciousness. It was planned that the Turkish Language Investigation Association would also work to bring the Turkish language to its own self and to its beauty and beauty. According to Atatürk, the connection between national emotion and language is very strong. The discovery of the richness of the language is also a major necessity for the development of national sentiment. The ties between language and culture are transferred to the generations and their ties to the development point are the basis of Atatürk's thoughts.

1.5. Taking into Account an Understanding of Eurasia

Atatürk, the space that can emerge when the Ottoman Empire collapses; He could see that a nation based on the unity of "language, religion, history and culture" could form and that these elements, which usually form a unity, played a leading role in the lives of states. The vacancy that will be born from the Ottoman Empire will be the same as the fate of the same creation: culture, language, religion, history on the lands extending from the Anatolian Half Island to the Great Wall of China (such as Azerbaijan, Turkmenistan, Kyrgyzstan, Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan) they could easily get together and fill the gap in this way. Thus, he realized that an immortal state could be built on this base (Bozdağ, 1999, p.6), who conversed with Ruşen Eşref Ünaydın. İsmet Bozdağ, Atatürk's "Atatürk's State of Eurasia" based on the conversations he made with Ruşen Eşref Ünaydın; "The various nations living in the Ottoman Empire saved themselves by embracing their nationality; we learned what we are, what we are! We have lost our strength and they humiliated us. We understand that we have forgotten ourselves" (see Bozdağ, 1999, p.6).

Atatürk, who believed that the Turkish Union would one day be absolutely true, predicted that the Soviet Union would decline years before, wanted those who would govern Turkey to be prepared for those days and said as a political will to the statesmen after himself: "Today the Soviet Union is our friend, our neighbor, our ally. We need this friendship. But nobody can tell what will happen soon. Just like the Ottomans, like Austria-Hungary, it can be broken down and crumbled. Nations that hold tight in their hands today can escape from their palms. World may reach a new balance. That's when Turkey should know what to do. In the administration of this friend, we have a tongue, a believer, and a soul brothers. We must be ready to take care of them. Being ready is not just waiting and waiting for that day. We need to get ready. How do the nations prepare for it? By keeping spiritual bridges intact. Language is a bridge; history is a bridge, faith is a bridge. We should be rooted in our history and integrated into our history of events. We cannot wait for them to approach us. We need to approach them." (29 October 1933, see, Bozdağ, op cit. p.31)."This is what we do, no hostile hostility; we will stand for peace from peace! But in the constantly changing world, we should be ready for possible balances for the future" (Atatürk's Lectures and Statements, 1959, vol. II, p. 238).

Atatürk cautioned everyone about the size of our history before the Ottomans and the teachings of the youth that the origin of the Turks were based on Central Asia against the programs that started Turkish history from the Ottomans. In terms of the sources of Turkish historical culture, he spoke from the parliamentary cadre:

"Masters, there is a Turkish nation of at least a hundred million inhabitants of this Earth-human, and there is a depth in the history of this nation on the earth. We can say in the most obvious and most material historical evidence that the Turks have been great states in the kingdom of Asia fifteen centuries ago and have become the areas where all kinds of humanity are seen. A Turkish state that sends its ambassadors to China and accepts the ambassadors of Byzantium is a state formed by the Turkish nation that is our ancestor." (Atatürk's Lectures and Statements, 1959, vol. I, p. 256).

1.6. Language, History and Geography in Management

Atatürk gave a special importance to language, history and geography in his actions and explanations. As a matter of fact, the Turkish Historical Society and the Turkish Language Institution are examples of this. In addition, the "Language and History Geography Faculty", which was created with the directives and has no other similar in Turkey, was also a demonstration that Atatürk attaches importance to these three elements.

In 1932-1933, General Charles H. Sherrill, who served in Ankara as an ambassador to the United States, was translated into Turkish by Alp Ilgaz under the name of 'From an Ambassador to Gazi Mustafa Kemal', whose original name was 'A Year's Embassy to Mustafa Kemal' 'le a couple of times, indicating two things about the personality structure; the first describing events by document, sketch and chart; and the second was to speak Turkish with his counterparts (Sherrill, 1934, trans: Alp Ilgaz, pp. 34, see Yıldırım, 2007, p. "Gazi was always on the verge of talking in Turkish at the first meeting," he says. But if there was anything that caught your attention at any point in your brief speaking, you would have had to react with a very good Frenchman" (Sherrill, op cit. 34). We understand that although he knows French and German very well he has made it a principle to speak Turkish with his counterparts as the president of the state. He always said that he preferred to use Turkish words as he always spoke Turkish. For example, "Greeks always referred to Helen". He asked why they use the phrase Helen, not Greek, and that he answered this question like a philologist: "I prefer this name. Because Helen is a word that is the original Turk" (Sherrill, op cit. 126).

Sherrill, pointing to this characteristic of Atatürk, (op cit. 2039: "... a very curious person who is very interested in the history and language sciences ..."), the book "Atatürk's Books", published in 24 volumes by the Anıtkabir Association, he was a statesman. "

"The language of the Turkish people is Turkic. Turkish language is the most beautiful, richest and easiest language in the world ... Every concept has the ability to express. Only to search for, to find, to collect, to work on their all beings" (Atatürk's Lectures and Statements, 1959, p.110). He stated that Turkish should be spoken as a single language by the Turkish Nation. Because "Turkish means language. The most fundamental cornerstone of Turkishness is the Turkic language, the Turkish language, the national institutions in the first place, the national sentiment, the thought and the orientation, the national self and consciousness are connected to the Turkish language.

Atatürk attaches importance to history and geography together with language. Because, "the national consciousness can stand and be vigilant" (Lectures and Statements, 108). Geography, however, both in terms of national and strategic care.

"Mustafa Kemal was gathering all the historians and intellectuals of the country to rewrite the history of the Turkish progress which was born in Central Asia at the beginning of history and developed towards the west in the future. Gazi ordered these scholars to open up the pace of national history and proclaim the true meaning of the Turkish Nation, which has opened heroically to the Mediterranean coasts starting from the Far East Asian waters, to the whole world. These scholars need to show that national march so obviously that a person who speaks Turkish wants to see this history, starting from the Mediterranean, not only in Altay but in the Altai Mountains, to the borders of Mongolia in the Middle East, seeing the Turks full of heroism ..." (Sherrill, op cit. p. 214).

Result

There was unshakable belief in the size, power, superior qualities, contributions of the civilization, and the humanitarian duties of the Turkish nation. When he said, "What a blissful Turkic word," he expressed his love of his own high spirit most intensely. While establishing a new state with the power of a large cultural treasure and reviving it, he was convinced of the power of the Turkish people to live free by taking advantage of the political science and the national struggle movement. He chose national sovereignty and full independence as the basic principle and goal in order to realize the power of free life. The unity-unity efforts in the Turkish World believed that the countries should be carried out through the areas where they can establish the fastest and closest relations with each other.

The premises of the Republic of Turkey, which was laid by Atatürk himself in 1920s and based on the Turkish nation, today has a superior position among the distinguished nations, balancing the republic and democracy and having an oppressive one. Today, I believe that the Turkish world (Turkey, Azerbaijan, Turkmenistan, Kyrgyzstan, Uzbekistan, Tajikistan, Afghanistan, Kosovo and all other Balkan Turks, Caucasian Turks), the Islamic world and even the oppressed nations need it.

References

- Bozdağ, İsmet (1999), *Atatürk'ün Avrasya Devleti (Atatürk's Eurasian State)* Tekin Yayınevi, (Tekin publishing house), Istanbul.
- Dura, Cihan (1994), *Atatürk Devriminin Aydınlanmacı Temelleri (Enlightenment Foundation of the Atatürk Revolution)*, Kayseri.
- Eroğlu, Hamza (1995) *Atatürk Yolu (Atatürk Road)*, Atatürk Dil ve Tarih Kurumu Yayını (Atatürk Language and Historical Society Publication), Ankara.
- Atatürk (1932) *Atatürk'ün Söylev ve Demeçleri (Atatürk's Discourse and Statements)*, Ankara.
- Atatürk, Nutuk, (Orijinal Tam Metin=Original Full Text), Yeditepe Üniversitesi Kültür Yayını, (Yeditepe University Culture Publication), Istanbul.
- Sherrill, H. Charles(1934), *Bir Elçiden Gazi Mustafa Kemal, Türkçeye çeviren Alp Ilgaz, Tercüman 1001 Temel Eser 23 kitap (A Year's Embassy to Mustafa Kemal, New York, London, C. Scribner's Sons)*, (An Eligible Gazi Mustafa Kemal). Translated by Alp Ilgaz. Translator 1001 Basic Works 23 books, Istanbul.
- Yıldırım, Neşide (2007), "General Charles H. Sherrill'in Yorumuyla Atatürk", *Sakarya Üniversitesi Fen Edebiyat Dergisi*, Sakarya Üniversitesi Basımevi, ("Atatürk with General Charles H. Sherrill's Comment", *Sakarya University Science and Letters Magazine*, Sakarya University Printing House), Sakarya.

¹ The article presented in this title is a text that has been turned into a paper as a conference by myself in the week of commemoration of Atatürk in Kyrgyzstan Turkey Manas University in 2013.

Virginia Satir's Family Education And Therapy Model

Neşide Yıldırım

Introduction

The term therapy, in French the *thérapie*, refers to the treatment of diseases such as sickness, disability, or disorder in certain ways. In other words, therapy is the name of the process initiated for people to reach their own resources, realize the solutions and pass the action. Family therapy refers to methods and techniques for treating disorders in the family structure. The aim of therapy is to recognize the individual or the family's self; and to make people to be aware of their own merits, power and structure. As it is stated in the proverb, "those fish are in the sea, but they do not know the sea" or "the fish that float in the water are not aware of the water"; like this, it may not be possible for people to be aware of the relationships they live in. It is attempted to be aware of the network of these relationships with therapy or family therapy. The goal of therapy is to relax people and make them more compatible whether you are an individual, a group, or a family. Family therapy refers to the meeting sessions that all members of problematic families attended. Family members reveal the problems in the family by their own perspectives.

Techniques used in family therapy provide access to intervention goals. Choosing the right one among these techniques is at the initiative of the therapist. Models are usually based on updating. Updating means putting the encountered problems in front of people. From Ibn Sina (980-1037) (see Yıldırım, 1986, pp. 341-344), those who deal with human problems and discomfort start by first updating the living/encountered problems. They do this with different methods. Satir was accomplished this by using family chronology and a family communication pattern. To do this, she created her own training and therapy model. The topic of the article is about Satir's model. The information about the model is taken from Satir's work which is written in 1964 and called "Conjoint Family Therapy" and translated into Turkish as "Basic Family Therapy".

In the therapy model Satir is focused on change. In fact, it is the aim of all therapists as well as they use different methods. It is to realize harmony with ourselves and with the system (family, society, etc.) that is connected to by replicating positive moments. It is to heal the disease and make the human mind evolve from happiness to affirmation, which turns happiness into misery.

Family therapy refers to meeting sessions that all members of problematic families joined. Satir is one of the therapists who had done this. Satir's model of education and family therapy have been investigated under these topics; the basis of the model; the sciences and principles on which the model is based; the style and model that she used (communication models she used); to increase self-confidence; free environment and risk taking; problem solving approach. The aim of the study is to contribute to the education of family therapists and students.

1. Satir's Education and Family Therapy Model

Virginia Satir's (1916-1988)¹ training and therapy model focused on the change of the problematic family. Change occurs at the will of family members. For this, the diagnosis of the problem, in other words, the events must be updated and then changed. Satir's therapeutic aim is to increase the self-confidence of family members, to encourage them to make better choices; to increase the responsibilities of individuals and thus to develop harmonious behavior within the family and with people. These are not only necessary for problematic family members, but also for the therapist to develop himself / herself. To start therapy to make better choices and guiding constitutes the process of consciousness and thus it allows you to make better choices.

Satir (2016, p. 283) emphasized the importance of mutual solidarity among people and stated that there must be a balance between personal development and respect for the wishes of other individuals. To do this, she pointed out that it is necessary to destroy the obstacles between discipline, form and model,

and to understand the basic process that exists in the relations between family and people. She does not see extraordinary in her model; emphasizing that the important thing is to understand the formula and use it in appropriate places and in appropriate forms. Because her model is not theoretical; it is a viable model and she has developed it by applying herself. She gives a dynamic and variable applications in human relationships not stereotyped forms. According to her (2016, pp. 283-284), "the form is not the method itself", the method means motion; this shows a dynamic phenomenon, not static. The method requires focusing on the movement of the motion, not the movement. The method deals with "how" rather than "what"; form and content are more concerned with "what". The method is far from moldy; because the person may be a moment X, the next moment Y. Every relationship; without regarding to content, structure or form; basis on the encounter of two people at a certain time. Satir (2016, p. 284) says that "the future of the relationship depends on the structure and principles that are based on the integration of the five basic elements of one's self and the opinions of one's different fields". The structures and principles that she has based on five basic elements are; the mind, the body, the spiritual side of the person, the reports given by the five senses (communication between the mind and the body), and finally the relationships with others (social context).

According to Satir (2016, p. 284-285), personal concepts arise from internal images, based on which system we are in at any given time. This means that your personality is dynamic; it changes constantly and has a vast potential that one cannot reveal because of certain prohibitions that prevent it from changing and examining itself. A person who grows up in a constantly restricted, prohibited environment from childhood cannot fully demonstrate his capacity without being aware of his potential. Such a result is manifested only in a limited environment where development is hindered. Saying in Satir's (2016, p. 285) words: "The limited person has a limited internal image, which manifests itself in a limited environment that prevents development".

The basis of Satir's family therapy model are the elimination of the negative consequences of these obstructed or prohibited personality structures. These results will lead to loss of self-confidence in people, and people with these losses will not be able to reveal their talents and abilities, and human relationships and family structures will also develop problematically.

2. The Sciences and Principles Based on Family Therapy Model

Satir's family therapy model does not mean that it is based on precise patterns. It is based on the physical sciences on which "System Theory" is based. Because, according to her, therapy should be approached from an "integrative" perspective. If therapy is approached from an integrative standpoint, the existence of many domains that cannot be defined as human associations can be noticed. Because of this, Satir (2016, p. 285) benefits from the principles of dance, theater, religion, medicine, communication, education, speech (sound science = phonology) and behavioral sciences in the practice and training of the therapy system. She based on ideas and principles based on the principles of these sciences; the integrity of the means in theory and practice is used for the development of the person. Strict psychotherapy methods are insufficient to meet one's ever-changing development needs. She explains the needs that the inadequacy is based on;

- a) The need for the person to observe his / her communication, especially the way he / she plays the role in the family,
- b) The need to understand how his/her behavior and personal awareness take place within the system,
- c) The need to present this information to the family during therapy and to experience new patterns of behavior.

After seeing and recognizing the family system as a whole, she preferred to meet by organizing separate sessions with one or more family members by adjusting the duration and structure of the sessions according to the structure and needs of this system. The purpose of doing this is the flexibility and variability of the approach to the structure of the people. She also saw more than one family in her sessions at the same time. During therapy and training She had an assistant therapist (siblings or opposite sex). In addition to, diversity of techniques and times, video and audio recorders, photographic machines and many other mechanical aids are used to make the interviews traceable and

to allow people to observe their own behaviors. She has organized dancing, body exercises, music, theater, painting and play activities for the family to provide various opportunities in terms of touching, seeing, hearing, feeling and expressing themselves. Thus, she showed that the model is flexible and variable in terms of techniques and tools. Indicating that none of the techniques and models is ideal, Satir (2016, p. 287) says that many more methods and tools will be developed in the future, each of which will be more efficient and convenient than before. Thus, she emphasizes that systems are not stereotyped structures, they are open to evolving and developing, and even changing altogether.

3. The Style and Model She Used in Family Therapy

The style and atmosphere of the therapist will depend on the therapist's beliefs and models in particular, while determining how much the therapist will involve himself and how he will act. She address them in three ways: the cause of the illness, the solution that will remove the illness, and the things that develop people. Today, two models are used to relieve these three diseases, the medical and developmental model. She makes comparisons between the two models and prefers the development model in practice. She explains in detail why the preference for the development model by giving the characteristics of the two models (Satir, 2016, pp. 288-290).

Firstly, the medical model refers to the psychoanalytic model developed by Freud (1856-1939). This model aims to improve the patient's subconscious feelings and thoughts by bringing them to the conscious level. According to her, in the medical model, it is believed that the disease focuses on the patient's own self and that the disease will pass if this source is destroyed. If the cause of the illness is not clear, the development is expected to occur spontaneously. In this model, the touch or closeness of the therapist is insignificant, because the problem is in the patient itself (Satir, 2016, p. 288).

The second model is the development model. In this model the Improvement is possible with the development and change of the person in the process. According to Satir (2016, p. 288), the basic structure of the model is "the development of the person through the relationships with others, the development of the process through influences in and out of the environment, and the change of personality at certain times and ages". Satir (2016, p. 288), who appears to have embraced this model in her works, says, "Illness is an appropriate communicative response to an unhealthy system." Hence, when the system is changed to become more accessible to healthy communication and reaction, the healing will be spontaneous. As an internal part of the therapy system, the therapist is absolutely within information exchange and communication; it will also naturally occur that the patient develops in the context of the relationship when the therapist provides the means to learn and encourage change. According to her, this model gives the therapist the opportunity to act more intuitively and act more intuitively than other models. There is a lot of flexibility in technique and approach. Close contact between the patient and the therapist forms the basis of the model.

Satir (2016, p. 289) demonstrates that in the developmental model, there is nothing that cannot be spoken openly and honestly by therapist behavior and words, and that there is no other way of therapy or relationship to teach the person to use himself or herself. It should not only be used to influence others but also to be influenced by others at appropriate times.

4. The Communication Games She Used in Education and Therapy Model

The communication games system has a set of techniques designed to adapt to different planes, not just the binary plane, but to teach people effective communication methods. Satir (2016, p. 298) has found that people who have inconsistent or over bidden messages are generally disconnected with their listeners, lost eye and skin contact. She also discovered that it is impossible for people who have close and strong physical and / or visual contact to give inconsistent, incompatible, and confidential messages. She states that she teaches communication techniques to her patients and students by consistently combining the channels of view, touch and speech. It is also a primary goal of these techniques to show what people feel and what they will feel when they cannot communicate with individuals within the family.

The techniques of communication games, based on speech, glance and touch, used during training and therapy are summarized below as materials (Satir, 2016, pp. 288-299).

- a) She lets two people (parent and child, two students, etc.) speak by turning their backs. According to her, this situation is "quite similar to the style of communication in the home; while the woman is preparing meals in the kitchen, the man is repairing his car in the garage, and meanwhile they are discussing financial issues from a distance."
- b) Then, she turned them both face-to-face and let them look at each other without touching and talking. According to her, "those who experimented with this are often aware of how human beings are limited to words and censorship of their assumptions about each other's thoughts and feelings."
- c) Then she wants the couple who keeps eye contact to touch each other but not to talk.
- d) This time she let them to close their eyes, kept touching (like holding hands), and talked.
- e) She resurrected the eye contact, touched each other and made them talk.
- f) Finally, she let them talk to each other, ask them to touch each other and establish eye contact. According to her, it is not possible to argue while couples are in this way. Even if they are asked to argue, they can see that this is impossible. They are forced to withdraw physically or avoid eye contact in the event of a dispute; otherwise it is not possible for them to get angry at each other. It also makes it impossible to give an inconsistent message when someone talks, touches and looks at the person across to him/her.

The other important part of the communication game, which is based on speech, gazing and touching, is the contribution of the therapist; during and after the game, the couple describe their emotions, reactions and bodily movements about each other and themselves.

5. Problem Diagnosis through Speaking, Looking and Touching

Satir emphasizes the importance of speaking, gazing and touching in therapy and education. Three factors seem to be the basis for intra-family communication and for people's relationships among themselves. She explains how she uses the model of speech, gazing and touching in the sample family and how she reaches the conclusion by continuing the communicating.

Speaking and glancing: she explains that individuals are prepared to take risks because they are provided an environment of confidence by talking and let the other to talk. She wants the mother and daughter approach each other in an arm-length distance so that they can see and look at each other; and asks each other to look at their eyes and tell what they see. She said, "after the mother seeing a little baby who has not been well cared for and feeling guilty about it, she just sobbed". "When I asked the daughter what she saw, she said she saw only her mother first; after her mother's answer, she said: 'she always saw me as a baby.'"The problem was understood by Satir (2016, pp. 312-313): these two people did not see each other as they were at that moment; they were seeing each other in the eyes of their past experiences. If they did not create a change, they would continue to see each other in this way, and the problem between them would grow.

The problem was clear. Both the daughter and the mother did not accept each other as they were; the mother sees the 13-year-old girl as a baby, and the daughter is not aware that her mother is a 36-year-old person. As a therapist, she now tells the two women to look at each other, then ask them to look at herself, to close their eyes, and to say what goes on in their minds. Satir (2016, p. 313) states that she is now experiencing the event named "updating"; while the mother was talking, she said she saw her very attractive thirteen-year-old daughter, and had a new awareness of her. The daughter explained that she saw her mother, she had a deep interest in her eyes and liked her. Now they both felt different things about each other. Thus, she was showing the effects of the glancing and touching at therapy by applying it.

Satir continued her practice with the father on the sample. She applied therapy for diagnosis and resolution of the problem between the father and the elder daughter.

"Even though she was 18 years old, the daughter told that she still had to come home early by her father. She thought that his family did not support the man enough Because of his psychological and physical problems. His wife worked from 2.30 pm to midnight or even

later hours, in which case housekeeping was carried over to the father. The older daughter was cooking, apparently she was shopping too. So he wanted his daughter to come home early, but she perceived it as an intervention. I asked the father and the daughter sit face to face and look at each other; I showed them what they heard, not the meaning and purpose that they actually conveyed, but the way they wanted to control it. " (Satir, 2016, pp. 313-314)

According to her, after this practice, the daughter and her father reached a new level of understanding. What was the main source of the problem at this family? As a result of communication, it was understood that both parents were abandoned by their parents at an early age, and that both were enlarged by their grandmothers who were concerned about them. According to Satir (2016, p. 314), this fear has been passed on to the next generation, and parents have restricted their children. On the other hand, Children perceived this effort as a restraint against themselves. As a result of this problem, the parents felt that the children were fighting and ungrateful, and the children also felt that the parents were oppressing and obstructing themselves.

Touch: When touching the family, the mother said that the youngest son wanted him to be hugged. When the son came home, he hugged herself in a usual way, and the mother felt deceived. The problem of compassion in the family has been solved and the question has been answered how people can approach each other tenderly. She especially showed that she was enamored with the mother and her two daughters, and that she felt the shyness of the two sons, but that she had the same affection for them because of closeness, while shaking hands with them in warm attitude, she touched their shoulders and respected them. The interesting thing is that when she turns out to be the father; she said that she felt he was waiting in line and wanted to be hugged, but could not say it. She said "When I made the first move, he was enthusiastically hugging me." "I know that in many societies men are taught that these feelings are not manly, so, I reminded to the father what Bob Hope's² saying many years ago: "A person who is not hugged throughout life will become solid over time." She said that this tells us that the father approaches our love show in a different way.

Satir also points out that therapists must be careful in this regard, as it is important to touch people in therapy. When touching people, she says that someone should be careful as if to touch a burning sole. People should use their intuition. *"This is why I try to raise physical awareness, especially when educating therapists."* *"For example; it is best to try to help when people turn their eyes on you. In such a case, there is no benefit to touching. You know that when you try to touch an angry person, you are more likely to hit. The reason he hits you is not really he wants it; the reason is you have already crossed his inflexible boundaries "*(Satir, 2016, pp. 319-320). That is to say, the therapist must make the person flexible from the solid state when he/she is touching or being at the touching location; otherwise touching, especially touching when the client is angry, may be damaging for the therapist and the person having therapy.

At the end of her study, she stated that she hopes the family will find new ways to be more vibrant, more loving, more hopeful, more creative, more tied to themselves and each other. She said that she usually saw people only once, that single interview should open a new window for everyone, and wants the people to see their family from this window. According to Satir (2016, p. 315), therapy is not a problem solution; it is a method of endurance.

6. Problem Solving Approach in the Education and Therapy Model

Satir (2016, p. 316), who also gives the name "endurance method" to the method of therapy she uses, says it is important to create a change in the method of endurance. For this she used the communication patterns in the family. According to her, people who struggle with problems have used one or a combination of four communication lines. She said that calming, accusatory, computational and irrelevant patterns are all used in the sample family that she has taken to explain her method. She said that these four communication patterns are not rigid and invariant but they are all "convertible". "If you usually use the soothing form, this means that you are telling us that you are not very important to yourself in your inner world. However, if you know how to do it, you can turn this attitude, which

you automatically follow in order to please everyone, into conscious discipline and sensitivity "(Satir, 2016, p. 316).

She gives this the name of a being in a way of transformed accusation/ blame. Transformed blame is the way you can defend the things you believe are true and protect your rights. Everyone wants to be able to do this; but it is necessary to do it consciously and logically, not automatically. In terms of communication patterns, she tells how to use the converted accusation and its consequences. For example, "transformed computing behavior can mean using intelligence in a creative way. Using intelligence is pleasure; but only if you use it to protect yourself, you will be boring and unsatisfied over time "(Satir, 2016, p. 316). She gives similar examples for other communication patterns; for example, transformed indifference can be used for the development and transformation of improvisation; "You can go back to new directions without losing your awareness when necessary" (Satir, 2016, p. 316).

7. Encouraging the Free Environment and Risk in the Therapy

To act freely and easy is the most central point of the training and therapy model. For this, firstly, family members should be helped to move freely. If so, people can take risks to decide about their life and the future of their family in the decision-making process. Satir (2016, p. 311), as a therapist, tells us that she offered a different way for people to be aware of what is happening; to follow the course of the event instead of following the wrong and correct, to get ahead of existing problems instead of solving certain problems. She also explains that she is not as wise as to know what the best thing in someone's life to do is.

She emphasized that family members must first of all move freely and comfortably in order to be able to make choices on their behalf. And she tried to provide this as a method firstly. Her answer for the questions such as "Does this always work, what happens if it does not work? Is "It's not rare." "This is what you did when you try something that does not work in life. Then you have some options. You can say bad things to yourself because you try the ineffective method, or you will take it as a life experience and take lessons "(Satir, 2016, p. 311).

After giving freedom, comfortable behavior, comfortable movement and confidence in the family, she tried to diagnose the problems through communication. For example; in the sample family, communication during the therapy, it was revealed that the second girl often talked about suicide. It is determined that there is a strong sense of hatred between the mother and her daughter. Instead of responding to this hateful sentiment, she felt that these two people actually wanted to be very close together, but they could not have done it with various obstacles. According to Satir (2016, p. 311), this problem between mother and her daughter is that her mother saw her own problems in her daughter, and she felt great regret; she tries to get rid of the problem by trying to solve the problem in her daughter, but not because she was not successful. It was also why she could not get close to her.

Conclusions and Recommendations

She has focused on removing the problems of family members by updating the education and therapy models, thoughts and movements to change rigid and prejudicial patterns. Prejudices, low self-esteem and false traditional patterns are at the center of the problems. She tries to overcome this situation by using the data and principles of dance, theater, religion, medicine, communication, education, speech (voice science) and behavioral sciences. Her model is not solid, but elastic; it can be adjusted and rearranged according to the patient's needs, the style and size of the problem, present situation and personal requests. It is necessary to change the communication patterns that are corrupted and to stop the false and distant postures within the family. She emphasizes the importance of speaking, gazing and touching in love within the family and between people. An important part of family problems arises from lack of self-confidence. She points out to recognize the lack of self-confidence, to update the situation for it, and then to focus on the change. Family members will make the change.

Suggestions can be made as follows: This model developed by Satir is also applicable in Turkey. However, the application of the model as it is unchanged can be problematic if it is considered that the people who have just migrated from the village community to the cities, but have not been able to create common values of the city and traditional family values are still important. For this reason, it is

inevitable that the model should be reviewed by considering the cultural characteristics of countries such as Turkey.

The model and method of therapy developed by Satir can be use in education and in solving problems by making suitable for the cultural and family structure of Turkey; Domestic violence, which has been very common in recent years; inappropriate relationships, threats and rape incidents in the family, in problem sources related with family and other human.

Turkey should gradually reduce the theoretical education and start structural reforms that develop the concept of applied education. The same understanding must be maintained in the solution of educational problems and family problems as well as in other human problems. It always has to be a country and society that not only always just imitating, applying others' models and methods for a long time, but developing new models and making original applications and is recognized in the world-wide.

References

Satir, Virginia. (2016), *Conjoint family therapy. Basic family therapy* (Translated by Selim Ali Yeniçeri), Beyaz Publications, Cağaloğlu, İstanbul.

Yıldırım, Kazım (1986), *History of thought and civilization*. Fatih Publications, Istanbul.

<http://www.aileterapisi.me/aile-danismanliginin-maclari.html>, e. t: 31.03. 2011).

http://tdk.gov.tr/index.php?option=com_bts&arama=kelime&guid=TDK.GTS.58641e853e9479.95508261.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Virginia_Satir, e. t:, 16.01.2017.

<http://www.sozkimin.com/a/976-bob-hope-kimdir-sozleri-ve-hayati.html>. e.t: 17.05.2017.

Notes

Note 1. Virginia Satir (1916-1988) was born in Wisconsin, and learned to study at the age of three. Because of her illness, she was separated from the school for seven and a half years. Her illness has increased her sensitivity to other people. This sensitivity has been influential in her departing from teaching and starting to work with family members as social workers. She began her career in Chicago as a therapist, and in the first place was interested in alcoholic addicts and people living on the streets. She started to develop her own approach while working with family members. In the early 1960s, along with Don Jackson and Jules Riskin, she helped to found the Institute of Mental Studies at Palo Alto. She emphasized the importance of mutual trust among people and stated that a good balance must be established between personal development and respect for other people's wishes. (See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Virginia_Satir, e.t; 16.01.2017).

Note 2. Bob Hope (1903 - 2003) is an American comedian, professional boxer and five special Oscars born in England. Source: <http://www.sozkimin.com/a/976-bob-hope-kimdir-sozleri-and-hayati.html>. e.t: 17.05.2017.

Urban Archaeology and Preservation Solutions to Prevent Destruction of Roman Period Remains beneath Old Ankara (Ulus), Turkey

Zühal Özcan, Mehmet Tunçer

1. Introduction

Without doubt, all disciplines concerning human life have a direct relationship with each other. Some are obvious and easily perceptible such as medicine and pharmacology. A close relationship between the professional interests of archaeology, architecture and urban planning exists in the same way but is not very well-known by the public.

“Design” in general depends on human progression, as each subject designed stems from cultural development. Every society creates gadgets, objects, shelters/buildings and settlements that best serve their requirements. As the last step in the design process “urban planning” can be described as an all-embracing umbrella in the design world. This paper concentrates on the relationship between planning and archaeology as an outcome of continuous life in human settlements and exemplifies the subject in Ankara-Ulus..

2. Aim and Methodology of the Article

The aim of this article is to draw attention to archaeological remains that still exist in human settlements as a part of modern life. The methodology used depends on a survey of the literature, personal observations documented during the last twenty-five years and various studies and expert legal reports prepared by the authors based on lawsuits.

3. Some Examples from the Important Archaeological Heritage of Turkey

In Anatolia traces of life date from the Paleolithic Ages. The latest excavations indicate to 12-13.000 years ago at Göbeklitepe (Fig. 1), (Schmidt, 2007). Dating back to the end of the last ice age, the recently discovered temple complex Göbeklitepe in south-eastern Turkey has been called the most important archaeological discovery of modern times. Nobody can say with any certainty who created the site, or why, but one has to wonder how these supposed hunter-gatherers had such advanced knowledge of masonry and stonework if they were members of the first civilization. Settlement traces date back to Neolithic Ages.



Figure 1. Göbeklitepe representative drawing (Mann, 2011)

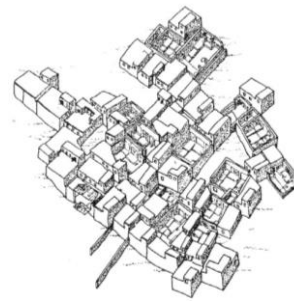


Figure 2. Çatalhöyük representative drawing (Mellaart, 1967)

Among them Çatalhöyük, being the best known, exhibits a highly compact town layout (Fig. 2) (Mellaart,1967), (Hodder & Gargett, 2016). Although it is difficult to describe a proper town that does not look like a modern city with streets, squares, social welfare buildings and vast residential zones, Çatalhöyük is accepted as the first “planned/designed city” in the world (Figs. 3, 4).



Figure 3. Wall painting depicting Çatalhöyük settlement (Ülkecul, 1999)



Figure 4. Photo of the wall painting (Ülkecul, 1999)

Another considerably planned settlement is Demircihöyük, dating from the Iron Age (3000 B.C.), with a circular shape that gives the impression of being composed deliberately using the dwellings themselves (Fig. 5). On the other hand, Troia was protected by surrounding city walls; a conscious preference of design (Fig. 6).

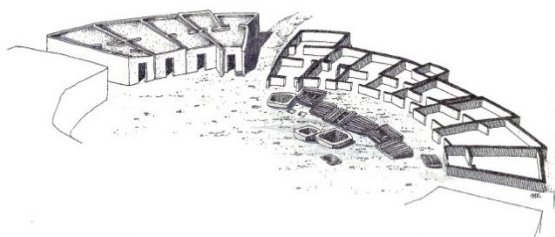


Figure 5. Demircihöyük 3D representative drawing (Acar, 1999)

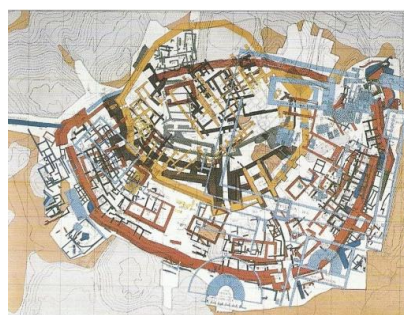


Figure 6. Troia settlement plans (Korfmann, 1996)

In scientific terms, the extensive remains of Troia are the most significant demonstration of the first contact between the civilizations of Anatolia and the Mediterranean world. The examples mentioned here cannot be said with certainty to have been designed/planned on purpose, but they give a clue about the early urban planning attempts known today. On the contrary, the following Antique Period Ionian cities reflect clear evidence of being planned as seen in Ephesos, Miletos, Aphrodisias and Priene (Fig. 7).

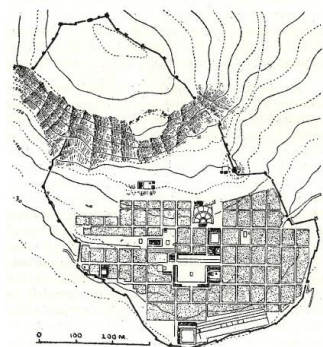


Figure 7. Priene city plan (Wycherley, 1991)



Figure 8. Miletos city plan (Kolb, 1996)

The grid-iron plan schemes of the Antique towns of western Anatolia depend on the famous designs of Hippodamos - the world's first urban planner. His design principles applied to Miletos are accepted

as the first not only in the Ionian world but in all the Antique Period (Fig.8). The other two empires established in this area (Byzantine and Ottoman) display different urban compositions with the organic plan scheme directly ruled by the topographic data of the settlement zone (Fig. 9), (Fig. 10).



Figure 9. Byzantine Constantinople
(Kayra, 1990)



Figure 10. Ottoman Asitane-Istanbul
(Tanyeli, 1999)

4. Relationship between Conservation Planning and Archaeological Sites within Settlements

In countries like Turkey, which has been invaded for millennia, settlements have a long history. The leftovers of various civilizations have accumulated on top of each other composing a stratigraphy of settlements. Even though there are distinct break points from time to time, cultural evolution is a non-stop affair, a continuous process of creativity. Different societies generate their own settlements depending on the time, technological possibilities, beliefs, world-view, understanding and cognition, together with available materials. Even though they exist in the same geographical area and more or less under the same climatic conditions, the results are varied.

The remains of past cultures somehow survive if they are buried beneath actual living areas. As early as 1904 in the Recommendations of the Sixth International Congress of Architects held in Madrid, cultural assets that had lost their function were declared “dead assets/monuments” (Getty Conservation Institute, 2017). This approach has created a kind of barrier between citizens and archaeological remains existing within living settlements. Currently, most urban conservation sites sit on layers of archaeological remains. Except for some newly established 20th century settlements, nearly all cities stand on earlier developments. Therefore, most city-centers are located above archaeological sites. R. Leech (1999) states that the oldest settlements of Europe exist in Mediterranean countries, especially in Greece and Turkey (p.8-9). Bahn (1999) states that archaeological sites can vary between a few single ruins to great mounds composed of settlement remains built and piled on top of each other, sometimes for thousands of years, as in the Near East (p.78).

Modern “urban archaeology” has been on the agenda of European countries since the 1970s (Sarfati & Melli, 1999). Whether found by chance during the construction of a new building or intentionally during a scientific excavation, archaeological sites in a settlement influence urban planning (Özcan, 2006). In these cases, new approaches, new specific urban plans and new conservation management decisions are required.

There is a delicate balance between the architectural heritage above and the archaeological sites below while both are conserved and become focal points in the cultural life of the citizens sharing the city. On the other hand, the increase in new construction, roads and vehicle parking lots and related infrastructure threatens the underground cultural assets and the results are usually not on their side. The uncontrollable expansion of the cities in Turkey is another problem for archaeological remains that were unknown until the day new development zones were declared.

It is a scientific fact that from the aspect of planning, all urban decisions must begin by depending on historic development maps showing the entire phases of settlements. Such maps will provide clues to possible zones of archaeological remains before any implementation. In Turkey, it is accepted that

archaeological sites and assets be conserved as the cultural heritage of humanity. Since the Ottoman period, the preservation of immovable archaeological assets has been protected by a legal framework (1874). In 1970, the “Law of Preservation of Historical Monuments” and in 1983 the “Law of Preservation of Cultural and Natural Assets” were accepted by the Parliament. Underground remains are the property of the state and urban archaeology is its responsibility.

The archaeological zones that exist in city centers need to be integrated into urban life, necessitating coordination between related professions. The situation concerns not only planners, archaeologists, architects, and infrastructure engineers but also the local governors who are responsible for the cities (Özdoğan, 2016). In case of the discovery of archaeological remains, the excavation and evaluation decisions obviously belong to archaeologists, but before any urban implementation, urban planners, archaeologists, conservation architects, art historians and local governments should be consulted and share the same goal: conservation of the historical past of the city.

Shanks (2005) define urban archaeology as the area of professional archaeologists working with urban development authorities to minimize the negative effects of construction over the remains of the past. They name this field of archaeology “social archaeology” among the other subjects of the field such as museology, archaeological heritage management and conservation. (p.167-173)

Apart from urban conservation, preservation of traditional urban patterns and the archaeological sites below them is a problem of social consciousness. Citizens must be aware of the fact that they are at the forefront in conserving cultural assets of whatever type. Bahn (1999) believes that the continuous interest of the citizens is the most popular and easiest way of finding financial support for conservation (p.126). The interest of society must be kept alive from the very beginning and excavation procedure must be exhibited (Figures 11, 12). Precautions against vandalism can thus be successful thanks to the behavior of conscientious citizens.



Figure 11. Jewish synagogue excavation



Figure 12. Roman remains, “archeopark”, Wien Jugendplatz Wien; exhibited excavation

5. The City of Ankara

Resources claim that the first settlement of Ankara starts with the Hittites. Although the exact date is unknown it is estimated that they built a castle to use as a garrison. The castle has been used continuously and was restored during the Roman, Byzantine and Seljukid periods. It was encircled by two other walls but the third no longer exists (Fig. 13, 14)



Figure 13. Ankara in 1717
(Tounefort, 1727)

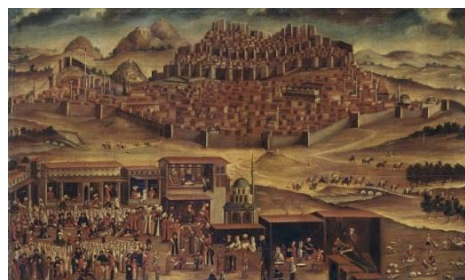


Figure 14. Ankara in the 18th century
(Eyice, 1972)

The castle was used by the Phrygians in the eighth century B.C. and their existence on the Ankara plateau is evidenced by the numerous tumuli. Later Lydians, Persians, Alexander the Great, Galatians, Pergamons and Romans conquered the city. Although the name “Ankya” was probably given by the Phrygians, a myth about the roots of the name is related to a Kelt tribe, the Tectosags (first century B.C.). In fact, the Romans ruled the city between 189-395 but the area was named Roman Galatia after they conquered the city in 25 B.C. for the first time. Between 395-684 the city was part of the East Roman Empire. The first Arab invasion happened in 684. “Ancyra” changed hands between the Moslems and the Byzantine Empire even during the Abbasid Khalif Harun Reşid period (786-809). In 1073 the city was conquered by the Seljukids and was invaded by the Ilhanids in 1243. Political stability could only be established by the Ahi Organization in 1341. The Ahis, being members of a religious based guild institution, had established the origins of a commercial city as experts on mohair production and textiles, and handed the city “Engürü” to the Ottomans in 1354 (Mübarek Galib, 1996). Since 1923 “Ankara” has been the capital of the Turkish Republic. In brief, Ankara has been an important settlement twice in history: the Roman Empire Period and the Turkish Republic.

5.1. Traces of Roman Period Ancyra

Ancyra was prosperous with important Roman buildings such as the Caracalla Bath (212-213), the Augustus Temple (25-20 B.C.), and the theatre (~200 A.D.). A colonnaded road connecting the bath to the castle passes the monumental column commemorating Emperor Julianus (362 A.D.). Residential zones of the Roman Period are not known but the area approximately three kilometres south west of the citadel (the current Maltepe district) was the necropolis.

5.2. Moslem Engürü- Angara- Ankara

The elongation of the Ottoman town Engürü towards the Citadel reached the commercial center (shown in the green rectangle in Fig. 15) composed of commercial inns. Residential zones of Engürü were grouped around the Hacı Bayram Mound and the Mosque, the citadel (shown in the red rectangle in Fig.15) and its southern environs. “Angara”, the mohair production center of the Ottoman Empire, was a small forgotten town by the end of the 19th century.

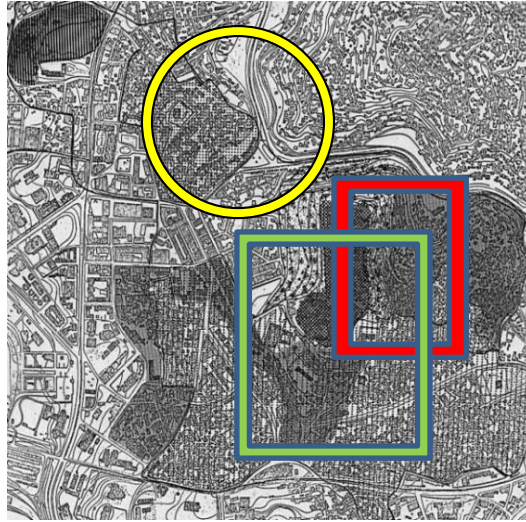


Figure 15. Hacı Bayram mound, the citadel and the center with commercial inns (Günay, 2014)

Hacı Bayram Mosque is situated on a mound (shown in the yellow circle in Fig. 15) and it is believed that the neighboring Augustus Temple is constructed over the ruins of the “Men and Kibele Temples”. The area seems to have been dedicated to religious beliefs from the beginning!

The new capital, Ankara, began to grow towards the south and south-western slopes of Hacı Bayram Mound with new institutional buildings such as the National Parliament, ministries, banks, train station, hotels, theater, opera house, and symphony orchestra buildings. The area was better known as Ulus (Tuncer, 2016). Although the new residential zones spread to the south of the traditional center, Ulus remained the most important commercial and historic center until the 2000s.

6. Urban Conservation and Urban Archaeology at Ulus 2010-2017

The archaeological sites under urban development pressure at Ankara Ulus can be grouped under three basic areas, the first being the Hacı Bayram Mosque and Mound area, the second the zone between the mound and the citadel, and lastly the zone between the Caracalla bath and Hacı Bayram mound where the registered Early Republican Period buildings exist.

6.1. The late (2000-2017) Deterioration of Roman Period Cultural Assets at Ulus-Ankara

Old Ankara and Ulus Historic City Center have not been preserved since the 1980s. Except for the zone named the “Protocol Area” by Ankara’s first urban planner, Hermann Jansen, the historic city center, especially the two sides of the boulevards, has been replaced with high rise buildings. The urban, historical and archaeological sites of Ankara were identified and registered as zones to be preserved by the High Commission of Monuments and Real Estates decision on 12.04.1980 (no: A- 2176).

6.1.1 Conservation Planning Procedure in Ankara

The conservation plans could only be prepared exactly fifty years later. The first conservation plans for the Ulus Historic City Center, Hacı Bayram Mosque environs and the area around the citadel started with the Conservation Aiming Plan Competitions announced by the Ankara were prepared for the Hacı Bayram Mosque and Sulu Inn regions as Environmental Arrangement Plans. Ankara Greater City Municipality announced the “Ulus Historical City Center Conservation Aiming Environmental Arrangement Plan Competition” in 1986 and the “Ankara Castle Conservation Planning and Project Competition” in 1987. The Ulus Project was approved in 1991 but except for the Hacı Bayram region none of the lower scale local plans have been prepared. Starting with the political view changes in 1994 up to 2006 all efforts are in abeyance for the Ulus Project. Only a county municipality (Altındağ) prepared free projects. In 2006 the Ankara Greater City Municipality canceled the Ulus Project and ordered a new one from a private architectural bureau that ended up as the subject of a lawsuit. Thus,

with the help of a “Plan Differentiation” a sharp shift happened to the “Renewal and Rehabilitation/Amendment Plans” from the “Urban Renewal Zone Conservation Aiming Plan”.

6.1.2. Adverse Developments During the Last Phase (after 2000)

After 2000 the Ankara Greater City Municipality started a set of interventions that they described as “the biggest”, and “completed in the shortest time”, but which were defined as “beyond the limits of a plan”, and as “against urban planning principles, scientific and technological approaches and resource dissipating” by universities and professional chambers for years. The common characteristics of the plans originating from the municipality prove that they stand on nothing other than spaces and values that make Ankara the real Ankara.

Ulus Historical Center, which is the historical and functional heart of Ankara, is at the point of extinction resulting from mistakes, years of negligence and denial of the scientific informative accretion of the universities, professional chambers and NGOs. In order to create sensational conservation projects Ulus has been designated as a “Renewal Area”. This is an approach celebrating reconstruction rather than restoration. In brief, “new historical buildings (!)” completely ignore the archaeological sites. The fate of archaeological remains can be summarized as below:

- Ulus – Bendersesi Antique Roman Theater:

The Roman Period Theater and its environs that were found under the demolished Shoe-Makers’ Mall in the Bendersesi region in 1982 were expropriated first, then excavated and restored to an extent. It was registered as a cultural asset in 1992 by the Preservation Council as a first and second grade archaeological site. The monument was excavated under the guidance of the Anatolian Civilizations Museum starting in 2007.

During the excavation, the vaulted parados buildings, the well-finished orchestra, the sitting rows cavea, and the leftover foundations and wall pieces of the skene were found together with some sculptures and sculpture pieces. After the excavations were completed in 2009 with the restoration project of the Ankara Greater City Municipality the reconstruction of the cavea came to the fore. Within the context of restoration, reconstructing the cavea with white marble blocks has caused protest as the material used was found to be against Venice Charter Principles accepted in 1964. The Charter orders that restoration be made using materials identical to the originals or at least compatible with them. Restorations should stop at the point where suppositions begin. The new white marble constructions in the midst of a first degree archaeological site were found to be incompatible (Figs. 16, 17).



Figure 16. Roman Theater during restoration



Figure 17. The marble seating rows and the leftovers of the original floor finishing

The environs of the site have been left to their fate, uncontrolled since 2007-2008 when the excavations occurred. Nowadays, the area that should have been strictly preserved serves as a base for the homeless and drunkards.

- Environmental Arrangements around Hacı Bayram and the Destruction of the Mound:

The Hacı Bayram environment has been handled and regulated together with the Augustus Temple since the early 1990s. Considerable efforts and financial resources have been spent to organize and restore Hacı Bayram and its environs since the Environmental Arrangement Plan (1984), Ulus Historical City Center Environmental Arrangement Plan Competition (1986) and Hacı Bayram Square

Organization Plan (1990). Since then, Bookstore Mall located at one side of the area has been demolished and reconstructed twice, and the square has been re-composed twice with new concepts. Thus, the area has nearly been re-reconstructed. Although Hacı Bayram Mosque stands on the Phrygian Mound and is a first grade archaeological site, new arrangements not only destroyed the mound but have also been harmful to the Augustus Temple and its surroundings. Recently, the new pools constructed near the Hacı Bayram Mosque creates moisture, which is harmful to both the mosque and the temple. Moreover, the modestly proportioned Hacı Bayram Mosque has become twice its original size with oversized annexes and a women's section constructed underground. The street rehabilitation and infrastructure applications helped to achieve a more livable zone but instead of the original timber frame Ankara houses concrete replicas have been used. The "new historical buildings" again contradict the principles of the Venice Charter.

All this could somehow be thought of as tolerable until the decision to construct an underground carpark at Hacı Bayram Mound was taken! (Figs. 18, 19). This must be the first case in the world where an underground car park is to be built under an historical mound.



Figure 18. Excavation for the car park, under the mound



Figure 19. The new book sellers' market, three stories high

While Hacı Bayram Mosque expanded, the municipal government constructed a four story car park under the mound. The Phrygian Mound has been destroyed and new "historical monuments" (!) have been built (Tunçer, 2016).

- The Cardo Romanum and Early Byzantine Shops:

Ulus Historical Center is still an active commercial district of Ankara. The Roman Road to the south of Hacı Bayram Mound was found when a new construction demand came onto the agenda of the Conservation Commission in 1995. The excavations of 1997 revealed not only the road with perfect finishing but also a row of shops from the Late Roman-Early Byzantine Period. Some had their original floor finishing in situ (Fig. 20). The Conservation Commission permitted new construction on the empty part of the plot with a reservation; preservation and exhibition of the remains. When the new building was completed in 2003, the traces of the shops were buried under the open platform of the new shopping mall, their original finishing was lost and the Roman Road was blocked at its two short ends by concrete walls with the excuse of 'consolidation' (Fig. 21).



Figure 20. The Roman Road and Early Byzantine Period shops during excavation



Figure 21. The same place six years later

7. Evaluation and Conclusion

Urban Conservation is an inseparable branch of Planning. It consists of various inputs that concern certain professions. When an historical traditional zone is taken into consideration not only urban planners but also conservationist architects play important roles. If it is an archaeological site, the architects should certainly make way for the archaeologists. In this context, depending on the characteristics of the zone, the related professions increase and their role and involvement in the work change accordingly. What is certain is that;

- Preparation of archaeological master plans and ancient period city models is needed.
- Ensuring the protection of potential archaeological areas beneath contemporary settlements, conservation aiming plans and other master and development plans must be carried out under the supervision of the Ministry of Culture and according to the opinions of the Conservation Board.
- Closure of all illegal work places, liquidation of structures within first grade archaeological sites and the prevention of any commercial activity in these zones must be achieved.
- As the key administrator of the city the local governments must be well equipped scientifically and technically.
- The existence of possible archaeological remains in a city is not a mystery. Unexpected situations can be avoided if a strict and comprehensive study of the area is made at the very beginning.
- An urban archaeological site is an important asset of a city. It is a chance to preserve urban intelligence, identity and consciousness. The excavation of a nearby archaeological site that is seen every morning becomes a matter of urban pride when it becomes an “Archeopark” sharing the life of citizens.
- Such a commitment concerning various disciplines brings negotiations and consensus among the professions directly related to the subject.
- Such an approach will encourage national and international competitions on urban subjects that will help to vitalize professional relations. From the aspect of the public it will help to understand and keep alive the idea of “being citizens.”
- Above all, the heritage of humanity will be conserved in the name of current citizens and will be handed down to the future generations as a valuable information source.

Finally, the authors believe that the real problems in the implementation of preservation arise from the local administrative authorities. When urban planners, conservationist architects and the members of the other professions related to the subject come to a consensus they will bring an end to the problems. Certainly, their most effective counterpart will be the public.

8. References

- Acar, E. (1999). Tunç Çağı Kentleri. [Cities of the Bronze Age] In Y. Sey (Ed.), *Tarihten Günümüze Anadolu'da Konut ve Yerleşme. [Housing and Settlement in Anatolia A Historical Perspective]* Istanbul: Tepe Mimarlık Kültürü Merkezi.
- Bahn, P. (1999). *Archaeology-A Very Short Introduction*. (B.Örenk, Trans.). Istanbul: Kabcacı Yayınevi.
- Eyice, S. (1972). *Ankara'nın Eski Bir Resmi. [An Old Picture of Ankara]* .Ankara: TTK Yayını.

- Getty Conservation Institute (2017). *Cultural Heritage Policy Documents Recommendations of the Madrid Conference 1904*. Retrived at July 12, 2017, from http://getty.edu/conservation/publications_resources/research_resources/charters/charter01.htm
- Günay, B., (panelist). (2014, Nov. 14).”Ankara; Bir Başkent’in Kuruluşu”. [“Ankara; the Establishment of A Capital”]. METU “Science is Entertaining Activity” pwp presentation, Ankara.
- Hodder, I., Gargett, K. (2016). Eski ve Yeni Çatalhöyük.[Old and New Çatalhöyük] *Aktüel Arkeoloji* 49, 34-49.
- Kayra, C. (1990). *Istanbul Mekanlar ve Zamanlar. [Istanbul Spaces and Times]* Istanbul: Ak Yayınları.
- Kolb, F. (1996). The Role of Dwelling Houses in Larger Anatolian Settlements of Antiquity.Y. Sey (Ed.) *Housing and Settlement in Anatolia A Historical Perspective*. (p.146-154) Istanbul: Tarih Vakfı
- Korfmann, M. (1996). The Citadel and Lower City of Troia at Dardanelles, In Y.Sey (Ed.), *Housing and Settlement in Anatolia A Historical Perspective*, (pp.83-98). Istanbul: Tarih Vakfı
- Leech, R. (1999). Archaeology and the Planning Process. In Council of Europe, *Report on the Situation of Urban Archaeology in Europe*. (p.8-9). Strasbourg: Council of Europe Publishing.
- Mann, C. (2011). Uygarlığın Doğuşu [The Birth of Civilization], National Geographic, Haziran 2011 [June 2011], 100-101.
- Mellaart, J. (1967). Çatalhöyük: A Neolithic Town in Anatolia. London: Thames and Hudson.
- Mübarek Galib. (1996). Ankara. Erşahin, S. Çıralı, H. (Eds.), Ankara: Altındağ Belediyesi, Kültür Yayınları.
- Özcan, Z. (2006). Planlamada Disiplinler Arası İlişkiler ve Kentsel Arkeolojinin Yeri. [Interdisciplinary Relations in Planning and the Place of Urban Archaeology] *Gazi Üniversitesi Mühendislik-Mimarlık Fakültesi Dergisi. [Journal of The Faculty of Engineering and Architecture of Gazi University]* Vol. 21(4), 681-688.
- Özdoğan, M. (2016). *50 Soruda Arkeoloji. [50 Questions on Archaeology]* Istanbul: Bilim ve Gelecek Kitaplığı.
- Sarfati, H., Melli, P., (1999). Archaeology and the Town. In Council of Europe, *Report on the Situation of Urban Archaeology in Europe*. (p.13-29). Strasbourg: Council of Europe Publishing.
- Shanks, M. (2005). Kamusal Arkeoloji/Müzecilik/Koruma/Miras Bırakma, [Public Archaeology/ Museology/Preservation/ Heritage] In Renfrew, C., Bahn, P. (Ed.), *Arkeoloji Anahtar Kavramlar [Archaeology the Key Concepts]* (S. Somuncuoğlu, Trans.), Istanbul: İletişim. (pp.167-173).
- Schmidt, K. (2007). *Göbekli Tepe*, Istanbul: Arkeoloji ve Sanat Yayınları.
- Tanyeli, U. (1999). Başlangıcından Modernleşmeye Osmanlı Çağı [The Ottoman Period from the Beginng to the Age of Modernization]. In Y. Sey (Ed.), *Tarihten Günümüze Anadolu’da Konut ve Yerleşme [Housing and Settlement in Anatolia A Historical Perspective]*. Istanbul: Tepe Mimarlık Kültürü Merkezi.
- Tunçer, M. (2016). *Ankara Şehri Merkez Gelişimi [Development of Ankara City Center]*. Ankara: T.C. Kültür Bakanlığı Yayınları.
- Tournefort, de P. (1727). *Relation d’un Voyage du Levant*. Lyon: Freres Bruyset, Vol.3
- Ülkekel, C. (1999). *8200 Yıllık Bir Harita Çatalhöyük Şehir Planı [An 8200 Year Old Map]*. Istanbul:Dönence.
- Wycherley, R.E. (1991). *Antik Çağda Kentler Nasıl Kuruldu? [How did the Cities Established in the Antique Period?]*. (N.Nirven & N. Başgelen Trans.) Istanbul: Arkeoloji ve Sanat Yayınları.
- All the photos which do not have a reference name are from the personal archives of Mehmet Tunçer and Zühal Özcan.

The Strategic Importance Of Apollonia/Sozopolis City In Byzantyne Period And Its Conquest By The Seljuqs

Abdullah Bakir,

Throughout the history, human beings have developed various methods of protection in order to guard the safety of life and property of themselves and their subordinates in their habitat. Fortresses were the leading among them. In fact, those protection walls were named as “Castle, wall, fortress” according to their purpose of use. However, in the later periods, these terms were confused, and generally “Fortress” term have been used in common (Eyice, 2001; 234).

Fortresses were built on the military and trade lines and particularly built around important cities for defense and protection. Strategic points and high grounds that were available for protection were chosen for building fortresses. When the medieval fortresses of Anatolia are examined, it is seen that they were built on the grounds that bear similar characteristics. These fortresses may vary according to the land conditions, strategic importance of the region, and socio-economic characteristics of the people living there. One of the important fortresses of Pisidia, Apollonia/Sozopolis Fortress, bears different characteristics from the medieval Anatolian fortresses due to its volume, geographical features and the socio-economic structure of its people.

In the historical process, Apollonia/Sozopolis had maintained its importance since the prehistoric periods and took part in a key location with regards to the security and trade of the region. Within the Pisidia region, Apollonia/Sozopolis city, whose existence was known since the Prehistoric periods, began to be protected in the course of time with a wall enclosing the city (Texier, 2002; 401). In the course of time being known as Mordium, Apollonia, Sozopolis, Borgulu, the city is called as Uluborlu today and is a county of Isparta city. The region that Apollonia/Sozopolis city was located, particularly was in the junction point of military and trade lines in the medieval times, and was in a key location that combined Central Anatolia to Western Anatolia. It was located in a point that provided the connection of center with rural areas in terms of military and trade, a point where soldiers and tax revenues were transported through (Karaca, 2012, 19). On this place took place most of the developments that affected the results of important events which shaped the fate of Anatolia like Myriokephalon War. Considering the technologic availabilities of the time, this region was the leading among the most comfortable regions of Anatolia in terms of determining the water and food sources of the armies and with regards to being on a line that geographically provided transportation (Bakır, 2014, 86-87).

The Feature Of The Apollonia/Sozopolis Tower

The place Apollonia/Sozopolis Castle located was a strategically very important spot. Because this place, which was a residential area since the archaic age, gained more importance after Hellenistic Period (Özsait, 1985, 116). In the Byzantium and Roman periods, this city was on the route that combined the administration center with Southwest and Central Anatolia. This route had a vital importance in Roman Period, with regards to transporting the soldiers and materials that were needed by the state. That was why the states, which dominated these lands, attached great importance to the protection of castles and passages that were significant for their security on this route. Arrival of the Seljuqs to Anatolia and right after that the Turkmen raids concentrated on these regions. In consequence of these raids, the hegemony of the Byzantium on the Southwest Anatolia began to stagger, with regards to military its human and material sources began to cease. That was why a struggle for power arose in between Byzantium and Seljuqs of Turkey (Lemerle, 2016, 108,109). In that period the crusades on Anatolia intensified, great struggles were fought around Apollonia/Sozopolis in between the Turkmens and the crusaders through the II. Crusade, in which the crusaders suffered critical casualties due to the geographical conditions (Baykara, 1997, 14). The full sovereignty of the

Seljuqs of Turkey on Anatolia against the Byzantium came true just after their victory on Myriokephalon War, which took place within the borders of Apollonia/Sozopolis.

Affecting the results of many important events in the course of history, Apollonia/Sozopolis City had turned out to be a place where the Sultans and their families lived and where important state issues were administered (Yazıcızade Ali, 2017, 52, 515-516, 575, 618). Preserving its importance through the period of Beyliks (Turkish States), the city raised to the position of the capital (Kofoglu, 2006, 116). A geographical feature of the location was the main reason of the castle's being unconquerable even after deadly offensives. Apollonia/Sozopolis castle was located on a hill, on the slopes of Kapıdağı Mountain which is on the range of Toros Mountains. Having an altitude of 1200 m, the hill was surrounded on three sides by steep cliffs; one of these cliffs separated the castle from Kapıdağı Mountain with a canyon in which flows a brook named Şehir Çayı (City Brook). The hill that the Apollonia/Sozopolis Castle was built is only reachable by a sloping terrain on one side.

Wiew of Uluborlu Castle

A steadfast castle was built by constructing walls on that sloping terrain. The hill that the castle was built was on the junction point of the military and trade routes which combine Central Anatolia to West Anatolia. Moreover the area of the castle, which is known as "Region of Lakes" today, was suitable for human life regarding the climate conditions, and bore the most favorable conditions for agricultural and animal production.

While building the Apollonia/Sozopolis Castle, the thorough control of the region was aimed from military point of view. The city was almost inaccessible because of the cliffs surrounding the city from three sides, allowing only one entrance from the sloping terrain. The sloping terrain was completely blocked with the help of voluminous walls. The walls begin from the beginning point of the big canyon that separates the city from the Kapıdağı Mountain, and continue till the cliff that is at the end of the sloping terrain which provides entrance to the city. Some of the Stones to be used in the construction



The Strategic Importance Of Apollonia/Sozopolis City In Byzantine Period



of the walls had been brought from other places different from the sources of the region. Moreover, some building blocks of older residential areas were also used in the construction of the walls. However, a part of these disappeared in the course of time.

Built as a straight wall, the castle has only a 200 m. part reaching to the present day, which is a big part of the Apollonia/Sozopolis Castle. Having been built with an

average width of 3 m. and a height of 6 m., the structure had three bastions on it. Built quite larger compared to the walls; the bastions had a vital role in the defense of the city. The features of the bastions, which are now broken down, are as follows: the first bastion on the north of the walls was built with an 11 m. height and 7,5 m. width. The gate that allows entrance up on to the bastion is 2,5 m. wide and 4 m. high. Built as a geometrically trapezoid, the second bastion has a façade with a width of 10 m., and across from that one, the other façade is 4,5 m. wide, and the other one is 5 m. wide. The height of that bastion is 10 m. while the height of its gate is the same with the other bastions. The third bastion on the other side of the castle was built in a rectangular shape, its height is 11 m. and one side was designed in an 8 m. width, and the other 6 m. (Bakır, 2013, 56-57). There are two Gates on the castle, one of which was built through the end of the XIX. century. The main entrance gate of the castle was built 5m. protruded from the walls of the castle, it has a height of 5 m. and its dimensions are 2,75 m and 4,25 m. (Demirdal, 1968, 105.). The door of the gate part is not existed today. It is told among the local people that the door was dismantled from here in 1960s and removed to Eğirdir County. In the entrance of the grand door, is a marble stone with a hole in the middle probably had been used for door attachment, which is believed today to be bringing good luck among the locals, that is why they pass through their handkerchiefs and make a wish before the sunrise. In the east of the hill that the castle was built on, was placed a surveillance and defence tower to prevent any infiltration. This place was named as “cannon bed” among the locals in the course of time. In order to proactively prevent any offence, another tiny castle was also built to control the Popa Strait on the road. Today, the place of the castle, which hosts the ruins, is called as “The Cyclic of the Infidel” among the locals.

View of The Gate of the Apollonia/Sozopolis City Castle

View of The Cyclic of the Infidel (Ruins of the Castle)

View of The Stone of the Gate with the Hole in the Middle



Constructed in an important location, the castle had become one of the most important centers of a large region in terms of military, politics, trade and religion. Having a quite larger acreage compared to compeer castles of the medieval times, Apollonia/Sozopolis castle did not have rough land conditions inside. The water need of the castle was met from the springs on the Kapıdağı Mountains. The water was transferred via the pipes named “Küng” which means pipes made of earth,



and the pipeline passed above the steep gap on an aqueduct. The transported water was conserved in the cisterns and reservoirs that were built on high places, and then transported to the fountains which were built on the same line with their own reservoirs. Instead of the antic aqueduct, a new one was built in 1872 named as “Cirimbolu.” (Demirdal 1968, 107).

The Strategic Importance Of Apollonia/Sozopolis City In Byzantine Period

Large roads pitched with stones were built for the carriages in that large city in order to provide transportation.



View of Cirimbolu Aqueduct

A clandestine escape tunnel was built in order to let the administrators evade from the enemy, in case of surrender. There are myths about the starting point of the tunnel; however, the end of it can be seen from the hill that looks at Uluborlu-Konya highway.

There was a statue of the Virgin Mary that leaked oil, in the Virgin Mary Church of the Apollonia/Sozopolis Castle, which had also a religious importance in the Byzantine Period. This place was used as an important visiting place in the Byzantine Period, renowned commanders and religious persons of the time visited here and stayed here for days. (Ramsay, 1961, 447-448)

The Transition To Turkish Administration And The Situation During Turkish Period Of The Apollonia/Sozopolis Tower

Coming to Anatolia for different reasons in different times, Turks launched expeditions for settlement since the XI century. After the 1071 Malazgirt War, the gates of the Anatolia were opened to the Turks, and the Seljuqs began their conquest operations. Within this respect, the Apollonia/Sozopolis Castle was conquered first time by the Turks in 1074 under the reign of the Seljuq Sultan, Suleiman Shah. The conquerors of the castle, named it as Borgulu, which turned out to be Uluborlu in the course of time, and it is called as the same today. The fall of the key point into the hands of Turks, undermined the military and trade security of the Byzantium in the Southwest Anatolia. After the castle was taken by the Turks, an intense Turkmen migration began to the region, and many places out of the castle handed over to Turks (Karaca, 2012, 27-28). Because of all of the reasons mentioned above, the Byzantine Emperor II. Ioannes Komnenos wanted to recapture the city and retook it with an expedition in 1120. While regaining the castle, the Byzantines evaluated quite well the terrain conditions that the castle was built on. Encircling the city with a relatively small army, the commander placed the bulk of the army on the slope of the hill which the city was built on. The advance guards besieged the castle for a while and began to flee as if they were defeated. Thereupon, the Turks left the castle, chasing the Byzantine army. Trapping these Turkish troops, the Byzantine soldiers took the castle from the Turks

back (Khoniates , 1995, 9; Kesik, 2003, 51). Although the city was in the hands of Byzantines, the region out of the castle was in the hands of Turks generally.

In the time of Sultan Mesud, the Sultan of the Turkey Seljuqs, Turks surrounded the castle in 1142, but they couldn't take it then (Ramsay, 1961, 447-448). In that era, an intense Turkmen migration was taking place to Anatolia, and these Turkmen were being placed to the remote points on the borders with the Byzantium, by the governors of the Turkey Seljuqs whose capital was in Konya. There were Turkmen elements in those remote points, who came before. All of these Turkmen groups threatened the soldier and tax sources of the Byzantium Empire. In order to eradicate this threat, the Byzantium Emperor decided to make an expedition on Konya, to give an end to the Turkey Seljuqs State which supports the Turks and canalize them towards the border (Süryani Mihael, 1905, 369-371). Through that expedition which was made with grand troops, the Byzantine Army sustained a great defeat by the army of the Turkey Seljuqs commanded by the II. Kılıçarslan, who took the help of the Turkmen guarding important passages and valleys. The complete control of the Anatolia was passed on to the Seljuq Turks after the victory in the Myriokephalon War (15-16 September 1176), which took place on the valley that provides passage to the Apollonia/Sozopolis (Uluborlu) (Bakir 2014, 87). Apollonia/Sozopolis Castle, whose surrounding region was in the hands of Turks, was thoroughly conquered in 1180 by II. Kılıçarslan, and had been named as "Borgulu" as a Turkey Seljukian land (Sevim, 1993, 151).

Named as "Borgulu," the residential area of the Apollonia/Sozopolis underwent some changes after the Turkish conquests. The conqueror Turks divided the inner castle into two parts by building a big wall. This division was made to separate the Muslims from the non-Muslims. But there was only one gate, which was on the Turkish side, thus the non-Muslims who wanted to reach their home, would enter from that gate and had to pass another gate on the wall that divided the city, so that they were under a kind of control.

It is a high possibility that the non-Muslim population who lived there were from the Kuman-Kıpçak Turks who migrated to Balkans through the Northern Black sea, and fought for the Byzantine as mercenaries. After the conquest, it is thought that the Rum elements had moved from here, while the Turkic non-Muslim folk stayed there. This community, which moved from here with the exchange of population, was said to have intimate relations with Turks, spoke Turkish, and only their religion was Christianity. Moreover, the voyager Arundell who visited Uluborlu in 1832, mentions that the non-Muslim community was speaking Turkish, prayed Turkish, and generally used Turkish names (Arundell, 2016, 154). There is no cemetery belonging to either Muslims or non-Muslims within the castle.

The Strategic Importance Of Apollonia/Sozopolis City In Byzantyne Period

After the Turkey Seljuqs settled on the city, they designed the place that they live according to their own view, and resorted to constructing on that basis. Maybe the oldest mosque of the region was built here. The ruin of that mosque is still present, which was used till 1960s. There is also a tomb within the garden of the mosque, which was named as Ahibahaaddin Mosque.

Wiew of Ahi Bahaddin Mosque and its Garden

Turks did not oppress the non-Muslim community due to their belief, whom they lived together in the castle, did not touch to their churches, and let them live their own culture and religion (Arundell, 2016, 154). In the course of time, because of the socio-economic, military and political structure of the location, an intense Turkish migration took place to Borgulu. Due to the intense population after the migrations, the residential area inside the walls fell short and it overflowed to the outside of the walls. In a brief time, the city enlarged to a land that outside the castle residential area was three times bigger than the inside. The majority of the community was called as "Ahi" who were composed of tradesmen and craftsmen. They founded many charity and imaret institutions. As examples we can show Ahişemseddin Complex, Borgulu Arap Baba Mosque, and Ahibahaaddin Mosque (Karaca 2012, 102,107, 120, 129). The city had become a Turk-Islam-City through the Turkey Seljuqs era. Madrasahs (high school or the university of the time) were built in that center; they were used as the training center of the princes (Shehzades). Kargılılala Madrasa which had been the school for the famous Sultan Gıyasettin Keyhüsrev was the leading of these madrasahs. In the later times, when the famous sultan II Kılıçarslan wanted to divide the country in between his 11 sons, he gave Borgulu Castle to that son.



The son had taken hold of the throne with the help of the troops that he gathered from here (İbn Bibi, 1996, 113). There were many imarets built by the sultans on their own names, who attached particular importance to the city. Sultan I. Alaaddin Keykubat built "Alaaddin Mosque and Alaaddin Keykubat Library" which were called with his name. The first one of the two is still serving; the library building

could reach to the present day only after repair. There were many Turkish Baths in the city, since the city, on the route, had been a regular visiting place for the tradesmen and caravans. Only two of these Turkish Baths could reach to the present day. One of these, later named as Muhtesip, was built in 1179 (Demirdal 1968, 134). The other bath was called as Sultan Bath, which was built for the Sultans of the Turkey Seljuqs. One of the most important problems of the cities of the time was drinking water problem. In the era of Turkey Seljuqs, the water problem both within and outside the castle was met. The water of the springs that were on reasonable height, among the ones on the Kapıdağı Mountain, was transported to the city and the city was furnished with many fountains. Those fountains were built each one with a reservoir in a way that when it was not used the water accumulated in the reservoir, and moreover they were built on the same height since their source pipe was the same. As examples we can show, the "Arslanlı Çeşme (The fountain with lion)" from the Roman times, and the "Büyük Çeşme (Grand fountain)" from the Seljukian times, which was built in the era of the Sultan II. Gıyasettin (Bakır, 2013 61). On the "City Brook" that separates the city from the Kapıdağı Mountain, were built two bridges and one aqueduct, which are still in use today. A khan was built whose ruins of the gate and the basement could reach to the present day, just outside the Borgulu city, which was on an important point on the route to Konya.

Evaluation

One of the most strategic castles of Pisidia, Apollonia/Sozopolis Castle maintained its importance since the times of the Sevekos. With the help of Apollonia/Sozopolis castle, which was on the junction point of military and trade routes, the military and trade security of the region was provided, the state who owned that castled also owned the sovereignty of the region. With the examination of the castle, which played a key role in Roman, Byzantine and Seljukian times, the structure and formation of the cities and castles in Medieval Anatolia was manifested. Besides, Apollonia/Sozopolis castle bears different features in terms of inner structure, and it's scientifically important to examine and find out all of its characteristics with archeological studies.

References

- Arundell F.J.V. (2016) *Küçük Asya'da Keşifler Cilt I-II*, (Çev.) Doğan Dereli, İstanbul: Arkeoloji ve Sanat Yayınları.
- Bakır A. (2013) Ortaçağda Bir Türkiye Selçuklu Kenti Uluborlu, *Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Fen Edebiyat Fakültesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 55-66.
- Bakır A. (2014) Myriokephalon Savaşı Esnasında Anadolu'da Siyasi Durum ve Uluborlu Coğrafyasında Savaşın Yeri. *Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi: Isparta Bölgesinin Tarihi Coğrafyası ve Myriokephalon Savaşı Sempozyumu (19-20 Haziran 2014) Özel Sayı*, 70-96.
- Baykara T. (1997) *I. Gıyaseddin Keyhusrev (1164-1211) Gazi-Şehit*, Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu.
- Demirdal S. (1968) *Bütünüyle Uluborlu Monografisi*, İstanbul: Acar Matbaası.
- Eyice S. (2001) Kale, *Türkiye Diyanet Vakfı İslam Ansiklopedisi*, İstanbul: 234-242.
- İbn Bibi, (1996) *El Evamirü'l Ala'ie Fi'l -Umuri'l-Ala'ie* (Selçuk Name)I, Ankara: Kültür Bakanlığı.
- Karaca B. (2012) *XV. ve XVI. Yüzyıllarda Uluborlu Kazası*, Isparta: Fakülte Kitabevi.
- Karaca B. (2014) *1501'de Hamid Sancağı Vakıfları*, Burdur: Gül Ofset Matbaa.
- Kesik M. (2003) *Türkiye Selçuklu Devleti Tarihi Sultan I. Mesud Dönemi (1116-1155)* Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu.
- Khoniates N. (1995) *Historia*, Prof. Dr. Fikret Işıltan (Çev.). Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu.
- Kofoğlu S. (2006) *Hamidoğulları Beyliği*, Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu.
- Lemerle P. (2016) *Bizans Tarihi*, Çev. Galip Üstün, İstanbul: İletişim.
- Özsait M. (1985) *Hellenistik ve Roma Devrinde Pisidia*, İstanbul: Edebiyat Fakültesi Basımevi.
- Ramsay W.M.,(1961) *Anadolu'nun Tarihi Coğrafyası*, çev. Mihri Pektaş, İstanbul: Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı.
- Sevim A, (1993) *Anadolu'nun Fethi Selçuklular Devri*, Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu.
- Süryani Mihael, (1905) *Chronique de Michel le Syrien Patriarche Jacobite D'antioche (1166-1199)*, çev. J.-B. Chabot, Paris.

The Strategic Importance Of Apollonia/Sozopolis City In Byzantyne Period

TEXIER C. (2002) Küçük Asya Coğrafyası, Tarihi ve Arkeolojisi, (çev. Ali Suat), Ankara: Enformasyon ve Dokümantasyon Hizmetleri Vakfı.

Yazıcızade Ali. (2017) *Tevârih-i Âl-i Selçuk*, (Haz.) Abdullah Bakır, İstanbul: Çamlıca.

Being A Yoruk In The Ottoman State

Behset Karaca

1. Introduction

The name of 'Yoruk' or 'Yuruk' was firstly discovered in the book *Tevârîh-i Âl-i Selçuk* (History of the Seljukians) of Yazıcızâde Ali which was thought to be written in 1424. The name of Yoruk was used in the meaning of "Hey Turk" in another copy of the book. Moreover, Tugrul Bey was addressed as 'Yuruk' in that manuscript, and on this basis it is seen that these words had been used since a longer time ago. The name of Yoruk was written as Yoruk Turkmen... in *Tevârîh-i Âl-i Selçuk* referring to a Turkish (community) group (Bakır, 2017, p.XXXV, 9, 35-36, 751). It was mentioned as "Nomads walk like these Yoruks Eyes filled with bloody tears on scarceness..." in the *Düstûrnâme-i Enverî* which is among the Ottoman chronicles (Öztürk, 2003, p.17). Moreover, Yoruk name was used in the Oruç Bey History and in Anonymous Ottoman Chronicle which are among the Ottoman chronicles. Yoruk name was used to point out the nomads in also Period of Principalities in the Western Anatolian, and after these principalities were conquered by the Ottomans the name has been used since the earlier times of the Ottoman State (Gülten, 2008, p.20-21).

Yoruk name also took place in land registry books of the 15th and the 16th centuries. As an example, the following statements from the Manavgat district in 1455 reveals that; *Yoruks community, Yoruks from Kastamonu* (Prime Ministry Ottoman Archive (BOA) MAD 14, p.164-a, 165-b), *Baltacılar (Woodcutters) (indigenous Yoruks), Yoruks from Kızıldağ, Yoruks from Gencek, Yoruks on the borders of Bolad, Çubukçular (Rod Men) Yoruks, Sevinç Hacı and Demirciler (Hammersmithes are Yoruks)* (Karaca, 2009, p.101-106). In the land registry books, while mentioning about Western Anatolian Yoruks, as used in many other places, *community, Yoruk, Nomad, Turkmen*, and *tir* statements were used. There are nuances among them. But since they are used in the same meaning for the most part, it is difficult to prove the nuances (Aksoy, 2001, p.59-60; Çetintürk, 1943, p.107-108; Gökbilgin, 1957, p.1-9; Eröz, 1991, p.15-24). The most conspicuous issue here is mentioning about the *tir* which is not common in other statements. Big communities were split up into *tir* groups. Most of the names of these *tirs* are human names. The names of the Musellem Farms were also mostly entitled with human names, either with the name of the first walker/infantry or the musellem of the organization. In other words, the name of the chamberlain or the leader of the community should have been written. Here, the registration of the sub-communities as *tirs* was the output of the thought to keep them registered, to control them better, and to vest responsibility to certain people (Karaca, 2007a, p.111-124; Karaca, 2008, p.407-410, 422-440).

Briefly and in general terms, it is seen that the people living in the west part of Anatolia from the Kızılırmak River on the east to Aegean and Marmara Regions on the west were called as Yoruk, while the people living in the east and south of the Kızılırmak river and in Syria and Iraq were called as Turkmen (Sümer, 1952, p.511 et al; Çetintürk, 1943, p.107-108). It should also be considered that, compared to the communities that were nomads in real terms, some nomad groups were dealing with agricultural activities in their quarters alongside with husbandry. That was why migrant-settler words were also used for these groups in official registers and in codes (İnalçık, 1993, p.97-106; Şahin, 1999, p.133; Refik, 1989, p.1). When the names of the Yoruks are examined it will be seen that most of the Oghuz Tribes came to Anatolia and especially to the West, some of them settled down and formed their own villages and districts with their own names, while some of them kept up (continued on) their migrant-settler (nomad) lives. Faruk Sümer definitely manifested that 23 out of 24 tribes came to Anatolia, depending on the communities and places that bore the names of Oghuz Tribe written on the cadastral record books. Once again it is mentioned that Kayı (Tribe of the Oghuz) had played the most important role in the conquest and the settlement of Anatolia. Besides, according to the same writer, the tribes' names that were mostly used as names of the places in Anatolia in 16th century were, respectively; Kayı, Avşar, Kınık, Eymür, Karkın, Bayındır, Salur, Yüreğir, Çepni, İğdir, Bayat, Ala-Yundlu and other tribes following these (Sümer, 1992a, p.173-177, 327). As an example, 31 Oghuz tribe

names were discovered in Teke district in 1530, and 34 names in 1568 (MAD 14, TT 107, TT 166, Tapu Kadaastro Archive (TKA) 107, TKA 315; Karaca, 2002a, p.150-151, Karaca, 2005), while 69 Oghuz tribe names were spotted in Hamid district in the same era (Arıkan, 1988, p.82). Many similar names were also discovered in the Menteşe district.

In the 16th century in Menteşe, there were six villages with the name of Kayı apart from Kayı Yoruks and its sub divisions. Another important Yoruk group was *Kızılca Keçilü*. They also should have been a part of Kayı tribe. Moreover, there was Kara Keçili Yoruks together with Kızılca Keçilü. In this region there were also other tribes and groups of Oghuz tribes, apart from Kayı, Kızılca, and Kara Keçilis. These were: Bayat, Yazır, Dodurga, Afşar, Bayındır, Eymür, Yüreğir, and Kınık villages that were bearing Oghuz tribal names. These names are encountered in other places of Anatolia (Karaca, 2008, p.411-413).

Apart from the Yoruks with the names of Oghuz tribes, some Yoruks named themselves according to the places they lived, based on their being settled or not, according to the tools they used as a result of their nomadic culture (*arbor, sandal etc.*), according to economic activities (*doğancı (hawk master), kalburcu (sieve master), küreci, ziftçi (tar master), yaycı (bow master), fiftiers (ellici-rotating soldier), camel owner, wood dealer, tahtacı (plank master), yüzdecı (percentage), sayyadan dealer etc*), according to the organizations like timar/has/foundation they were affiliated to, according to life-styles of the tribes (*migrant-settler... Upper Barza, Dweller Barza, Nomad Barza, Güne Barza*), according to the administrative groups that they affiliated to (*Bozulus, Uluyörük, Karakoyunlu*), and according to the families of the leaders and mostly the names of the chamberlains (Karaca, 2007a, p.114).

2. Population of the Yoruks

Ottoman community was divided into two as the ruler ones and the ruled ones. The rulers or the military class were *seyfiye, ilmiye*, and *kalemiye*. The ruled ones or the *reaya* were city-dwellers, villagers, and Yoruks. Most part of the Ottoman population was settled. They were living mainly in the cities and villages. % 80 of the population living in present-day Turkey soil in between 1520-1530 was living in rural area, while % 20 was dwelling in the cities. And %20 of the population living in the rural areas were migrant-settlers (Tabakoğlu, 2000, p.139, 142-145; Ünal, 2013, p.37-38). As it is seen, the percentage and the population of Yoruks are high. An important part of this population was in the Anatolian Governorate (From Sinop in the east, to the Antalya Bay in the south). Together with the nomadic origin military groups like infantry and musellems, approximately they form % 27 of the Anatolian Governorate's population. However, the densely populated areas were Ankara, Kütahya, Menteşe, Aydın, Saruhan, Teke, and Hamid districts, the total population of which were 80.000 houses (İnalçık, 2000, p.71-72; İnalçık, 1993, p.103-106).

In Western Anatolia, there were 113.814 taxpayer Yoruk population in between 1515-1535. The population was increased to 123.577 in between 1570-1580 (Gülten, 2008, p.93). The real population is found when the numbers are multiplied with 5 (570-610.000). As we mentioned before, the densely population were in Ankara, Kütahya, Menteşe, Aydın, Saruhan, Teke and Hamid. Less population densities were in districts like Sultanönü, Biga, Karahisar-ı Sahip, Bolu, Alâiye (İnalçık, 2000, p.72; Gülten, 2008, p.93-97). In the beginning of the 16th century, in Balkans, there were 49.540 houses (about 250.000 people) of Yoruks or Yoruk origin military groups. In the Eastern Anatolia, 7325 houses were Boz Ulus (Turkmen), tribes in Kara-Ulus and Diyarbakır had an important structure and population. Besides, Boz-ok Turkmens, Atçekens, Üç-oklu Ulus, Boz-oklu Ulus and Çepnis were other important Yoruk groups in Anatolia (İnalçık, 2000, p.70-74). For example, the total population of Diyarbakır in 1518 (11 districts) was 213.521, 41.000 of whom were from Turkmen and Kurdish tribes. The population of the province in 1568 (22 districts) was 1.013.595, 85.000 of whom were formed by the communities (Karaboğa, 2017, p.67-165).

We should mention that in order for more concrete examples. In the district of Hamid, in 1478, 20.176 people were living as Yoruks. In 1523 and 1530, around 28.000 Yoruks were living in Hamid district. Eğirdir, Gölhisar and Ağlasun were the places of densely Yoruk population. 47.304 people were migrant-settler in 1568. From a different point of view, in the whole district there were 513 villages in

1530, and there were 73 communities. The proportion is around 1/7. This proportion is 1/3 in Eğirdir and Gölhisar (Karaca, 2007a, p.115).

In the district of Teke, around 40 communities were registered in 1455. Their population was about 13 thousand, which is %20. However, since a part of this register book is missing, the population seems less. 259 villages, 126 communities and 95 hamlets were registered in 1530. The proportion of village/community here was around ½. As a population 39.334 people were living Yoruk life in 1530. Their proportion in the whole population of the district was % 34.09. 302 villages, 100 communities and 174 hamlets were registered in 1568. The proportion of village/community in that date was around 1/3. The population of Yoruks in 1568 was 30.837. Their proportion to the whole was %29.51. Regarding that the total population of the district was around 105-115.000, they form an important part (Karaca, 2007a, p.115; Karaca, 2002a, p.230-231).

As for the Menteşe district, this was one of the densely Yoruk populated areas. 548 villages, 310 communities and 36 hamlets were registered in 1530. As it is understood from these numbers, migrant-settler life-style was more dominant here. In other words, 82.911 people were living Yoruk life. In the whole district, there were approximately 182.493 people in 1530. Nearly half of the people living in the district were migrant-settler, and they were dispersed to all of the counties (Karaca, 2007a, p.115; Karaca, 2008, p.410-411). There were around 120.000 Yoruks in 1560. They had a population around 90.000 in 1583. The reason of that decrease was related with settlement and migration to other places (Gülten, 2008, p.82).

3. Migration Activities of Yoruks in Between the Districts

The most important reason of the pursuit of the Yoruks was to collect taxes more accurately from them. That was why their mobilization and migration were tracked and recorded. Yoruks were moving in between summer pastures and winter quarters, watching for the proper conditions. They would change their places in some negative conditions. That is why you can see a certain community in another place in another time. For instance, apart from the registered Yoruks in Hamid, Menteşe, and Teke, there were located a group of other communities which later understood to be registered in some districts of Anatolia and Karaman provinces (Arıkan, 1988, p.86). Additionally, some communities moved to Teke district from Hamid and registered there. *Ali Fahreddin, Firuzlu, Hasan Paşa, Terkemış* were among these. They were spotted in Teke in 1568. Varsak Yoruks were recorded to be in Teke in that date and had moved here from Karaman province, although they were not registered in the register books written before 1530. Once again, a part of the Yoruks in Menteşe was seemed dispersed in different districts, however their original district was not registered differently (Karaca, 2002a, p.163-164). In a record of 1583, it was written in the village for Meğri district that “*Karakeçili community of Gerişburnu village came from Karaman, and it had been more than 50 years since they had come.*” (Karaca, 2013, p.43). It is common to see such kind of mobilizations and migrations in between provinces and districts in almost many places of Anatolia. A part of migrations were due to seasonal conditions, while some were due to political pressure, and partly for a search of a better life. Eventually whatever the reason was, such kind of migrations are always the case.

4. Settlement of the Yoruks and Factors behind Settlement

In the beginnings, Yoruks did not have an inclination towards settlement. Because they moved more free and avoided the taxes. However, the centralization of the state and in order for the officials to smooth away some of the Yoruks’ negative attitude and behaviors, the state attached importance to the settlement and residence, which had begun to change the situation. In other words, the most important factor affecting the settlement of the Yoruks was their desire for agriculture, the measures state had taken, and geographical conditions. Particularly the Western Anatolian Yoruks combined the agriculture with husbandry that was why the settlement was more conspicuous there compared to the other parts of the Anatolia. Because it was proved by the existence of the taxes most of which were paid by the residents.

In the relatively higher parts of Anatolia, like Teke, Menteşe, and Hamid, there were crowded population of Yoruks; however most of the migrant-settlers did not incline to settle down there. Among

these three districts, Menteşe had the most crowded population of Yoruks. This was because of the proper geographical conditions. As an example, the proportion of the settlers was quite high among the communities of the Karaca Koyunlu, who were the biggest Yoruk division of the Western Anatolia. Moving towards the north of the Western Anatolia, the less the population of the Yoruks, the more the inclination towards settlement among the communities. Particularly, it was because of the decreased altitude that the migrant-settler groups had a bigger proportion of settlement in today's Marmara region's area (Gülten, 2008, p.118-121; Emecen, 2005, p.175-185). Generally the Yoruks of the West could manage to incorporate agriculture with husbandry, owing to the proper conditions of the Central Anatolia stretching between Sivas region to Mediterranean Sea, and Sakarya Valley to Aydın district. On the other hand, the tribes in the Eastern Anatolia and Northern Syria were mostly dependent on pastoral farming (İnalçık, 2000, p.79). At least 2/3 of the villages and 9/10 of the cultivated areas of today in the Central Anatolia were established after 1860. Settlement, which became possible after that date, was due to tighter regulations against the nomads, and due to land titles given to the people by the state (İnalçık, 2000, p.207).

Briefly, the state began to prioritize settlement and residence after a certain date. Thus, the damages of the migration of them in between summer pastures and winter quarters would be eliminated. The transfer of the migrant-settlers to a settled life would both enable them get accustomed to the rules of the state, and pave the way towards being among the competent of agriculture. According to the new military service laws, the migrant-settlers began to recruit to the army. However, since they were not settled, it was not possible to determine their population. If they were settled the number of the recruits would increase by tens. Other reasons of the settlement were creating residential areas on the vacant lands and increase the taxes, settlement and urbanization desire worth the name of a grand state. Another reason was to eliminate the influence of the landlords and the tribal leaders against the oppression and despise the tribal members who were employed like slaves (Saydam, 2014, p.236).

5. Social and Economic Conditions of the Yoruks

Yoruk population was an essential element for the state because of their population, social and economic activities. The state was not happy with or without them. The most important reasons of the problems were settlement, conflicts in between the residents and them, the tax issue and their reluctance for living under a central administration. However, despite all of such problems, they were the indispensable of the state because of their activities mentioned below. In the Middle Ages, when the symbols of the power and energy were animal, human, and water power, they contributed highly with the animals they raised and with their population. Once again, when the economy was based on agriculture, trade, and husbandry, they contributed much in those terms. They combined agriculture with husbandry, and contributed to industry and trade by raising animals. Camels and mules that were used in transportation were raised by them. Briefly, by many aspects they were the vital elements of the state. It is possible to list down their contribution to the state as follows:

They contributed much in the Islamization and Turkification of Anatolia and Rumelia. They were exploited from the very first years of zoning, settlement and residence (Orhonlu, 1987, p.12; Altunay, 1999, p.53-55; Emecen, 2000). They played a crucial role in the establishment, development, and military use of Ottoman State and the others (Especially in the organization of the infantry and musellem). They constituted the driving force and dynamism of the states (Halaçoğlu, 1988, p.1). Husbandry had an important place in the economy of the migrant-settlers. The meat need of big cities like İstanbul, Edirne, and Bursa were met by the animals that were raised by the Yoruks. As an example, we can say that there were around 240.000 sheep in each of the districts Teke and Hamid, in the 16th century. The total number of the Yoruks in Teke and Hamid districts is 5-6 times more than the total number of the Yoruks in Menteşe district. From that point, if we say that they fed more sheep here, we are not mistaken (Karaca, 2007a, p.117). Once again, the number of the sheep of Boz-Ulus Turkmen

was around 2 million (İnalçık, 2000, p.74). Existence of taxes like *resm-i çift*¹ and *bennak*² that were paid by the residents, and the existence of grain and cotton in the yields, show us that some of them had farms and that they dealt with agriculture along with the husbandry (Karaca, 2007a, p. 116).

In the Hacilar community of Isparta, it is common to see such statements in the historical registry books about the communities *"The mentioned Yoruks have sheep. They even have plough. As the resm-i çift (a kind of tax; look at footnote: 2), they had been paying 12 akçe, it should be taken as the same."* (TT 438, p.287), and *"they do not have lands, they do have lands. They camp on the external lands, they stay on the external lands, they pay on-tenth tax of the land they used, they have the plough, Oturak Barza, Göçer Barza."* For instance, Emir Ali, Taradık, Suluan, Başmakçı, Katrancılar communities were some of these (TT 166, p.482-574; TT 176, 1-140; Karaca, 2008, p.416; Karaca, 2009, p.101). Karacalu community is give the tax on place that it is agriculture (TKA, TT 51, p. 251a). As another example, %46 of the Karaca Koyun Yoruks, who were among the West Anatolian Yoruks, was resident. It was determined that the Yoruks in Karasi district were in an intense settlement activity. It is seen that the Yoruks in Biga district were keeping their migrant-settler life style. There were Yoruk groups either resident or migrant-settler in Hüdavedigâr district. Migrant-settler life style was prevalent in Karahisar-ı Sahip district. Saruhan Yoruks showed a resident character. The Yoruk settlements in Aydın district had increased by time. Migrant-settler life style was more prevalent in Kütahya district. It is seen that there was 1/3 settlement in Menteşe district in 1583. Settlement is less in Hamid district due to the geographical conditions. Once again it is less in Teke district. However, the communities deal with agriculture along with the husbandry (Gülten, 2008, p.115-121).

They provided wool and leather to the industry of the city. Carpet and weaving were among the most important activities (Altunay, 1999, p.56-57). The most important ones of the products exported from Antalya harbor were carpet and rug. They were exported to the Black Sea countries, Egypt, East and Central Europe and Italy (Karaca, 2002a, p.108-113). They additionally dealt with lumbering. There were groups like Tahtacı (Plank Master), Bıçkıcı (Rip Saw Handler), Bıçakçı (Knife Handler), Baltacı (Axe User), Çubukçu (Bar User), Katrancı (Tar Master), Taşçı (Stone User), and Yayı (Bow Master). The wooden products would be exported to Syria and Egypt via Antalya, Alanya, and Finike harbors. Planks and lumbers would be used for building castles, houses, or ships, while the bows and arrows were used in the army. There were Bow Masters in Hamid and Menteşe, and Arrow Masters in Teke. As an example, there were statements about Rip Saw Handler community in Manavgat county *"It was placed in Akça castle ... the houses mentioned would annually give 500 planks, timber stringers, and they would not give resmi çift, kulluk, and avarız taxes..."* (Karaca, 2009, p.102-110).

They raised camels for the transportation of cereal, salt, and used them for the state when necessary. Briefly, the Ottoman Armies were dependent on the camel driver migrant-settlers in terms of logistics and transportation. The envoy for the Holy Roman Emperor, Busbecq said that *"Ottoman Empire roused and exalted on camel and rice"* in 1555s. Rice keep people full, while the other one is used as a means of heavy transportation. Camels are important in terms of logistics. Bayezid the First took away with him around 10 thousand camels after he conquered Teke region. There had been an important number of camels before soon in Teke region (İnalçık, 2000, p.77). Some tribal members in the Ottoman State had dealt with works like guide in pilgrimage corteges, trade caravans, or transporting goods with their camels (Saydam, 2009, p.30). The existence of *"Camel Dealer"* groups among the Yoruks of Gölhisar and *"Camel Dealer Groups, Community of Nomad Günebarza"* in Menteşe district in between 1522-1530, and the statements in the historical registry books about Menteşe *"A community from Tavas has come, and transported the salt that was produced in Tavas to Muğla and Tavas governorates..."* proved that (MD 41, p.140/313; Karaca, 2007a, p.116).

In 1866, when the İzmir-Aydın railway was under construction, there were camel dealers in Aydın who were dealing with trade, in other terms transporting goods to İzmir. The -y had 10.000 camels and

¹ Resm-i Çift: A kind of tax that was payed by the users of a land that was in a determined size named as "çift" in the Ottoman State (Ünal, 2011, p.170-171).

² Resm-i Bennak: A kind of tax that was payed by Muslim persons who are married and has a land less than half of a "çift." (Ünal, 2011, p. 170-171).

500 mules. These camel dealers had problems with the state since they would lose their jobs after the railway was built. These data and event emphasizes the importance of the camels (Akyıldız, 1992, p.119).

Some Yoruk groups, for example Çardak community in İrle (Yeşilova) county of Hamid district, would practice some other jobs like guarding mountain passes, or khans (TT 438, p.262). In the Afşar district, there is the Yenice derbent. This derbent is repaired by 14 persons who were the Karaman congregation of the Eğirdir Yoruks (TT 51, p.324b-326a). Some Yoruks were responsible for maintenance and care of the water channels, water ways, and bridges. It is possible to see them in Menteşe (Balıklıca), Hamid (Kundanlı) and Teke districts (Karaca, 2008). We see that some of the communities are also doing sayyadan, bazdaran, and hawk master (raising and feeding hunter birds), (TT 166, p.488-489, 502, 510-511; Karaca, 2002a, p.225-228).

Among the Yoruks were privileged ones like imam, dervish, sheikh of the Islamic monastery, tax determiner/collector, soldier, preacher, muezzin, trustee, khadi, chamberlain, and teacher groups which reflected their social and cultural situations. In other words, the groups mentioned above state that the Yoruks were not dealing only with agriculture and husbandry, but some of them would attend social and cultural activities (Karaca, 2007a, p.117). Once again in the Demir community of Gölhisar County, there were 4 people with the title "Serves the deceased Sultan Korkut." This registration is also showing us their social and cultural activities (Karaca, 2007b, p.766).

Tribes in the Ottoman State have always been seen as a human source. We see that the central government had a great effort to urge tribes to join the army troops, in the 17th century when there was a tremendous need for the soldiers. The state policy was not shaped to annihilate the societal groups like tribes. Their life style was not interfered by the state as long as they obeyed the rules (Saydam, 2009, p.18).

Mining and mine guarding (Salt mining and securing communities in Menteşe), and some other military duties (the fiftiers, the rotating family among fifty families to go to war) were conducted by them. For example, the community of Yörükler operate Varol salt mine (TT 166, p. 489; Gülten, 2008, p.56-57, 62-64). Some of the Yoruks were also responsible for the maintenance and care of castles and forts as well as their guardianship. As an example, Ovacık community in Teke was responsible for the Antalya castle, and they were free from one of the extraordinary tax-avarız. One soldier from Kozviran group and five soldiers from Kayı group of Menteşe were the guards for the castle (Gülten, 2008, p.66).

Some of the communities in the Anatolia had participated in some important political and social cases like the foundation of the Safavid State (Sümer, 1992b). Moreover, before and after the insurrection of Şahkulu some of them went to Iran and some of them were exiled to the newly conquered islands like Modon, and Koron. Thus, Teke, Hamid, and Menteşe being in the first place, the population of many districts was decreased, and damaged by that kind of exiles. In other words and briefly the Yoruks were also used in exile and settlement method (Karaca, 2002b).

6. The Reasons of Confrontation of Yoruks and the Ottoman State.

Ottomans' staying with agriculture, had been effective for the confrontation with the Yoruks. Although there were regulations for the nomads and their legal status was determined, the state protected the residents against the nomads. Briefly the Ottomans represent the society that was settled, and who was dealing with agriculture, industry, and trade (Karaca, 2005, p.20). The issue that was emphasized in the proverbs of Chinese is important; "It is possible to conquer countries on the horseback, however, it is impossible to govern them on the horseback." (Lindner, 2000, p.76). It was also mentioned in the legislations that even if the Yoruks wanted to renounce nomadic life and settle down to a town, they would be registered as Yoruks, and could not change their Yoruk status.

The centralization of the Ottoman State and the use of serf system was another reason for the confrontation of the Yoruks with the state. The first sultan to form the central empire was Fatih the Conqueror. However, the centralization of the Ottomans began earlier and the state confronted with the migrant-settlers since then (İnalçık, 2000, p.53). In this situation, Karamanoğulları, Akkoyunlular and Safavids were effective for the Turkmen to stay with the opposition. Some tribes stayed with the Shah Ismail, not only because they were Alevi, but also because of the resentment of the Turkmens.

Not only religious difference but also the rivalry of wild and agriculture, nomad and farmer were effective in the rivalry of Ottomans and Safavids (Saydam, 2009, p.16). The state applied centralization not only in terms of politics and military that we mentioned above, but also formed its organization and administration accordingly. Following is a list of activities in that regard; fratricide, the determined sizes of the timars, and renewals of warrants in each change of the sultan, narh (price fixing) system, economy policy and mentality, Christian conscription (Devshirme) system, settlement of the tribes by dividing them, the lands being in determined sizes, the low rate of distribution of wealth, confiscation, and prime ministers being chosen from among the Devshirmes (Genç, 2000, p.43-52; Ünal, 2014, p.82-92; Karaca, 2005, p.22).

Exile policy of the Ottomans, and generally the exiled ones being from Yoruks was another reason of their confrontation with the state. There are records about the exile of Shia and Alevi people of Hamid and Teke districts, to the newly conquered islands Modon and Koron. Once again there were lots of groups who migrated to Iran (Tekindağ, 1967, p.59). The Kızılbaş groups who generally had some relations with Iran were either exiled to Cyprus with their families and isolated there, or executed with charges like theft, banditry etc. It is seen that the Ottoman government intensified the track of the Kızılbaş groups just before a war with Iran (Kütükoğlu, 1993, p.10). Muratçılar community in Birge County “are Kızılbaş and they are scattered.” (Gülten, 2008, p.101-102). About 25 groups were mentioned “to be scattered since they are surh-ser (Kızılbaş).” As a result of that the population and the taxes were decreased in such places. Among them, particularly Karaağaç-ı Gölhisar, Eğirdir, Gölhisar, Keçiborlu, İrle, Uluborlu, Ağlasun counties can be mentioned (TT 121, p.60, 78, 89-90, 153, 162, 215, 229, 306, 314-317, 361, 398, 404-405, 546).

The enlargement of the agricultural lands against the cattle ranches, and levied heavy taxes on Yoruks was another reason for Yoruks to have problems with the state. Once again, the propaganda of the Safavids and the religious situation of the nomads were other factors. Moreover, the wars among the princes (Shehzadeh), Celali insurrections, Ottoman-Venezia war, and Safavids wars have deteriorated the political situation and Safavids tried to exploit this situation (Karaca, 2005, p.27-31).

There were also some psychologic and social factors for Yoruks to side against the Ottoman State. Accordingly, the differences in between the lifestyles of migrant-settler Turkmens and settled Turks, which created conflicts, paved the way for despise and hostility in between the two groups. That folk song that was common among the Turkmens not only shows their perspective about the villagers but also proves their prioritizing husbandry as the source of wealth “*Don't deal with vineyard you become addicted, don't plant a seed you lose time, pull the camel raise the sheep, one day you may need it!*” (Saydam, 2009, p.12). The Turkmens were addressing the civic brother Turkmens with the words like Yatuk (idle). On the other hand the Turkmens themselves were being called with libelous and insulting words like Etrak-ı bi-idrak (foolish Turks), Etrak-ı Mütegalibe (tyrant Turks), Etrak-ı na-bak or na-pak (fearless or dirty Turks), or Etrak-ı Havaric (insurgent, infidel Turks). Particularly this despise and humiliation, in other words this social conflict was one of the most important factors, maybe the main factor in the opposition of the Turkmens against the central authority. Such examples were effective in the insurgency of the Oghuz tribe against Sultan Sancar in 1153, as well as in the Babais insurgency (Ocak, 1996, p.41-43).

7. Conclusion

An important part of the Ottomans were the migrant settler groups who were called as Yoruks or Turkmen. Yoruks were particularly dense in the Anatolian Province of the Ottoman State. Besides, they were also living in Balkans and in the other provinces of the Anatolia. They were one of the essential elements of the state with their population and social-economic activities. They contributed to the state much in the Turkification and Islamization of Anatolia and Rumelia, and with husbandry, particularly raising horses, mules, camels, and sheep, transportation, operating mines and salt marshes, guardianship for the castles and mountain passes. Because of these jobs, they were indispensable for the state. However they confronted with the state due to their reluctance to obey the central administration, sometimes their participation in the insurrections, damaging the residents, and avoidance of tax.

Reference

- Prime Ministry Ottoman Archive (BOA), MAD (Maliyeden Müdevver Defter) 14.
 BOA, MD (Mühimme Defteri) 41, 140/313.
 BOA, TT (Tapu Tahrir Defteri) 107; TT 121; TT 166; TT 438; TT 176.
 Tapu Kodastro Archive (TKA), TT 107; TT 51; TT 315.
 Aksoy, E. (2001). *Yörük ve Türkmenlerin Sosyo-Kültürel Yapısı (Kırıkkale Karakeçili Aşireti Örneği)*, (Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi), Hacettepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Ankara, Türkiye.
 Akyıldız, A. (1992). Demiryolları ve Değişme (Batı Anadolu Örneği)", *Yeni Toplum*, Sayı 1, İstanbul.
 Altunay, S. (1999). XVI ve XVII. Yüzyıllarda Rumeli Yörükleri ve Naldöken Yürük Grubu, (Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi), Eskişehir Anadolu Üniversitesi S.B.E., Eskişehir, Türkiye.
 Arıkan, Z. (1988). XV-XVI. Yüzyıllarda Hamit Sancağı, İzmir: Ege Üniversitesi Edebiyat Fakültesi Yayınları.
 Çetintürk, S. (1943). Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nda Yürük Sınıfı ve Hukuki Statüleri. *DTCFD*, II, 107-108.
 Bakır, A. (2017). *Tevârih-i Âl-i Selçuk (Oğuznâme-Selçuklu Tarihi)*. İstanbul: Çamlıca.
 Emecen, F. (2000). Batı Anadolu'da Yörükler. *Anadolu'da ve Rumeli'de Yörükler ve Türkmenler Sempozyumu Bildirileri*, 113-120.
 Emecen, F. (2005). İlk Osmanlılar ve Batı Anadolu Beylikler Dünyası. İstanbul:Kitabevi.
 Eröz, M. (1991). Yörükler. İstanbul: Türk Dünyası Araştırmaları Vakfı.
 Genç, M. (2000). Osmanlı İmparatorluğunda Devlet Ve Ekonomi. İstanbul: Ötüken.
 Gökbilgin, T. (1957). Rumeli'de Yörükler Tatarlar ve Evlad-ı Fatihan. İstanbul.
 Gülten, S. (2008). *XVI. Yüzyılda Batı Anadolu'da Yörükler* (Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi), Gazi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Ankara, Türkiye.
 Halaçoğlu, Y. (1988). XVIII. Yüzyılda Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nun İskan Siyaseti Ve Aşiretlerin Yerleştirilmesi. Ankara: TTK.
 Öztürk, N. (2003). Fatih Devri Kaynaklarından Düstûrnâme-i Enverî Osmanlı Tarihi Kısmı (1299-1466). İstanbul: Kitabevi.
 İnalçık, H. (1993). The Yürüks: Their Origins, Expansion and Economic Role. *The Middle East and the Balkans under the Ottoman Empire Essays on Economy and Society*, Bloomington/USA, 97-136.
 İnalçık, H. (2000). Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nun Ekonomik Ve Sosyal Tarihi, I, İstanbul: Eren.
 Karaca, B. (2002a). XV. ve XVI. Yüzyıllarda Teke Sancağı. Isparta: Fakülte Kitabevi.
 Karaca, B. (2002b). Safevi Devleti'nin Ortaya Çıkışı ve II. Bayezid Dönemi Osmanlı-Safevi İlişkileri", *Türkler*, IX, 409-418.
 Karaca, B. (2009). XV. Ve XVI. Yüzyıllarda Manavgat Kazası. Isparta: Fakülte Kitabevi.
 Karaca, B. (2005). Osmanlı Devleti'nde Konar-Göçer Zümrelerin (Yörükler) Safevi Devletiyle İlişkileri. *Araştırmalar*, 7/14, 17-36.
 Karaca, B. (2007a). XVI. Asırda Batı Toroslar'da (Güney Batı Anadolu) Yörükler, *Uluslararası Denizli ve Çevresi Tarih ve Kültür Sempozyumu, Bildiriler I*, 111-124, Denizli.
 Karaca, B. (2007b). XVI. Yüzyılda Gölhisar Kazasının Sosyal Ve Ekonomik Durumu, *I. Burdur Sempozyumu, Bildiriler I*, 759-774, Burdur.
 Karaca, B. (2008). 1522-1532 Tarihlerinde Menteşe Bölgesi Yörükleri. *Fırat Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 18 (2), 403-440.
 Karaca, B. (2013). XVI. Yüzyılda Meğri (Fethiye) Kazası. *S.D.Ü. Fen Edebiyat Fakültesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 30, 13-54.
 Karaboğa, D. V. (2017). XVI. Yüzyılın İlk Yarısında Diyarbekir Eyaleti'nde İktisadi Hayat (1518-1568) (Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi), Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Isparta, Türkiye.
 Kütükoğlu, B. (1993), Osmanlı-İran Siyasi Münasebetleri (1578-1612). İstanbul: İstanbul Fetih Cemiyeti.
 Lindner, P. (2000). Ortaçağ Anadolu'sunda Göçebeler ve Osmanlılar, Çev. Müfit Günay, Ankara: İmge Kitabevi.

- Ocak. A. Y., (1996), Babailer İsyanı Aleviliğin Tarihsel Altyapısı Yahut Anadolu'da İslam-Türk Heterodoksisinin Teşekkülü. İstanbul: Dergah Yayınları.
- Orhonlu, C. (1987). Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nda Aşiretlerin İskânı. İstanbul.
- Refik, A. (1989), Anadolu'da Türk Aşiretleri (966-1200). İstanbul: Enderun Kitabevi.
- Saydam, A. (2014). Osmanlı Medeniyeti Tarihi. İstanbul: Kitabevi.
- Saydam, A. (2009). Sultanın Özel Statüye Sahip Tebaası: Konar-Göçerler. *S.D.Ü. Fen Edebiyat Fakültesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 20, 9-31.
- Sümer, F. (1992a). Oğuzlar (Türkmenler) Tarihleri-Boy Teşkilatı-Destanları. İstanbul: Türk Dünyası Araştırmaları Vakfı.
- Sümer, F. (1992b). Safevi Devleti'nin Kuruluşu ve Gelişmesinde Anadolu Türklerinin Rolü, Ankara: TTK Yayınları.
- Sümer, F. (1952). XVI. Asırda Anadolu, Suriye ve Irak'da Yaşayan Türk Aşiretlerine Umumi Bakış. *İFM*, XI/1-4, 509-523.
- Şahin, İ. (1999). Göçebeler, *Osmanlı*, IV, 132-141.
- Tabakoğlu, A. (2000). Türk İktisat Tarihi. İstanbul: Dergah Yayınları.
- Tekindağ, Ş. (1967). Şahkulu Baba Tekeli İsyanı, *BTTD*, sayı 1-3, 34-39.
- Ünal, M. A. (2013). Osmanlı Müesseseleri Tarihi. Isparta: Fakülte Kitabevi.
- Ünal, M. A. (2014). Osmanlı Sosyal Ve Ekonomik Tarihi. Isparta: Fakülte Kitabevi.
- Ünal M. A. (2011). Osmanlı Tarih Sözlüğü. İstanbul: Paradigma Yayıncılık.

Evaluating the Women Image in Juan Valera's Works

Burcu Tekin

1. Introduction

Juan Valera is one of the most significant and outstanding writers of the nineteenth century Spanish Literature. Thanks to his political and diplomatic life, he could travel to various countries and interacted with a considerable number of cultures. A distinguished writer in the history of Spanish Literature with his humanist approach and intellectualism, Valera analysed human relationship in his work since he had interacted with different cultures. Since he was from a female dominated family and had several affairs in his private life, what Valera experienced both in positive and negative ways helped him gain an alternative perspective. Especially in his work focusing on romantic relationship between a man and a woman, he discovers the inner world of women and examines what women feel. In this regard, another distinguishing aspect is the women image in Valera's work. It can be seen that Valera scrutinized women characters in his works. The women image for Valera was envisaged as elegance and beauty. When the role of the women is considered in the aforementioned age, it is worth to note that Valera prioritises the women characters in his works. Valera pictures the inner world of women within the scope of his own viewpoint. This paper sets out to examine the women image in Juan Valera's prominent works in dept.

2. An Overall Evaluation of How Women were Perceived in 19th Century Spain

In general terms, nineteenth century Spain and Europe is summarized by Işık (1991) as:

All over the Europe, nineteenth century was a shaky yet hopeful "reconstruction era" in which the liberals and nationalists, and later on the masses of workers, had harsh struggles eventually gaining profits. Spain was also affected by this; however, it was generally retrospective rather than being prospective and Spain had barren practices rather than productive ones for the century and even for the following forty years of the twentieth century (p.143).

As mentioned above, nineteenth century was a chaotic era for Spain. Spain witnessed a series of civil wars called Carlist Wars, an internal disturbance which lasted for forty years and social unrest due to the fight for the throne between liberals and conservatives. Although there were some inter-war periods, the state of war lasted during the whole century. Therefore, in the second half of the nineteenth century, Spain was highly disorderly, as the phrase goes, it was sucked into a whirlpool. Isabel II was the Queen of Spain in that period and she was deposed in the year 1868 by a movement called *Revolución Gloriosa*. In response, Amadeo de Saboya was offered the throne; however, Saboya abdicated due to the unrest in Spain. In 1874, Alfonso XII was proclaimed king and ended the Carlist War which was intensified by the Constitution of 1876. Later, Alfonso XII was succeeded by his son Alfonso XIII. In 1898, when Spanish lost its last colonial power, Spanish Empire collapsed (Karaca & Hacibanoğlu, 2016, p. 314).

As the political events unfolded in such a way during nineteenth century, how these all reflected to women socioculturally had a whole different aspect. During nineteenth century, half of the population were women and most of them were married. In addition, the number of single women outnumbered that of widow women and fewer than the married ones. Single women were perceived in a negative way by the society compared to how they perceived married and widow women. The reason for this was intrinsic to Spanish society for which the place of a woman was her home and her main duty was to be a devoted mother and wife (İlker, 2016 p.9). When the concept of marriage is analysed, it can be seen that "until the end of the eighteenth century and until the first half of the nineteenth century, marriage was practiced solely with the person that the family consents and this practice was a token of the respect young individuals showed towards their parents and society. Social conflicts were observed when the choice made by women was not accepted by the parents. The protests against arranged marriage caused conflict between the parents and the children and they resulted in the issue

of a consensus for the choice of partners” (Kocaman, 2015 p.71). For women living in Spanish society, the nineteenth century meant obedience to their partners. Kocaman (2015) states that for the nineteenth century society, family values were crucial for religious reasons and the members of the family were surrounded by the rules to follow both individually and socially. The role of father was perceived by the society as the key figure of authority and the one to be in charge of it financially whereas the women were the symbol of fertility and maternity as well as the key figure to take care of their partners, children and the home (p.70).

In the second half of the century, this strict perception relatively got more flexible; nonetheless; when the acts of the era are analysed it can be observed that “even though it was as if the female were also given the right to education, what was meant by education included practices of “female labour” including stitching, embroidery, knitting and sanitation” (Kocaman, 2015 p.73). From this point of view, it is possible to trace the effects of patriarchal structure in the nineteenth century Spain. According to society, women were weak by nature; therefore, that they could be equal with men was out of the question. One of the roles which was assigned to women was to provide the order of the house and to raise children while serving the husband well. When this vicious and limited frame of mind is examined in general terms, it can be concluded that the reason for the existence of women was solely to obey the rules created by the society for the women (İlker, 2016 p.12).

3. Life and Literary Works of Juan Valera

Juan Valera y Alcalá-Galiano was born into a distinguished family in October, 18 in 1824 at Cabra, in the province of Córdoba, in Andalusia. His father, José Valera y Viaña, was a veteran soldier. Valera had two sisters called Sofia and Ramona. His mother doña Dolores Alcalá-Galiano y Pareja, Marquess of Paniega, encouraged Valera’s literary interest and had a critical role in terms of shaping his intellectual identity. Between 1834 and 1840, Valera pursued a degree in Philosophy at Malaga and afterwards, a degree in Law at Granada (Abud, 2004, p. 63). During this period, after 1835, Romanticism had its impact in Spain. “From this period and on, French Romanticism had a great impact on art. Although Spanish Romantic Era cannot be compared to Golden Age, it established the ground for the transition towards a renaissance in literature” (Önalp, 1988, p. 129). Affected by the Romanticism in Spain, Valera was mainly inspired by Espronceda and Lord Byron. Described as an idol, Espronceda, in particular, was a prominent figure for Valera. Taking the advantage of the sensation of Romanticism, Valera published his first work in weekly magazines including *El Guadalhorce*, *La Alhambra* and *La Tarántula* (Sánchez García, 2005, p. 28). Following his moving to Madrid in 1846, Valera started his political, diplomatic and literary life. He could participate in a considerable number of meetings thanks to his royal mother’s connections and met a variety of people. He managed to impress everyone he interacted with his intellectual manners and literary intelligence. He joined several meetings in places such as *Café del Príncipe* in Madrid. His literary identity and his perspective enriched thanks to these gatherings (Gullón, 2005, p. 18; Sánchez García, 2005). Valera’s first trip abroad was to Napoli, Italy, where he stayed for two and a half years by Duke of Rivas Angel de Saavedra’s invitation in 1847 (Abud, 2004, p. 65-66). Valera returned to Madrid in 1849 and afterwards, he worked in Spanish legations in Lisbon and Brazil between 1850 and 1854. When he returned from Brazil in 1853, he started working at Lisbon again. He was appointed as first secretary of Ministry of Foreign Affairs in 1855. Juan Valera devoted most of his time to literature when he was in his sixties in 1973 and he started writing in this period. One year after he gave up politics, one of his most influential works called *Pepita Jiménez* was published in the magazine *la Revista de España*. Initially published chapter by chapter, *Pepita Jiménez* was subsequently collected and published into book. Valera wrote *Asclepigenia*, in which philosophy, women and love are prominent themes, in 1878 and later on he published *Pasarse de Listo*. He wrote *Doña Luz* in 1879 and his autobiographical novel *Las Ilusiones del doctor Faustino* in 1875 and *El Comendador Mendoza* in 1876. He wrote ten articles on naturalist French Novel for the magazine called *Revista de España*. Valera translated *Dafnis y Cloe* by the Greek writer Longo de Lesbos. Valera continued his work in Madrid upon returning there in 1888. In his sixties, he published *Cartas Americanas* – a work consisting of the letters between 1888 and 1892. Following the success of the book, he published *Nuevas Cartas Americanas*. Ambassador to Vienna in 1893, Valera wrote *Juanita La Larga* in 1895. After publishing *Morsamor* in

1899, Valera could continue his literary work thanks to his friend Jose Alemany's assistance. He died in April, 1905 (Fiddian, 2002, p. 83; İlker, 2016, p. 19-20; Moreno Hurtado, 2003, p. 19).

4. Evaluating the Women Image in Juan Valera's Works

Gullón (2005) argues that Valera was a dexterous, elegant, and intellectual writer who added several valuable works to Spanish Literature (p.18). The support Valera received from his family guided him to literature and shaped his literary intelligence; thus it can be characterized as his greatest fortune. With this motivation, Valera could advance his literary life and became a part of nineteenth century Spanish Literature with his letters, novels, poems, stories and critical reviews. Generally examining human relationships in works, Valera spoke of the effects of love in human psyche. The leading characters in his works in which the prevailing concept is love were women. Valera explores the relationship between women and men and within this context he reflects the inner world of women making it easy for the readers to identify with the main characters.

İlker (2016) explains the process of women's image as:

Juan Valera tries to picture the inner world and psychology of women by presenting women characters in his works. It can be said that by skilfully presenting women character's emotions, Valera had the chance to know women and their inner world. If a writer is able to write about women and their insight on topics such as love, romance, and religion, it is an indicator of the writer's opportunity to have known women throughout his life. The writer met a significant number of women in his lifetime. Women he had affairs with or had an unrequited love for inspired Valera to create women characters. Valera had a mobile life and visited a great number of countries and performed various duties. Meanwhile, he had affairs with various women and he could reflect the experience with an emotional depth into his work (p.24).

As mentioned in his biography, Valera visited many countries due to his diplomatic life and lived abroad from time to time. It can be said that, under these circumstances, it is highly likely that he became friends with many people. Naturally, as a result of the effects of sociocultural norms of each country's dynamic on individuals, different identities occurred. These identities served as sources of inspiration for Valera's works. In addition, that Valera grew up in a female-dominant family and had an authoritative mother figure could be accepted as a symbolic factor in shaping of Valera's interaction with women.

Valera designated his characters from everyday life and pictured them in a poetic style by adapting them to his works. He was influenced by the masters of French Literature such as Flaubert when he was in Paris in 1860 and decided to write a novel then. His novels typically include autobiographical features as well as childhood memories. The novels with such themes can be listed as *Pepite Jiménez*, *Mariquita y Antonio* and *Las Ilusiones del doctor Faustino*. Although not very explicit, there can be traces of early nineteenth century English novels as well. The influence of the realist writers of French Literature, Flaubert and Stendhal, is also observed (Moreno Hurtado, 2003, p.13). Valera observed the era he lived in carefully and with his humanist approach, he tried to tell his reader about the political, philosophical and socio-cultural structure of Spain in nineteenth century. As a liberal conservative he was spiritual; yet, he experienced several existential crises and cycles (Moreno Hurtado, 2003, p.15).

It was mentioned above that Valera, as a writer who made use of his personal affairs to form characters, must have been influenced by women, namely his mother, sisters and lovers. From this point of view, it will be useful to analyse the influential women he knew and had affairs in order to observe the impact they had on his works.

Fanconi (2011) points out the importance of Cuban writer Gertrudis Gómez de Avellaneda for Valera, a person who had several romantic affairs (p.138). Valera met Cuban writer Gertrudis Gómez de Avellaneda while he was in Madrid in 1843 and 1844. Gertrudis fascinated Valera, who was 17 at that time, with her charm and intellect. She was ten years older than Valera. Influenced by the novel *Leila* by George Sand, Valera wrote a poem called *A Leila* dedicated for Gertrudis. However, Gertrudis refuses Valera (Abud, 2004, p. 64). The poem Valera wrote for Gertrudis is as follows:

*For Leila
Love,
your eyes
are as pretty as the
red and sapphire daybreak,
and as lively as biting fire.*

Your eyes fill my mind with love... (İlker, 2016, p.25)

Juan Valera met Marquess of Bedmar Lucía Palladi, whom he described as the love of his life, when he was at Napoli in 1847. Palladi was an intelligent woman, a knowledgeable person who valued aesthetics. Sharing the same taste as Valera, Palladi helped Valera prosper both emotionally and also in terms of literature. Palladi, who was older than Valera, is also known as “La Muerta” which means “dead woman” in Spanish as she had a pale look and an unhealthy nature. Palladi and Valera were together for a period of time and had a passionate relationship. Valera was deeply attached to Palladi because of the fact that Palladi suffered from health issues and was a devoted and spiritual person. As a result, he was highly affectionate towards her and fell in love with her. Although Palladi pointed out that she was as old as his mother in order to emphasize the age gap between them, Valera did not change his mind about his passionate love for Palladi. Approximately 40 years after their relationship, in 1897, Valera wrote a story called *El Cautivo de Doña Mencía* depicting what they experienced (Sánchez García, 2005, p. 37-38; Abud, 2004, p. 66-68; Esteban, 2001). Later on, he became interested in Greek and classical period. For Valera, losing Palladi was equal to losing a friend with the same cultural taste as well as losing his love of life. In one of his letters to his father written in 1850, Valera mentioned that what he felt for Palladi was not a fleeting interest but rather a strong one which had him work and produce. In the following years, Valera had another romantic affair with young Juana Cruz Pachego and had plans to get married with her; however, he broke up with her as he thought he was not ready for marriage (Sánchez García, 2005, p. 38-39). During that time, the writer met Malvinita, an attractive and good-looking woman, also known as *La Culebrosa*. This love affair had a sad ending as well (Abud, 2004).

When in legation in Brazil, he met Dolares, the daughter of the Ambassador Jose Delavat. Although very young when they met, Dolares became his wife later on. Meanwhile in Lisbon, Valera met a married woman called Laura Blanco in one of the gatherings he attended and wrote a letter to his mother about this woman. In his letter, Valera stated that he was captivated by her and followed her movements. Having a flirt with the French actress Magdalena Brohan as well, it can be observed that he had a colourful personal life. It was inevitable for a person who had travelled to several countries and met a great number of people to be inspired by them. As a writer who valued aesthetics, Valera’s literary journey changed from Romanticism to Realism. Pérez-Bustamente (1994) states that Valera had two periods. In the early period his works included *Pepita Jiménez*, *Las Ilusiones del Doctor Faustino*, *El Comendador Mendoza*, *Pasarse de Listo* and *Doña Luz*. Valera’s second period starts 16 years later. These works can be respectively listed as *Juanita La Larga*, *Genio y Figura* and *Morsamor* (p.86). These works can be attributed as the most influential works by Valera, who stands out as a poet and critic. With his unique style, Valera pursued art for art’s sake and shared it with his reader in a way that he designed by using his own world with unique details. He applied nature and beauty themes with a poetic use of language and had woven them into his narrative. The image of women in his work is characterized as the embodiment of beauty. Valera used sensational themes such as blind or unrequited love to depict ideal beauty; consequently, he could reach his audience. In his certain works, he depicted the inner world of women in meticulous details as well as their psychological states. In his letter-novel *Pepita Jiménez*, the writer tells the story of Pepita who is an orphan, born into a poor family and gets married to an older person called don Gumersindo when she is only 16 years old. After Gumersindo’s death, Pepita has a love affair with a rich man who is named Pedro de Vargas. However, don Pedro’s young and ambitious a monk-to-be son’s visit changes everything. Beautiful and admirable Pepita and mature and educated Luis has a complicated love story and they have a secret affair. The character Pepita in the book *Pepita Jiménez* can be evaluated as a reflection of the women Valera had affairs with. Pepita is depicted as a flamboyant, proud, and controlling character. Valera investigates Pepita’s feelings for Luis in a rather clear way. Contrary to sad love affairs of Valera, the story has a happy ending. Telling

the story of the daughter of Marquis of Valera Villafria, *Doña Luz* is another work by Valera which has a dominant woman character called Doña Luz. The story takes place in Andalusia after her father's death when she is fifteen. Doña starts a new life with Don Acisclo. Luz is a beautiful and charming 26-year-old woman when the story begins. As it can be expected from him, Valera introduces an attractive female who has a lyrical elegance. Apart from her beauty and contrary to mediocre girls sitting at home, Luz is a diligent and companionable woman who does not have any problems with interacting with people. She lives in a typical Andalusian house under Don Acisclo's protection. When Don Acisclo's reverend nephew Enrique joins them, there occurs an unignorable platonic love between Luz and Enrique. For Enrique, Luz is an impressive soul with her grace and intellect. Despite all the secret feelings Doña Luz marries Jaime Pimentel, a friend of Don Acisclo. Upon hearing this, Enrique internalizes his pain and alternates between holy love and earthly love. Different from *Pepita Jiménez*, the book ends with melancholy (Moreno Hurtado, 2003, p. 229). In his work *Juanita La Larga*, Valera tells the story of an illegitimate young woman called Juanita. Similar to Valera's other works, Juanita is truly stunning. Even though the book centres on Juanita, it also depicts the life style in Andalusia in the nineteenth century. Similar to *Pepita Jiménez*, there is a relationship between an old man and a younger woman in *Juanita La Larga*. 53-year-old widow Don Paco is genuinely impressed by 16-year-old Juanita. Although at first Juanita, a free-spirited young woman is not attracted to Don Paco but rather has feelings for Antoñuelo, in the end, Juanita recognises that she loves Don Paco and the story has a happy ending. Valera's image of exceptional female characters can straightforwardly be observed in these three works. Valera's perception of women might be detected by his characters Pepita and Luz's royal appearance, passion to learn and an intellectual spirit. It can be observed that Valera poetically creates unique and "distinctive" female characters when his life and literary works are assessed. He also skilfully covers the one of a kind socio-cultural norms and life style of Andalusian region.

5. Conclusion

Ortega y Gasset (2017) defines a subtle and qualified novel in this fashion: "Let's observe the moment we finish a great novel. We feel as if we return back from another life, a world which has no connection with ours at all. That unconnectedness is crystal clear since we do not recognize the transition between the two" (p.86). With regards to Ortega y Gasset's statement, Juan Valera contributed a lot to Spanish Literature with his humanist and intellectual approach and qualified, and rich literary works. As stated in this paper, that Valera's family knew his aptitudes and internal world played a key role in shaping his literary identity. Valera used having been raised in a female-dominated family his advantage and he was guided towards literature and intellectual circles by his sisters and mother when they noticed Valera's reflection, interpretation and intellectual skills. Furthermore, Valera gained a deeper insight both culturally and emotionally throughout his trips abroad for his ambassadorial duties. Valera's interpretation of his characters is consistent with this profound insight. He could uncover the thorny, keen and implicit emotions and offered them delicately and frankly to his readers. With a never-ending curiosity, he scrutinized people in the meetings he participated in wherever we travelled to. In addition, Valera transferred his turbulent life and the melancholy and platonic love affairs he experienced into his letters, novels, reviews and interviews by enriching those with delicate yet detailed Andalusian portraits. He had the opportunity to meet and interact with various people of letters and intellectuals, a great number of whom he had become friends, and been inspired by.

6. References

- Abud, E. (2004). La Vida Amorosa de Juan Valera Conocida a Través de su Obra Epistolar [Love Life of Juan Valera through Epistolary Writing]. *Divergencias. Revista de Estudios Lingüísticos y Literarios*, 2, (1), 61-81.
- Esteban, J. (2001). ¿Quién fue Lucía Palladi, Marquesa de Bedmar? [Who was Lucía Palladi, Marquess of Bedmar?]. *Añil*, 22, 62-64.

- Fanconi, P. (2011). Carta, Novela y Erotismo en Don Juan Valera [Letter, Novel and Erotism in Don Juan Valera]. *Dicenda. Cuadernos de Filología Hispánica [Dicenda: Journal of Hispanic Philology]*, 29, 131-143.
- Fiddian R. (2002). Under Spanish Eyes: Late Nineteenth-Century Postcolonial Views of Spanish American Literature. *The Modern Language Review*, 97. (1), 83-93.
- Gullón, G. (2005). Juan Valera Documentalista del Yo. *Cuadernos Hispánicoamericanos* [Booklets of Hispanics] 665, 17-28.
- İlker, N. G. (2016). *Juan Valera'nın Pepita Jimenez Adlı Eserinde Kadın Psikolojisi [Woman Psychology in Juan Valera's Pepita Jimenez]*. (Unpublished master thesis). Ankara University, Turkey.
- Işık, G. (1991). *İspanya Bir Başka Avrupa [Spain is Another Europe]*. İstanbul: Metis Yayınları.
- Karaca, E. C., & Hacımanoğlu, H. (2016). 19. Yüzyılın Sonlarında İspanya'da ve Türkiye'de Edebiyat: 98 Kuşağı ve Tanzimat Dönemi Edebiyatlarının Karşılaştırılması [Literature at the End of the 19th Century Spain and Turkey: Generation of 98 and Tanzimat] VI. *International Comparative Literature Conference, Konya, Turkey, 12-14 October 2016* (pp.312-320). Selçuk University.
- Kocaman, N. (2015). *Juan Eugenio Hartzenbusch'un Los Amantes de Teruel (Teruel aşıkları) adlı Tiyatro Eserinde XIX. Yüzyıl İspanyol Toplumunu [20th Century Spanish Society in Los Amantes de Teruel by Juan Eugenio Hartzenbusch's]* (Unpublished master thesis). İstanbul University, Turkey.
- Moreno Hurtado, A. (2003). *Don Juan Valera y su Relación [Don Juan Valera and His Relation with Foreign Literature]*. Delegación Provisional de Turismo y Deporte de la Juana de Andalucía.
- Ortega y Gasset, J. (2017). *Sanatın İnsansızlaştırılması ve Roman Üstüne Düşünceler [The Dehumanization of Art and Other Essays on Art, Culture, and Literature]* (N. G. Işık, Trans.). İstanbul: Yapı Kredi Yayınları.
- Önalp, E. (1988). *İspanyol Edebiyatı Tarihi [History of Spanish Literature]*. Ankara: Onur Yazın Dil Merkezi.
- Pérez Bustamente, A. S. (1994). Juan Valera, Novelista Una Revisión [Juan Valera, Novelist, Revision]. *Draco: Revista de la Literatura Española [Draco: Journal of Spanish Literature]*, 5-6, 85-134.
- Sánchez García, M. R. (2005). *La Condición de La Mujer en el Intelectualismo Liberal del Siglo XIX: La Mujer Escrita en Las Novelas de Don Juan Valera [Women's Statues in Liberal Intellectualism of 19th Century: Women in Juan Valera's Masterpieces]* (unpublished doctoral dissertation). Granada University, Spain.

The Potentialities of Research in Translation Studies as Interdisciplinary³

Mine Yazıcı

1. Translation as an object of study in research

There are two reasons why studying translations has not been accepted as scholarly by established disciplines. The first reason is related with the narrow definition of Translation as an exact copy of the original. The second one is related with scientific procedures, or methodology in studying objects or materials as a scientific object of study. In fact, both of them are inextricably intertwined with each other. Even if translations are copies of the originals, they are facts of target culture, and facts cannot be ignored as an object of study in scholarly research.

In face of such objections against translations as facts of scientific research, scholars studying on translations have searched for new techniques to be accepted by established disciplines as a legitimate field of research. Accordingly, on the path to becoming a legitimate field of academic study, the researchers have had to undergo several stages to fulfill the main scientific procedures which are known as discovery and rationalization. For example, in the beginning they oriented towards comparative linguistic analysis to fulfill the discovery procedures, which is defined “descriptive pure research” by Theo Hermans (1997:18). However, collecting data without a goal has only served to the accumulation of linguistic data without an end. In this case, the researcher could not proceed from discovery phase to justification, or rationalization phase. In other words, the researcher remained at object level, or in discovery phase; Subsequently, s/he was confined to the borders of a text. In broader sense, the researcher was bound to tell the course, or process of translation by interpreting, discussing translatorial decisions taken on a certain text, or on a body of texts. This was not so much explaining or “rationalizing” the relationships between the data and following the logical sequence of findings to draw up the theoretical framework of an academic discipline as listing data obtained from comparative analyses just in the same way as giving the recipes of certain foods.

Research in discovery phase may yield clues about how the translators translate from one language to another; but it cannot be called scientific research. It can only be defined as giving account of translational operations. On the other hand, the underlying reason for scientific research is to seek for the answers to the question “why” rather than explaining “how” something is done. Without relating findings to the complex network of relations in translational action, one cannot rationalize the legitimacy of Translation Studies as a fully-fledged academic discipline. Accordingly, we can claim that Translation Studies legitimizes itself as an academic discipline only when it distinguishes its object of study (translations) from meta-level discourse of scientific research, which extends the narrow definition of translations as a literal act of transfer from one language to another, or as the exact copy of the original. That is to say, the past habit of scientific research focusing on the comparative analysis led scholars to focus on the originals rather than the translations because translations as copies of the originals were not assumed to be the proper object of study in scientific research. Only when the definition of translation and the task of translators have changed due to conceptual studies on the notion of translation as well as the new approaches in Translation theory, “translations” themselves have become the legitimate object of study apart from original texts.

2. The position of translations as an object of study

Ortega y Gasset’s definition of “Translation” best illuminates not only in what way it has changed its status amongst other disciplines, but also why it was ranked second or subsumed under literature or linguistics in his essay titled, “Misery and the Splendor of Translation”:

³ This work was supported by Scientific Research Project Coordination Unit of Istanbul University. Project number: BEK-2016-21872.

Translation is not a duplicate of the original text [...] translation doesn't even belong to the same literary genre as the text that was translated [...] translation is a literary genre apart [...] with its own norms and own ends [...] a translation is not the work, but a path toward the work [...] I imagine a form of translation that is ugly, as science has always been; that does not intend to wear literary garb; that is not easy to read, but is very clear indeed (Ortega y Gasset, 1992: 109).

What Ortega y Gasset calls "splendor in this paper is translator's strive for excellence. According to Ortega y Gasset even if translation aims to emulate the original, it ends in misery. However, the miserable nature of translation, is not a barrier to becoming an object of scientific research in spite of its being ranked second in relation to literature since scientific research emerges from scientific curiosity, or from the predicament of mankind against natural disasters or social disorder arising from international or domestic politics and economics.

The underlying reason for the misery is that translator is constrained by many factors. First, it is a purposeful activity. Second, it should be coherent in itself and with the source text although source text author has no concern for the translation. Namely, the relation is univocal when translator strives for reproducing information offer on the meaning and on the form of the source text. Katherina Reiss and Vermeer defines translation as an "information offer on an information offer" (Reiss & Vermeer 1996:14; Quoted from Viaggio 2005:2). However, even if translations rank second and "ugly" compared to originals, they are facts of target culture, and translation as a purposeful activity aims to fulfill a function in Target culture. Then, we cannot ignore translations as scientific objects of study just in the same way as Ortega y Gasset mentions about the ugliness of science in the above-mentioned excerpt.

3. Correlations between defining features of translation and research methods

We can infer the ways of research in translation studies from the defining features of translation in consideration for the theoretical approaches in Translation Studies:

1. We can start with the definition of the term "translation". *Translatum*, or literally interlingual translation is determined by *Skopos* or goal. According to *Skopos Theory*, translating is acting; therefore it is goal-oriented procedure. That is to say, translation as a goal oriented procedure turns into translational action according to translation theory. Therefore, it is not just transferring words, or texts from one language to another. Holz Manttari (1984) defines it as follows:

It is not about translating words, sentences or texts, but it is in every case about guiding the intended co-operation over cultural barriers enabling functionally oriented communication (Holz-Manttari 1984: 7-8; Quoted from Monday 2001:77)

This way of definition ends in studying translations as a communicative event involving initiators, commissioners, authors, translators, readers. It involves studying sociological and communicative aspects of translation in scientific research.

2. Translations as an offer of information does not concern Source culture at all. It concerns only target culture and target language. It means research on translations should start in target culture since the offer of information and its *Skopos* are determined by target culture and target language.

3. Translations are expected to be coherent internally. It means researchers should observe and focus on defining textual features of translations to see what common stylistic features or systemic relations they share with each other to form a system in literary polysystem of target culture.

4. Translations should also be coherent with the ST, or in Vermeer's terms "as far as the *Skopos* of translating allows and/or demands" (Vermeer 1996 :13-14). It means researcher should distinguish in what way original information is processed as well as the underlying reasons why certain texts are selected, and the others are ignored. Or in what aspects translations disclose coherency or divergency with source texts to spot cultural gaps in interlingual communication.

From all these remarks I stated above, now we can study the status of Translation Studies amongst other disciplines.

4. The Status of Translation Studies amongst other disciplines

Translation Studies is at the interface of social sciences and humanities in terms of scientific methods it follows in studying translations as facts of target culture. This means its defining feature as

“interdisciplinary” facilitates its contact and cooperation with other discipline for multidisciplinary, cross disciplinary or transdisciplinary purposes, the ultimate goal of which is to serve for humanitarian and scientific ends. Martin Ruona explains this situation as follows:

The key to progress is largely thought to lie in consensus rather than in disparity, in integration rather than in dispersion of theories or perspectives, in the affirmation of a shared ground [.....] rather than in the scrutiny of discrepancies; in short, and to refer back to our title, in conciliation rather than in variety, let alone conflict, of viewpoints, disciplines and paradigms (Ruano 2006: 44).

As a field of study emerging from interdisciplinary relations, it adopts the empirical methods of research in natural sciences and social sciences as observation, measurement, and experiment. However, its object of study directly concerns social sciences and humanities if we consider “translation” as a purposeful activity. That is to say, translation activity is a social event which appears when there is a gap in literary polysystem of target culture or a demand for change in the society after a long period of stagnation due to the hegemony of canonized literature imposed by those in power. Accordingly, we can claim that translation as a goal-oriented activity plays as an innovatory force not only in the shaping of new cultural identity, but also in transferring new knowledge in every field of study (Zohar 1990). For this reason, it can be defined as an innovatory and revolutionary act against the established norms of the canonized knowledge or literature which try to impose the past values as opposed to new perspectives, or horizons produced by new knowledge.

In terms of its close relations with history, comparative literature and linguistics, it was first related to the humanities in terms of its innovatory impact on human mind; but in the course of time by the appearance of social sciences which combines the logics of humanities with mathematically based methods of natural sciences, translation studies gets closer to the pole of social sciences on the scala showing the relations of sciences with each other in terms of basing interpretivist approaches of humanities on measurable scientific methods of natural sciences (Boutellier, Roman; Oliver Gassmann et al. 2011).

4.1. Types of Research in Translation Studies

There are two types of research in Translation Studies; they are, respectively, product-oriented and process-oriented research.

In product-oriented research we study translations according to genres, text types, or fields of subjects retrospectively to identify the established norms of translation in target culture and to improve the quality of them so as to enhance the functionality of translations in target culture.

In process-oriented research we try to follow the mental processes of translators in the course of translation so as to improve the quality of translator training programs and raise awareness in taking decisions in translatorial action.

On the other hand, strategical impact of Information Technologies in conducting research cannot be ignored. Undoubtedly, technological advances recorded in the field of computer sciences expedite collecting data in a systematic way not only in the field of product oriented research, but also in the field of process-oriented research. Process-oriented research on the mental procedures of translators was not conducted in the past because researchers could not follow mental processes, which take place in “the black box. However, today we can follow translator’s operations through eye tracking programs or screen recording programs such as Ezvid, Screenr, or Camtasia, which record what internet sites the translator opens for research. By this way, we can measure translator’s efficiency by recording pauses, deletions, or spelling or lexical errors as well as his or her research skill in translating a document (Saldanha & Sharon O’Brian 2013:136-143).

5. Conclusion

Today researchers in the field of TS can refute the past claims concerning established convictions restricting translation studies to comparative linguistic analysis. Accordingly, they change their direction, or focus of study from texts to the translator’s intermediary role in translational action, which, as Holz Manttari stated, “involves giving advice and perhaps even warning against communicating in the intended way” (quoted by Viaggio 2005:3; Quoted and translated by Nord

1997:7). This opens up new pathways for multidisciplinary, transdisciplinary or interdisciplinary collaborations. There are several ways of collaboration with other disciplines from the perspective of translation studies as a subfield of social sciences in transferring new knowledge and maintaining international communication efficiently (Pedersen 2013). From the perspective of translation studies they can be enlisted as follows:

1. Multidisciplinary collaboration: Researchers in the field of Translation Studies can participate in a joint research project by referring to their own field of specialization, or expertise to overcome a common problem concerning natural, or social sciences both as a conveyor of new knowledge, and as a field of new specialization on interlingual mediation. For example, today “immigration” concerns every field of study. It is a common international problem awaiting multidisciplinary solution.

2. Transdisciplinary collaboration: Transdisciplinary collaboration concerns practical, daily, social, natural or economic issues. Accordingly, researchers in the field of Translation Studies can collaborate with not only researchers from other disciplines, but also with experts or professionals outside of academia. For example, in case of earthquake, interpreters in aid at disasters can collaborate with paramedics or with non- governmental organizations such as AKUT (Search and rescue Association) as in the example of Turkey.

3. Interdisciplinary collaboration: Interdisciplinary means a single researcher integrates theoretical or methodological approaches of different disciplines to lay foundations of a new discipline, or to consolidate the theoretical framework of established disciplines emerging from interdisciplinary relations. For example, in the field of translation studies, while its close cooperation with linguistics and literature ends in translation-oriented text analysis, its cooperation with sociology results in involving agents shaping translatorial action as well as working conditions of translators, thereby setting up correlations between micro-scale and macro-scale decisions of translators in the course of translation (Hönig 1990). On the other hand, its collaboration with cultural studies put the issue of the functionality of translations at the top of the agenda in terms of keeping up with times, and adapting to the new worldly formations in face of immigrations, wars and economic crisis. Finally, its closer collaboration with information technologies has speeded up the flow of information and improve the quality of translations as well as the scholarly research methods in the field of Translation Studies.

6. References

- Boutellier, R., Gassmann, O., Raeder S., Dönmez, D., & Domigall, Y. (2011). *What is the difference between social and natural sciences?*. Retrieved at July 7, 2016, from http://www.collier.sts.vt.edu/sciwrite/pdfs/boutellier_2011.pdf.
- Even-Zohar, I. (1990). Polysystem Studies. *Poetics Today*, 11(1). 1-6. doi 10.1215/03335372-1375198
- Hermans, T. (1997). Translation as institution. In Snell-Hornby, M., Jettmarová, Z., Kaindl, K. (Eds.), *Translation as Intercultural Communication. Selected Papers from the EST Congress*, Prague 1995. (pp. 3-20). Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Hönig, H.G. (1990). Holmes’ mapping theory and the landscape of mental processes. In K. M. Leuven Zwart & T. Naaijken. (Eds.), *Translation studies: The state of art* (pp.77-89). Amsterdam & Atlanta: Rodopi.
- Munday, J. (2001). *Introducing translation studies*. London & New York: Routledge
- Nord, C. (1997). *Translating as a purposeful activity*. Manchester: St Jerome.
- Ortega y Gasset, José (1992) Misery and the Splendor of Translation. In R. Schulte and J. Biguenet (Eds.), *Theories of translation: An anthology of essays from Dryden to Derrida*. E. Gamble (Trans.by). (pp. 93-112). Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press.
- Pedersen, D.B. (2013). *How do we evaluate interdisciplinary research?*. Retrieved at May 22, 2016, from <http://sciencenordic.com/how-do-we-evaluate-interdisciplinary-research>.
- Ruano, M.R. (2006). Conciliation of disciplines and paradigms: A challenge and a barrier for future directions in translation studies. In J. F. Duarte, A. Assis Rosa & T. Seruya. (Eds.), *Translation studies at the interface of disciplines* (pp. 43-54). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

The Potentialities of Research in Translation Studies as Interdisciplinary

- Saldanha, G., & Sharon, O'Brian. (2013). *Research methodologies in translation studies*. New York: St. Jerome.
- Vermeer, H. (1996). *A skopos theory of translation*. Heidelberg: Text and Context.
- Viaggio, S. (2005). *A general theory of interlingual mediation*. Verlag: Frank&Timme.

A Search for a Translation Method for Proverbs and Idioms as Cultural Language Elements: The Cases of Russian and Turkish

Reşat Yildiz

1. Introduction

Translation activity has continued in various fields throughout the history in accordance with the relationships of societies. In this parallel, search for a method from the general to the specific has continued. According to a legend in a chapter of Torah, mankind who was speaking a single language at the beginning has reached a superior welfare as an advantage of communication. Together with these advancements, people wanted to build the Tower of Babel which reaches the sky as a symbol of this growth. This high tower was perceived by the God as a rebellion against him and the God destroys the tower. Later, He divided people into different languages and cultures on Earth to prevent that the tower is built again and thus the need for translation has arisen (Yücel 2007: 13). Although this is a legend, Dutch Renaissance painter Pieter Brueghel (1525-1569) draw a painting which symbolizes the half-finished Tower of Babel in the 16th century by inspiring from this legend. Thus, this tower symbolizes the division of mankind into multilingualism and the beginning of translation history (Narusevicius, 2013: 30).

For more concrete data, first translation documents in the history date back to 4500 BC. Clay tablets found in the excavations around Mesopotamia were the religious word lists consisting of Sumerian and Akkadian Languages. Source texts were similar to texts written in today's note taking technique and the translation of those consisted of words (Okuyan, 2012: 6). Furthermore, partial interpretations of the *Epic of Gilgamesh*, which was written in four or five Asian languages in the 2nd century BC, were found (Köksal, 1995: 17). In the light of this data, it can be said that translation has been filtered by various civilizations from the Ancient Ages.

Beyond doubt, the ones who work on translation did not carry out this long process without setting off on a quest. Methods of translation were discussed even in the Ancient Age civilizations. Ancient Age translation method was word to word translation in the Greek, Egypt and Mesopotamia civilizations which is a primitive method due to inadequacies in both the source language and the target language. This method was used by all civilizations in which translation efforts have begun. The method is also labelled as a primitive method since it did not approach the source text deliberately enough (Kızıltan, 2000: 74-75). When we look at the Roman Civilization, the semantic translation method was also asserted in addition to primitive translation method. The poet of the era, Cicero (M.Ö. 106-43) suggested that translation should be semantic, not word-by-word and stated that the translator should be responsible to the target text's readers, not the source text (Gürçağlar, 2011: 106). Thus, the Ancient Age has become the beginning period of first translation discussions and searches.

Although new searches in the translation activity were interrupted in the Middle Ages, a debate over translatability and untranslatability began together with an argument which suggested that religious texts can be translated against a theory which suggested that they cannot be translated. Dante Alighieri (1265-1321) said; *"Let everyone think that poetry, which is based on melodic harmony, cannot be translated to another language without forsaking this harmony, however translation should be more flexible."* The poet's statement was interpreted as that he advocated the possibility of translatability. A similar approach was expressed by the significant Renaissance writer Miguel de Cervantes (1547-1616): *"I agree with the idea that translation can be made in all languages except for Greek and Latin. A Dutch carpet is still a Dutch carpet on the back and the patterns are the same, only the colours are ambiguous since it was close-knit."* (Sdobnikov, Petrova, 2006: 113). One of the free translation and translatability advocates of the era, humanist writer and reverend Alberecht von Eyb (1420-1475) has also participated in this debate. He added; *"In order to be understandable, translation should be a transfer of concept and reason, not word-by-word transfer and any text can be translated with this method"*. In this period, Martin

Luther's (1483-1546) translation of the Bible into German for the first time as a result of these debates and searches is a concrete example (Fedorov, 2002: 32). Together with Wilhelm von Humboldt's (1767-1835) assumption that language groups from different language families, in other words the languages of different nations are not equivalent but synonymous and can be equivalent in some circumstances during translation, the theory of untranslatability has moved to another ground. The Linguist stated that each language is a reflection of the soul of the nation which speaks that language and therefore translatability is not possible due to the inadequacy of source language and target language as well as culture and language awareness which cannot be united in translation. Humboldt based this theory on Gotfried Wilhelm Leibniz's (1646-1716) assumption that "*language is a product of environment interaction, not the thought*" (Gerasimova, 2010: 22-23).

In the 20th century, especially after the World War II, translation studies have increased on the theoretical and practical ground beyond comparison to the previous periods. In this short period, information exchange among people has increased greatly. Accordingly, the period was named as a period of information explosion. Although rather informative texts such scientific, socio-political, economic and legal texts were translated in the aftermath of the war, literary translations were also made. In this period, translation has improved not only quantitatively but also qualitatively. This qualitative improvement is closely related to the theoretical and conceptual developments of the period. For example, new areas of translation have emerged such as *simultaneous translation*, *dubbing (movie) translation* and *radio broadcast translation* (Zaharova, İvleva, Sedina, 2014: 8).

Searches in the field of translation have reached a peak with the attempts of being an independent discipline. With James Stratton Holmes (1924-1986), translation was referred to as a discipline independent from linguistics. In his paper *The Name and Nature of Translation Studies* published in the Third International Practical Linguistics Congress held in Copenhagen in 1972, Holmes expressed his ideas that translation should be addressed outside practical linguistics (Stolze, 2013: 181). These developments in the translation activity in 20th century brought along a rapid development not only practically but also theoretically, because it was better understood that a theoretical background is required for a more qualified translation practice. This theoretical background would ensure that the source text can be translated into the target language more systematically by means of providing certain methods.

Searches for a method in the translation activity as a whole have continued since the Ancient Age. However, 20th century, especially the second half of the century, diversified the searches for a method in translation. This short period has been more productive than a longer period from the Ancient Age to the 20th century. However, there is no doubt that debates over translation and searches for a new method since the Ancient Age have resulted in that method searches in translation are addressed more specifically in this new era as the first steps of the studies in that field. These methods are detailed from general to the specific. For example, while the general method addresses how to translate a certain type of text, specific method addresses how to translate a language element in a certain text. Translation of some language elements may be quite complicate. Idioms and proverbs are the most obvious examples of that. The fact that these elements are special language elements which are filtered through cultural background of each language is the most widely accepted cause of the difficulty encountered in translation. Another significant cause is that they do not have a direct meaning. Therefore, scientists started to search a method for translating these elements equivalently.

2. Definition of Proverbs and Idioms

Proverbs are sayings which turn the judgements of the ancestors based on long experiences into moral codes in the form of overall rules, wise thoughts or advices. In other words, proverbs are stereotyped and cliché sayings. Each proverb is a frozen element of the language which are said using words determined within a pattern. These words cannot be replaced even with synonymous words. In addition, word order cannot be changed either. When the syntax is changed, they are not proverbs anymore even if the meaning does not change (Aksoy, 1988: 133-141). For example:

“*Yemle kargayı oysun gözünü*” cannot be used instead of “*Besle kargayı oysun gözünü*” or “*Samanı sakla zamanı gelir*” cannot be used instead of “*Sakla samanı gelir zamanı*”.

The proverbs above would lose their proverb qualities if they are used in the wrong form. There is a similar pattern for the idioms. Idioms are stereotyped sayings which have a certain grammatical structure and striking form of expression and almost all of which are used in a metaphorical meaning. For example; “*Kelin saçından tut*” cannot be used instead of “*Tut kelin perçeminden*” which is said in case of a problem with a difficult solution (Aksoy, 1988: 141-148).

Apart from the use of different words, syntactic changes also take away the stylistic aspects of idioms. Therefore, the difficulties encountered in the translation of these language elements, which are inconvertible even in the cultural environment in which they emerged, are quite understandable and natural.

3. Approaches and Application Examples in the translation of proverbs and idioms

It is the common approach that word by word translation cannot be used in the translation of idioms and proverbs. Among the scientists who work in this field, there is a prevalent judgement that it is difficult to reach an equivalent translation as a result of word by word translation of these elements. Apart from being cultural elements, the most important reason for this judgement is that idioms and proverbs are special structures with a fixed structure and a holistic meaning rather than the meaning of each word. British Professor Peter Newmark (1916-2011), who has numerous studies on translation, stated that word by word translation is not useful in these elements and it is impossible to give the metaphorical meaning of these elements with such translation. Thus, a non-equivalent translation is made. According to Newmark, the most appropriate method to be used in translation of these elements is to find the equivalent of the idiom or proverb in the target language (Ahmadi, Ketabi, 2011:12). Professor Mona Baker (1953 -) from University of Manchester, who is the Vice Chairman of the International Association for Translating and Intercultural Studies (IATI) and has various studies on translation, explains the reasons of the difficulties in translation of idioms similar to Nida. Baker states that following methods can be used in the translation of these elements:

- Finding the formal and semantic equivalent
- Finding the equivalent which is formally different but semantically similar
- Translation by means of explanation
- Finally skipping, which means not translating the idiom in the source text into the target language (Akbari, 2013: 36-18, Adelnia, Dastjerdi, 2011: 881-882).

Another significant Western scientist who studied on the translation of these language elements was linguist, translator and writer Eugene Albert Nida (1914-2011). Nida explains the reasons for the difficulties encountered in the translation of language elements such as idioms and proverbs with the following words: “*Idioms are semantically the most complex word structures of linguistics. These aspects arise from the fact that they are completely reflected into the language from the culture in which they exist*” (Nida & Louw, 1992: 24). In his work *The Theory and Practice of Translation* he wrote together with Charles R. Taber, Nida mentions the translation difficulties arising from indirect use of idioms in addition to being cultural language elements. In the same chapter, he states that the following three methods can be used to translate these elements:

1. From idioms to non-idioms
2. From idioms to idioms
3. From non-idioms to idioms

Nida and Taber states that it is certain that some semantic losses will occur during translation of these elements, but the translator can minimize these losses using the abovementioned methods (Nida, Taber, 1982: 106-107).

In addition to Western scientists, a few Russian linguists also set off on a quest for methods in translation of idioms and proverbs. Especially Vilen Naumovich Komissarov (1924-2005), who has various studies on translation, gave examples on Russian and English practices and made the methods which can be used in translation of idioms and proverbs more comprehensible. The linguist stated that the most fundamental factor in translation of these elements is to preserve the metaphorical meaning

which exists in these elements. Like Nida, Komissarov also points out three methods in the translation of idioms and proverbs. In the first method, he states that the idiom or proverb in the source language should be translated into an equivalent idiom or proverb in the target language. However, he also states that equivalence should be both formal and semantic. Komissarov gives an example of a translation from source language English into target language Russian:

“Strike the iron while it is hot”

“Куй железо, пока горячо” (Komissarov, 2002: 172).

Strike – Куй,

the iron – железо

while – пока

hot – горячо

When the example proverb is evaluated formally, the equivalence stated by the linguist can be found, because formal equivalence is present as it can be seen in word by word translation. Along with the formal equivalence between source language and target language, there is also a semantic equivalence. The sample proverb is used in the source language with the meaning of *“doing something in time, immediately”* (Jones, et al. 1998: 269). Similarly, it is also used in the target language Russian with the meaning of *“doing something in time, immediately”* (Tihonov, 2007: 111). Proverbs and idioms which have formal and semantic equivalence can be present in any language. This proverb can be translated into Turkish as *“demir tavında dövülür”*.

“He верить глазам”

“Gözlerine inanmamak” (Tarhan, 2008: 38).

не верить – *inanmamak* (can't believe)

глазам – *gözlerine* (one's eyes)

The idiom *“Can't believe one's eyes”* which used in circumstances which are not heard or seen is used in the same meaning in both Turkish and Russian. Lexically, translation of the words which form the idiom are equivalent individually. Therefore, translation of the idiom is quite appropriate in terms of semantic and formal equivalence.

Komissarov defines his second method as idiom and proverb translation method with formal difference but semantic equivalence. In this method, the idiom or proverb in the source language is translated into another idiom/proverb in the target language. However, this idiom is translated into an idiom/proverb which have only semantic equivalence unlike the first method. Translator finds the semantic equivalent of the idiom or proverb in the target language, if not the formal equivalent and makes the translation in that direction. Komissarov gives an example for this:

“To turn back the clock”

“Повернуть вспять колесо истории”

повернуть – *döndürmek* (to turn)

вспять – *geri,geriye* (back)

колесо истории – *tarihin çarkını* (wheel of time)

When this idiom, which means going back in time and change something regretted, is translated lexically from source language to target language, meanings of the words are not equivalent. When we look at the last words of the example idiom, while *the clock* is used to describe the time in the source language, the source language contains words such as *koleso istorii* (**колесо истории**) (wheel of time) to describe the time which are not lexically equivalent. However, when the idiom is addressed holistically, both idioms are semantically equivalent. In other words, although the idioms in the source language and the target language are different lexically, the meaning to be inferred by the source language reader and the target language reader is the same. For the same method, an example can be given with Russian as the source language and Turkish as the target language:

“Serçeden korkan dari ekmez”

“Волк бояться в лес не ходит” (Tarhan, 2008: 28).

волк – *kurt* (wolf)

бояться – *korkmak* (to be afraid)

лес – *orman* (forest)

не – *olumsuzluk eki (negation particle)*

ходить – *gitmek (to go)*

When we look at the word by word translation of the source language, they have no semantic connection to the words in the target language. While the idiom in the source language contains words such as wolf and to go, the idiom in the target language contains words with different semantic values such as sparrow and to sow. However, both proverbs as a whole mean that people who refrain from doing something by exaggerating the risks cannot achieve their objectives.

Lastly, Komissarov mentions idiomatic borrowing/copying method in idiom and proverb translation. Idiomatic borrowing/copying is implemented when conditions are unfavourable for the previous two methods. In other words, it is a method which can be used when there is neither formal and semantic nor semantic equivalent of the idiom or proverb in the target language. This is an approach which is opposite to the British Professor Peter Newmark and other linguists who defend the common judgement that word by word translation cannot be equivalent in idiom and proverb translation. However, Komissarov states that the idiom or proverb translation can be made word by word by selecting the words which will give the metaphorical meaning understood by the source language reader to the target language reader. Idiom or proverb should be suitable to this method in terms of both word structure and lexical flexibility. In other words, idiom or proverb should look like an idiom which exists in the target language when translated. For example:

“To put the cart before the horse”

“Ставить телегу впереди лошади”

With word by word translation of this idiom, which is used in English to express that something is not used appropriately or something is improper, a similar meaning can be given in the target language (Russian) (<http://www.thefreedictionary.com>). Word by word translation of the idiom in Turkish is *“At arabasını atın önüne yerleştirmek”*. Komissarov states that idioms, which have this nature, are also able to give the intended meaning to the reader with word by word translation. A similar example with Turkish as the target language is as follows:

“He is not fit to carry water for her.”

“Он недостойн и воду таскать для нее”

The idiom *“to carry water (for someone)”* means *to work for/serve someone or a group*. The intended meaning of the idiom is that *“he is not qualified enough to serve her”* (<http://www.thefreedictionary.com>). The word by word translation of the idiom into Turkish is *“O, ona su taşıyacak nitelikte değildir”*. Komissarov states that similar idioms can be found in any language. Another example with Russian as source language and Turkish as target language is:

Аппетит приходит во время еды

Yemek sırasında (sofrada) iştahı açılmak

This idiom is used in the source language to express that interest increases or might increase while doing something (Fedosov, Lapitskiy, 2003:10). The idiom was translated word by word with the assumption that an idiom which do not have semantic and formal or only semantic equivalence does not exist in the target language. The meaning of the idiom in the source language is also created in the target language. However, Komissarov underlines that foot notes might be used in this method. Another point emphasized by Komissarov was that syntax and explanandum of the target language should be taken into consideration when translating idioms and proverbs with this method. For example the idiom *Rome was not built in a day* which means that an important work may require time can be translated as *Рим не был построен за один день* (Rome was not built in one day) as well as *He сразу Рим строился* (Rome was not built instantly) (Komissarov, 2002: 174-176). When we look at the translation methods for idioms and proverbs, Komissarov has materialized the summary of the whole with examples in Russian and English.

4. Conclusion

As a conclusion, numerous discussions have been made in the translation activity since the ancient times. The two fundamental translation activities in the Ancient Age were followed by the translatability-untranslatability discussions in the Middle Age, Baroque, 19th century and lastly the 20th

century when translation became an independent science and these discussions have laid the ground for new searches. Naturally, these searches have brought along new theories and concepts. In parallel to this, some methodological advancements took place as well. Many translators and linguists believed that more effective and equivalent translation can be achieved by determining a method. In that respect, each scientist addressed these methods in their own plane and stated their opinions in that direction. This truth did not change in the idiom and proverb translation methods. Both, Nida and Baker or Taber, Komissarov or others have addressed these language elements which are quite significant in terms of translation and set off to search for new methods. Methods presented as a result of this search have proved to be quite useful for translation in the practical field. Beyond doubt, these searches will continue. As any other field of science, the innovations would not be deemed sufficient in translation studies which is a new field of science and the “search” which is one of the fundamental qualities of the science will continue by developing new theories, concepts and methods.

5. References

- Adelnia, A., & Dastjerdi, H. V. (2011). Translation of Idioms: A Hard Task for the Translator. *Journal of Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 1(7): 879-883.
- Ahmadi, S., & Ketabi, S. (2011). Translation procedures and problems of color idiomatic expressions in English and Persian: cultural comparison in focus. *Journal of international social research*, 4(17): 9-39.
- Aksoy, Ö. A. (1988). Proverbs, İdioms. *Journal of Turkish Language research, TDK: (217), 131-166.*
- Akbari, M. (2013). Strategies for Translating İdioms, *Journal of Academic and Applied Studies (Special Issue on Applied Linguistics)* 3(8): 925-931.
- Fedorov, A. V. (2002). *Foundations of General Translation Theory, Linguistic Problems (Osnovi obşey teorii perevoda, lingvistiçeskiye problemi)*. Sankt-peterburg: Sankt-Peterburg filoloğičeskiy fakultet.
- Fedosov, İ. V. Lapitskiy A. N. (2003). *Dictionary of Russian İdioms (Frazologičeskiy slovar Ruskogo yazık)*. Moskva: Yunves.
- Gerasimova, N. İ. (2010). A Short Course Lectures on Theory of Translation for Bachelors (*Kratkiy kurs lektzii po «teorii perevoda» dlya bakalavrov*). Rostov-na-Donu: Rostovskiy gosudarstvenniy ekonomičeskiy universitet «RİNH» fakultet lingvistiki i jurnalistiki.
- Gürçağlar, Ş. T. (2011). *Translation's ABC*. İstanbul: Say.
- Jones, G., Meadows, J., Çankaya, B., & Meriç, D. (1998). *Fono Big English-Turkish İdioms Dictionary*. İstanbul: Fono.
- Kızıltan, R. (2000). Translation in History from Ancient Age to the 19th century, from Ancient Age to the end of the Baroque. *Ankara Üniwersity Journal of language and Geogrophy* 40(1-2): 71-87.
- Komissarov, V. N. (2002). *Modern Translation (Sovromennoye perevodovedeniye)*. Moskva: ETS.
- Köksal, D. (1995). *Translation Theories*. Ankara: Nehir.
- Narusevicius, V. (2013). The labour of translation: Towards utopia in Bruegel's Tower of Bebel. *Canada: University of British Columbia, Journal of Art history faculty*. 4 (1). 30-45.
- Nida, E. A. Taber C.R. (1982) *The Theory and Practice of Translation*. Leiden: istituto universitario orientale Dipartimento di Filosofia e Politica.
- Nida, E. A. Louw, P. J. (1992). *Lexical Semantics of the Greek New Testament*. Atlanta: Society of Biblical Literature.
- Okuyan, S. (2012). *An Analysis of History of Translation from Today's, Perspective*. (Published master thesis). Sakarya Üniwersity İnstitute of Social Science.
- Sdobnikov, V. V. Petrova. O. V. (2006). *Theory of Translation (Teoriya perevoda)*. Moskva: Vostok-Zapad.
- Stolze, R. (2013). *Translation Theories*, trns. Dr. Emre Durukan, İstanbul: Değışim.
- Tarhan, A. (2008). *Defination and Categorizing Anton Pavloviç Çehov's Story in Terms of Subject*. (Published master thesis). Gazi Üniwersity İnstitute of Social Science.
- Tihonov, A. N. (2007) *Russian İdioms Dictionary (Frazologičeskiy slovar russkogo yazıka)*. Moskva: İzd. Ruskij yazık Media.
- Yücel, F. (2007). *Translation Activity in Terms of Theory and History*. Ankara: Dost.

A Search for a Translation Method for Proverbs and Idioms as Cultural Language Elements

Zaharova, N. V. Ivleva. A. YU. Sedina. I.V. (2014). *Theory of Translation: Materials for Practical work (Teoriya perevoda: materil dlya praktičeskih zanyatij)*, Saransk: Ministerstvo Obrazovaniya i Nauki Rossiskoy Federatsii.
<http://www.thefreedictionary.com>.

A Value Chain Approach to Turkish Sports Sector

Yeter Aytül Dağlı Ekmekçi

1. Introduction

The value chain is a strategic concept developed by Porter (1985). The model determines for a product or a service the value-added applications that have been made up from conceptual development process to delivering last consumer also taking into account the internal and external factors. Despite the growing structure of sport economically and socially every day in the world, the management style and structure of sport in Turkey are still being discussed. Sports, which affects large quantities and is associated with many other sectors, is also an interdisciplinary field as an area of academic research. The purpose of this study is to determine the elements in the value chain and the variables to be taken into consideration for sports clubs which have an important economic value in the Turkish sports sector. The study data were collected by in-depth interviews from experts and by documenting and analyzed using the NVivo 9 program with qualitative research methods. As a result of the research, a value chain scale including the sport management structure in Turkey, the institutional actors directing the sport and the characteristics of the sport was tried to be developed. At the same time, this study is a pioneer since there is no study directly evaluating the value chain approach in the sports sector.

Previously sports, especially football is seen only as a game and the clubs were mostly humble entities as they earned the majority of their income through match day ticket revenues. But today with globalization at all sectors sport has a big and important influence on country's economies.

It is seen that this sector, which has an annual turnover of around 200 million Euros for big clubs of the world size, is just under 1 billion Euros in the size of football pie in Turkey and this figure represents about 6% of European football pie. The market value of the Turkish Super League corresponds to one quarter of the value of the Premier League (4.27 billion euros) and to half of the Bundesliga (2.23 billion euros) (Fortune Turkey, 2016).

The activities of football, based on the 12th century, have been organized since the 19th century and take place increasingly more and more in the social lives of the communities. Football which is made with an amateur spirit by its ownerships, members and players and followed by a great devotion to the history of the team, loving their colors has now become an industry by changing its identity. For this reason, it becomes a necessity for sport clubs to analyze the big picture well while determining their strategies and to know the structures of the global industry well. Apart from soccer clubs' match day revenues, media and broadcasting, sponsorship and merchandising revenues are important sources of income. The rapidly changing dynamics of the new economy, have caused football clubs, whose "supporters / customers" measured in millions, to quickly become organized as an economic organization. The goals to build new stadiums to increase traditional incomes, to be successful in international tournaments such as Champions League and UEFA Cup put football clubs into the process of incorporation. Although sport clubs have been going on since their establishment to be the only sporting organization, globalization and increasing sports economies have an important impact on this process. Now the mission of sports clubs is to make the sales reach the enormous size with a frontline marketing strategy and economic / institutional organizations managed by professionals (İkiz, 2010).

As a result of these developments in the sport industry, today, sporting organizations are marketing their products like all other businesses and trying to create brand value. For this reason, all activities and elements affecting the value of final products should be identified, and the issues that are active in this process and that need to be carefully pondered should be kept in the foreground.

During the recent years, intangible assets have become an important source that provides competitive advantage among the sports clubs. When creating value, sports clubs needs to identify the factors which

are effective. Therefore, it has become an organizational and scientifically need to determine the factors by using different analyzing methods by the researchers thereby the issue will be evaluated from different viewpoints. This study is also planned from a different perspective called creating sectors which is not mentioned on sports sector yet. For this reason, the study uses information from other creative industries and system dynamics modeling.

1.1. Sports Sector and Creative Sectors

As Kiper (2014) mentioned; the sports industry is one of the most lucrative ones, generating revenues for a number of players in the sports ecosystem. According to sport finance book (Anatolian University Press, 2016), the Turkish sports market in 2017 is estimated to be \$20 billion. These revenues come from a broad spectrum of sources including Ministry of Youth and Sports budget (57 amateur sports federations budget), Turkish Football Federation budget, ticket sales, content rights, licensed products, sports video games, collectibles, sporting goods, sports-related advertising, endorsement income, stadium naming fees, and facilities income.

According to Hoye et al. (2008) sports management needs an injection a healthy dose of business management practices. So sport management can be more successful especially on aspects like strategy and human resources (Smith and Stewart, 2010). However, when evaluating the products and services of sports organizations, it is necessary to take into consideration the specific characteristics of sports.

The idea that sport is not the same as the for-profit, commercial business sector was addressed in the 2000 Nice Declaration on Sport on European Council in 2000. Sport is not just a convenient or casual way of filling in leisure time, but also an important cultural institution that delivered significant social benefits to a diverse spread of communities. The Declaration pointed on taking account of the social, educational, and cultural function inherent in sport that makes it special. The Commission of the European Communities in 2007 confirmed sport's unique status when it announced that the specificity of European sport can be approached through two prisms. The first one is the form of the specificity of sporting activities and rules including the provisions for preserving competitive balance and outcome uncertainty. The second one is the specificity of the sport structure, in the form of its pyramidal representation and peak authorities. Sport's features in four interrelated dimensions are (1) sport is a heterogeneous and an experience which existing from irrational passions of fans, high levels of product and brand loyalty, optimism and vicarious identification. (2) Sport favours on-field winning over profit. (3) Sport is subject to variable quality, which in turn has implications for the management of competitive balance and anti-competitive behavior. (4) Sport has to manage a fixed supply schedule. While professional sport has undergone significant structural and operational change over the last ten years, it still has enough idiosyncratic features to justify a customized set of management practices (Smith and Stewart, 2010).

The output in sport is not only goods and services but also sportive performance. Therefore, sport organizations need financial power, profitability, sustainability, professional employee/managers and athletes depending on the organization (Dağlı Ekmekçi, 2016). Sports industry in the world is larger than Hollywood industry and health industry with 1,6 trillion dollars. The transfer payments for athletes find 500 billion dollars per year. Also sport industry has sub-sectors like clothing, education, tourism and gambling (<http://www.cumhuriyet.com.tr>). Indeed, there are ongoing crises between the Spanish government and Spanish sport clubs on broadcasting rights for nearly 20 years (<http://tr.eurosport.com>).

Turkey is one of the world's fastest growing economies and its growing role as an economic center highlights the importance of culture and innovation and spurs the development of cultural industries (<https://www.britishcouncil.org/tr/en/programmes/arts/creative-industries-focus-country>). The creative industries definition from the UK Government's Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) is: 'Those industries which have their origin in individual creativity, skill and talent and which have a potential for wealth and job creation through the generation and exploitation of intellectual property'. There are thirteen sub-sectors under the term 'creative industries' and these are: advertising; architecture; the art

and antiques market; crafts; design; designer fashion; film and video; interactive leisure software; music; the performing arts; publishing; software and computer games; and television and radio (<http://www.davidparrish.com/creative-industries/>).

Hesmondhalgh, D. and Pratt, A. C. (2005) indicates that sport has to be argued whether it is a cultural industry. In addition to that Republic of Turkey Ministry of Culture and Tourism (2013) reports that sport could be adding to creative industries with low commercialization potential. Sport branches are included in the classification of cultural industries. Sport is also among the cultural industries on the border which are influential in shaping the society culture. In this study, the author inspired these determinations to look at the sports sector as a creative industry and tried to reveal the basic indicators in the sport sector through value chain analysis. In this study, the author inspired these determinations to look at the sports sector as a creative industry and tried to reveal the basic indicators in the sport sector through value chain analysis.

1.2. Value Chain

The main idea in the value chain analysis is that increasing competitive power is influenced by the increase in the value offered to the customer. The fact that the costs incurred to present a product are lower than the value of this product ensures that this activity is considered profitable. However, when performing value chain analysis, vertical operations such as suppliers and intermediaries that play a role in the creation and presentation of the product should be taken into account (Eraslan et al., 2008: 310).

According to Kaplinsky and Morris (2000), value chain analysis is important in the era of rapid globalisation for three main reasons. Firstly, competitiveness has become increasingly important with the growing division of labour and the global dispersion of the production of components. Secondly, efficiency in production is only a necessary condition for successfully penetrating global markets. Entry into global markets which allows sustained income growth – in other words, doing the best in global markets - requires an understanding of dynamic factors within the whole value chain.

Value chain analysis ensures that firms define strategically important activities and understand their impact on cost and value. The logic of value chain with its overall value-creating characterizes is valid for all industries. However, vital activities for a firm's competitive advantage are seen dependent to industry. Most firms are not pure instances of a single distinct value configuration. A single firm may employ more than one technology and hence have more than one configuration (Stabell and Fjeldstad 1998).

1.3. Value Chain in Sports Sector

In the sports sector, the value chain for sports clubs starts with the selection of talents and /or construction of sportsmen's profession and continues with the performance studies to increase the level of sporting success that will be presented. In this stage, it is effective to apply new tactics, make mental and physical support studies, apply performance enhancing fitness and nutritional programs in preparation for sports. Lastly, in the stage of offering sporting the place where this service is offered, all the participants who provide the service, how to manage all the processes until the end of the promotion, licensed product sales, food & beverage areas, transportation to the facilities, parking areas, entertainment organizations attracted by waiting times and other support services constitute important operational areas in the value chain.

2. Literature Review

If sport is a cultural sector is argued by Hesmondhalgh, D. and Pratt, A. C. (2005). The aim of that study is to contextualize the relationships between the cultural industries and cultural policy. They attract notice to the delimited definition of cultural and creative industries of governments and as well this contains definitional problems. When it is considered from the point of view that the sector is more economically

significant than it really is, for example heritage, low art forms, tourism and sport should be taken as cultural and creative industries.

According to Wiśniewski (2016) creating value by sports organizations is dependent on the performance of their functions and determinants of business. Success depends on the proper application of the model and methods for creating and capturing value. To be aware of the needs of their customers is understood from the importance they give to the organization. The paper discusses the theoretical and practical methods and tools used in the concept of value creation by sports organizations. Sporting organizations operating in the modern economy can benefit from the value model to adapt to the competitive environment.

Khara and Lund- Thomsen (2012) has aimed on their study to understand why developing country suppliers internalize or outsource labour-intensive aspects of production as well as how these internalization/externalization processes affect working conditions in exportorientated industries in the global South. The article develops a new analytical framework for the football manufacturing industry of India based upon the global value chain approach.

3. Materials and Methods

The basic aim in qualitative data analysis is to explore the knowledge which is grounded in the social reality (Özdemir, 2010; 324). Therefore, the method of the study is document analyzing by using secondary data and in-depth interviews as qualitative data analysis. Although due to the Turkish Football Federation's regulations the first, second and third division clubs are defined as professional, the football sector especially consists of the first and second division clubs. For this reason, the first and second level sports clubs have been taken into consideration especially when the value chain evaluation is done.

4. Findings

The sport value chain diagram (Figure 2) which has created by the author shows sports organizations especially sports clubs are running business-like organizations. They need be aware of the primary and support activities to have advantage in a competitive environment. Both of primary and support activities also provide profit for the organizations and sport organizations should consider their importance for making profit and thus having competitive advantage.

Sport managers or decision makers, who could change from an organization to another one, should also consider at primary activities level while starting providing services the most important source is talented athletes. However, it is obviously clear that only the efforts of talented athletes are not enough. At this stage the vital importance of support activities arises.

It can be said that there is not a fully professional structure in sport management in Turkey yet. There are many reasons for this problem, mainly organizational, political and legal regulations. Therefore, the number of sport organizations carrying out marketing and sales activities in Turkey with professional teams is very small.

Every element referred to as support activities is also important for the sport sector. Infrastructure is both technically and physically influential. Human resource management is equally important because both the final product is presented by the people (players/athletes) and the processes are carried by the people (staff) like business-like companies. technology development includes all equipment, facilities, training styles, and all developments that support physical and mental work that affect sporting performance. Procurement refers to attractive and demanding integration activities.

A Value Chain Approach to Turkish Sports Sector

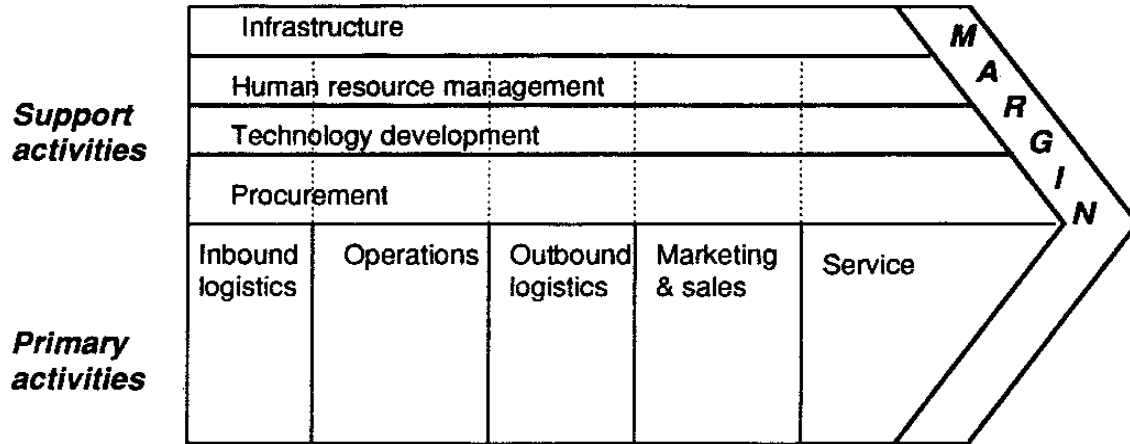


Figure1. The value chain diagram (Stabel and Fjelstad, 1998)



Figure 2. Sport Value Chain Diagram (Estimated from Stabel and Fjelstad, 1998)

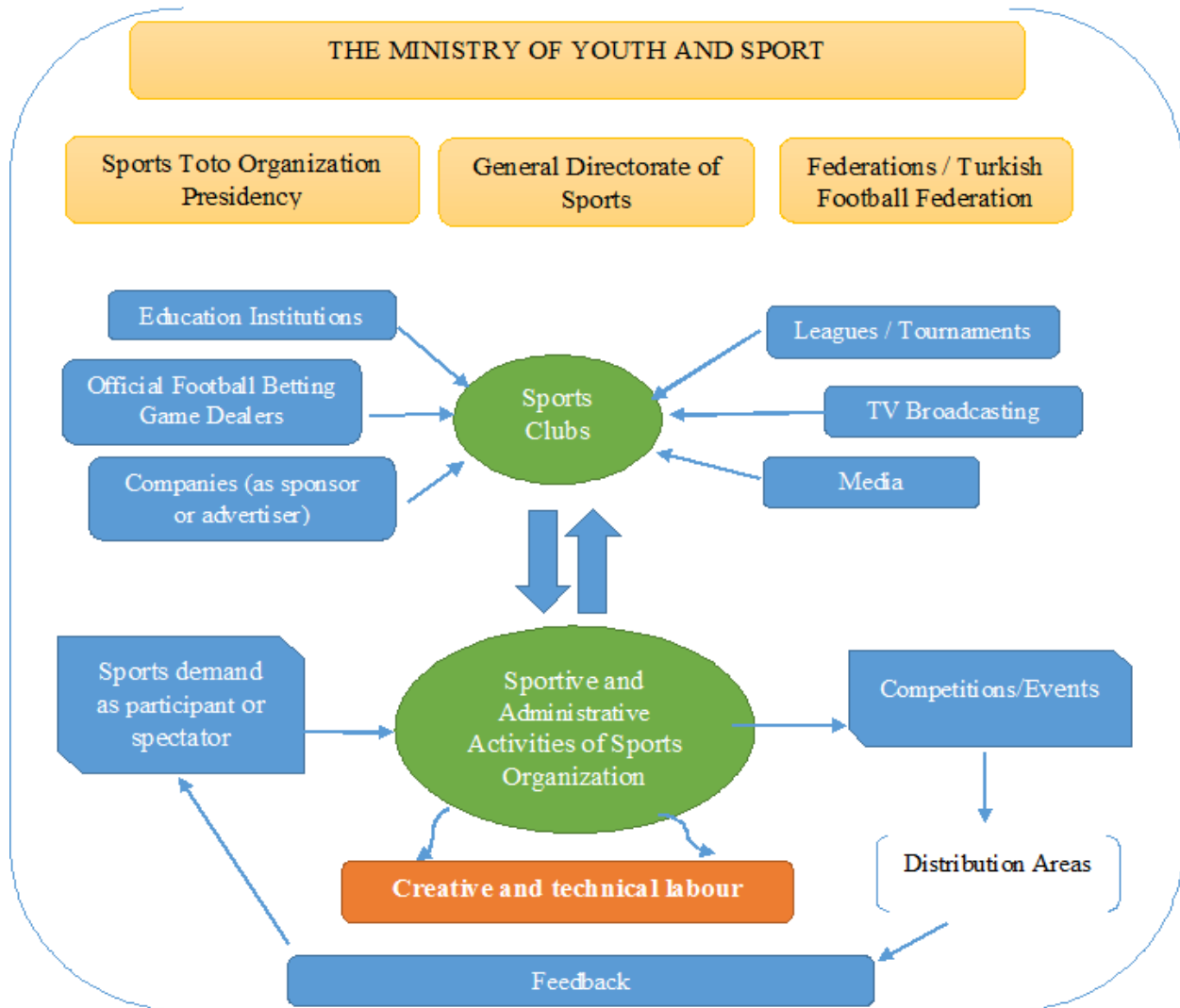


Figure 3. Sport Value Chain (Estimated from Töre, 2011)

Production process of sports events and activities is also starting with the human needs to move. Showing the movements follows this and then comes a systematic structure to make these movements. So, organizations, leagues, federations, associations and clubs were founded while sport has been taken place in our lives in time. There is a labor and capital intensive process in all the activities organized to meet the existing sports demand. Hence the skill level process of the workforce, which is classified as a creative and technical workforce, is a very important input.

Figure 3 shows the factors affecting sport services in the sport sector as a creative sector. These elements are in Turkish sport sector. Because a significant part of the sporting activities are carried out by the state in Turkey (The Ministry of youth and Sport). But of course the private sector also has a significant share in the value chain with its effective agencies (media, broadcasting, sponsorship etc.).

5. Discussion and Conclusion

How to reduce the various risks in the sport industry is one of the hottest topics now, about which the policymakers care most (Min, 2011). Turkish sport sector needs to identify its drivers to be more effectively and successfully and value chain analysis provides a template to see the drivers.

Value chain analyses will contribute to the development of sports management with the definitions of its components by creating value processes. By this means; while introducing two value configurations

I have argued that the concepts promoted in value chain analysis are adaptable beyond the sports sector which its descriptions and activities are not fully framed in a value curriculum yet.

In today's global business world, sport organizations must identify their primary and support activities that affect profit margins, taking into account their institutional environment, and approach the elements that form these activities with a professional perspective.

The sport sector has been looked at in terms of creative sectors more detailed, which are not yet mentioned in the literature. It is mentioned in many definitions that sportive, cultural and artistic activities go through similar formation processes. Taking into account the specific aspects of sport, it should be supported by other studies whether sport sector can take place among the creative sectors.

6. References

- Dağlı Ekmekçi Y. A., (2016) "Institutionalization of Sport Clubs: Case Study of Sport Managers" European Scientific Journal August 2016, Special edition
- Eraslan İ. H., Helvacıoğlu Kuyucu A. D., Bakan İ. (2008) Değer Zinciri (Value Chain) Yöntemi ile Türk Tekstil ve Hazırgiyim Sektörünün Değerlendirilmesi, Afyon Kocatepe Üniversitesi, İ.İ.B.F. Dergisi Cilt X, Sayı II, s. 307-332
- Hesmondhalgh, D., Pratt, A. C. (2005) "Cultural Industries and Cultural Policy" International Journal of Cultural Policy, 11 (1). pp. 1-14.
- <http://www.fortuneturkey.com/turkiyede-futbol-ekonomisi-1-milyar-euroya-yakin-28264>, 12.02.2016
- <https://www.britishcouncil.org.tr/en/programmes/arts/creative-industries-focus-country>, 15.05.2017
- http://futbolekonomi.com/index.php?view=category&id=126%3Amete-ikiz&option=com_content&Itemid=68, 20.04.2017
- Kaplinsky R., M. Morris (2000) "A Handbook for Value Chain Research, International Development Research Centre (IDRC), Canada
- Khara N., Lund-Thomsen P. (2012) Value Chain Restructuring, Work Organization and Labour Outcomes in Football Manufacturing in India, Competition and Change, Vol. 16 No. 4, October 2012, p. 261 – 280
- Kiper H. (2014) Disruptions in the Sports Content Delivery Value Chain due to Consuming Sports Content over the Internet, Master of Science in Engineering and Management at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, The Ohio State University
- (2013) "Ankara Kültür Ekonomisi – Sektörel Büyüklüklerin Değerlendirilmesi Raporu" Kültürel İrtibat Noktası (Cultural Contact Point), Kültür Mirası ve Kültür Ekonomisi Envanteri Projesi, Republic of Turkey Ministry of Culture and Tourism, Ankara
- Min Z. (2011) "The Model Construction of Collaborative Product Commerce on Sports Industry Value-chain", 2011 International Conference on Information Management, Innovation Management and Industrial Engineering, DOI 10.1109/ICIIM.2011.334, p. 215-217
- Smith A.C.T., Stewart B. (2010) The special features of sport: A critical revisit, Sport Management Review, 1–13
- Stabell C. B., Fjeldstad Ø. D. (1998) "Configuring Value for Competitive Advantage: on Chains, Shops, and Networks", Strategic Management Journal, Vol. 19, 413–437
- Töre, E. (2011) "Türkiye'de Reklam Endüstrisi Değer Zinciri ve Temel Göstergeler" The Turkish Online Journal of Design, Art and Communication - TOJDAC October 2011 Vol 1, Issue 2
- Wiśniewski A. K. (2016) "The Logic of Value Creation in The Sport Organization" Quality in Sport 2 (2) p. 19-29

The Influence of Need for Uniqueness and Fashion Innovativeness & Opinion Leadership on Buying Impulsiveness and Impulse Purchase Behavior

Betul Balikcioglu

1. Introduction

Trait of buying impulsiveness is conceptualized as a consumer trait and defined as “a consumers’ tendency to involve in impulsive purchase through buy spontaneously, non-reflectively, immediately, and kinetically” (Rook & Fisher, 1995, 306). As an individual difference variable buying impulsiveness is triggered by external and internal stimulus (Solomon, 2004) as well as situational factors (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998). On the basis of Stern (1962) work, Han, Morgan, Kotsiopoulos & Kang-Park (1991) described impulse buying as fashion oriented impulse in the context of fashion product, which is motivated by self-suggestion to buy the new fashion product. Fashion oriented impulse buying occurs when consumers see a new fashion product and buy it because they are motivated by the suggestion to buy new products (Han et al., 1991).

Previous research show that consumers who are high in fashion innovativeness and opinion leadership, go shopping more often and more likely to purchase products impulsively than those low in fashion innovativeness and opinion leadership (Phau & Lo, 2004). Workman and Kidd (2000) show that need for uniqueness will motivate consumers’ to exhibit higher urgency to buy in order to reassert their position as a unique individual.

This study explores a model of trait of buying impulsiveness and impulsive purchasing behavior in conjunction with trait of need for uniqueness and fashion innovativeness & opinion leadership in the context of clothing, especially fashionable apparels, among university students. Also, the moderating effect of gender and age on the relationship between the variables as mentioned was examined. Understanding antecedents of buying impulsiveness will provide insights to apparel marketers in developing advertising strategies that create market opportunities.

2. Literature Review and Hypotheses

The research model depicted in Figure 1 has been developed to explore consumers’ impulse purchasing behavior in context of clothing apparels. The model postulated the causal relationships among trait of need for uniqueness, fashion innovativeness & opinion leadership, trait of buying impulsiveness and impulsive purchasing behavior. The demographic variable was used as a moderator on this causative relationship. The research hypotheses developed according to the following literature.

The Theory of Uniqueness (Snyder & Fromkin, 1980) asserts that excessive similarity of one's self to others will be negatively interpreted, and therefore, will result in greater seeking of differences to maintain one's separate identity. Tian, Bearden & Hunter (2001) introduced a trait of need for uniqueness on the basis of the work Nail (1986), which is labeled “counter conformity motivation”, and theory of uniqueness (Snyder & Fromkin, 1977). Tian et al. (2001,52) define consumers’ need for uniqueness as "an individual's pursuit of differentness relative to others that is achieved through the acquisition, utilization, and disposition of consumer goods for the purpose of developing and enhancing one's personal and social identity." Consumers’ with high need for uniqueness prefer creative and unpopular choices and avoid from similarity which triggered via counter conformity motivation.

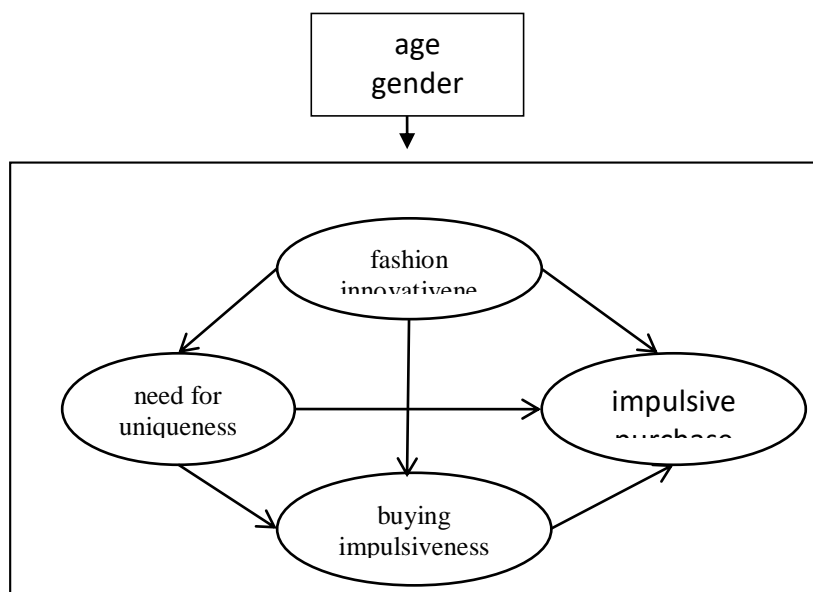


Figure 1. Research model: The influence of need for uniqueness and fashion innovativeness & opinion leadership on buying impulsiveness and impulsive purchasing behavior

On the basis of Stern (1962) work, Han et.al, (1991) described impulse buying as fashion oriented impulse in the context of fashion product, which is motivated by self-suggestion to buy the new fashion product. A desire for social distinction or variety is considered a key motive via fashion innovations (Hurlock, 1929), through new sensations (Bull, 1975) and via unusual products that influences new product adaptation and variety-seeking behavior (McAlister & Pessemier, 1982). Fashion innovativeness is the willingness to try new products relatively early in the product life cycle while fashion opinion leadership is the influencing others in purchase decisions, giving advice, and being an information source (Hirschman & Adcock's, 1978)

Variety and differences seeking behavior was found a major reason impulse purchase (Sharma et al, 2010). In their research Workman and Johnson (1993) demonstrated that fashion innovators need of variety is greater than fashion followers and they are more interested in clothing. In their research Workman & Kidd (2000) show that fashion opinion leaders score of need for uniqueness is higher than fashion followers. Similarly, Goldsmith and Clark (2008) found that need for uniqueness was positively related to opinion leadership.

Thus, the first three hypotheses are offered as follow:

H₁: Trait of need for uniqueness has a positive effect on fashion innovativeness & opinion leadership.

H₂: Trait of need for uniqueness has a positive effect on buying impulsiveness.

H₃: Trait of need for uniqueness has a positive effect on impulsive purchasing behavior.

As Assael (1987) stated that fashion innovators especially male college students who are impulsive, self-loving and exhibitionists. Park et al. (2006) suggested that fashion involvement had a direct significant effect on fashion-oriented impulse buying behavior. Phau and Lo (2004) find that impulsiveness is directly related to fashion innovativeness and innovators were found to have a unique self-image. Thus, the next two hypotheses are offered.

H₄: Fashion innovativeness & opinion leadership has a positive effect on buying impulsiveness.

H₅: Fashion innovativeness & opinion leadership has a positive effect on impulsive purchasing behavior.

Many researches have shown that trait of buying impulsiveness influence impulsive purchasing behavior (Rook & Fisher, 1995; Puri, 1996; Kacen and Lee, 2002). In their study Kacen & Lee (2001) have explored the influence of culture on the relationship between trait buying impulsiveness and impulsive buying behavior, compared to Caucasians, Asians engage in less impulse buying behavior due to trait buying impulsiveness. Thus, the following hypotheses are offered.

H₆: Buying impulsiveness has a positive effect on impulsive purchasing behavior.

3. Method

3.1. Participants and Measurements

A self-administrated questionnaire was administered to 300 undergraduate business students at Mustafa Kemal University, in the city of Hatay-Turkey. The resulting sample comprised 200 students. The age across all respondents ranged 17 to 22 years. The majority of age range between 17-22 as 128 and 20-22 as 72. The majority of the respondents were female 117 (58.5 per cent), and 83 male (41.5 per cent).

The survey included questions on fashion innovativeness and opinion leadership, respondents' need for uniqueness, trait of buying impulsiveness, impulsive purchasing behavior and demographics. Hirschman and Adcock's (1978) six items scale was used to measure fashion innovativeness and opinion leadership. This scale includes three items to measure fashion innovativeness and three items for fashion opinion leadership. Trait of need for uniqueness was measured by three items based on Tian et al.'s (2001) scale. The personality trait of buying impulsiveness was measured with four items based on Rook and Fisher's (1995) trait of buying impulsiveness scale.

With the exception of the impulse purchase measure all items used five-point strongly disagree-agree statements. Beatty and Ferrell (1998) measured impulse purchase as a three-point measure. Similarly, Kacen and Lee (2002) measured impulsive buying behavior as a single item. In this study impulsive purchasing behavior was operationalized as an index measure (Lantos, 2015) by multiplying two items, which at first converted to the standard score (z-score). The first item asked for an average of how many times respondents went clothes shopping on a 8-point scale from 1 (ones in a year) to 8 (every day). The second item asked for an average how many times respondents purchase clothes impulsively on a 4- point scale from 1 (almost never) to 4 (almost every day).

3.2. Data Analysis

The data in this study were analyzed using IBM SPSS 22 and AMOS 22 for solving structural equations with observed variables. First of all, multivariate normality test was checked by using the "normality check" command. Using the benchmark ± 2.0 , no observed variables exhibited significant problems. There are no missing observations in the data set.

Based on Hair et al. (2006) recommendations the minimum sample size for adequate power of Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) is 100. In this study 200 valid observations was used as a sample size. Before performing the reliability tests of variables, exploratory (EFA) and confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) used to determine the construct validity of indicators in Structural Equation Modeling.

Hair et al.'s (2006:776-779) procedure was followed to test construct validity via composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE). A maximum likelihood CFA was performed as pooled for all constructs.

4. Results

The results of EFA (Extraction method: Maximum Likelihood; Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization) produced 3 factor, which are trait of need for uniqueness, fashion innovativeness & opinion leadership and buying impulsiveness, with KMO=.810; Bartlett's=980.330; df=78; p=.000. Originally Hirschman and Adcock's fashion innovativeness six-item scale has two factors, but in this study factor analysis has resulted in one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1.

The three factor variable model CFA was conducted for all the main constructs. After the modifications, the measurement had acceptable fit statistics with a chi-square statistic of (CMIN) 86.539 (df= 59; p= .011; CMIN/df= 1.467); a goodness of fit index (GFI) of .941; a comparative fit index (CFI) of .970; and a root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) of .048. The factor loadings of the constructs, Cronbach alpha and composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) level are presented in Table 1.

As can be seen from the Table 1 all the standardized regression weights are significantly linked to the latent construct and ranged from 0.554 to 0.808. Thus, no loading was less than recommended 0.5 (Hair et al., 2006).

All constructs indicated reliable with AVEs larger than 0.5 and composite reliability, which ranged from .790 to .834 in this study, is considered high with greater level than 0.5 (Holmes & Smith, 2001). The correlations among constructs, which are 0.34, 0.41 and 0.42, suggested adequate discriminant validity of the measurement. As shown in Table 1, the validity and reliability results are met for the measurement model.

Table 1. Reliability and construct validity

Variable	Item	Factor Loading	Cronbach Alpha	Composite Reliability (CR)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Fashion Innovativeness and Opinion Leadership	fi1	.744	.839	.834	.500
	fi2	.662			
	fi3	.674			
	fi4	.808			
	fi5	.595			
	fi6	.554			
Trait of Need for Uniqueness	uni1	.785	.789	.790	.558
	uni2	.751			
	uni3	.703			
	imp1	.666			
Buying Impulsiveness	imp2	.794	.797	.800	.502
	Imp3	.628			
	Imp4	.737			

The next step was to analysis of impulse purchasing behavior based on fashion innovativeness and opinion leadership, need for uniqueness and trait of impulsiveness in the fashion clothing apparel context. The estimated model produced an acceptable fit statistics with CMIN = 158.511; df= 111; p= .002; CMIN/df= 1.428; GFI = .917; CFI = .955 and RMSEA = .046. The results of the estimated model are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. The regression weights of the estimated model

Paths	estimate	Std. estimate	Std. error	critical ratio	p
Fashion innovativeness <--- uniqueness	.419	.414	.089	4.680	***
buying impulsiveness <--- uniqueness	.199	.218	.087	2.295	.022
impulse purchase <--- uniqueness	.302	.078	.304	.991	.322
buying impulsiveness <--- fashion	.304	.337	.087	3.492	***
impulse purchase <--- fashion	.859	.223	.288	2.981	.003
impulse purchase <--- impulsiveness	1.606	.376	.357	4.498	***

*** p ≤ 0.001; ** p ≤ 0.05

As can be seen from Table 2, H₁ hypothesis is supported, which predicts that the trait of need for uniqueness has a positive effect on fashion innovativeness & opinion leadership with $\beta=0.41$,

The Influence of Need for Uniqueness and Fashion Innovativeness & Opinion Leadership

($p < .001$). H_2 . Trait of need for uniqueness has a positive effect on buying impulsiveness ($\beta = .22$, $p < .05$). Consumers with high fashion innovativeness were more likely has a trait of buying impulsiveness. This result supported H_2 and suggested consumers fashion innovativeness increases buying impulsiveness.

H_3 . There was no significant ($\beta = .07$, $p = .322$) effect of need for uniqueness on impulsive purchasing behavior. Thus, H_3 was not supported. However, there was a significant direct positive effect for fashion innovativeness & opinion leadership on buying impulsiveness ($\beta = .34$, $p < .001$) and impulsive purchasing behavior ($\beta = .22$, $p < .001$). Fashion innovators impulsively bought clothing apparels. Thus, H_4 and H_5 were supported. H_6 . Buying impulsiveness produced a positive effect on impulsive purchasing behavior ($\beta = .38$, $p < .001$). This, result supported the trait of buying impulsiveness states to increase impulse purchasing clothing apparels (Rook & Fisher, 1995; Puri, 1996; Weun, Jones, & Beatty, 1998; Kacen and Lee, 2002). Thus, H_6 was supported.

Also, a multigroup analysis was conducted to test pairwise path coefficients differences with critical ratios method based on categorical moderator with two groups separately for age and gender. Table 3 shows pairwise comparisons of the path coefficients across groups.

Table 3. Multigroup analysis based on age and gender

Variable	17-19		age 20-22		z-score	gender male		gender female		z-score
	Estimate	P	Estimate	P		Estimate	P	Estimate	P	
fashion	.408	.00	.355	.00	-.314	.408	.001	.407	.00	-.007
<--- uniqueness		0		3					0	
impulsiveness	.214	.05	.112	.32	-.628	.350	.004	.037	.76	-1.799
<--- uniqueness		9		7					9	
impulsiveness	.147	.12	.752	.00	2.559**	.105	.287	.495	.00	2.299**
<--- fashion		4		0					0	
impulse purchase	.440	.15	2.684	.00	2.362**	1.080	.007	.789	.05	-.512
<--- fashion		9		3					0	
impulse purchase	1.471	.00	.919	.19	-.667	2.054	.001	1.258	.00	-1.035
<---		0		1					3	
impulsiveness										

** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$

Multigroup path differences indicate that the positive effect of fashion innovativeness and opinion leadership on buying impulsiveness, which is the path z-scores equal to 2.299, exceeds the critical ratio of 1.96, $p < .001$, is stronger for female than for male respondents. Similarly, this path differences is statistically significant at $p < .001$ for age groups, which is the z-value equal to 2.559. Hence, it can say that the positive effect of fashion innovativeness and opinion leadership on trait of buying impulsiveness is stronger for the second age group 20-22 than the first age group 17-19. Also, the effect of fashion innovativeness and opinion leadership on impulse purchasing behavior buying impulsiveness is stronger for the second age group than the first group.

4. Conclusion and limitations

This study supported that a desire for social distinction is considered a key motive via fashion innovations on the relationship between trait of buying impulsiveness and impulse purchase behavior of Turkish university students. Also, it contributes to current research; by (i) adding need for uniqueness and fashion innovativeness & opinion leadership as personal determinants of buying impulsiveness in clothing apparel context, (ii) highlighting the role of personal traits on impulse purchasing behavior.

The results suggest that fashion innovativeness & opinion leadership and buying impulsiveness directly affect impulse purchasing behavior, whereas need for uniqueness did not relate directly to impulse purchasing behavior but relates to buying impulsiveness trait. Another important result from

this study suggests that need for uniqueness motivates fashion innovativeness and opinion leadership. Also, this result suggests that for female students, fashion innovativeness triggered buying impulsiveness more than male students. For this sample, fashion innovativeness affected buying impulsiveness and impulse purchasing behavior more for adult students than for younger.

This study was limited to university students in Turkey and to clothing apparels as well as concepts, which include only internal factors. All these restrictions limit generalizations results of this study. Future research should investigate different demographics as well as fashion context might extend to brands and other external or situational factors such as competitiveness and mood.

5. References

- Assael, H. (1987). *Consumer Behavior & Marketing Action*, 4th.ed. Boston PWS-Kent.
- Beatty, S.E. & Ferrell, M.E. (1998). Impulse buying: modeling its precursors. *Journal of Retailing*, 74(2), 169-91.
- Bhakat, R. & Muruganatham, G. (2013). A Review of Impulse Buying Behavior. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 5(3), 149-160.
- Bull, R. (1975). Psychology, clothing and fashion: A review. *Bulletin of the British Psychological Society*, 28, 459-465.
- Cho, Siwon & Workman Jane E. (2014). Relationships among Gender, Fashion Leadership, Need for Affect, and Consumers' Apparel Shopping Preference, *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal*, 42(4), 369–385 DOI: 10.1111/fcsr.12070
- Engel, J., & Blackwell, R. (1982). *Consumer Behavior*. Chicago: Dryden Press.
- Flynn, L.R., Goldsmith, R.E. & Eastman, J.E. (1996). Opinion leaders and opinion seekers: two new measurement scales", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 24(2), 137-47.
- Goldsmith, R.E. & Clark, R.A. (2008). An analysis of factors affecting fashion opinion leadership and fashion opinion seeking. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 12 (3), 308-322
- Goldsmith, R.E. & Hofacker, C.F. (1991). Measuring consumer innovativeness', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 19(3), 209-21.
- Goldsmith, R.E. & Clark, R.A. (2008). An analysis of factors affecting fashion opinion leadership and fashion opinion seeking. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 12 (3), 308-322
- Beattie, J., & Friese, S. (1995). Gender identity and material symbols: Objects and decision considerations in impulse purchases. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 16(3), 491-511. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0167-4870\(95\)00023-H](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0167-4870(95)00023-H).
- Han, Y. K., Morgan, G. A., Kotsiopulo, A., & Kang-Park, J. (1991). Impulse buying behavior of apparel purchasers. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 9(3), 15-21. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0887302X9100900303>
- Hirschman, E., & Adcock, W. (1978). An examination of innovative communicators, opinion leaders, and innovators of men's fashion apparel. In H. K. Hunt (Ed.), *Advances in consumer research* (pp. 303–314). Ann Arbor, MI: Association for Consumer Research. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/13612020610701965>
- Hurlock, E. (1929). *The psychology of dress*. New York:Ronald Press.
- Ian Phau Chang-Chin Lo, (2004). Profiling fashion innovators. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, 8(4), 399-411 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/13612020410559993>.
- Jin, B., Sternquist, B., & Koh, A. (2003). Price as hedonic shopping. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal*, 31(4), 378–402.
- Kacen, J.J. & Lee, J.A. (2002). The influence of culture on consumer impulsive buying Behavior. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 12(2), 163-76.
- Lantos, Geoffrey Paul (2015). *Consumer Behavior in Action: Real-Life Applications for Marketing Managers*, Routledge, ISBN: 1317473841, 9781314743848.

The Influence of Need for Uniqueness and Fashion Innovativeness & Opinion Leadership

- Mattila, A. S., & Wirtz, J. (2008). The role of store environmental stimulation and social factors on impulse purchasing. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 22(7), 562-567. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/08876040810909686>
- McAlister, L., & Pessemier, E. A. (1982). Variety seeking behavior: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9, 311-322.
- Park, E. J., Kim, E. Y., & Forney, J. C. (2006). A structural model of fashion-oriented impulse buying behavior. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 10(4), 433-446.
- Park, J., & Lennon, S. J. (2006). Psychological and environmental antecedents of impulse buying tendency in the multichannel shopping context. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 23(2), 56-68. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/07363760610654998>.
- Phau, I. & Lo, C. (2004). Profiling fashion innovators: A study of self-concept, impulse buying and Internet purchase intent. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 8(4), 399-411.
- Rook, D. W. (1987). The Buying Impulse. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 14(2), 189-197. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/209105>
- Rook, D. W., & Fisher, R. J. (1995). Normative influences on impulsive buying behavior. *The Journal of Consumer Research*, 22(3), 305-313. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/209452>
- Sharma, P., Sivakumaran, B., & Marshall, R. (2010). Impulse buying and Variety seeking: A trait-correlates perspective. *Journal of Business Research*, 63, 276-83. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2009.03.013>
- Snyder, C.R. & Fromkin, H.L. (1980). *Uniqueness: The Human Pursuit of Difference*, New York, NY: Plenum.
- Stern, H. (1962). The Significance of Impulse Buying Today. *Journal of Marketing*, April, 59-62. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/1248439>
- Tian, K.T., Bearden, William O. & Hunter, Gary L (2001). Consumers' Need for Uniqueness: Scale Development and Validation. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 28(1), 50-66.
- Workman, J.E. & Kidd, L.K. (2000). Use of the need for uniqueness scale to characterize fashion consumer groups. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 18, (4), 227-36.
- Workman, Jane E. & Johnson, Kim K. P. (1993). Fashion Opinion Leadership, Fashion Innovativeness, and Need for Variety, *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 11:3, 60-64. DOI: 10.1177/0887302X9301100309.
- Youn, S., & Faber, R. J. (2000). Impulse buying: its relation to personality traits and cues. *Advances in consumer research*, 27, 179-185.

Where are the Transition Economies in Income Inequality Path?

Yasemin Bozdağlıoğlu, Hatice Küçükkaya

1. Introduction

This study aims to set out the main arguments of inequality drivers in transition economies and support the results of empirical analysis. When the subject is income inequality, it is useful first to examine the underlying factors, causes behind changes in income distribution. For a long time, the quest to identify driving factors of inequality looks primarily at the association between economic development and inequality and was focused on testing the hypothesis that Kuznets (1955) put forward. According to this hypothesis, inequality follows an inverted U-shaped relationship with increased development. Finally, it is expected that development first increases and subsequently decreases inequality.

When we look at the empirical literature on this issue, usually it is seen that economic development is proxied by real income or GDP per capita. The shape of the relationship is quadratic, when the square of the real income is added into the model (Förster & Toth, 2015, 1755-1757).

At the end of the twentieth century, the general question of the interrelationship between the level of income per capita/household and the distribution of income was taken up by neoclassical growth theory. Barro (2000) provides evidence that higher inequality tends to retard growth in poor countries and encourage growth in wealthier countries. This new approach to income distribution confirms the old aforementioned view, because the Kuznets curve whereby inequality first increases and later decreases in the process of economic development emerges as a clear empirical regularity (Barro, 2000, 32).

In addition to all these, this study takes a look on income inequality in transition countries by modelling the subject in a panel data form. The outline of the study is as follows. In the section 2, we describe the data and methodology. The empirical findings are presented in the section 3. The final section comprises our conclusions.

2. Data and Methodology

In the empirical studies which concern about income inequality, the data issue has mostly been a problematique. In the 1990s, Deinenger-Squire (1996) database has been used in a wide range of empirical literature. However in recent years, various databases have become prominent. Some of these are; Unu-Wider World Income Inequality Database (WIID), The Standardized World Income Inequality Database (SWIID), The World Wealth and Income Database (WWID), University of Texas Inequality Project (EHII) and The Chartbook of Economic Inequality. On the other hand, the significant point in the analysis is what the aim of the study is and whether the calculation method of Gini coefficient deals with the subject appropriately.

Aforementioned databases and those used in the literature have been investigated and All The Ginis (ATG) database has been found convenient for this study. Ginis for all countries were taken from this database which has been compiled by Branko Milanovic.

The data, which is also used with Gini indices in this study, is GDP per capita attained from World Bank database. These GDP per capita series is based on purchasing power parity (PPP) which are in current international dollars based on the 2011 ICP round. Population series have been also taken from World Bank database. Data belonging to total population is based on the de facto definition of population.

In this study, belonging to 28¹ transition economies over the period 1990-2010 cross-section data has been utilized. Cross-section data has been compiled for analysis, because gini coefficient in one country doesn't vary in a year. So, income inequality data in annual form is so stable for using panel regressions. Therefore, classic panel estimations such as OLS are not preferred for this study.

By the reason of the deficits of OLS estimations on some models, dynamic panel models are developed for the models including lagged values of dependent variable. Among those models, Anderson and Hsiao (1982), Arellano (1989), Ahn and Schmidt (1995), and Arellano and Bond (1991) can be named.

On this context, Arellano and Bond proposed a generalized method of moments (GMM) technique which is more efficient than the Arellano and Hsiao (1982) estimator. Arellano and Bond (1991) argues that additional instruments can be obtained in a dynamic panel data model if one utilizes the orthogonality conditions that exist between lagged values of dependent variable and the disturbances. Finally, the estimator results with two steps, after these steps acquired, dependent variables from two equations are asymptotically equivalent if the disturbance terms are iid (Baltagi, 2001, 130-131).

In the study, 28 transition economies for the period 1990-2010 cross-section data run to the model. The equation used in the regression models is as follows:

$$g_{it} = \alpha + \beta (y_{it}) + u_i \quad (1)$$

$$g_{it} = \alpha + \beta (p_{it}) + u_i \quad (2)$$

Where g_{it} denotes the Gini index of country i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, N$) at time t , α denotes constant term, p denotes population, β denotes coefficient of the independent variables (GDP per capita and population) and u_i is a mean zero error term.

Equations 1 and 2 are estimated by using two-step Arellano and Bond GMM estimator. These equations transforms into panel regression equations as can be seen in Equations 3 and 4. While estimating GMM models, we use instrument variables separately in equations. By this way, we can interpret the coefficients special to the dependent variables.

$$\ln g_{it} = \alpha + \beta (\ln GDP_{it}) + \eta_i + \xi_t + u_{i,t} \quad (3)$$

$$\ln g_{it} = \alpha + \beta (\ln pop_{it}) + \eta_i + \xi_t + u_{i,t} \quad (4)$$

In equations 3 and 4, all variables are used in their logarithmic forms. Where η_i denotes the country-specific effect, ξ_t denotes time-specific constant and $u_{i,t}$ is a zero mean error term. In this equation, error term is serially uncorrelated across units and is also assumed to be uncorrelated over time.

Before estimating GMM regressions, we want to look at summary statistics of variables. Table 1 contains gini coefficients, GDP per capita values and population values across transition economies.

Table 1. Summary Statistics of Variables

All Countries (28)	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010
Gini					
Minimum	0.178	0.200	0.234	0.175	0.231
Maximum	0.383	0.621	0.447	0.444	0.478
Mean	0.264	0.352	0.339	0.329	0.328
Standart deviation	0.050	0.083	0.049	0.059	0.059
Number of obs.	84	84	84	84	84
GDP per capita (PPP)					
Minimum	801.06	801.06	1086.56	1746.88	2462.45
Maximum	13547.22	13688.64	18036.47	23945.26	27792.98
Mean	5391.96	4825.99	6340.40	9696.18	13827.65
Standart deviation	3261.43	3411.44	4386.64	6103.55	7796.81
Number of obs.	84	84	84	84	84
Population					
Minimum	1569174	1436634	1396985	1354775	1331475
Maximum	1135185000	1204855000	1262645000	1303720000	1337705000
Mean	57320672	60150200	62328276	63825333	65281121
Standart deviation	209513580	222305727	232917820	240450812	246691765
Number of obs.	84	84	84	84	84

Where are the Transition Economies in Income Inequality Path?

According to Table 1, firstly it is seen that gini values have increased in 2010 in comparison with the initial year, 1990. The year 1990 also draws attention to the beginning of transition period. It can be accepted for nearly 27 countries, 1990 is the starting date of transition process. Secondly, GDP per capita values have also increased from 1990 to 2010. This also means that countries have experienced also economic growth with increasing income inequality. In addition to these, we want to observe how population values have changed with income inequality. Population, of course has an upward trend across all countries.

After examining summary statistics of variables, to understand the transition economies' income inequality trends, graphics of gini indexes of countries are composed. In these graphics, all transition economies are appeared in. Every graphic consists of four countries and all countries are represented in seven graphics.

According to graphics of gini values, it can be seen that income inequalities in all countries have risen in 2010 compared to 1990.

Figures 1-7 will be inserted to this page. (from the 'figures' word document)

3. Empirical Findings

In this section, aforementioned equations 1 and 2 are estimated using Two-Stage Least Squares (2SLS) weighted GMM technique. Because of two-step Arellano and Bond estimator, we want to use the matrix which is weighted 2SLS. In this section two panel models are estimated according to equations 1, 2. In both equations gini values are dependent variable for the model, because it is aimed to find the effects of GDP per capita and population on income inequality scores of transition economies. In first equation, population is taken as an instrumental variable and GDP per capita is independent variable. First equation has estimated and presented in Table 2. In second model, when GDP per capita is an instrumental variable, population is taken as independent variable. Second equation has estimated and presented in Table 3.

Table 2. GMM Results for Model 1

Gini dependent (pop instr.)

Variable	Coefficient	t-statistics	p-value
GDP per capita	-0.301289	-29.15933	0.0000***
C	1.414436	16.02856	0.0000***

Table 3. GMM Results for Model 2

Gini dependent (pp instr.)

Variable	Coefficient	t-statistics	p-value
population	0.343862	30.23003	0.0000***
C	-6.687074	-36.55962	0.0000***

Note: *, **, *** denotes 10%, 5% and 1% significance levels respectively.

According to Table 2, GDP per capita is regressed on income inequality and it has statistically significant at 1% significance level. GDP per capita affects income inequality negatively. Where GDP per capita increases, there gini coefficient decreases. We can also interpret the coefficient which means a 1% increase in GDP per capita is associated with 0.30% decrease in gini coefficient. This means increase in GDP per capita accompanies with a decrease in income inequality.

According to Table 3, population is regressed on income inequality and it has statistically significant at 1% significance level. Population has a positive effect on income inequality. Where population increases, there gini coefficient increases, too. We can also interpret the coefficient which means a 1% increase in population raises gini coefficient about 0.34%.

4. Conclusion

The aim of this paper is to investigate the change in income inequality in 28 transition economies for the period 1990-2010. From the point of macroeconomic approach, income distribution has strikingly changed during aforementioned period. For this reason, to analyze the comprehensive growth performance of transition economies, GDP per capita and population variables are used in the model.

Due to lacking of panel data studies on income inequality in transition economies in literature, this study models income inequality in transition economies by using panel estimation techniques. Gini coefficients are used as empirical measure of income inequality, while GDP per capita and population are representative of macroeconomic variables. In panel regressions, gini indexes which stand for income inequality are regressed on both GDP per capita and population. Current variables are provided statistically significant in two models. Empirical findings indicate that we can use current variables for analyzing income inequality in transition economies. Estimated regressions by using Two-Stage Least Squares (2SLS) weighted GMM technique specifies rising income inequality can be explained with decreasing GDP per capita and rising population in transition economies.

Although GDP per capita decreases income inequality, population has a positive effect on income inequality. Empirical findings denotes that 1% increase in GDP per capita is associated with 0.30% decrease in gini coefficient and 1% increase in population raises gini coefficient about 0.34%. We can interpret these coefficients as these variables affect income inequality almost equal. Therefore, transition economies can cope with rising income inequality by raising GDP per capita values. This also means that higher economic growth rates can decrease income inequality in transition economies. Positive population coefficient must not mean that macroeconomic policies motive countries to reduce their population rates. In this case, China can be cited as an example. In spite of high population rate, China has experienced scores better than other transition economies in income inequality.

5. References

- Ahn, S. C. & Schmidt, P. (1995). Efficient estimation of models for dynamic panel data. *Journal of Econometrics*, 68, 5-27.
- Anderson, T. W. & Hsiao, C. (1982). Formulation and estimation of dynamic models using panel data. *Journal of Econometrics*, 18(1), 47-82.
- Arellano, M. (1989). A note on the Anderson-Hsiao estimator for panel data. *Economics Letters*, 31(4), 337-341.
- Arellano, M. & Bond, S. (1991). Some tests of specification for panel data: Monte Carlo evidence and application to employment equations. *The Review of Economic Studies*, 58(2), 277-297.
- Baltagi, B. (2001). *Econometric analysis of panel data*, John Wiley&Sons, United Kingdom.
- Bao, Y. & Dhongde, S. (2009). Testing convergence in income distribution. *Oxford Bulletin Of Economics and Statistics*, 71(2), 295-302.
- Barro, R. J. (2000). Inequality and growth in a panel of countries, *Journal of Economic Growth*, 5, 5-32.
- Barro, R. J. & Sala-i-Martin, X. (1992). Convergence. *Journal of Political Economy*, 100(2), 223-251.
- Benabou, R. (1996). Inequality and growth. *NBER Macroeconomics Annual*, 11, 11-92.
- Caselli, F., Esquivel, G. & Lefort, F. (1996). Reopening the convergence debate: a new look at cross-country growth empirics, *Journal of Economic Growth*, 1, 363-389.
- Chambers, D. & Dhongde, S. (2016). Convergence in income distributions: Evidence from a panel of countries, *Economic Modelling*, 59, 262-270.
- Deininger, K. & Squire, L. (1996). A new data set measuring income inequality, *The World Bank Economic Review*, 10(3), 565-591.
- Friedman, M. (1992). Do old fallacies ever die?. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 30(4), 2129-2132.
- Förster, M. F. & Toth, I. G. (2015). Cross-Country evidence of the multiple causes of inequality changes in the OECD area. In Atkinson, A. B. & Bourguignon, F. (Eds.). *Handbook of Income Distribution* (pp. 1729-1841). Oxford: North Holland.
- Kuznets, S. (1955). Economic growth and income inequality. *American Economic Review*, xlv(1).

Where are the Transition Economies in Income Inequality Path?

Ravallion, M. (2002). Inequality convergence. *WB Policy Research Working Paper Series*, 2645.

ATG (All The Ginis Dataset). (2013), from <https://www.gc.cuny.edu/Page-Elements/Academics-Research-Centers-Initiatives/Centers-and-Institutes/Stone-Center-on-Socio-Economic-Inequality/Core-Faculty,-Team,-and-Affiliated-LIS-Scholars/Branko-Milanovic/Datasets>

EHI, University of Texas Inequality Project, from <http://www.utip.lbj.utexas.edu>

PWT, Penn World Table, <http://www.rug.nl/ggdc/productivity/pwt/>

SWIID, Standardized World Income Inequality Database, from <http://fsolt.org/swiid/>

UNU-WIDER, Unu-Wider World Income Inequality Database (WIID), from <http://www.wider.unu.edu>

WWID, The World Wealth and Income Database, from <http://www.parisschoolofeconomics.eu/en/research/the-world-wealth-income-database/>

¹ Because of the inequality data unavailability in countries Bosnia and Herzegovina, Mongolia and Tajikistan; sample is reduced to 28 countries.

The Effect of Using Mascot on Products and Services to Remind the Brand

Fatma Çakir, Mesut Çakir, Semih Solak

1. Introduction

Markets follow many different strategies in order to make a permanent place in the consumer's mind. Sometimes these strategies can be a change in the external appearance of the product, and sometimes in the creation of a variety of characters related to the product to create an emotional connection between the consumer and the product. Therefore, in a dynamic competitive environment, they use brand mascots to keep a different place in the customer's mind and to be constantly remembered. Brand mascots distinguish products from others with their remarkable appearance and the ability to represent the brand they belong to. The lovable personalities of these mascots increase both brand awareness and attitude towards the brand in a positive way.

In the conceptual analysis part of the study, the effect of remembering brands and brand mascots is explained. In the research section, a questionnaire study was carried out on the students of Adnan Menderes University Nazilli Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences. For the purpose of the study, it was tried to determine the effect of the mascots created by the brands, the reminders of the brands and the effect of the purchase attitude.

1.1. Brand Awareness

The basic recognition of the brand can be created by creating awareness. Therefore, in order to be noticed by consumers of the brand to occur just as full is possible. Awareness refers to the effect that brand creates in the consumer's mind (Aaker, 1996: 7). Brand awareness consists of a synthesis of positive or negative information that a particular person or a certain person has about a particular brand (Valkenburg and Buijen, 2005: 461). According to another opinion, brand awareness is the ability of customers to recognize the brand of service for the relevant product on different conditions (Pappu et al., 2005: 149). Brand awareness is where the consumer's memory is comparable to the brand's competitors (Aktepe and Baş 2008: 84). According to Keller; brand awareness plays an important role in the purchasing decision of the consumer by providing three basic advantages, which are the ease of thinking, consideration and choice (Keller, 2003: 26).

Brand awareness contains two elements that are recognition and recall. Recognition; when the brand's visual properties are seen or when hints are given about these visual properties, the name is known. Recall is; When a consumer needs the function of a product, the idea is to come up with a brand name (Tosun, 2014: 131).

The importance of brand awareness in the minds of consumers has accelerated the process of creating mascots for the brand of businesses. Mascots have an important place in keeping the products and services alive in the minds of consumers. Mascots carry out the function of reflecting the brand personality and establishing an emotional connection between the target group and the brand. Therefore, it can be said that the brands which are trying to settle permanently in the consumer's mind with cute and pleasant images are more effective in creating awareness.

1.2. Brand Mascots and The Role of Brand Reminders

Mascots are important promotional elements that personality-specific features embody. In order to increase the awareness of the brand by establishing close contact with the consumers, it becomes an instrument for the products of that brand to be preferred in the process of buying (Özcan 2014: 55). Mascots are one of the issues that marketing managers need to analyze. Because when consumers buy a product, they not only buy the product physically but also buy the entertainment, experience and identity that they can get from that product (Crilly et al., 2004: 569).

Brand mascots are involved in brand communication in very different ways and with different personality characteristics. In the communication of brands with consumers, mascots are a sales tool;

a recreational tool for children and adults; it is also a reflection and part of the brand identity (Tek 2004; 29). Brand mascots enable the auditory, verbal and visual brand elements such as brand name, logo, jingle to become more attractive by attracting the consumer with their personalities, talks, colors and appearances in creating brand awareness (Keller, 2013: 3). "Ronald M" for McDonalds restaurants, "Panda" for Panda Ice Creams, "Steel" for both the strength and sweetness of the products produced by the Arçelik firm, "Duracell Sweetie" for contests to prove the long service life of Duracell pills (Barutçu and Adıgüzel, 2015: 83).

Mascots, both a means of marketing communication and a means of sales development, are also important for the brand's reputation and image. Mascot also helps to establish brand identity in the long term (Çevikbaş, 2007: 74). Creating a brand character and mascot is an opportunity to show the corporate identities of the enterprises in the target group and to promote themselves (Lin et al., 1999; 118). The researches have been carried out both in the consumer's mind and in the extension of the time to stay in the memory; mascots can be more effective on consumers (John, 1999: 183).

Brand mascots, logo, emblem and commercial character concepts are confused too much. But brand mascots are actualized or can be implemented designs used to introduce and support a product, service, or idea. (Philips and Gyoerick 1999: 714). It is the distinguishing feature of brand mascots from other visual elements to be involved in long-term brand communication, being a designed person or being enlivened (Tosun and Kalyoncu 2014: 89). Businesses have been developing mascots that represent both the business and the product, which were used initially as a tool for different targets, and nowadays as a means of recognizing brands. Mascots have always added value to the brand's product as well as contributed to the brand capital and added value (Kasarıcı, 2014: 40).

According to research findings on mascots, mascots offer significant advantages in terms of recognizing and remembering products and brands they represent (Callcott and Lee, 1994: 11). It is aimed at cartoons and mascot advertisements, to increase brand awareness with selling products. Caricature ads, like all advertisements, are created either by a slogan or by creating a unique position in the minds and giving the brand a character and identity (Kurultay ve Peksevgen, 2015; 153). These animated characters which are considered brand symbols and character icons, are symbolically used to convey the personality or benefits of the mark (Garretson and Burton, 2005: 118).

The impact of mascots on brand awareness can be based on three reasons. First; The mascots that are different, cute and fun can be easily remembered by the consumers. Latter; Is the effect of mascots on establishing a strong bond with consumers. The third; through social networking and other mass media, to make advertising campaigns more enjoyable and shared by consumers (Wilkinson and Patterson 2014: 127).

Although mascots have the potential to represent the brand on their own, they need to keep their minds constant and up-to-date. The fact that mascots are up-to-date and intense in brand advertisements will make it easier for them to get involved in consumer awareness (Ilisulu, 2011; 167). Use of mascots and animations in television commercials; it contributes significantly to the application of creative ideas and to the increase of visual effectiveness, it supports the message and increases the effectiveness by adding aesthetics (Türkmenoğlu, 2015; 57). In this respect, since many businesses today are more permanent in the consumer's mind and have a positive impact on brand value, cute, fun and remarkable mascots as an important marketing and brand communication tool is used.

2.Methodology

2.1 The Purpose and Importance of Research

At the present time, consumers prefer products or services that offer the maximum benefit to them, as well as products and services that they feel emotionally linked to. This pushes businesses to develop mascots that will make consumers feel closer to their products. Brand mascots are identified with their cute looks and with the brand in question; they are different from other brands and have a positive effect on consumers. In this study, it was aimed to investigate the effect of the mascots on the university students in remembering the brand of products and services.

2.2. Method of Research

Questionnaire technique was used as data collection method in the study. In the first part of the study, three questions were asked about the demographic characteristics of the participants; In the second part, there are five questions about product mascots and product reminders; In the third part, four questions about product mascots and branding reminders; In the last part, 22 questions were asked to learn attitudes towards brand mascots. Survey questions; Babür and Tosun (2014) and Barutçu and Adıgüzel (2015) have been prepared by compiling from research. Responses to the statements in the scale were arranged on a 5-point Likert scale. The evaluations were conducted by giving 5 points to strongly agree, 1 point to strongly disagree. The collected data was prepared using the IBM SPSS program.

2.3. Results of Research

The study is a questionnaire survey of Adnan Menderes University, Nazilli, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Department of Business Administration. Simple random sampling technique is used in the study. The universe of the work has been determined and the minimum number to be done has been calculated. As a result, 241 student questionnaires were applied.

Table:1 Frequency and percentage values of demographic questions

	Percent(%)		Percent(%)
Gender		Monthly Income	
Women	61,8	500 and below	39,4
Men	38,2	501- 1000	48,1
Age		1001 and over	12,4
17-20	27,0		
21-24	68,5		
25 +	4,6		

61.8% of the respondents are female and 38.2% are male. There are 65 people in the age range of 17-20 and this corresponds to 27%. There are 165 people in the age range 21-24 and 11 people over the age of 25. When the income situation is examined, 39.4% of the respondents have 500TL or less. 48,1% of them have 501-1000 TL income and 12,4% of them have 1001 TL and above.

Table2: Cross table between monthly income and the question of; :the price is important, not the mascot, when you buy the product.

Question		Monthly Income		
		500TL and below	501TL-1000TL	1001TL and above
The price is important, not the mascot, when you buy the product.	Totally disagree	30,8%	53,8%	15,4%
	Disagree	44,4%	44,4%	11,1%
	Undecided	35,1%	54,1%	10,8%
	Agree	35,9%	55,1%	9,0%
	Totally agree	44,2%	40,4%	15,4%

As the above table shows, the cross table between monthly income and the price is important, not the mascot, when you buy the product. In the lower and middle income group, it seems that the price is influenced by the product rather than the mascot. In the upper income group, this effect seems not to be excessive.

Table3: Cross table between I buy brands that use mascots and gender

Question		Gender	
		Women	Men
I buy brands that use mascots.	Totally disagree	52,2%	47,8%
	Disagree	67,3%	32,7%
	Undecided	56,8%	43,2%
	Agree	65,2%	34,8%
	Totally agree	72,7%	27,3%

When looking at the table above, it appears that women are more willing to buy mascot-using brands than men.

Table4: Cross table between mascots allow me to remember the brand more easily and gender

Question		Gender	
		Women	Men
Mascots allow me to remember the brand more easily	Totally disagree	52,6%	47,4%
	Disagree	50,0%	50,0%
	Undecided	20,0%	80,0%
	Agree	66,0%	34,0%
	Totally agree	63,0%	37,0%

According to table 4, mascots seem to be more effective in reminding brands. In terms of easier remembering of brands, mascots are more effective on women than men.

Table5: Cross table between mascots allow me to remember the brand more easily and age

Question		Age		
		17-20	21-24	25 and above
Mascots allow me to remember the brand more easily	Totally disagree	21,1%	78,9%	0,0%
	Disagree	0,0%	50,0%	50,0%
	Undecided	40,0%	60,0%	0,0%
	Agree	39,6%	56,6%	3,8%
	Totally agree	23,5%	71,6%	4,9%

Agree and totally agree are outstanding intensity of the response. In other words, it is also seen that mascots are more effective in reminding brands in terms of age. Mascots are more effective in recalling brands in the 21-24 age group than other age groups. The second group is the 17-20 age group. Over 25 years old, mascots do not seem to remember the brand more easily

The Effect of Using Mascot on Products and Services to Remind the Brand

Table6: Reliability constant

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,774	34

The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of scale reliability of the questionnaire survey was obtained as 0.774. This result shows that scale is quite reliable.

Table7: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) table

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Sampling Adequacy.	Measure of	
		,879
Approx. Chi-Square		2015,702
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	231
Sig.		,000

Factor analysis was applied in this part of the study. The value of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was obtained as 0.879 and the feasibility of factor analysis was determined. In addition, sig value was found statistically significant (0.000).

Table8: Factor analysis table

Factors	Factor Loading	Total Variance Explained
		54,617
Factor 1		
The brands that use mascots are my god.	,794	
Mascots allow me to remember the brand during shopping.	,792	
Mascots allow me to remember the brand more easily.	,786	
Ads using mascots are more interesting.	,723	
Thanks to your mascots I remember the brand for a long time.	,714	
It's not the mascot, it's the price in the product purchase process.	,660	
The brands that use mascots are more cute and fun.	,649	
Mascots are made to attract people's attention to the brand.	,619	
Mascot is a feature that introduces products.	,615	
I do not mix brands with mascots.	,571	
I remember mascots, but I do not remember which brand they belong to.	-,491	
I see mascots of brands as a member of my family.	-,414	
Factor 2		
I buy brands that use mascots.	,732	
I find brands using mascots more professional.	,683	
I have confidence in the brand that uses mascots.	,674	
Seeing live mascots at shopping places increases your desire to buy.	,455	
Mascots are influential in my choice of product and brand.	,445	
Factor 3		

I would like to join an organization with mascots.	,793
I want to buy mascots.	,785
Factor 4	
I think the mascots have a misleading effect against consumers.	,828
I think the brands that use mascots are not serious.	,739

As a result of the factor analysis, it is seen that the questions consist of four factors. The four factors explained for 54.617% of the total variance. The question with the highest factor intensity in the first factor is the question 'I recognize brands that use mascots' (.794). Question with the highest factor intensity in the second factor is the question 'I buy brands that use mascots' (0,732). Question with the highest factor intensity in the third factor is the question 'I would like to participate in an organization with mascots' (0,793). Question with the highest factor intensity in the fourth factor is the question 'I think mascots have a misleading effect against the consumer' (0.828). The highest density factor of fourth place with a mascot factors of the problem areas that I think have a misleading effect against consumers / (0.828) It is most noteworthy question for the participants.

Table9: Kruskal Wallis Test Results

	Gender	Mean Rank
I would like to buy mascots (toys, key chains, etc.(sig 0,006<0,05)	Women	130,35
	Men	105,86
The brands that use mascots are more cute and fun.(sig 0,003<0,05).	Women	130,96
	Men	104,86
Ads using mascots are more interesting. .(sig 0,017<0,05)	Women	128,77
	Men	108,41
I would like to join an organization with mascots.(sig 0,002<0,05)	Women	131,79
	Men	103,52
Mascots allow me to remember the brand for a longer time.(sig 0,025<0,05).	Women	128,38
	Men	109,05
Mascots are made to attract people's attention to the brand.(sig 0,046<0,05).	Women	127,31
	Men	110,79

Sig values of the statistically significant questions were given in the table above ($p < 0,05$). The table above shows nonparametric test results that are statistically significant between gender and other questions. According to table above, women are more sensitive than men for all questions.. In other words, for example women believe more than men when mascots are made to attract people's attention to branding.

Table10: Anova Test Results (One Way)

	Puan	Grup	N	\bar{x}	Var. K.	ss	Sd	KO	F	p
I have confidence in the brand that uses mascots.		Totally disagree	19	2,8421	Between Groups	15,740	4	3,935	3,072	,017
		Disagree	2	3,5000	Within Groups	302,326	236	1,281		
		Undecided	5	4,6000	Total	318,066	240			
		Agree	53	2,7925						
		Totally agree	162	2,9383						

The Effect of Using Mascot on Products and Services to Remind the Brand

The Tukey test was performed after the homogeneity of the variances and the sig ($p < 0.05$) were obtained as the result of the Anova test, and the results are given in the table below.

Table 11: Test Results (I have confidence in the brand that uses mascots.)

Mascots allow me to remember the brand more easily.	Grups (j)	$\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_j$	$Sh_{\bar{x}}$	p
Totally disagree	I do not agree	-,65789	,84139	,936
	undecided	-1,75789*	,56889	,019
	I agree	,04965	,30264	1,000
	Totally agree	-,09617	,27446	,997
Disagree	Totally disagree	,65789	,84139	,936
	undecided	-1,10000	,94696	,773
	I agree	,70755	,81529	,908
	Totally agree	,56173	,80525	,957
undecided	Totally disagree	1,75789*	,56889	,019
	I do not agree	1,10000	,94696	,773
	I agree	1,80755*	,52951	,007
	Totally agree	1,66173*	,51392	,012
I agree	Totally disagree	-,04965	,30264	1,000
	I do not agree	-,70755	,81529	,908
	undecided	-1,80755*	,52951	,007
	Totally agree	-,14582	,17910	,926
Totally agree	Totally disagree	,09617	,27446	,997
	I do not agree	-,56173	,80525	,957
	undecided	-1,66173*	,51392	,012
	I agree	,14582	,17910	,926

'I totally agree' and 'I agree' differ from others, in terms of confidence in the brand using the mascot. This difference is related to the question of mascots making it easier to remember the brand. In other words, the confidence in the brand affects positively the effect of mascots in reminding the brand.

3. Conclusion

It is an inevitable necessity for enterprises that want to gain superiority in competitive conditions to communicate continuously and more strongly with their target customers. In forming this communication and thus creating an emotional connection between the brand and the target audience, mascots attract attention. These mascots, which are integrated with the brand, can create a strong position in the mind of the consumer by putting a personality to the brand.

As a result of analysis, mascots seem to have a clear influence on brand recognition. The effect of mascots on introducing a brand is more in women than in men. The effect of introducing mascots in age groups is more pronounced in the 21-24 age group than in the other age groups 17-20 and 25 + age groups. According to income groups, the effect of brand recognition on mascots was found to be more effective in the middle income group (501-1000TL).

As a result of the factor analysis, it was determined that questions about the branding reminder effect of mascots were collected under the first factor heading. The fact that the first factor has the highest explained variance value and that the majority of the field questions are collected under this factor title shows the effect of mascots on branding.

Another result of analysis is that those who say that mascots are easier to remember the brand, those who trust the brand that uses the mascot and those who use the mascot are more professional.

4.References

- Aaker, D. A. (1996). Measuring brand equity across products and markets. *California Management Review*, 38(3), 102-120.
- Aktepe, C., & Mehmet, B. A. Ş. (2008). Marka Bilgisi Sürecinde Marka Farkındalığı ve Algılanan Kalite (Beklenti) İlişkisi ve GSM Sektörüne Yönelik Bir Analiz. *Gazi Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 10(1), 1-16.
- Babür, Tosun, N. 2014 *Marka Yönetimi*, Beta Yayıncılık, İstanbul, Genişletilmiş 2. Baskı
- Barutçu, S., & Ünal Adıgüzel, D. (2016). Sevimli Pazarlama ve Maskotların Marka Farkındalığı Marka Bağlılığı ve Markaya Yönelik Tutum Üzerindeki Etkisi: Karşılaştırmalı Bir Araştırma. *Muğla Sıtkı Koçman Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Ekonomi ve Yönetim Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 4(2).
- Callcott, M. F., & Lee, W. N. (1994). A content analysis of animation and animated spokes-characters in television commercials. *Journal of Advertising*, 23(4), 1-12.
- Crilly, N., Moultrie, J., & Clarkson, P. J. (2004). Seeing things: consumer response to the visual domain in product design. *Design studies*, 25(6), 547-577.
- Çevikbaş, E. (2007). "Marka Bilinirliğinin Tüketici Satın Alma Davranışı Üzerine Etkileri ve Elektrikli Küçük Ev Aletleri Üzerine Bir Uygulama", Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Marmara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, İstanbul.
- Garretson, J. A., & Burton, S. (2005). The role of spokescharacters as advertisement and package cues in integrated marketing communications. *Journal of Marketing*, 69(4), 118-132.
- İlisulu, T.İ. (2011), Reklamlarda Yükselen Değer: Marka Maskotları, *Sanat Dergisi*, 20, 155-170.
- John, D. R. (2001). Consumer socialization of children: a retrospective look at twenty-five years of research. *Recherche et Applications en Marketing*, 16(1), 141.
- Kasarıcı, H. (2014), Olağan Şüpheliler, *MediaCat Dergisi*, 235 (8), 37-40.
- Keller, K. (2003). *Strategic Branding Management: Building, Measuring and Managing Brand Equity*, N.J.:Pearson Education Inc.
- Keller, K. L. (2013). Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity. *the Journal of Marketing*, 1-22.
- Kurultay, A. B., & Peksevgen, B. S. (2015). Reklamlarda Karikatür Kullanımı: Piyale Örneği *İletişim Kuram ve Araştırma Dergisi*, 1(40).
- Lin, R., Lin, P. C., & Ko, K. J. (1999). A study of cognitive human factors in mascot design. *International Journal of Industrial Ergonomics*, 23(1), 107-122.
- Özcan, B. Ö. (2014). Hayvan Semboller ve Marka Maskotlarda Kullanımı. *Mustafa Kemal Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 11(27).
- Pappu, R., Quester, P. G., & Cooksey, R. W. (2006). Consumer-based brand equity and country-of-origin relationships: Some empirical evidence. *European Journal of marketing*, 40(5/6), 696-717.
- Phillips, B. J., & Gyoerick, B. (1999). The cow, the cook, and the Quaker: Fifty years of spokes-character advertising. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 76(4), 713-728.
- Tek, B. Ö. (2004), Bütünleşik Pazarlama İletişiminde ve Markaların Yerleşiminde Maskotların Rolü ve Önemi, *Pazarlama Dünyası*, Temmuz- Ağustos, 29-32.
- Tosun, N. B., & Kalyoncu, Z. Ö. (2014). Marka Farkındalığında Maskot Kullanımının Etkisi. *Journal of Life Economics (e-ISSN: 2148-4139)*, 2(2), 87-114.
- Türkmenoğlu, H. (2015). Televizyon Reklamlarında Animasyon Kullanımı: Animasyon Ögelerinin Hatırlanma Etkisi. *Akdeniz Sanat Dergisi*, 8(16).
- Valkenburg, P. M., & Buijzen, M. (2005). Identifying determinants of young children's brand awareness: Television, parents, and peers. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 26(4), 456-468.
- Wilkinson C., Patterson A. 2014, Peppa Piggy in The Middle of Marketers and Mashup Makers; *Brand Mascots: Anthropomorphic Marketing: and Other Marketing Animals*. Edited by Stephen Brown, Sharon Ponsonby-McCabeRoutledge, UK. 123-141

Classification and Comparison of Characteristics of Project Managers of a Government Research Center and Private Sector R&D Centers in Turkey

Daghan Dogan, Senem Gol Beser

1. Introduction

Although the content of success concept improves and changes, to understand necessary elements is important for the company leaders to facilitate project success. Companies use financial and non-financial sources and take investment decisions for the projects. Thus one of the factors which effects project is the vision of leadership and administrative of a project manager.

Companies are enforced to change for competition and create value for their customers continuously because of globalization. Thus, companies need creative and producer project manager in this century.

The importance of the study theoretically is to state characteristics and classification of project managers (PMs) of a government research center in Turkey, unlike other studies. Since the project management literature deals with the selection criteria and performances of project managers, this study is important to introduce the concept and the issues related.

2. Literature Review

Project management definitions (Smith, 1995) stem from the description of a project and include a form of control over the planned process of explicit change. There are some general project management definitions of Project Management Institute and UK Association which stem from project below:

The Project Management Institute (PMI), USA, describes a project management as “the art of directing and coordinating human and material resources through the life of a project by using modern management techniques to achieve predetermined goals of scope, cost, time, quality and participant satisfaction”.

The UK Association for Project Management describes it as “planning, organization, monitoring and control of all aspects of a project and the motivation of all involved to achieve project objectives safely and within agreed time, cost and performance criteria”.

As mentioned above project management has some characteristics. Thus, project managers have some attributes to achieve projects. Summary of the project manager attributes which take place in literature can be shown in Table 1.

According to Table 1, Pettersen (1991) categorized 21 attributes of project managers and grouped them into five different categories. These are administration, problem-solving, supervision and team management, interpersonal relationships, and other personal qualities.

Although McDonough (1990) and Hauschildt et al. (2000) studies about PM attributes are measurement and comparison based studies, Crawford (2000) study about PM attributes is opinion based.

Einsiedel (1987), Bowenkamp and Kliener (1987), Pinto and Kharbanda (1995) get perceptions of practitioners in the project management regarding attributes they feel as most important to the development of project managers.

El-Saba (2001), Odusami (2002), and Posner (1987) are used opinion based and ranking techniques for detection of important project managers' attributes.

Table 1. Summary of PM Attributes in the Literature

	Problem Solving	Admin.	Super. and Team Man.	Inter Personal Relations	Other Personal Qualities	Knowledge	Experience	External Factors
Bowenka mp and Kleiner (1987)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
Pitts (1990)				✓				
Pettersen (1991)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
Goodwin (1993)	✓			✓		✓		
Anderson & Tucker (1994)		✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
Pinto & Kharbanda (1995)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
Grant, et al. (1997)						✓	✓	✓
Tagger, et al. (1999)						✓	✓	
Brugger, et al. (2000)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓
Crawford (2000)	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓
Hauschildt, et al. (2000)	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓		
Odusami (2002)	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓
Hyväri (2006)			✓			✓		✓

Note. The following citations are provided by Valencia (2007)

For this study, the most important project managers' attributes are selected and identified using a replication of Valencia (2007)'s study and to present a comparison between government research center in Turkey. These are leadership ability, communication skills, decision-making skills, administrative skills, coping ability, analytical thinking, and technical competence as seen in Table 2.

Table 2. Titles and Definitions of Selected PM Attributes

Factor	PM Attribute	Attribute Definition
1	Leadership Skill	“Takes control and exercises leadership. Initiates action, gives direction, and takes responsibility.” ¹ Encourages others to act, perform at higher standards, and think for themselves. ²
2	Communication Skill	“Communicates and networks effectively.” ¹ Displays behaviors of coordination, encouragement of communicative participation, and sympathetic expression. ³
3	Decision-Making Skill	Makes decisions based on one of two styles: adaptive (“do things better”) or innovative (“do things differently”). ⁴
4	Administrative Skill	“Plans ahead and works in a systematic and organized way. Follows directions and procedures.” ¹
5	Coping Ability	“Adapts and responds well to change. Manages pressure effectively and copes well with setbacks.” ¹
6	Analytical Thinking	“Shows evidence of clear ability to analyze and interpret information. Gets to the heart of complex problems and issues.” ¹
7	Technical Competence	“The ability to assimilate and use technical information.” ⁵ “The ability to use project management tools and methods to carry out projects” ⁶

Note. The following citations are provided: 1 Bartram (2005), 2 Van Dyne et al. (1994), 3 Hatfield & Huseman (1982), 4 Kirton (1976), 5 Miller (1987), 6 Hyväri (2005).

3. Research Methodology

This is the first study to compare the personal attributes of project managers of a government research center and private sector R&D centers in Turkey. Thus, the study of general characteristics of project managers in R&D centers aims to bring a significant impact on the effectiveness in the management of projects. As a summary of the theoretical framework, the model of the study is given below:

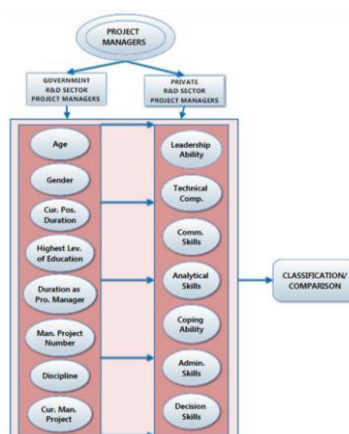


Figure 1. Theoretical Model of the Study

Quantitative and explanatory research methods will be used and sampled among 30 project managers of a government research center and 30 project managers of private sector R&D centers. Thus, a new general idea will be revealed about classification and comparison of PMs using these sampled project managers randomly.

The questionnaire was used as a data collection method. The questionnaire used for this study included two parts: The first part includes the seven project management attributes (108 questions) utilizing one or more scales from varying sources in the literature, and the second part includes general demographic information about the participant project managements (9 questions).

Participant responded to items using 5-point Likert scale (strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree and strongly agree).

3.1. Leadership Ability

There are two scales of leadership ability in the study. The first one of these scales is the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) representation of the Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI) Ambition Scale. This scale measures leadership ability using 10 items (International Personality Item Pool, 2006).

The second scale is the Advocacy Participation Scale developed by Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994) which measures teamwork and citizenship behavior using 7 items in the study. To sum up, 17 items are used to measure leadership skill.

3.2. Communication Skill

Communication skill was measured using 14 items that developed by Hatfield and Huseman (1982).

3.3. Decision-Making Skill

Decision-making skill was measured using 13 items version of the Kirton Adaption-Innovation (KAI) Inventory that developed by Foxall and Hackett (1992). There are three subscales Rule Governance (four items), which measures an individual's propensity to follow rules, Efficiency (4 items), which measures an individual's preference towards attention to detail and the manner in which he or she progresses towards a goal, and Sufficiency of Originality (5 items), which measures the frequency and practicality of new ideas generated by the respondent (Bagozzi and Foxall, 1995).

3.4. Administrative Skill

There are two specific administrative skills that are organizing ability and planning ability. Organizing ability was measured using 12 items and the IPIP representation of a scale developed by Hofstede, de Raad, and Goldberg (1992) which measures an individual's perception. Planning ability was measured using 10 items and another IPIP representation of a scale. The IPIP version of a scale developed by Tellegen (1981) attempts to measure the extent to which an individual plans an activity and follows through on those plans.

3.5. Coping Ability

Coping ability was measured the participant's tolerance for ambiguity using 12 items developed by Norton's (1975) 50-item Measure of Ambiguity Tolerance (MAT-50). There are two subscales in the MAT-50, Personal Philosophy on Ambiguity Tolerance (7 items) and Job-Related Ambiguity Tolerance (5 items). However, there are two subscales created a 9-item coping scale with an internal consistency in the study.

3.6. Analytical Thinking

The analytical thinking was measured using 13 items and the IPIP version of the Reasoning Scale taken from the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF), a brief measure of general mental ability (Conn and Rieke, 1994).

3.7. Technical Competence

Technical competence ability was measured using 17 items adapted from the Wagnor and Morse Sense of Competence Index (Wagnor and Morse, 1975). Factors that were used: the overall sense of competence, task knowledge / problem solving, and confidence.

4. Data Analysis

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

The quantitative analysis below was undertaken using computer software; the SPSS 23.0 package for Windows to get results. The study is designed on demographic variables and characteristics of project manager in government R&D center and private sector R&D centers in Turkey. Thus, profiles of the project managers who participated in the questionnaire were researched to classify project managers as seen Table 3-4.

Classification and Comparison of Characteristics of Project Managers

93.3 % of the 30 surveyed project managers in the state agency are men and 6.7 % are women. The majority of the respondents (73.3 %) is in the 30-40 age range and expertise in electronic (80 %). 70 % of the respondents has a master degree and 23.3 % of respondents has a doctorate degree. Duration as a project manager is mostly in the range of 0-5 years (76.7 %) and managed project number is mostly (86.7 %) in the range of 0-5 project. Surveyed project managers for a large majority (96.7 %) manage currently between 0-3 projects.

73.3 % of the 30 surveyed project managers in the private sectors are men and 26.7 % are women. The majority of the respondents (56.7 %) is under 30 age range and expertise in mechanical (50 %). 63.4 % of the respondents has a graduate degree and 33.3 % of respondents has a bachelor degree. Duration as a project manager is mostly in the range of 0-5 years (76.7 %) and managed project number is mostly (43.3 %) in the range of 0-5 project. Surveyed project managers for a large majority (73.3 %) manage currently between 0-3 projects.

Table 3. Participant Government R&D Sector PM Profile

Age	Frequency	Valid %	Discipline	Frequency	Valid %
30-	1	3.3	Electronic	24	80
30-40	22	73.3	Computer	1	3.3
41-50	5	16.7	Mechanical	3	10
50+	2	6.7	Other	2	6.7
Gender			Duration as PM		
Male	28	93.3	0-5	23	76.7
Female	2	6.7	6-10	5	16.7
Current Position Duration			11-15	1	3.3
0-5	20	66.7	15+	1	3.3
6-10	8	26.7	Managed Project Number		
11-15	1	3.3	0-5	26	86.7
15+	1	3.3	6-10	3	10
Highest Level of Education			15+	1	3.3
Bachelor Deg.	2	6.7	Currently Managing Project		
Graduate Deg.	21	70	0-3	29	96.7
Doctorate	7	23.3	6+	1	3.3

Table 4. Participant Private R&D Sector PM Profile

Age	Frequency	Valid %	Discipline	Frequency	Valid %
30-	17	56.7	Electronic	5	16.7
30-40	9	30	Computer	3	10
41-50	6	13.3	Mechanical	15	50
Gender			Other	7	23.3
Male	22	73.3	Duration as PM		
Female	8	26.7	0-5	23	76.7
Current Position Duration			6-10	4	13.3
0-5	24	80	11-15	3	10
6-10	2	6.7	Managed Project Number		
11-15	2	6.7	0-5	13	43.3
15+	2	6.7	6-10	8	26.7
Highest Level of Education			10-15	5	16.7
Other	1	3.3	15+	4	13.3
Bachelor Deg.	10	33.3	Currently Managing Project		
Graduate Deg.	19	63.3	0-3	22	73.3
			4-6	7	23.3
			6+	1	3.3

4.2. Factor and Reliability Analysis

Factor analysis is used to describe variability among observed, correlated variables. Reliability analysis measures the overall consistency of the items that are used to define a scale. Thus, factor and reliability analysis provides to get usable answers in the questionnaire.

Principal components method was used to find sub-dimensions of the data set in factor analysis, varimax rotation method is used and the factor number is defined depending on eigenvalues (eigenvalues>1). Thus, firstly it is decided to the appropriateness of data set using KMO values then indicated whether adequate relationships between variables using Bartlett test.

Only statistically significant factor loadings are taken into account in the analysis. This level was defined over 0.45 for significant factor loading (Hair et al., 2006: 128) and the minimum value for alpha reliability test was considered 0.6 as seen Table 5-6.

Table 5. Gov. R&D Sector Factor and Reliability Analysis

Feature	Question Number	Eliminated Question Number	KMO Value	Group Number	Group Number as Reliability Result
Leadership Ability	17	7	0.485	4	3
Communication Skills	14	4	0.466	4	3
Decision Skills	13	5	0.479	3	2
Administrative Skills	22	4	0.499	6	4
Coping Ability	12	2	0.510	4	2
Analytical Skills	13	4	0.457	4	1
Technical Competence	17	6	0.687	4	1

Table 6. Private R&D Sector Factor and Reliability Analysis

Feature	Question Number	Eliminated Question Number	KMO Value	Group Number	Group Number as Reliability Result
Leadership Ability	17	6	0.531	4	2
Communication Skills	14	0	0.705	4	3
Decision Skills	13	6	0.498	3	1
Administrative Skills	22	7	0.527	4	3
Coping Ability	12	0	0.453	5	2
Analytical Skills	13	0	0.517	4	2
Technical Competence	17	5	0.566	4	3

4.3. Correlation

Correlations are important to observe relation and relation level between variables in research studies. Thus, correlations between demographic variables and characteristics of project manager in government R&D sector and private R&D sector are researched as seen Table 7-8.

Table 7. Government R&D Sector Correlation

	Age	Gender	Cur. Pos. Dur.	Highest Level of Education	Discipline	Duration as PM	Managed Project Number	Current Managing Project
Leader. Ability	-.062 .746	-.221 .241	-.224 .233	-.059 .755	-.115 .544	-.154 .417	-.185 .328	-.242 .197
Comm. Skills	.196 .299	-.082 .665	-.005 .978	-.233 .215	.155 .414	.162 .391	.032 .865	-.087 .646
Decision Skills	-.063 .739	-.135 .478	.014 .942	-.317 .088	.085 .655	0 1	.051 .790	-.108 .570
Admin. Skills	.053 .780	-.174 .359	-.312 .093	-.008 .968	-.139 .465	-.196 .298	-.038 .841	-.023 .904
Coping Ability	-.003 .988	.129 .496	-.036 .851	-.121 .524	-.028 .883	.100 .600	.139 .463	.017 .929
Analy. Skills	-.544** .002	.107 .575	-.641** 0	.478** .008	.188 .320	-.618** 0	-.504** .005	-.204 .281
Tech. Comp.	.052 .786	-.056 .768	.167 .378	-.195 .302	.299 .109	.026 .890	.152 .424	.084 .657

Table 8. Private R&D Sector Correlation

	Age	Gender	Cur. Pos. Dur.	Highest Level of Education	Discipline	Duration as PM	Managed Project Number	Current Managing Project
Leader. Ability	.117 .539	.201 .287	-.018 .925	.234 .213	.165 .385	.009 .962	.362* .049	.107 .575
Comm. Skills	-.006 .974	.424* .020	-.016 .933	.199 .291	.056 .767	-.079 .678	.145 .445	.087 .649
Decision Skills	-.154 .416	.289 .121	-.201 .286	.091 .631	.220 .244	-.184 .331	.079 .677	-.132 .486
Admin. Skills	.051 .789	.375* .041	.062 .746	.105 .581	.111 .561	.007 .972	.273 .144	-.058 .762
Coping Ability	.038 .844	.184 .330	.124 .513	.061 .749	.302 .104	.107 .575	.256 .172	.094 .622
Analy. Skills	.032 .865	.321 .084	-.140 .462	.222 .239	-.042 .827	-.042 .826	.353 .055	-.008 .967
Tech. Comp.	.092 .628	.475** .008	.043 .822	.175 .356	.232 .217	.101 .595	.404* .027	.271 .148

4.4. T-Test and Anova

T-test and ANOVA are implemented to find a meaningful difference between demographic variables and characteristics of project manager in government R&D sector and private R&D sector. If there is a meaningful difference between demographic variables and characteristics of project manager, this difference level can be interpreted among subtitles of demographic variables.

5. Conclusion and Discussion

In this study, classification of characteristics of project managers of a government research center in Turkey and the general idea were put forth, using a replication of Valencia (2007)'s research model. According to study results;

Classification and Comparison of Characteristics of Project Managers

When demographic variables and characteristics of the project manager are assessed in the state agency, there are negative correlations between analytical thinking ability and age, current position duration, duration as project manager, managed project number at 1% significance level and also, there is positive correlation between analytical thinking ability and highest level of education at 1% significance level.

When demographic variables and characteristics of project manager are assessed in the private company, there are positive correlations between leadership ability-managed project number and technical competence-managed project number at 5% significance level.

In the state agency;

1. There is a meaningful difference between administrative ability and current position duration of participant project managers. Project managers, who are working between 6-10 years at their current position, have the most administrative skills. Others are respectively 0-5, 11-15 and 15+.

2. There is a meaningful difference between coping ability and duration as project manager of participant project managers. Project managers, who are working between 11-15 years as project manager, have the most coping skills. Others are respectively 6-10, 0-5 and 15+.

3. There is a meaningful difference between analytical thinking ability and age of participant project managers. Project managers, who are under 30 years old, have the most analytical thinking ability. There is a meaningful difference between analytical thinking ability and current position duration of participant project managers. Project managers, who are working 0-5 years at current position duration, have the most analytical thinking ability. There is a meaningful difference between analytical thinking ability and duration as project manager of participant project managers. Project managers, who are working 0-5 years as project manager, have the most analytical thinking ability. There is a meaningful difference between analytical thinking ability and the highest level of education of participant project managers. Project managers, who have the doctorate degree, have the most analytical thinking ability. There is a meaningful difference between analytical thinking ability and the managed project number of participant project managers. Project managers, who managed between 0-5 projects, have the most analytical thinking ability. Others are respectively 15+, 6-10.

4. There is a meaningful difference between technical competence and discipline of participant project managers. Project managers, who are mechanical engineers, have the most technical competence. Others are respectively computer, electronic and other disciplines.

In private companies;

1. There is a meaningful difference between communication skill-gender, administrative skill-gender, technical competence-gender of participant project managers. Participant women project managers have more communication skill, administrative skill, and technical competence than men project managers.

2. There is a meaningful difference between analytical thinking ability and the highest level of education of participant project managers. Project managers, who graduated from college, have the most analytical thinking ability. Others are respectively master degree and bachelor degree.

3. There is a meaningful difference between technical competence and managed project number of participant project managers. Project managers, who managed between 11-15 projects, have the most technical competence. Others are respectively 15+, 6-10 and 0-5. There is a meaningful difference between technical competencies of R&D project managers in state agency and private companies. R&D project managers in private companies have more technical competence than R&D project managers in the state agency.

However, the scope of this research study does not cover the success or performance of the project managers. If project managers' success or performance was integrated the study, appropriate project managers would be determined for different R&D centers in addition to this classification. Another limitation is inhomogeneity of project managers of government sector R&D centers in Turkey. In addition to these limitations, if sampling size will be increased, results will be more reliable for the study.

For further research, success and performance of project managers can be integrated into the study asking questionnaire about project managers to all stakeholders of the project. The scope of the study can be widened as different countries or regions.

6. References

- Anantatmula, V. S. (2010). Project manager leadership role in improving project performance. *Engineering Management Journal*, 22(1), 13-22.
- Anderson, S. D., & Tucker, R. L. (1994). Improving project management of design. *Journal of Management in Engineering*, 10(4), 35-44.
- Bartram, D. (2005). The great eight competencies: A criterion-centric approach to validation. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(6), 1185-1203.
- Belout, A., & Gauvreau, C. (2004). Factors influencing project success: the impact of human resource management. *International Journal of Project Management*, 22(1), 1-11.
- Bowenkamp, R. D., & Kleiner, B. H. (1987). How to be a successful project manager. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, 87(3/4), 3-6.
- Brugger, W. E., Gerrits, R. J., & Pruitt, L. L. (2000). Effective project management equals successful military engineering. *Cost Engineering*, 42(11), 33-37.
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Foxall, G. R. (1995). Construct validity and generalizability of the Kirton adaption-innovation inventory. *European Journal of Personality*, 9(3), 185-206.
- Conn, S. R., & Rieke, M. L. (Eds.). (1994). 16PF fifth edition technical manual. Institute for Personality & Ability Testing, Incorporated.
- Crawford, L. (2000). Profiling the competent project manager. Project management research at the turn of the millennium: Proceedings of *PMI Research Conference*, Paris, France.
- Curran, C. S., Niedergassel, B., Picker, S., and Leker, J. (2009). Project leadership skills in cooperative projects. *Management Research News*, 32(5), 458-468.
- Foxall, G. R., & Hackett, Paul M. W. (1992). The factor structure and construct validity of the Kirton Adaption-Innovation inventory. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 13(9), 967-975.
- Geoghegan, L., & Dulewicz, V. (2008). Do project managers' leadership competencies contribute to project success?. *Project Management Journal*, 39(4), 58-67.
- Goodwin, R. S. (1993). Skills required of effective project managers. *Journal of Management in Engineering*, 9(3), 217-226.
- Grant, K. P., Baumgardner, C. R., & Shane, G. S. (1997). The perceived importance of technical competence to project managers in the defense acquisition community. *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management*, 44(1), 12-19.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis* (Vol. 6). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Han-Ping Fung, (2015). Moderating effects of project management experience, project team size, project duration and project value size on the relationship between project manager's leadership roles and project team effectiveness in Malaysia.
- Hauschildt, J., Keim, G., and Medcof, J. W. (2000). Realistic criteria for project manager selection and development. *Project Management Journal*, 31(3), 23-32.
- Hyväri, I. (2006). Project management effectiveness in project-oriented business organizations. *International Journal of Project Management*, 24(3), 216-225.
- Hatfield, J. D., & Huseman, R. C. (1982). Perceptual congruence about communication as related to satisfaction: Moderating effects of individual characteristics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 25(2), 349-358.
- Hofstee, W. K., De Raad, B., & Goldberg, L. R. (1992). Integration of the big five and circumflex approaches to trait structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 63(1), 146.
- Karch, D. M. (2012). Gender-based comparison of project manager leadership behaviors: A quantitative study (Doctoral dissertation, Capella University).
- Kirton, M. (1976). Adaptors and innovators - a description and measure. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 61(5), 622-629.

Classification and Comparison of Characteristics of Project Managers

- Kloppenborg, T. J., Shriberg, A., & Venkatraman, J. (2003). Project leadership. Management Concepts Inc..
- Nixon, P., Harrington, M., & Parker, D. (2012). Leadership performance is significant to project success or failure: a critical analysis. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 61(2), 204-216.
- Norton, R. W. (1975). Measurement of ambiguity tolerance. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 39(6), 607-619.
- Oodusami, K. T. (2002). Perceptions of construction professionals concerning important skills of effective project leaders. *Journal of Management in Engineering*, 18(2), 61- 67.
- Pitts, C. E. (1990, March). *For project managers: An inquiry into the delicate art and science of influencing others*. Project Management Institute.
- Pettersen, N. (1991). *Selecting project managers: an integrated list of predictors*. Project Management Institute.
- Pinto, J. K., & Kharbanda, O. P. (1995). Successful project managers: leading your team to success. Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Prasertwechathon, W. (2000). A study of perception of project manager's attributes towards project manager effectiveness. Graduate School of Business Bangkok Thailand.
- Tellegen, A. (1981). Practicing the two disciplines for relaxation and enlightenment: Comment on Role of the feedback signal in electromyography biofeedback: The relevance of attention" by Qualls and Sheehan.
- Van Dyne, L., Graham, J. W., & Dienesch, R. M. (1994). Organizational citizenship behavior: Construct redefinition, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(4), 765-802.
- Valencia, V. V. (2007). *A project manager's personal attributes as predictors for success Air Force Inst of Tech Wright – Patterson Afb Oh School of Engineering and Management*.
- Wagner, F. R., & Morse, J. J. (1975). *A measure of individual sense of competence*. Psychological reports, 36(2), 451-459.

Appendix A*A1. Government R&D Sector***Table A1.** Government R&D Sector Administrative-Other Demographic Variables Anova

	Levene Statistics	Sig.	ANOVA Sig.	Difference
Administrative-Age	0.990	0.385	0.835	X
Administrative-Current Position Duration	2.279	0.143	0.028	OK
Administrative-Highest Level of Education	0.864	0.433	0.204	X
Administrative-Discipline	0.079	0.924	0.775	X
Administrative-Duration as Project Man.	0.209	0.652	0.473	X
Administrative-Managed Project Number	1.090	0.306	0.975	X
Administrative-Currently Managing Project			0.904	X

Table A2. Government R&D Sector Administrative-Current Position Duration Anova Means

	N	Mean
0-5	20	3.906
6-10	8	3.994
11-15	1	2.979
15+	1	3.333
Total	30	3.879

Table A3. Government R&D Sector Coping-Other Demographic Variables Anova

	Levene Statistics	Sig.	ANOVA Sig.	Difference
Coping Ability-Age	0.850	0.439	0.160	X
Coping Ability-Current Position Dur.	0.179	0.676	0.295	X
Coping Ability-Highest Level of Education	5.224	0.012	0.819	X
Coping Ability-Discipline	0.017	0.983	0.058	X
Coping Ability-Duration as Project Man.	0.057	0.814	0.043	OK
Coping Ability-Managed Project Number	5.102	0.032	0.418	X
Coping Ability-Currently Managing Pro.			0.929	X

Table A4. Government R&D Sector Coping-Duration as Project Manager Anova Means

	N	Mean
0-5	23	3.358
6-10	5	3.750
11-15	1	4.750
15+	1	2.500
Total	30	3.441

Classification and Comparison of Characteristics of Project Managers

Table A5. Gov. R&D Sector Analytical Skills-Other Demographic Variables Anova

	Levene Statistics	Sig.	ANOVA Sig.	Difference
Analytical Skills-Age	1.622	0.217	0.022	OK
Analytical Skills-Current Position Duration	0.059	0.810	0.003	OK
Analytical Skills-Highest Level of Education	0.405	0.671	0.003	OK
Analytical Skills-Discipline	1.352	0.276	0.226	X
Analytical Skills-Duration as Project Man.	0.115	0.738	0.004	OK
Analytical Skills-Managed Project Num.	0.538	0.470	0.000	OK
Analytical Skills-Currently Managing Project			0.281	X

Table A6. Gov. R&D Sector Analytical Skills-Other Demographic Variables Means Which Have Meaningful Difference

Age			Current Position Duration			Duration as Project Manager			Highest Level of Education			Managed Project Number		
	N	Mean		N	Mean		N	Mean		N	Mean		N	Mean
30-	1	4.333				0-5	23	3.913						
30-40	22	3.909	0-5	20	3.983	6-10	5	3.466	Bac.	2	2.333	0-5	26	3.910
41-50	5	3.200	6-10	8	3.416	11-15	1	2.666	Grad.	21	3.761	6-10	3	2.444
50+	2	2.833	11-15	1	3.000	15+	1	2.000	.			15+	1	3.000
Total	30	3.733	15+	1	2.000	Total	30	3.733	Doc.	7	4.047	Total	30	3.733
			Total	30	3.733				Total	30	3.733			

Table A7. Government R&D Sector Tech. Comp.-Other Demographic Variables Anova

	Levene Statistics	Sig.	ANOVA Sig.	Difference
Technical Competence -Age	2.143	0.138	0.344	X
Tech. Comp.-Current Position Duration	0.361	0.553	0.327	X
Tech. Comp.-Highest Level of Education	1.348	0.277	0.412	X
Technical Competence-Discipline	0.089	0.915	0.037	OK
Tech. Comp.-Duration as Project Manager	0.212	0.649	0.971	X
Tech. Comp.-Managed Project Number	0.207	0.653	0.646	X
Tech. Comp.-Currently Managing Project			0.657	X

Table A8. Government R&D Sector Technical Competence-Discipline Anova Means

	N	Mean
Electronic	24	3.216
Computer	1	3.400
Mechanical	3	4.266
Other	2	3.200
Total	30	3.326

A2. Private R&D Sector**Table A9.** Private R&D Sector Communication-Gender T-Test

	N	Mean		Levene Test		T-Test	Difference
Male	22	3.98		F	Sig	X	OK
Female	8	4.39	Equal variances assumed	0.010	0.921	0.020	
			Equal variances not assumed			0.010	

Table A10. Private R&D Sector Administrative-Gender T-Test

	N	Mean		Levene Test		T-Test	Difference
Male	22	3.71		F	Sig	Sig(2)	OK
Female	8	4.07	Equal variances assumed	0.825	0.372	0.041	
			Equal variances not assumed			0.083	

Classification and Comparison of Characteristics of Project Managers

Table A11. Private R&D Sector Analytical Skills-Other Demographic Variables Anova

	Levene Statistic	Sig.	ANOVA Sig.	Difference
Analytical Skills-Age	0.192	0.826	0.983	X
Analytical Skills-Current Position Duration	3.995	0.018	0.773	X
Analytical Skills-Highest Level of Education	0.611	0.441	0.013	OK
Analytical Skills-Discipline	0.260	0.854	0.871	X
Analytical Skills-Duration as Project Man.	3.436	0.047	0.499	X
Analytical Skills-Managed Project Num.	0.514	0.677	0.114	X
Analytical Skills-Currently Managing Pro.	0.011	0.916	0.876	X

Table A12. Private R&D Sector Analytical Skills-Highest Level of Education Anova Means

	N	Mean
Other	1	4.625
Bachelor Deg.	10	3.512
Graduate Deg.	19	3.993
Total	30	3.854

Table A13. Private R&D Sector Technical Competence-Gender T-Test

	N	Mean		Levene's Test		T-Test	Difference
Male	22	3.68		F	Sig	Sig(2)	OK
Female	8	4.18	Equal variances assumed	2.040	0.164	0.008	
			Equal variances not assumed			0.029	

Table A14. Private R&D Sector Technical Comp.-Other Demographic Variables Anova

	Levene Statistics	Sig.	ANOVA Sig.	Difference
Technical Competence-Age	0.007	0.933	0.808	X
Tech. Comp.-Current Position Duration	2.891	0.054	0.929	X
Tech. Comp.-Highest Level of Education	0.189	0.667	0.655	X
Technical Competence-Discipline	8.396	0	0.294	X
Tech. Comp.-Duration as Project Manager	0.822	0.450	0.510	X
Tech. Comp.-Managed Project Number	0.131	0.941	0.040	OK
Tech. Comp.-Currently Managing Project	0.025	0.875	0.344	X

Table A15. Private R&D Sector Tech. Competence-Managed Project Number Anova Means

	N	Mean
0-5	13	3.653
6-10	8	3.703
11-15	5	4.300
15+	4	4.000
Total	30	3.820

A3. T-Test for Differences between Government and Private R&D PMs

Table A16. Technical Competence-Sector T-Test

	N	Mean		Levene's Test		T-Test	Difference
Gov.	30	3.32		F	Sig	Sig(2)	OK
Private	30	3.82	Equal variances assumed	1.555	0.217	0.001	
			Equal variances not assumed			0.001	

A Scientometric Overview Of Corporate Social Responsibility (Csr) (1975-2016)

Murat Esen, Gönül Kaya Özbağ

1. Introduction

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) concept that suggests a cooperation between the public and the business community has attracted considerable interest in recent years by researchers and practitioners. Therefore, the aim of the current study is to analyze and visualize the trend of global scientific activities in the field of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) during a period of roughly 40 years through 1975-2016. The analysis based on the bibliometric evaluation of all publications indexed in the Web of Science (WoS) database including "Corporate Social Responsibility" (CSR) phrase in the title, abstract or key words. The research is carried out through parameters including the types of all publications, distribution in years, the distribution of the authors, countries, organizations, journals and also the collaboration among them.

Bibliometric method makes it possible to determine the relationship among the stakeholders of scientific communication through the analysis of publications according to some particular characteristics. Thus, the dynamics such as authors, institutions, countries, and journals of the publications is turned into analytical units and then the general structure of the related disciplinary and mutual collaborations among them is possible to uncover (Yalçın ve Esen, 2016 s.102). Through this method, researchers employ indicators to establish forecasts and trends of the scientific production in different fields of research (Lazzarotti et al., 2011). The structure of the rest of this article is organized as follows: an overview of the debate on CSR; the methodological procedures adopted to conduct this study; analysis and presentation of the results; and finally suggestions for further research and a conclusion.

2. Theoretical Review

The debate over the social responsibilities of businesses and their managers have been discussed since Howard Rothman Bowen seminal book (1953) "The Social Responsibilities of the Businessman". Bowen argued that businessmen are responsible for the consequences of their decisions in a sphere somewhat wider than corporate financial performance, indicating the existence and importance of corporate social performance (Abe and Ruanglikhitku; 2013; 69). The businessman should be fully accountable not only to his Board of Directors, his stockholders, and the tax collector, but also to workers, consumers, suppliers, the community and the general public" (Bowen, 1953, p. 159).

Similar to Bowen, Davis and Blomstrom also stated that "managers should look beyond their firm's narrow economic and technical interests and consider the effects of his decisions and actions on the whole social system" (1966, p. 12). The critical question to be answered is that how corporations implement CSR that does not conflict with core interest, maximizing profits. Accordingly, Carroll in his 1979 Academy of Management Review (AMR) article successfully suggested three-dimensional conceptual model of CSR that integrates economic and social goals of corporations in a pyramidal description. Carroll's pyramid suggests that social responsibility of business embodied four types of responsibilities, namely economic, legal, ethical and discretionary—later changed in philanthropic. Building on Carroll's CSP model, Wood (1991) proposed "corporate responsibility performance" that is described as 'a business organisation's configuration of the principles of social responsibility, process of social responsiveness, and policies, programmes and observable outcomes as they relate to the firm's societal relationship'. Swanson (1995) criticized Wood's model and suggested that ethical values in decision making processes should be added evidently to the model. He claims that Wood's model can be revised by designing policies according to the normative standards, as well as consideration of organizational culture and managerial decision-making variables.

On the other hand, over the last decade researchers produced enlightening reviews in CSR area that helps to understand the evolution of CSR. For instance, Lockett, Moon and Visser investigate the status of corporate social responsibility (CSR) research within the management literature. They present empirical evidence based on publication and citation analyses of research published from 1992 to 2002 in management journals. The focus of CSR according to the dominant CSR theme of the articles is divided into four groups such as social responsibility, environmental responsibility, business ethics, and stakeholders' management. The results indicate that environmental and ethics is the most popular issues that have been investigated; the empirical research has been overwhelmingly of a quantitative nature; the theoretical research has been primarily non-normative; the field is driven by agendas in the business environment as well as by continuing scientific engagement; and the single most important source of references for CSR articles was the management literature itself. Egri and Ralston (2008) has also investigated the international management journals during the past decade. They categorized these articles into four major CR themes namely corporate social responsibility, environmental responsibility, ethics, and governance.

Furthermore, Taneja et. al, (2011) searched the field of CSR over last five decades (from year the concept CSR appears in discussions to year 2008) to analyze the question of focus, nature and salience of the CSR literature by using three categorical tools; (1) methodological review, (2) paradigmatic shift review, and (3) relational analysis. The relationship analysis has found that there are five major categories of the CSR research: Meaning, Definitions, and Models of CSR; Factors determining CSR Initiatives; CSR in Actions; Impact of CSR on Stakeholders and Financial Performance; and Measurement of CSP. Although results do not indicate any major structural changes in the focus of researches but "What is impact of CSR initiatives on financial/non-financial performance of the companies?" and "How to measure these outcomes of CSR initiatives, i.e., measuring CSP" are the major focus areas of CSR research published in the recent years.

Bakker et al. (2005) also empirically analysed articles containing the words "corporate social responsibility/performance", during a period of 30 years to determine the epistemological evolution of the CSR concept using a bibliometric technique. They distinguished three views: progression, variegation, and normativism in the fields of CSR and added that it is difficult to draw any strong conclusions concerning which of the first two views provides a better description of the actual developments. There is a tendency to build on each other's work, to develop propositions, and to test theories (progressive) but at the same time, new constructs and new linkages are continually being proposed (variegational) (p.312).

It's clear from the literature review that as the field of CSR has evolved, scholars have attempted to summarize the prospect of CSR by analyzing published papers. Although, the cumulative amount of research published is indeed quite significant, this comprehensive scientometric study focuses on multiple aspects such as;

- How many papers are published in relevant to CSR and is their annual output increasing?
- How are publications in relevant to CSR can be classified according to document type?
- How are publications distributed among authors, journals, organizations and countries?
- How many publications are a result of an international collaboration, and which countries, organizations and authors collaborate most?
- Who are the highly cited authors in relevant to CSR in Web of Science (WoS)?
- Which keywords underpin the CSR concept and what is the centrality of these terms?

3. Method and Findings

The aim of this study is to evaluate the literature on the subject of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). The evaluation includes the types of publications made in the field of CSR, distribution over the years, distribution of authors, countries, organizations and journals, and determination of cooperation between them. The research method for this study is the bibliometric method that make it possible to analyze all publications indexed in the Web of Science (WoS) database that include "Corporate Social Responsibility" (CSR) phrase in the title, abstract or key words.

In the implementation of the study, the Web of Science platform was scanned online in the Web of Science Core Collection™ database. All document types published by the year between 1975-2016 in the Science Citation Index Expanded (SCI-EXPANDED), Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), Arts & Humanities Citation Index (A&HCI), Conference Proceedings Citation Index-Science (CPCI-S), Conference Proceedings Citation Index- Social Science & Humanities (CPCI-SSH), Emerging Sources Citation Index (ESCI), including “corporate social responsibility” term in the title, abstract or keywords is downloaded in accordance with the bibliometric analyze. The authors used “corporate social responsibility” as “topic” “to retrieve relative publications and 9614 publications have been reached. After, duplicates were eliminated and other data cleansing procedures were performed the number of publications were decreased to 9443.

Table 1. Types of document

Document Type	n	%
Article	6617	70,07
Proceedings Paper	2003	21,21
Review	362	3,83
Article; Proceedings Paper	237	2,51
Book Review	122	1,29
Editorial Material	66	0,70
Article; Book Chapter	12	0,13
Letter	10	0,11
News Item	4	0,04
Review; Book Chapter	4	0,04
Note	2	0,02
Article; Retracted Publication	1	0,01
Correction	1	0,01
Reprint	1	0,01
Review; Retracted Publication	1	0,01
Total	9443	100,0

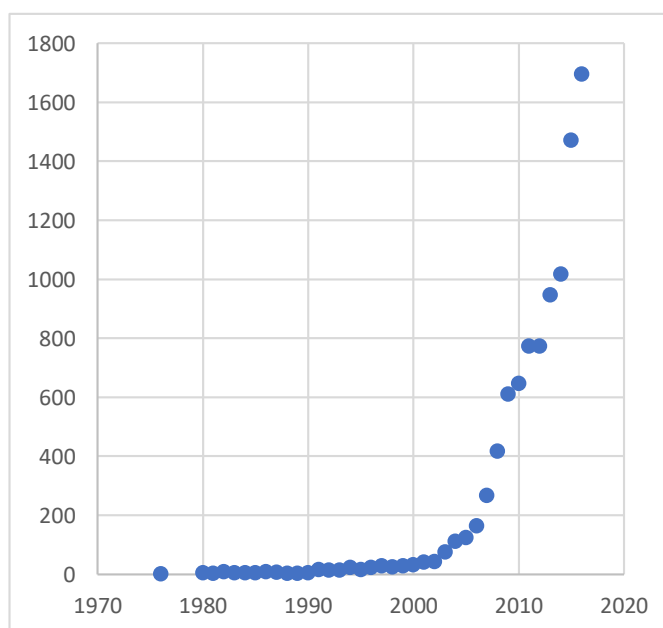
Consequently, a set of bibliographic data concerning publications from 1975 to 2016 appeared. First, publications are classified according to document types (Table 1) by using publication categorization of Web of Science platform. Accordingly, while 70.07% of the publications that have "Corporate Social Responsibility" and "CSR" in the title, summary or key words are published as “article”, 21,21% are published as “proceedings paper”. In other words, the vast majority of csr studies are published as “article” and “proceedings paper”. However, it is found that some studies in the dataset are classified as more than one document type. For example, 2.51% of publications are classified as both “article” and “proceedings paper”. Since each publication has a unique ID number, the set of bibliographic data will not contain duplicates.

Table 2. The number of published articles in five-year periods

Yillar	N	%
1975-1980	5	0,1
1981-1985	24	0,3
1986-1990	25	0,3
1991-1995	80	0,8
1996-2000	135	1,4
2001-2005	394	4,2
2006-2010	2102	22,3
2011-2016	6678	70,7
Total	9443	100,0

Table 2 shows the total number of publications in five-year periods and Figure 1 shows the annual numbers of publications. The results indicate academic interest towards CSR has increased throughout the early 2000s.

Figure 1. Publication by Years



This increased interest is the result of growing awareness of issues such as sustainability, volunteerism, environmental degradation and human rights that are discussed in parallel with the responsibilities of corporations. According to a study of Fortune 500, it is evident that corporations just have realized that they will not be able to sustain in their market in the long run by simply producing products or services. Therefore, nowadays corporations view corporate social responsibility applications not only as a moral imperative but an economic necessity (Klein, 2004).

Descriptive Statistics of Organization, Country and Journals

Within the scope of the research, the authors applied descriptive statistics to determine which countries, journals and organizations have gained the greatest attention of scientific communities in terms of corporate social responsibility. Accordingly, Table 3 shows descriptive statistics concerning journals, Table 4 concerning countries and finally Table 5 concerning organizations.

Table 3. Publication Sources of CSR (Top 25 Sources)

Journal Name	Total	1975-1980	1981-1985	1986-1990	1991-1995	1996-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010	2011-2016
Journal Of Business Ethics	1302	-	4	7	30	45	123	454	108
Journal Of Cleaner Production	213	-	-	-	-	-	2	13	75
Corporate Social Responsibility And Environmental Management	177	-	-	-	-	-	-	49	22
Business & Society	123	-	-	-	-	-	-	25	27
Business Ethics-A European Review	114	-	-	-	-	-	-	30	17
Journal Of Business Research	104	-	-	-	-	1	4	11	29
Business Strategy And The Environment	94	-	-	-	-	-	-	16	14
Public Relations Review	80	-	1	1	2	3	2	25	9
Business Ethics Quarterly	75	-	-	-	-	-	16	13	8
Management Decision	73	-	-	-	-	-	-	27	16

The results indicate that 9443 publications in the dataset were published in 2467 different sources. It's found that, "journals" stands out the most frequently published source type among these sources. In addition, in Table 3, the top 25 journal that have published the largest number of publications can be seen. It's apparent that Journal of Business Ethics is the leading journal with 1302 publications. Respectively, Journal of Cleaner Production (f=213) and Corporate Social Responsibility And Environmental Management (f=177) are the other two journals that dominates the CSP literature.

Table 4. Number of Papers by Country (First 10 Countries)[§]

Countries	f	
USA	3550	Taking into account a geographical distribution of scientific articles, CSR were written by 116 different countries. Among all the countries, U.S. with 3550 publications has achieved the highest number of academic centres. Respectively, UK with 1646 publications and People's Republic China with 1314 publications are the other two leading countries that contribute to the CSP literature.
UK	1646	
Peoples R China	1314	
Spain	957	
Australia	789	
Canada	753	
Germany	490	
Netherlands	486	
France	426	
Italy	411	

Table 5. Regional frame of CSR (TOP 25 Countries)

Country	f
University of Nottingham	86
York University	85
Penn State University	74
University of Michigan	73
University of Amsterdam	72
University of Bath	71
Bucharest University Economy Studies	65
Monash University	59
Harvard University	58
Hong Kong Polytech University	57

As both the academic and business communities have begun to pay more attention to CSR, the number of publications related to CSR have grown. Table 5 lists the most highly ranked universities according to the address information of the publications. Accordingly, University of Nottingham is the first, York University is the second and Penn State University is the third in terms of the number of publications related to CSR.

Analysis of authorship

Descriptive approach may help to identify crucial authors and researchers with a larger number of published articles during a specific period of time.

[§]Because of database indexing error, name of the organization could not be reached in the address lines of some publications and thus the exact number and rate could not be determined.

Tablo 6. Distribution of Authors

Yazar Sayısı	Yayın Sayısı	Toplam Yazar Sayısı
1	2644	2644
2	3337	6674
3	2365	7095
4	781	3124
5	218	1090
6	52	312
7	16	112
8	13	104
9	5	45
10	5	50
11	2	22
14	2	28
16	2	32
41	1	41
Total	9443	21373

A total of 9443 publications in the study's data set was written with the participation of 21373 researchers. Taking into account that some authors contributed to more than one publication, the total number of authors was calculated by summing up the number of authors contributed by each publication. 2644 of these publications were produced as single author, 3337 as two author and 2365 as three authored articles. In the dataset, it has been determined that one article is written by 41 authors.

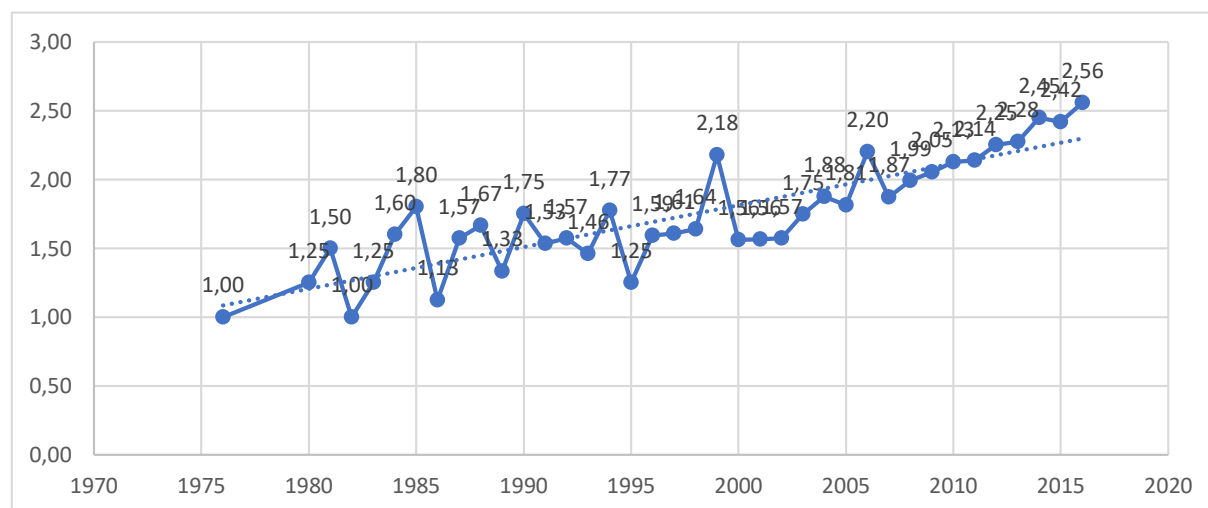
**Figure 2. The Mean of Authors' Numbers of Publications**

Figure 2 illustrates the ratio of authors to the total publications made in the CSR field within a year. In other words, multiple authorship status of CSR publications over the years is shown. The results confirm that there is a certain cooperation between authors in CSR field and also a linear increase in the number of multiple authorship since 2007.

Tablo 7. The most published author (More than 16 publications)

Author's Name	f
Garcia-Sanchez, Isabel-Maria	30
Kolk, Ans	24
Scholtens Bert	22
Moon, Jeremy	22
Palazzo, Guido	21
Lindgreen, Adam	21
Siegel, Donald	20
Perez Andrea	20
Rodriguez del Bosque, Ignacio	20
Jamali, Dima	20
Husted, Bryan W	20
Brammer, Stephen	20
Toppinen, Anne	18
Jo, Hoje	18
Wagner, Marcus	17
Millington, Andrew	17
Perrini, Francesco	17
Bhattacharya, C. B	17
Scherer, Andreas Georg	16
Sen, Sankar	16
Peloza, John	16
Gallego-Alvarez Isabel	16
Darus, Faizah	16
Crane, Andrew	16

Table 8. The most cited author (More than 1000 times cited)

Author's Name	TC
Siegel, Donald	3152
Bhattacharya, C. B	2825
McWilliams Abigail	2379
Sen, Sankar	2200
Matten D	1816
Palazzo, Guido	1753
Kramer MR	1634
Porter ME	1634
Graves SB	1599
Waddock SA	1599
Moon J	1595
Orlitzky M	1585
Maignan I	1534
Scherer AG	1340
Rynes SL	1330
Schmidt FL	1330
Aguilera RV	1309
Klassen RD	1302
Seuring S	1230
Carroll AB	1178
Wood DJ	1155
Fouts PA	1128
Margolis JD	1128
Russo MV	1128
Walsh JP	1128
Ferrell OC	1095
Brammer, Stephen	1077

The author distribution was examined by means of the full count method in order to identify the most productive authors in the field of CSR. While productive authors were ranked, it was determined that the author names were indexed more than once during the indexing (e.g Siegel, Donald; Siegel Donald S; Siegel DS). In addition, it is found that two different authors have the same name with the abbreviation of some authors' names (e.g Moon Junghoon or Moon Jeremy; Moon J.). After making these corrections and author names unique, the most productive author list is shown in Tablo 7. Accordingly, Garcia-Sanchez, Isabel-Maria has high number of publications (30), respectively Kolk, Ans is the second (24) and Scholtens Bert and Moon is the third productive author in the data set.

Tablo 8 lists the names of the most cited authors in CSR data set. It includes the authors who have received 1000 or more than 1000 references to their publications. . Accordingly with 3152 citation Siegel, Donald is the most cited author, respectively with 2815 citation Bhattacharya, C.B is the second and with 2379 citation McWilliams Abigail is the third cited author in the data set. "Corporate social and financial performance: A meta-analysis" written by Orlitzky M; Schmidt, FL; Rynes, SL and published in Organization Studies journal is the most cited article with 1330 citation in the data set.

Findings of Colloborations

Inter-Country Cooperation Analysis, Inter-Organizational Collaboration Analysis, and Co-word Analysis were applied to determine the collaborative pattern of CSR-based studies.

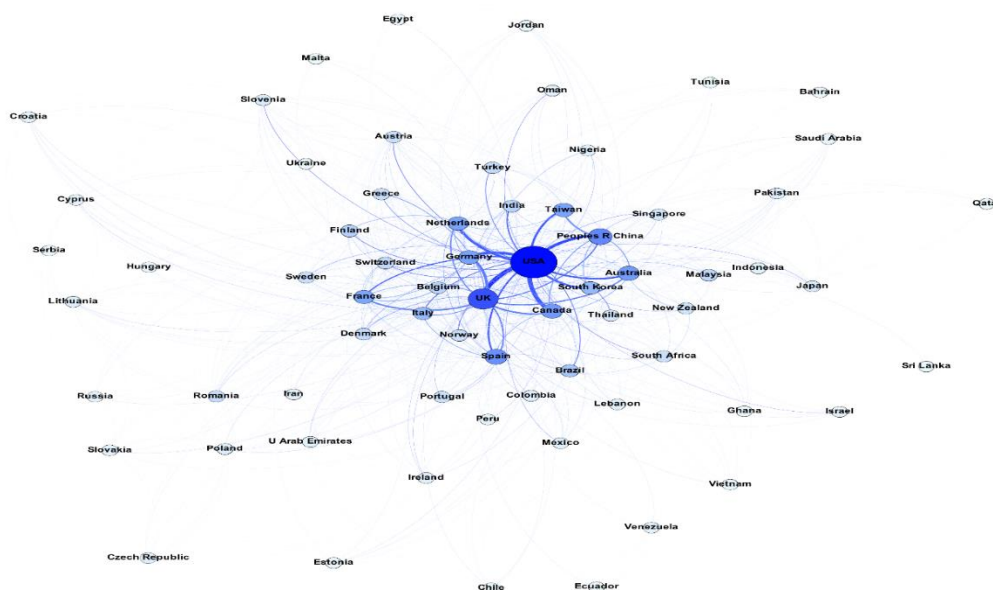


Figure 3. Inter-Country Cooperation Analysis

Countries that have academic cooperation with each other more than 500 times have been selected for visualization of cooperation between countries. According to Inter-Country Cooperation Analysis results illustrated in Figure 3, USA stands in the center of collaborations in the field of CSR. The thickness of the lines showing the ties among countries indicates the intensity of cooperation between the two countries. Accordingly, among the listed the countries UK, PRC, Canada, Netherlands and Germany are the countries that frequently collaborate with USA.

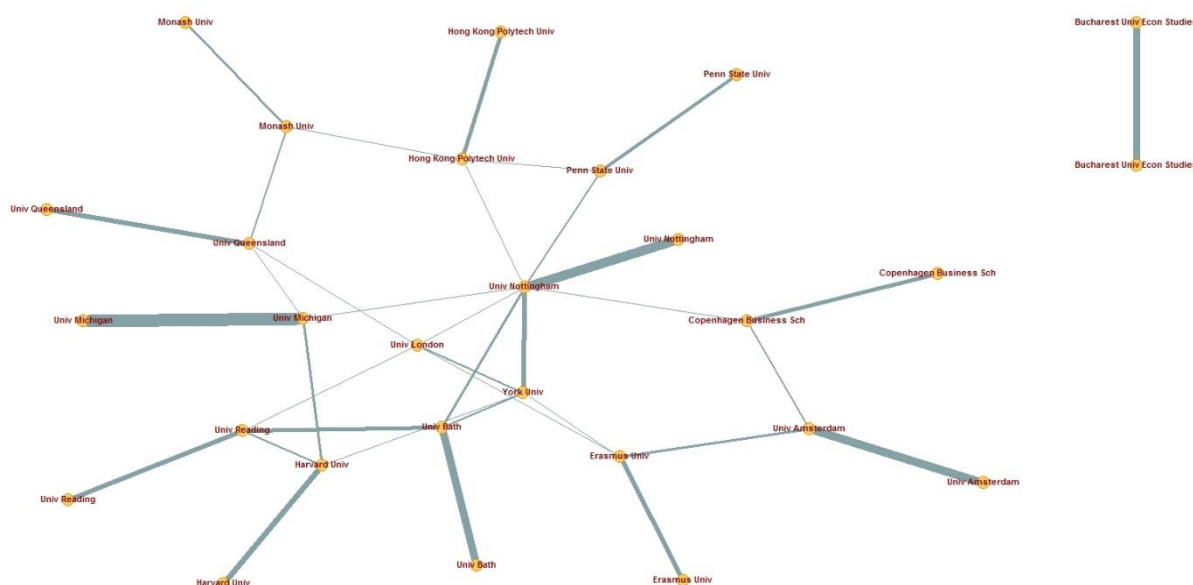


Figure 4. Inter-Organizational Collaboration Analysis

A Scientometric Overview Of Corporate Social Responsibility

Figure 4 shows the results of Inter-Organizational Collaboration Analysis. Organizations that produce at least 500 broadcasts with each other have been preferred in order to obtain a clear visualization of the network. The thickness of the lines indicates the intensity of cooperation between the two organizations. Although the results in Figure 2 that confirm a certain cooperation between authors in CSR field and also a linear increase in the number of multiple authorship since 2007, the results shown in Figure 4 indicates that the authors generally prefer to collaborate among the authors of their own organizations. In addition, all CSR studies of The Bucharest University of Economic Studies are produced by the members of this institution without collaboration.

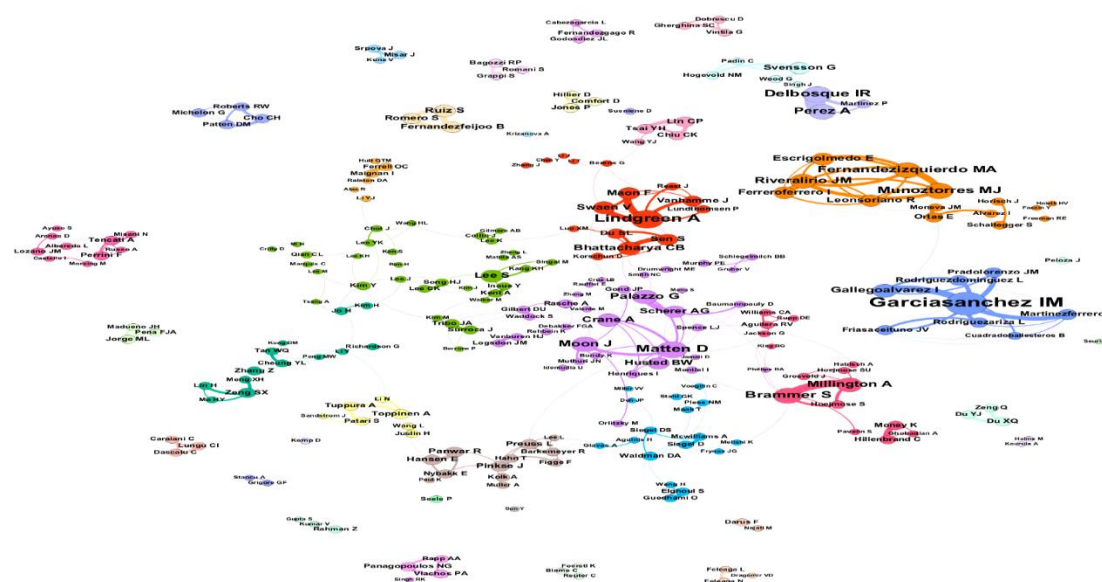


Figure 5. Collaboration network between authors

According to Figure 5 that shows the collaboration network between authors there are many working groups in the field of CSR. Among these Networks, five major academic collaboration networks including the authors such as Garcia Sanchez IM, Brammer S, Lindgreen A and Munoztorres MJ and Matten D is striking.



Figure 6. Co-word Analysis

Figure 6 provides the number of word pairs appearing 100 or more in the CSR dataset. The thickness of the lines connecting the concepts indicates the coexistence frequency of the concept. From this point of view, Sustainable Development, Stakeholders and Sustainability concepts, as well as Corporate Governance, Ethics, Financial Performance, Stakeholder Theory, China and Business Ethics are the focus areas of CSR researches.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

There is a growing interest among scholars in CSR since it is viewed as one of the key drivers of achieving transparent and accountable management as well as sustainable relationship with stakeholders and other environmental dynamics. Therefore, this study aims to visualize the general pattern of CSR studies in the academic world by determining the basic dynamics of studies in terms of country, author, organization and journal. Scientometric method is applied to describe the current state and analyze the trend of global scientific activities in the field CSR based on the all articles published in the Web of Science (WoS) database during a period of roughly 40 years.

The results of the research indicates that multiple authorship appears very common in the field. However, results of collaboration network of countries, organizations and authors clearly refers that academic cooperation dominantly appears among the participants of the same organizations or territory. The other key findings of the study can be summarized as follows:

- The results indicate that the vast majority of CSR studies are published as “article” or “proceedings paper”

- Academic interest towards CSR has increased throughout the early 2000s because of growing awareness about the issues such as sustainability, volunteerism, environmental degradation and human rights that are discussed in parallel with the responsibilities of corporations,

- According to the findings of this study, Journal of Business Ethics is the leading journal in the field of CSR.

- According to Inter-Country Cooperation Analysis results, USA with 3,550 publications stands in the center of collaborations in the field of CSR. UK with 1646 publications and People’s Republic China with 1314 publications is ranked in second and third place, respectively. However, the first two organizations producing the most publications in CSR field are the University of Nottingham and York University, respectively.

- When the distribution of productivity of the authors and citation counts are analyzed it is seen that the ranking becomes different. Although Isabel Maria Garcia-Sanchez seems the most productive author in CSR field, Donald Siegel seems the most cited author. However, when evaluating the citation counts, it should be noted that, factors such as the time when the articles were produced and being the first articles of the field will lead to significant changes.

Although earlier studies already have summarized the status of CSR by analyzing published papers (Taneja et. al, 2011; Egri and Ralston, 2008) this paper extends and complements these findings by using bibliometric methods. Bibliometric methods are no substitute for extensive reading and synthesis but it would be meaningful to use the findings of these type of studies as indicators of productivity, impact and research performance. For instance, it is possible to identify the most productive author in the field which in turn can be used in order to determine expert referees according to the subjects as well as a portfolio of researchers who will be asked to write in special issues.

Consequently, this study analysed the scientific texts about CSR in Web of Science database which is a major limitation. Therefore, future studies should include the other databases such as Scopus, Eric et al. to get the bigger picture of CSR.

References

- Abe Masato and Ruanglikhitku Wanida (2013). Convergence and Coherence in International CSR Instruments: Implications for business in the Asian and Pacific Region, In Ravi Ratnayake Editor & C. (Eds), From corporate social responsibility to corporate sustainability: Moving the agenda forward in Asia and the Pacific, 1-102, *United Nations publication*
- Bowen, H. R. (1953). Social Responsibilities of the Businessman. New York: *Harper & Row*.
- Keith Davis & Robert Blomstrom (1966), Business and its Environment. New York: *McGraw-Hill*.
- Carroll Archie B. (1999). Corporate Social Responsibility: Evolution of a Definitional Construct, *Business & Society*, 38, 268-295.
- Donaldson and Preston, L.E. (1995). The Stakeholder Theory of Corporation: Concepts, Evidence and Implication, *Academy of Management Review*, 20(1), 65.

- De Bakker, G. A., Groenwegen, P., and Den Hond, F. (2005). A Bibliometric Analysis of 30 years of Research and Theory on Corporate Social Responsibility and Corporate Social Performance. *Business & Society*, 44(3), 283–317.
- Egri, C. P., & Ralston, D. A. (2008). Corporate responsibility: A review of international management research from 1998 to 2007. *Journal of International Management*, 14(4), 319–339.
- Klein, Jill G. (2004). Special Session Summary Corporate Social Responsibility: a Consumer Perspective. in NA - Advances in Consumer Research Volume 31, (Eds.) Barbara E. Kahn and Mary Frances Luce, Valdosta, GA : Association for Consumer Research, 101-103.
- S. Prakash Sethi (1975). Dimensions of Corporate Social Performance. *California Management Review (Spring)*, 58-64
- Lockett, A., Moon, J., & Visser, W. (2006). Corporate social responsibility In management research: Focus, nature, salience, and sources of influence, *Journal of Management Studies*, 43(1).
- S.S. Taneja, P.K. Taneja, R.K. Gupta (2011). Researches in corporate social responsibility: A review of shifting focus, paradigms, and methodologies, *Journal of Business Ethics*, 101 (2011), 343-364
- Steurer, R. (2006). Mapping Stakeholder Theory Anew: From a 'Theory of the Firm' to Three Perspectives on Business-Society Relations. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 15/1, 55-69
- Swanson, Diane L. (1995). Addressing a Theoretical Problem by Reorienting the Corporate Social Performance Model, *Academy of Management Review*, 20(1), 43-64.
- Niklas Egels-Zandén. (2010). Distinctions in Descriptive and Instrumental Stakeholder Theory: A Challenge for Empirical Research Business Ethics: A European Review, 19(1) 35-49
- Pritchard, A. (1969). Statistical bibliography or bibliometrics?. *Journal of Documentation*, 25, 348-349.
- Yalçın H., Esen M. (2016). Bilimi Ölçümlemek: Bilimin Metrisi. H.Yalçın, M.Esen, S.Burmaoğlu, M. F. Sorkun (Ed.), *Bilim, Teknoloji ve İnovasyon Çağında Araştırma Üniversitesi Olmak*, Ankara:Pegem Akademi
- Wood D J (1991). Corporate Social Performance Revisited, *Academy of Management Review*, 16(4), 691-718.

With Evaluation of Performances of Selected Transition Economies Overall Transition Indicators

Umut Evlimoğlu, E.Yasemin Bozdağlıoğlu

1. Introduction

In the beginning of the 1990s, the rise of economic problems in countries that adopted the socialist system started a process of transition to the free market-based economic model. In the beginning of the process, in these countries called transition economies there were no market and private ownership; there was a system with a dominant public ownership. The goal of the transition process was the creation of basic free market characteristics and related market institutions. For this transition, reforms in privatization, free competition, foreign trade and exchange system, price liberalization, institutional restructuring and governance must be done. Since these countries differed on characteristics such as geographical conditions, natural resources, population, macroeconomic indicators, their performances in the reform process also showed differences.

In this study, Central and Eastern European countries as transition economies were grouped into three categories and analyzed. The first group, (the last members of the EU); Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, and Slovenia; in the second group (Baltic States); Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania; and the third group (other South Eastern European countries); Albania, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, and Macedonia. For the purpose of observing the development and changes that selected transition countries went through during the transition process, these countries will be evaluated by using Overall Transition Indicators of the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD). Firstly, the transition indicators to be used in the evaluation will be defined and later the countries will be analyzed under these criteria. This will make it possible to observe the performances of these countries since the beginning of the transition process over the years.

2. Evaluation of Countries according to the EBRD's Overall Transition Indicators

Under a general evaluation, Eastern and Central European countries, which adopted the socialist system in later periods, differ from other transition economies. Proximity to developed European countries, early reforms and the potential they had at the beginning of the transition separate these countries from others. The fact that Eastern and Central European countries like Hungary inherited fewer macroeconomic imbalances from the communist system compared to other countries made them more successful in the transition period. Countries like Hungary and Poland had partially free economy and these countries also had some free market institutions. Bulgaria, one of Eastern European countries, was more committed to the commercial system that existed among the socialist countries and the effects of socialist economy were deeper in this country. The Baltic countries like Estonia, Lithuania and Latvia also differ from other countries in the Soviet orbit due to their late participation in the Soviet Union and their close proximity to the West (Dabrowski, 1995: 32).

The EBRD evaluates the progress of countries during the transition period by using a series of transition indicators. These indicators have been used to observe the progress in the reforms performed in transition economies since 1989. Progress is measure by the market economy standards of developed countries. The measurement scale for indicators vary from 1 to 4+. 1 shows a little or no change from the economy with a hard-core plan. 4+ represents the standards of an industrialized market economy. Thus, detailed information is given about transition countries and the development of the transition period is closely monitored and analyzed. Future policy and strategy evaluations are made by making headlines of important topics of the day.

2.1. Large-scale privatization

In the transition economies, improvements in legal and institutional infrastructures were aimed and initiatives for this purpose were made. Despite these countries share a common interest to accelerate the adoption of the market economy and privatization, they however have different results in the

matter of privatization. The countries had some concerns that privatization without institutional infrastructure would lead to the sale of some strategic institutions rather than creating wealth. Another important concern was that rapid privatization would lead to the transfer of wealth to only one group and to the use of this wealth by political institutions and politicians to protect their own wealth and monopoly (Godoy and Stiglitz, 2007: 89).

The first stage in the privatization process is the liberalization of foreign trade and the markets and the withdrawal of the state from the economic areas that it previously dominated or owned. The second stage is the arrangement of the legal and institutional framework and the creation of private and public institutions for an effective market mechanism (Altay, 2002). Companies privatized in Central, Eastern European and the Baltic countries went through a faster restructuring process compared to the institutions owned by the states. The reason for this is that foreign investors transferred their work experiences to these companies (Tandırcıoğlu, 2002: 212).

The description of the scores used in the evaluation according to large scale privatization criteria are as follows:

1. Little private property
2. Comprehensive scheme almost ready for implementation; some sales completed.
3. More than 25 per cent of large-scale enterprise assets in private hands or in the process of being privatised (with the process having reached a stage at which the state has effectively ceded its ownership rights), but possibly with major unresolved issues regarding corporate governance.
4. More than 50 per cent of state-owned enterprise and farm assets in private ownership and significant progress with corporate governance of these enterprises.
5. 4+ Standards and performance typical of advanced industrial economies: more than 75 per cent of enterprise assets in private ownership with effective corporate governance.

Table 1: Status of countries according to large-scale privatization criteria

COUNTRIES	1991	1992	1993	1994	2000	2001	2002	2003	2012	2013	2014
Bulgaria	1,0	1,7	2,0	2,0	3,7	3,7	3,7	3,7	4,0	4,0	4,0
Hungary	2,0	2,0	2,0	3,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0
Poland	2,0	2,0	2,0	3,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Romania	1,7	1,7	2,0	2,0	3,7	3,7	3,7	3,7	3,7	3,7	3,7
Slovakia	1,0	2,0	3,0	3,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Slovenia	1,0	1,0	2,0	2,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0
Estonia	1,0	1,0	2,0	3,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0
Latvia	1,0	2,0	2,0	2,0	3,0	3,0	3,3	3,7	3,7	3,7	3,7
Lithuanian	1,0	2,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,3	3,7	3,7	4,0	4,0	4,0
Albania	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	2,7	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,7	3,7	3,7
Bosnia-Herzegovina	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	2,0	2,3	2,3	2,3	3,0	3,0	3,0
Croatia	1,0	2,0	2,0	2,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,3	3,3	3,7	3,7
Macedonia	1,0	1,0	2,0	2,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,3	3,3	3,3

Source: EBRD (European Bank for Reconstruction and Development), Transition Indicators.

According to the EBRD's large scale privatization criteria (Table 1) countries like Albania, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, and Macedonia that are grouped under other Southern and Eastern European countries seem to show the poorest performances. Throughout the 1990s, among the countries under review, there is none that has passed 3 points according to these criteria. During these years, more than 25 per cent of large scale institutional assets were privatized or in the process of privatization. In this process, the stage where the state effectively transferred its ownership rights was reached,

however, problems of corporate governance, which could be solved, still seemed to exist. The 2000s were the years where all countries leaped forward in the light of large scale privatization criteria. At this points, the countries took solid steps toward privatization of more than 50 per cent of state owned institutional and agricultural assets and toward the progress of these companies' corporate governance. Today countries like Poland and Slovakia are in the process of catching up with the typical standards and performances of advanced industrial countries and have reached effective corporate governance where more than 75 percent of their corporate assets are subject to private property.

2.2. Small-scale privatization

The privatization of the state aims to get rid of the financing of public enterprises and thus to remove the exclusionary effect of the use of the financial resources of the public. The privatization aims to develop the capital market, spread the capital to the base, and thus eliminate the inequalities in income distribution. With small-scale privatizations, small savings owners will be able to control the efficiency of their business. Thus, businesses will be free from political pressure and will have an autonomous structure. In this case, privatization is a policy tool that provides and increases economic efficiency (Özügürü, 2005: 155). The description of the scores used for the evaluation according to the small-scale privatization criteria is shown below.

1 Little progress.

2 Substantial share privatized.

3 Comprehensive program almost completed.

4 Complete privatization of small companies with tradeable ownership rights.

4+ Standards and performance typical of advanced industrial economies: no state ownership of small enterprises; effective tradability of land.

Table 2: Status of countries according to small-scale privatization criteria

COUNTRIES	1991	1992	1993	1994	2000	2001	2002	2003	2012	2013	2014
Bulgaria	1,0	1,0	1,7	2,0	3,7	3,7	3,7	3,7	4,0	4,0	4,0
Hungary	3,0	3,0	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Poland	3,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Romania	1,0	2,0	2,0	2,3	3,7	3,7	3,7	3,7	3,7	3,7	3,7
Slovakia	3,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Slovenia	3,0	3,0	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Estonia	1,0	2,0	3,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Latvia	1,0	2,0	3,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Lithuanian	1,0	2,7	3,3	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Albania	2,0	2,0	3,0	3,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Bosnia-Herzegovina	3,0	2,0	2,0	2,0	2,3	2,7	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0
Croatia	3,0	3,0	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Macedonia	3,0	3,0	3,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0

Source: EBRD (European Bank for Reconstruction and Development), Transition Indicators.

It is clear that the customization methods used will have a direct impact on the efforts to improve the restructuring and efficiency of the enterprises. It is noteworthy that regional countries use different methods in this regard. For example, Bosnia and Herzegovina has used the "voucher" method, often referred to as a privatization check, while Albania, Croatia, Macedonia and Romania have adopted

With Evaluation of Performances of Selected Transition Economies Overall Transition Indicators

Estonia	1,0	2,0	3,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Latvia	1,0	2,0	3,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Lithuanian	1,0	2,7	3,3	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Albania	2,0	2,0	3,0	3,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Bosnia- Herzegovina	3,0	2,0	2,0	2,0	2,3	2,7	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0
Croatia	3,0	3,0	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Macedonia	3,0	3,0	3,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0

Source: EBRD (European Bank for Reconstruction and Development), Transition Indicators.

According to Table 3, Bulgaria, Romania and Bosnia and Herzegovina are the countries with the weakest performances in the period between 1991 and 1994. These countries are at the level of privatized companies with soft budget constraints at the enterprise level with significant share privatized according to the governance and institutional restructuring criteria. Other countries have a comprehensive privatization program and small companies with commercial property rights are fully privatized. When the developments of the countries according to this criteria are examined after 2000, again Bosnia-Herzegovina seems to be the weakest. Although the country has created a comprehensive customization program, it has not yet taken firm steps in implementing it. Other countries have a structure where small-scale enterprises do not have state ownership, and the land can be bought and sold effectively in these countries. These countries are also the countries that have achieved the best governance and restructuring criteria at the same time.

2.4. Price Liberalization

Transitional reforms actually started with price liberalization. The release of the prices is aimed at transferring the resources from the sector with low economic incentive to the sector with high income. Thus, it is thought that the price level will be competitive in the world market. As a result, it has been envisaged that markets will be open to the world, that trade barriers will not exist, competition and consequently productivity will increase (Jantsan, 2013: 28). The main objective of stabilization efforts and structural reforms such as price liberalization in these countries is economic growth. According to the World Bank Development Report (2002), price liberalization should be achieved first in the transition and reform process, and tight monetary and fiscal policies must be applied to combat high inflation.

The description of the scores used for the evaluation according to the price liberalization criterion is shown below.

1 Most prices formally controlled by the government.

2 Some lifting of price administration; state procurement at non-market prices for the majority of product categories.

3 Significant progress on price liberalization, but state procurement at non-market prices remains substantial.

4 Comprehensive price liberalization; state procurement at non-market prices largely phased out; only a small number of administered prices remain.

4+ Standards and performance typical of advanced industrial economies: complete price liberalization with no price control outside housing, transport and natural monopolies.

Table 4: Status of countries according to price liberalization

COUNTRIES	1991	1992	1993	1994	2000	2001	2002	2003	2012	2013	2014
Bulgaria	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Hungary	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Poland	3,7	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Romania	2,7	2,7	3,7	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Slovakia	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Slovenia	3,7	3,7	3,7	2,7	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0
Estonia	2,7	2,7	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Latvia	2,7	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Lithuanian	2,7	2,7	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Albania	1,0	1,0	2,7	3,7	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Bosnia-Herzegovina	3,7	1,0	1,0	1,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,7	4,0	4,0	4,0
Croatia	3,7	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0
Macedonia	3,7	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3

Source: EBRD (European Bank for Reconstruction and Development), Transition Indicators.

At the beginning of the transition period, many transition countries showed significant progress in terms of market liberalization, such as the removal of price controls and the liberalization of exchange rate prices. Removing price controls has allowed relative price adjustments, and the ability to display costs and market demand has become functional.

The result is that prices for producers have become a signalling indicator. Especially in transition economies which have gained EU membership, the market liberalization has been completed successfully. (Sakinç, 2005).

According to the price liberalization criteria, countries showed remarkable progress in the area of price liberalization after 2000. They all reached level 4+. This means that a small number of managed prices have remained, full price liberalization has been achieved except for housing, transportation and natural monopolies. In other reas, price controls have been abolished.

2.5. Trade and Foreign Exchange System

As exchange rates and trade liberalization and the development of legal institutions positively affected foreign investments, transition countries needed to reform in these areas. Because, the success of the reforms in exchange rate and trade liberalization reduces the problems of transition to the market economy (Ballı ve Tekeođlu, 2013:369).

The description of the scores used for the evaluation according to the trade and foreign exchange system criterion is shown below.

- 1** Widespread import and/or export controls or very limited legitimate access to foreign exchange.
- 2** Some liberalisation of import and/or export controls; almost full current account convertibility in principle, but with a foreign exchange regime that is not fully transparent (possibly with multiple exchange rates).
- 3** Removal of almost all quantitative and administrative import and export restrictions; almost full current account convertibility.
- 4** Removal of all quantitative and administrative import and export restrictions (apart from agriculture) and all significant export tariffs; insignificant direct involvement in exports and imports by ministries and state-owned trading companies; no major non-uniformity of customs duties for non-agricultural goods and services; full and current account convertibility.

4+ Standards and performance norms of advanced industrial economies: removal of most tariff barriers; membership in WTO.

Table 5: Status of countries according to Trade and Foreign Exchange System

COUNTRIES	1991	1992	1993	1994	2000	2001	2002	2003	2012	2013	2014
Bulgaria	3,0	3,0	3,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Hungary	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Poland	3,0	3,0	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Romania	1,0	3,0	3,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Slovakia	3,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Slovenia	2,0	2,0	2,0	1,0	1,0	2,7	3,0	3,0	4,0	4,0	4,0
Estonia	2,0	3,0	3,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Latvia	1,0	2,0	3,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Lithuanian	1,0	2,0	3,0	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Albania	1,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Bosnia-Herzegovina	2,0	2,0	2,0	1,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,7	4,0	4,0	4,0
Croatia	3,0	3,0	3,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Macedonia	3,0	3,0	3,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3

Source: EBRD (European Bank for Reconstruction and Development), Transition Indicators.

When Table 5 is examined, countries such as Romania, Lithuania, Latvia and Albania are at the "level of widespread import and / or export controls or very limited legitimate access to foreign exchange" at the beginning of the transition period. Today, they have reached the highest level, "Removing most tariff barriers and membership of the World Trade Organization (WTO)". In terms of overall transition indicators, the criteria that all countries exhibited the highest performance were the "trade and foreign exchange system" criteria.

The "growth in exports" is considered to be an important key in the overall growth process and in the application of a competitive exchange rate. In order to achieve a rapid increase in exports, it is necessary to support a common currency exchange in a competitive environment. This is due to the fact that the real rate determined in the market. The exchange rate regime is also an important part of the stabilization strategy. Albania, Bulgaria, Macedonia, Lithuania, Latvia, Romania and Slovenia have chosen the flexible exchange rate regime while Croatia, Estonia, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia have chosen the fixed exchange rate regime (Williamson, 2004). In the process of liberalizing trade, it is necessary first to reduce the quantity restrictions and replace them with high tariffs, so that some of the government's privileged importers can be protected from sudden shock effects. Tariffs have been reduced gradually. Mechanisms have been established to provide temporary protection of developing industries until they reach the desired level.

2.6. Competition policy

It is accepted that competition which is the most important element of the free market economy will become operative and the efficiency of the resource distribution will be ensured with the use of resources and the efficiency in the economy will increase. In the economies with no competition, monopolies or oligopolies dominate. Within the framework of competition and institutional liberalization (deregulation) conditions, in order to be successful in the market of enterprises, they will reduce costs and prices, thus increasing economic efficiency (Ganmet, 2006:40).

The description of the scores used for the evaluation according to the competition policy criterion is shown below.

1 No competition legislation and institutions.

2 Competition policy legislation and institutions set up; some reduction of entry restrictions or enforcement action on dominant firms.

3 Some enforcement actions to reduce abuse of market power and to promote a competitive environment, including break-ups of dominant conglomerates; substantial reduction of entry restrictions.

4 Significant enforcement actions to reduce abuse of market power and to promote a competitive environment.

4+ Standards and performance typical of advanced industrial economies: effective enforcement of competition policy; unrestricted entry to most markets.

Table 6: Status of countries according to competition policy

COUNTRIES	1991	1992	1993	1994	2000	2001	2002	2003	2012	2013	2014
Bulgaria	3,0	3,0	3,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Hungary	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3	4,3
Poland	2,0	2,0	2,7	2,7	2,7	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,7	3,7	3,7
Romania	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	2,3	2,3	2,3	2,3	3,3	3,3	3,3
Slovakia	2,0	2,0	2,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,7	3,3	3,3
Slovenia	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	2,3	2,3	2,3
Estonia	1,0	1,0	2,0	4,0	2,7	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,7	3,7	3,7
Latvia	1,0	2,0	2,0	2,0	2,3	2,3	2,3	2,7	3,7	3,7	3,7
Lithuanian	1,0	1,0	2,0	2,0	2,7	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,7	3,7	3,7
Albania	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,7	1,7	1,7	1,7	2,3	2,3	2,3
Bosnia-Herzegovina	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	2,3	2,3	2,3
Croatia	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	2,3	2,3	2,3	2,3	3,0	3,0	3,0
Macedonia	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	2,0	2,0	2,0	2,0	2,7	2,7	2,7

Source: EBRD (European Bank for Reconstruction and Development), Transition Indicators.

Another important condition for the free market mechanism and economic efficiency is the existence of competition and full information about the market. In economies where markets are not competitive and lack information where people are unaware of the ideology of market economy, liberalization, deregulation and privatization do not yield successful results in the formation of an effective and competitive market (Sakinç, 2005). According to this criterion, the countries with the worst competitive policy score between 1991-1994 are Romania, Slovenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina. There is no infrastructure for competition policy in these countries. The countries with the best performances over the same years are Bulgaria, Hungary and Estonia. This means that the competitive environment works well in these countries and is not an obstacle to entry and exit of the markets. According to this criterion, although the best performance in recent years has been shown in Bulgaria and Hungary, many countries can not show the success they have in other criteria.

3. Discussion, Conclusion and Evaluations

Success of reforms in transition economies making free market choice depend on the country's ability to reform, its geographical proximity to developed countries, and its initial conditions. Countries were assessed using the "Overall Transition Indicators" of the European Bank for Reconstruction and

Development (EBRD) in order to monitor developments and changes in selected transition economies during the transition period. Thus, it is possible to trace the performances of the countries which have been shown since the transition period.

- According to the EBRD's large-scale privatization criteria (Table 9), countries such as Albania, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia and Macedonia, grouped under the heading of other Southern and Eastern European countries between 1991-1994, appear to perform the most unsuccessfully. During the 1990s, according to this criteria, there is no country that can score 3 points among the countries studied. In countries, more than 25 percent of large-scale institutional assets are privatized or in the process of privatization. In this process, the state has effectively reached the stage of transferring ownership rights, but at the same time, the problems of corporate governance that can be solved are puzzling. The 2000s have been years of rapid development across all countries in the direction of the large-scale privatization criterion. In other words, countries have taken strong steps to ensure that more than 50 per cent of the state institutional and agricultural assets are subject to private property and that significant progress is made in the corporate governance of these enterprises. Countries such as Slovakia and Poland have even reached the stage of catching up with the typical standards and performances of developed industrial economies, achieving an effective corporate governance where more than 75% of institutional assets are subject to private property.

- According to the small-scale privatization criterion, the countries with the weakest performances between 1991 and 1994 are Bulgaria, Romania, Albania and Bosnia-Herzegovina. This means that a significant proportion of the small enterprises in the country are privatized and the countries are about to complete a comprehensive program. In general, it can be said that all countries subject to review show significant progress on the basis of small-scale privatization criterion after 2000. Except for Bosnia and Herzegovina, other countries according to the small business criterion showed the top improvement and turned into countries that were completely privatized and had small enterprises with no state ownership and land can be effectively bought and sold".

- Bulgaria, Romania and Bosnia and Herzegovina are the countries with the weakest performance in terms of governance and institutional restructuring in the period 1991-1994. When the developments of the countries according to this criterion are examined after 2000, again Bosnia-Herzegovina seems to be the weakest. Although the country has created a comprehensive privatization program, it has not yet taken firm steps to pass on the program. Other countries have a structure where small-scale enterprises do not have state ownership, and the land can be bought and sold effectively in these countries. These countries are also the countries that have best regarded the governance and restructuring criterion at the same time.

- According to the price liberalization criterion, countries show remarkable progress in the area of price liberalization after 2000. At a non-market price, the state contract is largely phased and there is a low price structure managed and a situation in which there is no full price liberalization and price controls other than housing, transporting and natural monopolies.

- Albania, Bulgaria, Macedonia, Lithuania, Latvia, Romania and Slovenia have chosen the flexible exchange rate regime while Croatia, Estonia, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia have chosen the fixed exchange rate regime. In the process of liberalizing trade, it is necessary to first reduce the quantity restrictions and replace them with high tariffs, so that some of the government's privileged importers can be protected from sudden shock effects. At this point, the tariffs need to be gradually reduced over time. This criterion is the criterion that all of the countries in question have reached the highest score.

- According to the competition policy criterion, the countries with the worst competitive policy score in the period 1991-1994 are Romania, Slovenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina. There is no infrastructure for competition policy in these countries. The countries with the best performances over the same years are Bulgaria, Hungary and Estonia. This means that the competition environment works well in these countries and it is not an obstacle to entry and exit of the markets. Many countries fail to demonstrate the success they have shown in other criteria.

As a result, countries that are disadvantaged in terms of initial conditions are behind when the transitional period of the EBRD according to the General Transitional Criteria is finally compared to

other countries. When assessed in terms of their overall economic performance, Southern and Eastern European countries have a better performance at the end of the transitional period than other countries.

4.References

- Altay, Asuman, (2002). “Geçiş Ekonomilerinde Devletin Ekonomik Roller, Görevleri ve KOBİ’lerin Durumu”, İ.Ü İktisat Fakültesi Maliye Araştırma Merkezi Konferansları, 59-87.
- Ballı, Esra ve Tekeođlu, Muammer (2013). “Geçiş Süreci Rusya ve Ukrayna Örneđi”, International Conference On Eurasian Economies, 365-371.
- Dabrowski. Marek (1995). “Different Strategies of Transition to a Market Economy: How Do They Work inPractice?, Policy Research Working Paper No: 1579, The World Bank, Policy Research Department, Washington D.C.
- EBRD (European Bank for Reconstruction and Development), Transition Indicators.
- Ganmet, Devaahuu, (2006). Geçiş Ekonomilerinde Özelleştirme Uygulamaları ve Deđerlendirilmesi, Ankara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Ankara.
- IMF (2000). World Economic Outlook.
- Jantsan, Solongo, (2013). Geçiş ekonomilerinde Reform Sürecinin Deđerlendirilmesi, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Hacettepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Üniversitesi, İktisat Anabilim Dalı, Ankara.
- Godoy, Sergio ve Stiglitz, Joseph E., (2007). “**Growth, Initial Conditions, Law and Speed of Privatization in Transition Countries: 11 Years Later**”, in Estrin, S., Kolodko, G.W. and Uvalic, M. (eds), **Transition and Beyond**, Palgrave Macmillan: Newyork.
- Karagöz, Hakan,(2009). “Dünya’da ve Türkiye’de Özelleştirme Uygulamaları”, Konya Ticaret Odası, Etüt Merkezi: Konya.
- Kaufman, Daniel, Aart, Kraay and Massimo, Mastruzzi (2009). “Governance Matters VIII: Aggregate and Individual Governance Indicators 1996–2008”, The World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No: 4978.
- Özüođurlu, Yasemin Hilmiye, 2004. “Eski Merkezi Planlı Ekonomilerde Özelleştirme: Rusya Örneđi”, Yönetim Bilimleri Dergisi, 2(2), 149-160.
- Sakınç, Süreyya (2005) **Geçiş Ekonomileri ve Orta Asya Türk Cumhuriyetlerinde Ekonomik Reformlar**, Emek Matbaacılık ve Yayıncılık: Manisa.
- Tandırcıođlu, Haluk (2002) “Geçiş Ekonomilerinde Özelleştirme”, Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, Cilt:4, Sayı:3, 198-226.
- Williamson, John, (2004). The Washington Consensus as Policy Prescription for Development,(Erişim Tarihi:21.10.2016, www.piie.com/publications/papers/williamson_0204.pdf2004).
- World Bank (2002). “Transition-The First Ten Years: Analysis and Lesson or Eastern Europe and the Former Soviet Union”, Washington D.C.

Revisoning Evidence-based Management: Developing Propositions Towards Rapprochement of Concept and Criticism

Severin Hornung, Denise M. Rousseau

1. Introduction

Evidence-based management (EBMgt) has established itself within the last 10-15 years as an influential movement in management and organizational science and related fields (e.g., Briner & Rousseau, 2011; Rousseau, Manning, & Denyer, 2008; Rousseau & Barends, 2011). Similar to evidence-based practice approaches in disciplines, such as education, health care, social work, psychology, or public policy, EBMgt seeks to improve the quality of organizational decision-making through a more systematic use of available information, in particular, taking into account the implications of the cumulative body of relevant research evidence, organizational data, professional expertise and stakeholder perspectives (e.g., Briner, Denyer, & Rousseau, 2009). EBMgt is part of a broader cross-disciplinary effort to improve professional decisions and practices, based on scientific evidence and methods, inspired by and heavily drawing on the “success story” of evidence-based medicine as a role model (e.g., Sackett, & Rosenberg, 1995; Straus, & McAlister, 2000). Paralleling earlier developments in the medical field, EBMgt is motivated by widespread examples of mismanagement and adoption of management practices in defiance or neglect of insights from social science and organizational research (cf., Claridge, & Fabian, 2005). As such, EBMgt encourages critical thinking and skepticism regarding the basic foundations of many contemporary management practices, calling attention to the lack of knowledge transfer from management research and education to how organizations are actually run (e.g., Rousseau & McCarthy, 2007). On the other hand, EBMgt has been criticized as being way uncritical regarding the particular perspective and interests of “management” and those represented by it (e.g., corporations, investors, employers), thus neglecting or undermining widely shared social and societal interests (e.g., workers, citizens, public goods). In particular, EBMgt has been met with vocal resistance by academics identified with critical management studies (CMS), decrying the political motivations and scientific hegemony of the pro-management mainstream (e.g., Learmonth, 2008, 2009; Morrell, 2008; 2012). From their perspective, EBMgt is an ideological project to further promote and “naturalize” the particular societal interests represented by the function of management, at the same time marginalizing alternative theoretical perspectives and qualitative or interpretative methods, often employed by critical and non-mainstream research. This essay calls attention to this ongoing academic debate, and in doing so outlines central controversies and develops propositions in order to advance EBMgt by constructively responding to the criticism formulated by CMS scholars. Arguments and recommendations developed here are based largely on the analysis of the content and chronology of the published literature on EBMgt, including relevant criticisms.

An early milestone in the development and increasing popularity of EBMgt was the publication of Pfeffer and Sutton’s (2006) book, cleverly entitled “Hard facts, dangerous half-truths and total nonsense: Profiting from evidence-based management.” As indicated by the title, the authors pursue the dual goal of: a) Debunking widely held management myths that defy academic consensus, critical thinking, and/or common sense; and b) Promoting a more evidence-based approach to management, which they broadly describe as being routinely guided by the best logic and evidence; seeking new information from both inside and outside organizations; while continually updating assumptions, knowledge, and skills (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2006). In the same year, in her address as outgoing president of the Academy of Management, Denise Rousseau (2006a, 256) formulated her vision of EBMgt as a way of “... translating principles based on best evidence into organizational practices ... [such that] ... managers develop into experts who make organizational decisions informed by social science and organizational research.” The ensuing controversy about the ideological and epistemological foundations of organizational research will be dealt with in more detail below. About six years later,

another important milestone was the publication of the *Oxford Handbook of Evidence-based Management* edited by Rousseau (2012), the product of an interdisciplinary collaborative of scholars and practitioners, meeting over the preceding two years to discuss, develop, and document the concept and practice of EBMgt. The *Handbook* contained two chapters on criticisms of EBMgt, one of which attempted to summarize and “translate” the emerging fundamental ideological and epistemological critique by CMS scholars into a vehicle to strengthen and elaborate the conceptual basis of EBMgt (Hornung, 2012). However, to this day, few if any attempts have been made to more systematically examine, let alone reconcile or integrate the opposing positions of EBMgt and CMS (Morrell, Learmonth, & Heracleous, 2015; Visser, 2010). More recent milestones, contributions by Rousseau and Gunia (2016) and Rynes and Bartunek (2017), document developments and the current state of evidence-based practice in psychology and EBMgt. Drawing on these and other materials, the present essay extends efforts to identify, elaborate, and possibly address some of the issues of paradigmatic disagreement between EBMgt and CMS.

In what follows, we first introduce the concept of EBMgt is introduced, including strategies to evaluate, aggregate, and synthesize research results, and suggestions to improve knowledge transfer between management research, education, and practice. Next, fundamental criticisms are reviewed that maintain EBMgt is a political agenda to advance managerialist interests and mainstream research, while marginalizing alternative perspectives and methodologies. Drawing on theorizing in the philosophy of science, increased attention to the different epistemological and ideological paradigms underlying EBMgt and CMS is commended as a means of better understanding and resolving these opposing positions. Based on our analysis of the academic dispute between proponents of EBMgt and CMS, propositions will be developed on how to address at least some of these controversies. This will include suggestions for providing a more balanced evaluation and integration of different types of research, accounting for conflicting interests, political forces, and societal power imbalances, and emphasizing ethical and value-based considerations in generating and making use of research evidence.

2. Concept: Improving Organizational Decisions

As thinking has developed on EBMgt, a number of different definitions of the concept have been suggested – for an overview, see Rynes and Bartunek (2017). Drawing on the works of Briner, Denyer, and Rousseau (2009) and Barends, Rousseau, and Briner (2014), an integrated definition conceptualizes EBMgt as a practice that supports better organizational decision-making through the conscientious, explicit, and judicious use of the best available evidence from multiple sources and based on systematic processes. Initially, Briner et al. (2009) described four sources of evidence, specifically, a) science, b) organization, c) practitioners, and d) stakeholders. The central focus of EBMgt, tapping the domain of *science* as an action-guiding source of evidence, involves the use of tried and well-tested scientific principles and interventions, based on cumulative research regarding their efficacy (e.g., meta-analyses and systematic reviews). Second, systematically gathering, analyzing, and interpreting local organizational facts, such as human resource metrics (e.g., absenteeism, turnover), was advised to make better use of the *organization* itself as an important source of evidence. Third, improving knowledge and judgment of decision-makers through critical thinking and decision supports (e.g., heuristics, checklists) was advocated as a way to develop *practitioner expertise* as a more reliable source of evidence. Finally, *stakeholders* are considered a source of evidence, in the sense that the effects of a given decision on those possibly affected by its outcomes need to be taken into account and evaluated according to ethical and value-based considerations. Focusing on the processes of systemically gathering, integrating, and using the evidence, Barends et al. (2014) suggested the following six steps as characteristic features of an evidence-based approach: (1) *Asking*: Translating problem into an answerable question; (2) *Acquiring*: Systematically searching and retrieving evidence; (3) *Appraising*: Critically judging trustworthiness and relevance; (4) *Aggregating*: Weighing and pulling together the evidence; (5) *Applying*: Incorporating the evidence into the decision-making process; (6) *Assessing*: Evaluating the outcome of the decision.

Integrating these steps with the distinguished sources of evidence results in what might be called a “cybernetic management cycle” of evidence-based practice. However, while not all elements in the matrix of sources and steps have yet received equal attention (e.g., stakeholder interests in management decision-making), the emphasis on EBMgt has been the dissemination and uptake of the best available research evidence. This refers to meta-analytic aggregation, integration, and synthesis of ideally large numbers of data sets, allowing more reliable inferences than individual studies, hampered by capitalization on chance or context-specific effects (e.g., Tranfield, Denyer, & Smart, 2003; Rousseau et al., 2008). In evaluating the quality of scientific evidence EBMgt is oriented towards a “hierarchy of evidence” from the medical field, assigning the highest value to (quasi-) experimental methods, such as randomized trial-control studies and other quantitative approaches, such as meta-analyses, whereas qualitative research is typically considered less convincing or lower-level evidence. Despite attempts to adapt clinical standards to better correspond with the methodological plurality of management and organizational research (e.g., Briner et al., 2009), it seems at least arguable that a bias towards large-sample quantitative methods and sophisticated designs emulating the natural sciences remains inherent in the concept of EBMgt.

3. Controversies: Analysis of Academic Debates

The momentum gained by EBMgt is evident in the growing number of journal articles, special journal issues, books, and book chapters dedicated to the topic. Rynes and Bartunek (2017) recently conducted a systematic review of the literature, presenting a pool of 134 articles explicitly on EBMgt published between 1999 and 2016 in English language journals. Their content was categorized as follows: 21% empirical; 19% critiques / responses; 17% essays / perspectives; 16% introductory / advocacy; 14% teaching-related; 6% reviews; 5% how-to; and 2% other. Strikingly, criticisms of EBMgt and responses to these make up the second largest category, comprising almost a fifth of the included articles. As such, this essay conducts a closer examination of the underlying academic controversies, including attempts to distinguish and define distinct debates, based on the type and topics of disagreement, critique, or contention. Most notably, in response to Rousseau’s (2006a) presidential address, Learmonth (2006) started a fundamental ideological and epistemological debate. From the perspective of CMS, EBMgt is portrayed as political agenda to advance managerial interests and mainstream research, suppressing critical schools of thought and alternative methodological approaches (see also: Learmonth, & Harding, 2006; Learmonth, 2008). The direct reply to these criticisms by Rousseau (2006b) can be taken as a first example of the different language and arguments used by these two discussants – as discussed below, an illustration of the fundamentally different paradigms informing the two sides. Drawing on arguments from systems theory, Kieser and Leiner (2009) initiated a separate debate focusing on the theoretical and practical feasibility of EBMgt. A direct response was authored by Rousseau and Hodginson (2009) and indeed a subsequent work by Kieser, Nicolai, and Seidl (2015) strikes a more pragmatic and conciliatory note, suggesting that initially fundamental theoretical concerns appear to have been resolved. Further, an essay by Reay, Berta, and Kohn (2009) opened up a more “domestic” debate (i.e., based on a shared paradigm), regarding the available evidence (or, lack thereof) on the efficacy of EBMgt in achieving desirable outcomes compared to alternative approaches. Briner et al. (2009) responded with an influential piece clarifying the broader meaning and concept of EBMgt as well as acknowledging the need for more empirical research on the implementation and implications of EBMgt in practice. Aside from conceptual and technical issues in improving knowledge transfer among management research, education, and practice, the Briner et al. (2009) article contains concessions in response to critics, in particular, a pledge that EBMgt seeks to not exclude or discriminate against qualitative research designs and reiterating the inclusion of stakeholder concerns and ethical considerations as an additional source of evidence. Yet, even more moderate critics have judged this commitment to ethical principles and consideration of the interests of all stakeholders to be vague and not fully convincing (Hornung, 2012; McCormick, 2010). Their concerns are linked to the radical ideological and epistemological debate upon which opposition to EBMgt is based, a debate that has intensified rather than subsided among critical management scholars, effectively positioning EBMgt and CMS as antagonistic or opposing movements (e.g., Learmonth, Lockett, & Dowd, 2012;

Morrell & Learmonth, 2015). Informed by works of the influential philosopher of science Thomas Kuhn (1962), this animated and, at times, polemic or personal dispute can be viewed as an exemplary manifestation of the “incommensurate” methodological and ideological paradigms that ground these two academic movements (cf., Friman, Allen, Kerwin, & Larzelere, 1993; Vanherweghem, 2004; Visser, 2010). Accordingly, we developed the working hypothesis that attention to the different ideological, methodological, and epistemological assumptions underlying EBMgt and CMS is essential in order to develop a better understanding of the controversy and for finding any rapprochement between their positions.

4. Criticism: Advancing Particular Interests

For a better understanding of the criticism of EBMgt, it is useful to take a closer look at the foundations of CMS (e.g., Alvesson, Bridgman, & Willmott, 2009; Adler, Forbes, & Willmott, 2007; Hassard, Hogan, & Rowlinson, 2001). Similar to EBMgt, CMS understands itself as a movement that challenges the prevailing understanding of management and organizations. However, in contrast to the type of critical thinking that is associated with scientific process and rationality as facilitated by EBMgt, CMS advocates and adopts non-mainstream positions, based on radically critical thinking and theory. Partly the result of an increasing number of sociologists and other social scientists in the UK migrating to business schools in the 90's in the aftermath of a neoliberal restructuring of the academic landscape, CMS, which traditionally has held a tenuous position among business-related disciplines, has slowly managed to become increasingly accepted as a legitimate school of thought within the last two decades (e.g., Adler et al., 2007). Although CMS comprises a broad interdisciplinary and heterogeneous portfolio of different theoretical and methodological approaches, some common denominators or shared features have emerged. Consistent with the influential definition by Alvesson (2008), CMS is concerned with the critical questioning of dominant, harmful, and under-challenged *ideologies, institutions, interests, and identities* (by means of negation, deconstruction, re-voicing or de-familiarization) with the aim of inspiring social reform in the presumed interest of the majority and/or those non-privileged, as well as resistance to and/or emancipation from those limiting influences (cf., Alvesson et al., 2009).

Earlier, Fournier and Grey (2000) suggested that denaturalization, reflexivity, and non-performativity constitute the three most important characterizing features of CMS. Somewhat similar to deconstruction, denaturalization implies a perspective change towards a new and deeper understanding of examined social structures and processes, beyond the “conventional wisdom” of mainstream interpretations, which (in this view) are distorted by status-quo-oriented system-justifying ideologies that tend to obscure and naturalize societal phenomena (e.g., power-dependence relationships, social inequality). An important analytical tool in this context is reflexivity, which means directing attention to the underlying social and historical context, conditions, and developments, including the researchers' own epistemological and ideological assumptions, traditions, and potential biases or “blind spots”. Finally, non-performativity means explicitly rejecting the economic imperative of utilizing humans, according to means-ends calculations. Adler et al. (2007, 121) emphasize this point in suggesting that “prevailing structures of domination produce a systemic corrosion of moral responsibility when any concern for people or for the environment requires justification in terms of its contribution to profitable growth.” Spicer, Alvesson, and Kärreman (2009), however, have argued that, instead of being non- or anti-performative, CMS needs to develop a better concept of critical performativity, in which humanistic and mainstream instrumental goals are contrasted (e.g., resistance, solidarity, and micro-emancipations vs. leadership, motivation, learning, and job performance). In any case, there is an inherent tension between these critical positions and the self-proclaimed mission of EBMgt to improve organizational decisions, among others, by synthesizing the full spectrum of practically relevant research.

Based on the above review, the radical critique of EBMgt formulated by CMS scholars, such as Learmonth, Morrell, and colleagues (Learmonth, 2008, 2009; Learmonth & Harding, 2006; Morrell, 2008, 2012; Morrell, & Learmonth, 2015) can be summarized into three interrelated and partly overlapping issues of paradigmatic disagreement, related to epistemological-methodological, ideological-theoretical, and political-professional disputes. *Epistemological-methodological* differences

predominantly relate to disputes regarding what constitutes legitimate and reliable “evidence” in management and organizational science. CMS contrast its own orientation towards interpretative, qualitative, and unorthodox research approaches against EBMgt, which is seen as influenced by scientific positivism and favoring the quantitative methodology of mainstream research, *Ideological-theoretical* disagreements refer to clashing worldviews and diverging perspectives on the nature of work and employment; for instance, this includes different assumptions and theorizing on the extent of convergence vs. conflict of interest in industrial relations, differential emphasis on employer- vs. employee-oriented outcomes (e.g., performance vs. personal development), acceptance vs. rejection of the dominance of economic goals, etc. Finally, *political-professional* issues arise from the perception of EBMgt as an instrument to justify or “rationalize” managerial-capitalist interests and to delegitimize and marginalize opposing views and intellectual traditions (Learmonth, 2008, 2009). This affects occupational politics, such as reduced opportunities for funding, training, employment, and careers for critical researchers not abiding by the principles of EBMgt, as well as broader concerns regarding societal cooptation and conformity. These reservations are summarized by Grey (1996, 601), cautioning that “[t]he ideological nature of management is obscured by the way in which it appears to be based upon objective knowledge independent of political or social interests and moral considerations.”

5. Contrast: Paradigms of EBMgt and CMS

Underlying the radical disagreement between EBMgt and CMS as well as the apparent inability of these two streams to constructively communicate with each other are different sets of fundamental assumptions, not only regarding the function and evaluation of “management” as the subject of investigation, but also concerning the theories, concepts, methods, and process of scientific inquiry (e.g., Visser, 2010). Taken together, these deep-seated and mostly unquestioned convictions lead to very different beliefs about what constitutes a legitimate and meaningful contribution in management and organizational research (e.g., Learmonth, 2009; Learmonth et al., 2012; Morrell, 2008). As characterized by Kuhn (1962), such fundamentally differing worldviews and methodological approaches indicate incommensurate or incompatible paradigms (e.g., Vanherweghem, 2004). A research paradigm can be described as the framework or overarching model of concepts, standards, and accepted results, that subsequent work draws on and contributes to. More broadly, a scientific paradigm encompasses the “universe” that a group of researchers operate in, refer to, and, through their work, continuously validate, replicate, and elaborate (e.g., Friman et al., 1993).

In the case of EBMgt, the underlying research paradigm integrates established theories from disciplines, such as psychology, sociology, business administration, and economics. CMS predominantly draws on “fringe” theories that are underrepresented in the scientific mainstream, such as Marxism, Frankfurt School of Critical Theory, discourse theory, feminism, deconstructivism etc. (e.g., Adler et al., 2007; Visser, 2010). Following a general trend in many disciplines, EBMgt often focuses on cause and effect relationships and is characterized by an orientation towards the methods of natural science, such as quantification, experiments, and statistical analysis (Tranfield et al., 2003). In contrast, CMS is explicitly oriented towards more methods of social science, using qualitative and interpretative approaches in observations and interviews, and emphasizing theorizing, narratives, reframing, and deconstruction, where the goal is to “uncover” social structures and processes and reveal their meaning in ways that differ from the generally accepted interpretation and evaluation of the studied phenomena (e.g., Morgan, 2007). EBMgt generally emphasizes organizational and managerial objectives, such as improving conditions for individual and collective performance and testing the efficacy of certain HRM practices, but also including employee-oriented outcomes, such as worker health and well-being (Barends et al., 2014; Briner et al., 2009). The goals of CMS refer to broader and more abstract societal and humanistic objectives, such as identifying and challenging social structures of domination, inequality, and exploitation, promoting resistance to and emancipation from these oppressive or limiting conditions, and improving social justice and societal progress (Alvesson et al., 2009; Adler et al., 2007). For CMS, the pursuit of these goals, however, appears to be more of a theoretical and text-based, rather than a “hands on” practical undertaking, whereas

EBMgt seeks to directly impact organizational practices and decision-making processes (cf., Fournier & Grey, 2000; Spicer et al., 2009).

To sum it up, where EBMgt seeks to synthesize and provide research useful for management practitioners, research from a CMS perspective is explicitly not meant to be *for* but *about* management (Alvesson et al., 2009; Alvesson, & Kärreman, 2004). This distinction is important, as CMS is inherently critical towards the institution of management and explicitly rejects the economic profit imperative and related drivers of “performativity” (i.e., instrumental means-end calculations and rationalization in non-profit organizations). In contrast, in EBMgt, the social function of management remains largely unquestioned and the primacy of economic and performance goals is implicitly accepted or at least not expressively challenged. To further complicate dialogue, the notion of “evidence” in EBMgt tends to be “number-based” (i.e., involving estimates of effect sizes and probability), whereas CMS, following the so-called “linguistic turn” in the social sciences, is largely qualitative and “language-based” (cf., Morgan, 2007). In light of these paradigmatic differences, it is not surprising that proponents of EBMgt and CMS have a hard time to find common ground and engage in constructive dialogue, for instance, with regard to what Learmonth and colleagues (2012, 35) have described as “[t]he uselessness of useful research and the usefulness of useless research”. However, whereas CMS paints itself as a counter-movement, EBMgt strives to assemble and represent the field’s full weight of scientific knowledge. It is also arguable that, due to the very conceptualization and focus of EBMgt, the body of work that defines the critical management paradigm is unlikely to be found overly useful and systematically included. This conflict forms the backdrop of the evaluation of EBMgt by CMS scholars (Learmonth, 2008, 283) as “[a] backlash against pluralism in organizational studies.”

6. Conclusion: Propositions for Rapprochement

EBMgt and CMS are two major academic currents in management and organizational science that are currently deadlocked in a heated academic dispute over the nature, purpose, and future of management research, education and practice. Difficulties to find common ground between EBMgt and CMS are rooted in so-called incommensurate, i.e., limitedly compatible, epistemological (methodological) and ideological (theoretical) research paradigms, influencing the respective underlying modes of thought and action. EBMgt seeks to improve the quality of organizational (managerial) decisions through more systematic processes and better use of the available relevant information, in particular, the cumulative findings of scientific research. In doing so, EBMgt tends to be more oriented towards quantitative (positivist) methods of natural science and, not coincidentally, often focuses on organizationally relevant (performance) outcomes. CMS, on the other hand, draws more strongly on qualitative (interpretative) methods of social science and pursues broader and more abstract humanistic and societal goals – predominantly on a theoretical level. Explicitly aimed at challenging dominant and harmful ideologies, interests, institutions, and identities, scholarly work in CMS delineates itself from “mainstream” research through principles of reflexivity, de-familiarization, and non-performativity. In spite of the limited common ground of EBMgt and CMS, the present analysis of the academic dispute and divergent underlying paradigms was done with the aim of developing propositions on how both streams can still benefit from each other. Based on its high aspirations to include, process, and represent the best available research evidence, it could be argued that the onus is on EBMgt to use the critique of CMS to further develop its underlying concepts and enrich the content and context of research syntheses and practice recommendations. This, however, is contingent on a positive assessment of the potential of such an integration, which may actually be greater on a theoretical than a practical level.

It has been suggested that necessary conceptual developments could be expected from complementing the currently predominantly technical and practical debate on EBMgt with a philosophical and ethical dialogue on the ideological foundations and moral responsibility of management research and education. An important objective of such a discussion would be to develop action-guiding ethical principles for managerial decision-making, e.g., giving voice to low-power stakeholders, prioritizing humanistic over economic goals. On the other hand, such a debate should also lead to more explicitly paying attention and taking into account ideological and political influences on the research process and their implications for the specific form and limitations of results. In terms

of broadening the scope of evidence that is routinely included in EBMgt, measures could be taken to ensure that the plurality and diversity of management research is reflected in systematic reviews, for instance by prescribing the inclusion of both quantitative and qualitative results, contrasting mainstream and critical positions, and dedicating space to alternative interpretations of the respective phenomena. Despite radically different underlying research paradigms, scholars searching for ways to reconcile the perspectives of EBMgt and CMS may be well advised to continue to look for common ground and shared objectives of the two movements. Such overlap and leverage may be found in the dual objective of EBMgt to not only promote higher professionalization in management, but also to call attention to and improve accountability for managerial negligence and malpractice – a mission likely to at least somewhat resonate with the core ideals of CMS. However, probably the most central ingredient for a better understanding and rapprochement of the positions of EBMgt and CMS remains being aware of and taking into account their different underlying epistemological and ideological paradigms. The EBMgt-CMS debate provides an educational case for scholars and students in business-related disciplines to critically examine otherwise unchallenged assumptions in their respective fields. In this regard, the journey towards reconciliation itself seems intrinsically worthwhile and important, even though the final destination remains unknown.

7. References

- Adler, P. S., Forbes, L. C., & Willmott, H. (2007). Critical management studies. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 1(1), 119-179.
- Alvesson, M. (2008). The future of critical management studies. In D. Barry, & H. Hansen (Eds.). *The SAGE handbook of new approaches in management and organization* (pp. 13-30). London: Sage.
- Alvesson, M., Bridgman, T., & Willmott, H. (Eds.) (2009). *The Oxford handbook of critical management studies*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Alvesson, M., & Kärreman, D. (2004). Interfaces of control. Technocratic and socio-ideological control in a global management consultancy firm. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 29(3), 423-444.
- Barends E., Rousseau D. M., & Briner R. B. (2014). *Evidence-based management: The basic principles*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: CEBMa.
- Briner, R. B., Denyer, D., & Rousseau, D. M. (2009). Evidence-based management: Concept cleanup time? *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 23(4), 19-32.
- Briner, R. B., & Rousseau, D. M. (2011). Evidence-based I–O psychology: Not there yet. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 4(1), 3-22.
- Claridge, J. A., & Fabian, T. C. (2005). History and development of evidence-based medicine. *World Journal of Surgery*, 29(5), 547-553.
- Fournier, V., & Grey, C. (2000). At the critical moment: Conditions and prospects for critical management studies. *Human Relations*, 53(1), 7-32.
- Friman, P. C., Allen, K. D., Kerwin, M. L., & Larzelere, R. (1993). Changes in modern psychology: A citation analysis of the Kuhnian displacement thesis. *American Psychologist*, 48(6), 658-664.
- Grey, C. (1996). Towards a critique of managerialism: The contribution of Simone Weil. *Journal of Management Studies*, 33(5), 591-611.
- Hassard, J., Hogan, J., & Rowlinson, M. (2001). From labor process theory to critical management studies. *Administrative Theory & Praxis*, 23(3), 339-36.
- Hodgkinson, G. P., & Rousseau, D. M. (2009). Bridging the rigor relevance gap in management research: It is already happening! *Journal of Management Studies*, 46(3), 534-546.
- Hornung, S. (2012). Beyond “new scientific management”? Critical reflections on the epistemology of evidence-based management (pp. 389-403). In D. M. Rousseau (Ed.). *The Oxford handbook of evidence-based management*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Kieser, A., & Leiner, L. (2009). Why the rigor-relevance-gap in management research is unbridgeable. *Journal of Management Studies*, 46(3), 516-533.
- Kieser, A., Nicolai, A., & Seidl, D. (2015). The practical relevance of management research: Turning the debate on relevance into a rigorous scientific research program. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 9(1), 143-233.

- Kuhn, T. S. (1962). *The structure of scientific revolutions*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Learmonth, M. (2006). "Is there such a thing as 'Evidence-Based Management'?: A commentary on Rousseau's 2005 presidential address. *Academy of Management Review*, 31(4), 1089-1091.
- Learmonth, M. (2008). Evidence-based management: A backlash against pluralism in organizational studies? *Organization*, 15(2), 283-291.
- Learmonth, M. (2009). Rhetoric and evidence: The case of evidence-based management. *The SAGE handbook of organizational research methods* (pp. 93-107). London: Sage.
- Learmonth, M., & Harding, N. (2006). Evidence-based management: The very idea. *Public Administration*, 84(2), 245-266.
- Learmonth, M., Lockett, A., & Dowd, K. (2012). Promoting scholarship that matters: The uselessness of useful research and the usefulness of useless research. *British Journal of Management*, 23(1), 35-44.
- McCormick, D. W. (2010). Ethics & the 15 minute evidence-based manager. *Organization Management Journal*, 7(4), 303-306.
- Morgan, D. L. (2007). Paradigms lost and pragmatism regained: Methodological implications of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), 48-76.
- Morrell, K. (2008). The narrative of 'evidence-based' management: A polemic. *Journal of Management Studies*, 45(3), 613- 645.
- Morrell, K. (2012). Evidence-based dialectics. *Organization*, 19(4), 461-479.
- Morrell, K., & Learmonth, M. (2015). Against evidence-based management, for management learning. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 14(4), 520-533.
- Morrell, K., Learmonth, M., & Heracleous, L. (2015). An archaeological critique of 'evidence-based management': One digression after another. *British Journal of Management*, 26(3), 529-543.
- Pfeffer, J. & Sutton, R. (2006). *Hard facts, dangerous half-truths and total nonsense: Profiting from evidence-based management*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Reay, T., Berta, W., & Kohn, M. K. (2009). What's the evidence on evidence-based management? *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 23(4), 5-18.
- Rynes, S. L., & Bartunek, J. M. (2017). Evidence-based management: Foundations, development, controversies and future. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 4, 235-261.
- Rousseau, D. M. (2006a). Is there such a thing as evidence-based management? *Academy of Management Review*, 31(2), 256-269.
- Rousseau, D. M. (2006b). Keeping an open mind about evidence-based management: A reply to Learmonth's commentary. *Academy of Management Review*, 31(4), 1091-1093.
- Rousseau, D. M. (Ed.) (2012). *The Oxford handbook of evidence-based management*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Rousseau, D. M., & McCarthy, S. (2007). Educating managers from an evidence-based perspective. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 6(1), 84-101.
- Rousseau, D. M., & Barends, E. G. (2011). Becoming an evidence-based HR practitioner. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 21(3), 221-235.
- Rousseau, D. M., & Gunia, B. (2016). Evidence-based practice: The psychology of EBP implementation. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 67, 667-692.
- Rousseau, D. M., Manning, J., & Denyer, D. (2008). Evidence in management and organizational science: Assembling the field's full weight of scientific knowledge through syntheses. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 2(1), 475-515.
- Sackett, D. L., & Rosenberg, W. M. (1995). The need for evidence-based medicine. *Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine*, 88(11), 620-624.
- Straus, S. E., & McAlister, F. A. (2000). Evidence-based medicine: A commentary on common criticisms. *Canadian Medical Association Journal*, 163(7), 837-841.
- Spicer, A., Alvesson, M., & Kärreman, D. (2009). Critical performativity: The unfinished business of critical management studies. *Human Relations*, 62(4), 537-560.

Revisoning Evidence-based Management

Tranfield, D., Denyer, D., & Smart, P. (2003). Towards a methodology for developing evidence-informed management knowledge by means of systematic review. *British Journal of Management*, 14(3), 207-222.

The Position Of Sports In Strategic Plans Of Local Governments

Yeliz İlgar

1. Introduction

Metropolitan municipalities is superior tier municipalities that entered into Turkish municipalism depending on the provision “special administration types could be established in large settlement regions” of 1982 Constitution, 127th article. The first metropolitan municipalities in Turkey were established in three large cities as İstanbul, Ankara and İzmir depending on rule no: 2972 that was created in January, 1984. Depending on Public Finance Administration and Control Rule no: 5018 dated 2003, strategic plan establishment necessity is forced to such municipalities whose population exceeds 50.000.

Public authorities prepare their budgets depending on performance criteria and in compliance with mission, vision and strategic purpose and targets that are established in their strategic plans, in order to provide public services in the desired levels and quality in accordance with Development Plans which are superior scale plans. “Strategic Administration principles” have been primarily applied in public institutions in accordance with the administration approach in the world. The success of this administration approach depend on the adaptability of Strategic Plan into application.

Today, how, how much and which ways sport is placed in superior scale plans such as Development Plans and Strategic Plans are the indicators of how much importance is given to sport as it becomes a public duty for people of all ages to develop their spiritual and physical health in modern societies.

In the research, Sports position which was taken part in the strategic plans of the local administrations was tried to be evaluated at specific to the metropolitan municipalities. While preparing the strategic plans of the metropolitan municipalities, it was aimed to determine whether or not the sports targets were taken part in the development plans are included in the strategic plans, or at what level. It was tried to be developed the proposals by evaluating findings obtained and literature findings.

1.1. Strategic Plans in Local Administrations and Legal Basis

Strategy is an action direction and perception that an institution establishes to reach the determined targets (Thompson and Strickland, 1992; Caufield and Schultz, 1989). Strategic planning can be determined as a process of determining the institutional targets in direction of its mission, determining opportunities and threats, selecting the best option as creating strategic alternatives after conducting an internal analysis following the establishment of current conditions of the institution, i.e. weak and strength points (Koontz and Weihrich, 1989). Strategic plans are long term plans that enable performing a mission in the framework of a vision, lead the preparation of the budget for all units in an institution, create balance between main administrative functions, include performance enhancing structural changes, and which 5-year targets are put in action with annual performance programs and institutions’ developments are observed by determining the success factors based on indicators (Özer, 2008; Ertuna, 2008).

According to no: 5018 Public Finance Administration and Control Rule, 3rd article, strategic plans are plans that include public institutions’ medium and long term purposes, main principles and policies, targets and priorities, performance criteria and methods to reach these, and source allocations.

No: 5018 Public Finance Administration and Control Rule that was prepared to ensure that public sources are effectively, economic and productively produced and used in Turkey, and to ensure accountability and financial transparency came into force as published in Official Gazette no: 25326, in December, 24 2003, thus all public institutions are assigned to prepare strategic plans according to this rule. The 9th article of the rule that regulates subjects related to “Strategic Planning and Performance Based Budgeting” creates responsibilities for public institutions in the following issues;

- a. to establish mission and vision for the future in accordance with their development plans, programs, related regulations and the adopted basic principles,
- b. to establish strategic purposes and measurable targets,
- c. to evaluate their performances according to previously established indicators,
- d. to prepare strategic plan with participating methods for the purpose of observing and evaluating this process,
- e. to attribute their budgets and resources allocations based on programs and projects to their strategic plans, annual purposes and targets and performance indicators in order to provide public services in the desired levels and quality (Aşgın et al, 2006; Efe, 2012; Söyler, 2006). The related institutions made necessary amends in their own secondary regulations following the related rule became effective.

According to the 41st article of Municipality Rule no: 5393, Municipality Mayor has to prepare and present development plan and program, and strategic plan and annual performance program depending on regional plan if there is any, to municipal council within 6 months following the general local administration elections. In the first phase of the strategic plan preparation process, answers to the question of “where are we at the present moment” are sought as making SWOT analysis studies (Bozoğlan and Haraç, 2016). The evaluations to be made in the scope of SWOT analysis in “Strategic Planning Guide for Public Administrations” that was published by SPO are as follows:

- a. Historical development,
- b. Legal responsibilities of the institution and regulation analysis,
- c. Determining activity areas, products and services of the institution,
- d. Stakeholder analysis (analysis of target group of the institution and parties that are affected by the institution’s activities positively/ negatively),
- e. Institution Internal Analysis (analysis of the institution’s structure, human resources, financial resources, organizational culture, technological level etc.)
- f. Environmental analysis (analysis of external conditions and the environment that the institution perform activities in).

In the view of these analyses, “Vision”, “Mission”, “Principles”, “Purpose” and “Targets” are prepared which provide answers to the question of “Where Do We Want To Reach?” Strategies, activities and projects are defined and financed to find answers to the question of “How Can We Reach To Where We Want To Be?”. In the last phase, strategic plan is completed as defining “Observation”, “Performance Evaluation” and “Evaluation” which provide answers to the question of “How Do We Observe And Evaluate Our Success?” (Bozoğlan and Haraç, 2016; SPO, 2006).

1.2. The Relationship between Strategic Plans and Development Plans

Strategic planning that considers the evaluation of the previous period, planning the future, living today in the right and productive manners ensures that services are provided as citizen oriented, the transparency in administration, visionary and entrepreneurial leadership and accountability concepts.

Development plans have a guiding nature for private sector and commanding nature for public institutions for the purpose of reaching economic and social targets in the framework of the established development targets for a country. Turkey has managed its development with a policy that is called as planned period since 1963. Preparation of perspective plan that determines the priorities of purposes and targets is necessitated to evaluate the country’s socio-economic potential and to manage this potential in the medium term in the best manner with the plans. 9 amounts of Five-Year Development Plans have been applied since the establishment date of State Planning Organization (SPO).

Purposes, targets and policies that are determined in Development Plans direct policies, *strategic plans* in various areas in national and local levels, and indirectly Turkish sport policies.

1.3. The 10th Development Plan and Sport

Sport is one of the targets in “Qualified Human, Powerful Society” index that is included in the 10th Development Plan development indices. Since 1963, sport has been considered in all development

plans except from the First Five-Year Development Plan (1963-1967) and Ninth Five-Year Development Plan (2007-2013). The targets related to sport activities in the 10th Development Plan that covers the period between 2014 and 2018, are as follows;

- Programs will be developed to encourage citizens' physical mobility,
- Sport education will be improved in all education levels starting from early childhood as content and application aspects,
- Alternative financing and management models, as firstly public-private sector collaboration model, will be applied for construction and administration of sport facilities,
- It will be ensured that all sport facilities belong to public sector is open to use for all citizens,
- Elite athlete selection and guidance systems will be developed to have successful athletes, necessary physical and human resources structure opportunities will be created, Olympic Athlete Camping Education Centers will be built,
- Athlete health centers will be spread as increasing service quality and diversity, precautions related to meet the need of sport doctor will be taken,
- Use of technology will be spread in all areas of sport and primarily in education, R&D studies in this area will be increased as providing federations and private sector collaboration,
- Necessary precautions will be taken to decrease the number of violence and unethical behaviors in sport (SPO, 2013)

1.4. Local Administrations and Sport

European Urbanist Rights Declaration necessitates to provide the right "to have entertainment, recreation and sport activities for all urbanists, designing sport areas in healthy and secure manners, the right of every urbanists to do sports in accordance with their interest and personal potential" under the titles of "providing convenient environment and conditions to protect body and spiritual health; providing opportunities for all citizens from all ages to use their sport and spare times no matter what their ages, abilities or income levels are" (Yener and Arapkirloğlu, 1996).

1982 Constitution, the related regulations and legislations gave significant responsibilities to municipalities for sport development and meeting nation's sport needs. According to Metropolitan Municipalities Rule, dated 10.07.2004 and no: 5216, "building, ensuring to build, managing or ensuring to manage social facilities, sport, recreation, entertainment facilities etc. that serve integrity of the Metropole; giving necessary materials to amateur sport clubs when needed, providing necessary support to them, organizing sport events between amateur teams, giving awards with decision of municipality council to athletes who have superior success or gain important ranking in national and international sport events" are considered duties and responsibilities of metropolises, counties and first degree municipalities. In the analysis of the applications, it was seen that Metropolitan municipalities could not perform their duties related to sport sufficiently (Çoban and Karakaya, 2010).

2. The Literature Review

Analysis of strategic plans in terms of sport concept is important as they direct policies of metropolitan municipalities to which this level of responsibility is given with laws in Turkey. However, it was realized during literature review that there were limited number of studies that focused on this area. Shortage number of studies that analyze strategic plans from sport aspects draws attention although there are many studies in literature that focus on strategic planning.

Aktan (2014) analyzed 180 postgraduate theses about strategic planning that were published in Higher Education Committee Thesis Center between 2003 and January 2014, in his study named "Analysis of Postgraduate Theses Related to Strategic Planning". As a result of this study that differentiation in terms of subjects was not made, it was determined that majority of postgraduate theses were prepared in Social Sciences Institutes by using qualitative research method.

There are studies that focused on the problems related to application of strategic administration and planning approach in local basis. Canpolat (2010) analyzed applications, application results and problem areas of applying efficiency, productivity, participative management, accountability, citizen

oriented service and strategic management concepts in local basis in Sivas for the period between 2003 and 2006, in his study named “City Level Strategic Planning and Evaluation of Sivas City Applications”.

There are researches that were conducted for the purposes of creating a standard service policy to apply sport services that were thought to be missing in local administrations and to determine the missing points in sport administration subject for Metropolitan Municipalities that provided services in local basis, and to offer suggestions to remove these missing points. In a research by Doğu, Kardaş and Atalı (2013) named as “Analysis of Metropolitan Municipalities Services Related to Sport Policies: An Example of Kocaeli Metropolitan Municipality”, municipalities’ role on the city’s sport services were determined under the titles of sport organization structure, sport policy, sport service, sport service priority, sportive perspective, personnel and education, coordination, facilities, sport club, organization and expectations.

As a study that focused on sportive aspects in strategical plans, Atalı (2015) conducted a research named as “Analysis of Purpose and Targets of Metropolitan Municipalities in Strategic Plans”. Atalı analyzed strategic purpose and targets in 16 metropolitan municipalities’ strategic plans in terms of sport services. As a result of the research, it was determined that strategic targets mainly focused on “organizing national and international events”, “building sport facilities” and “building recreation areas” while purposes focused on “spreading sportive activities to city wise”, “turning the city to a sportive city” and “creating healthy society and generations”.

3. Materials and Methods

Qualitative research method was used in the research and it was tried to be obtained data through document review as data collection technique. The strategic plans of İstanbul, Ankara and İzmir Metropolitan Municipalities strategic plans covering the 2015-2019 years in Turkey were analyzed from the perspective of sport. The sports examination in the strategic plans of the Metropolitan Municipalities was realized under the titles of sports department in the organizational structure, organizational analysis, situational analysis, stakeholder analysis, mission, vision, principles and values to be considered when providing service, strategical aims, objectives, strategies, performance indicators, costs and adaptation of the objectives of the 10th development plan.

4. Findings

4.1. Position of Sport in Internal Analyses of Strategic Plans

According to no: 5216 Metropolitan Municipality Rule 15th article, specialization commissions are established with participation of independent members and the members who are determined from political parties in council. According to the related article of this rule; Education, Culture, Youth and Sport Commission is one of the five compulsory commission.

In the analysis of strategic plans of metropolitan municipalities in terms of organization structure, according to internal analysis data, it was seen that İstanbul, Ankara and İzmir Metropolitan Municipalities created service units in different levels and different units to be assigned for service activities in sport.

Table 1. Table of Metropolitan Municipalities' Service Units to be Assigned in Sport Related Activities in Metropolitan Municipalities

MUNICIPALITY SERVICE UNIT THAT SPORT RELATED TARGETS ARE ASSOCIATED WITH	İSTANBUL	ANKARA	İZMİR
Youth and Sports Department Presidency / Directorate / Branch Directorate	X		X
(Sports) Facilities Maintenance and Repair Department / Branch Directorate	X		X
Directorate of Construction Affairs	X		
Directorate of Parks and Gardens Department	X		X
Green Area and Facilities Production Management	X		
Science Works Department		X	X
Press and Public Relations Department		X	
Directorate of Environmental Protection and Control		X	
Directorate of Culture and Social Affairs		X	
Health Affairs Department		X	
Directorate of Social Services		X	
Directorate of Survey and Projects			X
Transportation Coordination Department			X
Section of Foreign Relations Tourism			X
Section of Fire Department Search and Rescue and Disaster Affairs			X

Service facilities are determined according to institution internal analysis categories in metropolitan municipalities' strategic plans. According to this data, there are 157 Sport Service facility in Istanbul as 40 of them Sport Facility and 117 of them are School Rooms, there are 22 Sport Service facility in İzmir as 19 of them Sport Room, 2 of them are Stadium and 1 of them is ice skating platform. There is not any information related to sport service facilities in Ankara Strategic Plans.

4.2. Position of Sport in SWOT Analysis in Strategic Plans

In the analysis of SWOT analysis of İstanbul, Ankara and İzmir Metropolitan Municipalities, it was seen that İstanbul and İzmir considered sport in their analyses.

Analysis of Strength Points;

Strengths are provided as follows for each city;

İstanbul: Municipality provides common and various opportunities for citizens to do sports

İzmir: Having Turkey's most equipped Olympic Ice Skating Platform that is awarded with White flag by International Ice Skating federation, providing free sport access for limited resource holders, citizens can access to sport activities with convenient price policy, supporting sport as providing sport materials to amateur sport clubs and schools.

Analysis of weakness points that could be developed;

İstanbul: Weakness that could be developed is considered as to develop cycling roads to sufficient level.

Analysis of Opportunities;

Opportunities are considered as follows for each city;

İstanbul: Private sector's interest in sponsorship to sport activities,

İzmir: Use of outdoor sport facilities in 4 seasons due to mild climate, citizen's interest in sport, active use of culture, art and sport areas due to there are abundant number of universities in the city.

Analysis of Threats;

Threats are considered as follows for each city;

İstanbul: Effects of sport on city status is not entirely comprehended,

İzmir: Risk of outdoor sport areas to be damaged by users, citizens' lack of knowledge and interest levels about ice sports although athletes have high demand for these sports.

4.3. Position of Sport in Strategic Plans in terms of Strategic Administration Model Component

In the analysis of İstanbul, Ankara and İzmir Metropolitan Municipalities for 2015-2019 strategic plan period, sport allocations in their Strategic Administration Model Components are presented in Table-2.

Table 2. Table of Position of Sport in Strategic Plans in Terms Of Strategic Administration Model Components

STRATEGIC COMPONENTS	ADMINISTRATION MODEL	İSTANBUL	ANKARA	İZMİR
Mission		-	-	
Vision		-	-	-
Core values		-	-	-
Policies		X	-	-
Strategic purpose and objectives		X	X	X
Performance indicators and activities		X	X	X
Need for resources of strategic goals and objectives		X	X	X

4.4. Position of Sport in Strategic Plans in terms of Strategic Purposes and Targets

In the analysis of İstanbul, Ankara and İzmir Metropolitan Municipalities' strategic plans, sport allocations in strategic purposes are presented in Table-3.

Table 3. Table of Sport Related Purposes Distribution in Metropolitan Municipalities' Strategic Plans

Strategic purpose	İstanbul	Ankara	İzmir
Produce projects to improve disabled and disadvantaged citizens' life quality	-	X	-
Produce social and sportive projects for urbanists (for women, children, youth, elderly) and to remove social explosion	X	X	-
Supervise sport clubs and successful athletes	-	X	-
Turn the city to a sportive city, to increase accessibility to alternative sport activities	X	X	X

In the analysis of strategic plans of Metropolitan Municipalities that were considered as sample, it was seen that 3, 10 and 2 strategic targets were established for İstanbul, Ankara and İzmir, respectively.

Table 4. Table of Sport Related Targets Distribution in Metropolitan Municipalities' Strategic Plans

Strategic targets	İstanbul	Ankara	İzmir
Open summer schools		X	
Offer free sport activities for women and low level income gainer citizens	X	X	
Open summer school and sport clubs for children, and to build children play houses	X	X	
Increase the number of youth centers	X	X	
Open rehabilitation centers for disabled people		X	
Support sport clubs and give necessary materials		X	
Award successful athletes		X	
Increase the number of sport facilities		X	X
Increase the number of sport activities			X
Produce projects related to meet sportive needs		X	

4.5. Position of Sport in Strategic Plans in terms of Costs and Resources

In the analysis of Metropolitan Municipalities' strategic plans for 5-year period of 2015-2019, it was seen that costs were calculated and the budget that needed to be allocated was identified to perform

the established strategic targets. It was seen that costs were calculated in annual basis in İstanbul and İzmir Strategic Plans unlike Ankara.

Table 5. Table of Costs Related To Sport in Strategic Plans

Budget Year	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Total Cost for 5 Year (TL)
İstanbul	332.908.000	311.757.000	359.311.275	389.920.688	453.483.846	1.847.380.809
Ankara	-	-	-	-	-	461.095.292
İzmir	28.755.000	43.167.250	36.933.000	56.673.500	48.685.100	214.213.850

In the analysis of sport in strategic plans in terms of its ratio in the total project/ activity spendings within sectors, it was seen that comparative sectorial spending percentage was only presented in İzmir Strategic Plan. In the analysis of Culture, Art and Sport collectively, it was seen that sport became the 8th ranking among the determined 9 sectors with 4.50% in terms of sports' ratio to total project/ activity spendings.

4.6. Position of Sport in Strategic Plans in terms of Performance Indicators

In the analysis of strategic plans of Metropolitan Municipalities that were considered as sample, it was seen that performance indicators and measurements were established in sport field. Performance indicators were identified as amount of material/ award that were given in association with strategic purpose and targets, the number of member and individual who benefited from the services, and the number of facility/ service centers. In İstanbul strategic plan, service areas descriptive table for sport was created, measurement criteria, targeted value per year (amount/individual/%), activities or projects to be made to reach the targets were identified in detail. In other strategic plans, service areas descriptive table was not provided.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

Strategic planning studies have been applied to ensure efficient use of resources in public administration areas and indirectly in local administrations since 2006. Purposes, targets and authorities of local administrations as the legal entity that are established to meet local needs are regulated in laws in detail.

Environment analysis and internal analyses of local administrations differentiated from each other. Benefit groups and political tendency are effective in purpose determination and planning processes. Local administrations are subject to legal boundaries in their activities. They are not able to perform activities outside of the determined areas. They are subject to centralized administration supervision in many subjects. Their resources might be shortened by central administration. These issues might restrict the purposes of local administrations and choosing alternatives. It was observed that local administration did not pay greater attention to internal analysis due to there was not a competition and they produced services in monopolistic manner. The fact that political tendency is effective on determining and choosing strategy might cause difficulties in application processes. On the other hand, local administrators who wish to be re-elected try to use less amount of resources according to service importance and priority levels, try to increase the awareness of the services as they produce projects in more number of social areas including sport, and try to gain citizens' appreciation. Therefore, this point of view enables sport to take place in strategic plans.

As a result of the analysis of strategic plans of İstanbul, Ankara and İzmir Metropolitan Municipalities that were considered as sample for this study, it was seen that a separate unit for sport was created in their own organizational structures, duties, authorities and responsibilities were identified in detail in institutional internal analyses. Sport did not take place in stakeholder analysis under the titles of mission, vision and main principles. In SWOT analyses, sport was not mentioned in Ankara Strategic plan under the titles of strengths, opportunities and threats. Sport was mentioned under the titles of strategic purpose, target and activities and numerical targets were identified in

accordance with the 10th Development Plan. It was seen that targets, which would directly/ indirectly contribute to the targets that were identified related to the 10th Development Plan Sport activities, were established in local administrations' strategic plans. In the analysis of the established budget to meet purpose and targets related to sport, it was seen that the share that was allocated to sport in the budget took place in lower ranks.

6. Recommendations

Below listed recommendations can be made in preparation of Metropolitan Municipalities' strategic plans:

- Performance reports should be prepared as identifying sport related purpose and targets in the previous plans and the level of reaching these targets should be analyzed,
- Targets should be numerically identified depending on this data and considering SWOT analysis and country's medium term economic conditions,
- Strategic purposes should be supported with realistic, applicable and measurable targets,
- Regular observation and measurements should be made, annual application results of the plans should be analyzed in terms of purposes and targets,
- Budget allocations of sport in plans should be increased as considering its benefits to citizens' health and society structure.

There are not any doubts that strategic plans, which are made as considering sport's personal and societal benefits, and considering the current and future resources conditions, and considering opportunities and threats, will make great contributions to local administrations.

7. References

- 5018 sayılı Kamu Mali Yönetimi ve Kontrol Kanunu (2003), Resmi Gazete, Sayı:25326,Tarih:24.12.2003. <http://mevzuat.basbakanlik.gov.tr/Metin1.AspX?> Retrieved at June 06,2017.
- 5216 Sayılı Büyükşehir Belediyesi Kanunu, T.C.Resmi Gazete, 25531, 23 Temmuz 2004.
- Aktan, O. (2014). Stratejik Planlama Alanında Yapılan Lisansüstü Tezlerin İncelenmesi. *Anatolian Journal of Educational Leadership and Instruction*, 2(1), 12.
- Ankara Büyükşehir Belediyesi. (2014). *Ankara Büyükşehir Belediyesi Stratejik Planı 2015-2019*. Yayın No:18, Ankara.
- Aşgın, S., Görgün S. ve Altay Ü. (2006). *Kamuda Stratejik Planlama*. Ankara: T.C. İçişleri Bakanlığı Strateji Geliştirme Daire Başkanlığı Yayınları.
- Atalı, L. (2015). Büyükşehir Belediyeleri Stratejik Planlarında Spor ile İlgili Amaç ve Hedeflerin Analizi. *Spor Yönetimi ve Bilgi Teknolojileri*, 10(1).
- Bozlağan, R., & Haraç, S. (2016). Stratejik Planlar Üzerine Karşılaştırmalı Bir İnceleme: Çorlu Belediyesi Örneği/A Comparative Study On Strategic Plans: Çorlu Municipality Case. *Mustafa Kemal Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 13(35).
- Canpolat, H. (2010). İl Düzeyinde Stratejik Planlama ve Sivas İli Uygulamalarının Değerlendirilmesi. *Maliye Dergisi*, (159), 1-20.
- Caufield, Ian, and Schultz, John (1989). *Planning For Change: Strategic Planning In Local Government*, Longman Group UK Limited, London.
- Çoban,B. ve Karakaya Y.E.(2010). The Importance Of Strategic Management For Sport Foundations, *e- Journal of New World Sciences Academy*, Volume: 5, Number: 2, Article Number: 2B0047, Retrieved at June 06,2017.
- Doğu, G., Tezcan Kardaş, N., & Atalı, L. (2013). Büyükşehir Belediyesi Spor Politikalarına Yönelik Hizmetlerin İncelenmesi (Kocaeli büyükşehir belediyesi örneği).
- DPT (SPO). (2006). Kamu İdareleri İçin Stratejik Planlama Kılavuzu. 2. Sürüm, Haziran, Ankara, http://www.sp.gov.tr/upload/xSpKutuphane/files/8pd20+Kamu_Idareleri_Icin_Stratejik_Planlama_Kilavuzu_2_Surum.pdf (erişim tarihi, 01.11.2016).
- DPT (SPO). (2013), *Onuncu Kalkınma Planı 2014-2018*, Devlet Planlama Teşkilatı, Ankara.
- Efe, Ş. (2012). Kamuda Stratejik Planlamaya Dayalı Performans Yönetimi: Türkiye Uygulaması ve Sorunlar, *Sayıştay Dergisi*, Sayı: 87, Ekim-Aralık, s. 121-142.

- Ertuna, Ö. (2008). *Stratejik Yönetim*. 1. Basım, İstanbul: Okan Üniversitesi Yayınevi.
- İstanbul Büyükşehir Belediyesi (2014). *İstanbul Büyükşehir Belediyesi Stratejik Planı 2015-2019*. İstanbul.
- İzmir Büyükşehir Belediyesi. (2014). *İzmir Büyükşehir Belediyesi Stratejik Planı 2015-2019*. İzmir.
- Kalkınma Bakanlığı (2017), Retrieved at April 20, 2017, www.kalkinma.gov.tr/Pages/KalkinmaPlanlari.aspx#
- Koontz, H. and Wehrich, H. (1989), *Management*, Mc Graw Hill Book Co., Singapur.
- Özer, M. A. (2008). *21. Yüzyılda Yönetim ve Yöneticiler*, 1. Basım, İstanbul: Nobel Yayın Dağıtım.
- Söyler, İ. (2006). Kamu Mali Yönetim Sisteminin Bütçe Teknik ve Süreçlerindeki Değişiklikler ve Yenilikler Açısından Değerlendirilmesi. *Dumlupınar Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 16, 283-300.
- Thompson, A. and Strickland, A.J., (1999). *Strategic Management*. University of Alabama.
- Yener, Z., ve Arapkırlıoğlu, K., (1996), *Avrupa Kentsel Şartı*, İçişleri Bakanlığı Mahalli İdareler Genel Müdürlüğü Yayını, Ankara.

Global Financial Crisis and Working Capital: A Research in BIST Production Sector about Performance*

Selçuk Kendirli, Fazlı Irmak, Emrah Şahin

1. Introduction

The impact of the global financial crisis of 2008 on Turkey is very different from other crises. The most important reason for these differences is that the crisis originated in the USA, which is one of the world's largest economy. It can be said that the banking sector in Turkey was not directly affected by the global financial crisis. The underlying reason for this is tight control activities in the banking sector after the 2001 crisis (Kara, 2010: 77). The crises of 1994 and 2001 started in the financial markets and most affected the financial sector, while the 2008 crisis mostly affected the real sector in Turkey (Uzay, 2012: 122).

From starting to produce to product for a production business it needs raw materials, labor, energy, water, transportation, warehousing, insurance, advertising, etc. It is called "Working Capital" for start-up and sustainability of production. If you attached these expense groups, which is necessary for the start-up and sustainability, it is called "working capital" (Yıldırım, 2006: 28).

Working capital is also called the operating capital or revolving capital. The working capital is like a seesaw, with profitability on one side and risk on the other. The aim of businesses is to be able to profit by taking certain risks. Businesses that target profitability should not ignore the risks. At this point, the prospect for businesses to work capital emerges.

Within the scope of this study, it was tried to determine the effect of working capital to profitability variables of the firms' performance which data obtained from the financial statements of the quarterly financial statements of the companies which were continuously processed in the BIST Manufacturing Industry Index between 2005-2014 years. Correlation analysis, descriptive statistical analysis, the Hausman test and regression analysis were performed for the obtained data. The pre-crisis period, crisis period, post-crisis period and whole period of the 2005-2014 period analyzed in the study were analyzed separately. In the conclusion section, the analysis results of all periods are interpreted and suggested.

2. The Studies About that Analyzing to Effect Of Working Capital On Firm Performance

In this part of the study, there will be a study that examines the effect of the working capital management on firm performance mentioned in the theoretical section.

Kiraci (2000) examined the ratio of the relationship between working capital management and financial failures of enterprises in his postgraduate study. For this purpose, he examined 53 financial failures and 53 financially successful firms that were working under the Capital Markets Law between 1983-1997 years. He used in the survey, current ratio, liquidity ratio, cash ratio, debt turnover rate, stock turnover rate, cash turnover rate, the ratio of short-term liabilities to total assets, the ratio of short-term assets to total assets, the ratio of short term liabilities to total liabilities and gross profit. As a result of the analysis made by utilizing the balance sheet and income table of 106 firms, it was found that there was a meaningful difference between current and unsuccessful businesses in terms of current ratio, liquidity ratio, cash rate, and gross profit rate, payment rate of debt and ratio of current assets to total assets. In addition, a Z test was conducted for the efficiency ratio. As a result of the Z test, no significant difference was found between successful and unsuccessful enterprises. It has been found that short-term debt is more likely to be driven by failed assets than by current assets. 40% of financial failures businesses have negative working capital. 62% of financial failed businesses suffered losses as a result of their activities.

* This work was supported by Hitit University Scientific Research Projects Unit (BAP).

Deloof (2003) examined the relationship between working capital management and profitability in a survey of 1009 companies in Belgium, which had been operating from 1992-1996. Gross operating profit was used as the criterion of profitability in the study. He noted that there is a negative relationship between gross operating profit and firm size (log of sales), growth in sales and a positive relationship between fixed financial assets and financial liabilities. In addition, the regression analysis found that the receivables collection period, inventory turnover period and debts are negatively related to the period of payment and gross operating profit.

Lazaridis and Tryfonidis (2006) investigated the relationship between working capital management and profitability in a survey of 131 firms registered on the Athens Stock Exchange for four years between the years 2001 and 2004. As a result of the analyses, they found that there was a negative correlation between the duration of cash conversion and gross operating profit. As a result, they have come to the conclusion that enterprises need to manage the cash cycle period well by keeping the working capital components at an optimum level in order to increase their profitability.

Aşıkoğlu and Ögel (2006) investigated the effects of the 2001 crisis on the financial structure of 72 manufacturing operations traded in seven sectors of the ISE with their 1997-2003 financial ratios and obtained the following findings: All liquidity ratios except for the cash ratios of the firms deteriorated in 2001. The number of foreign resources in the financing of assets has increased and short-term resources have been intensively used in foreign resources. Stocks and receivables turnover of the enterprises have increased and the turnover of equity has also increased due to the increase in sales and the losses in the equity capital. Return on equity decreased to -6.7% and total asset profitability was -11%.

Öz and Güngör (2007) attempted to determine the relationship between the working capital management of 68 firms and the profitability of firms that were traded in the ISE manufacturing sector during 1992-2005 periods. Gross sales profit is used as a dependent variable in the study. The independent variables used in the study are the period of receivables transfer, the period of stock transfer, the period of commercial debt transfer and the net trading period. Control variables are the growth rate of sales and the ratio of assets to financial assets. As a result, there is a positive relationship between the growth of sales and the ratio of assets of financial fixed assets to firm profitability. There is a negative relationship between financial debt and profitability. There was a negative relationship between the net trading period and firm profitability.

Albayrak and Akbulut (2008) found that the profitability level of 55 firms selected by layered sampling method from firms operating in ISE industry and service sector in 2004-2006; which is selected from 18 different indicators selected from different financial fields such as liquidity, asset utilization efficiency, capital structure, market value and business size, and the direction of relations between these indicators and profitability indicators. Multiple regression analysis was used in the analysis of this study. As a result, businesses should relatively reduce their foreign resources and liquidity ratios in total resources in order to improve their asset profitability indicators; it is necessary to increase their business size, stock turnover speed, and market values. Generally speaking, it has been shown that financial structure is one of the most important factors affecting profitability. The negative relationship between these two variables supports the financing hierarchy theory.

Sökmen (2013) analyzed the relationship between working capital management and firm performance of 94 manufacturing companies operating continuously in BIST between the years 2002-2009 in his doctoral study. In the analysis, gross operating profitability and Tobin q value were taken as dependent variables. The duration of cash conversion, size, and financial leverage are taken as independent variables. Size and financial leverage ratio were also analyzed as control variables. As a result of the study, a negative effect was found at a 1% level of significance between the cash conversion period and the profitability. For high leverage firms, the cash conversion period does not seem to have a significant effect on gross operating profitability. In addition, for companies with moderate and low leverage, the shorter the period of cash conversion, the higher the profitability of gross operating profit.

3. The Effect Of Working Capital Management On Company Performance During Global Financial Crisis: A Research In Bist Manufacturing Industry Index

In order to investigate the impact of the 2008 global financial crisis on companies in the BIST Manufacturing Industry Index, the impact of the working capital management on the profitability of the firms was analyzed by using the quarterly financial statement data of 133 companies that were continuously operating between 2005 and 2014. In the study, the data obtained from the financial statements of 133 manufacturing companies, which were continuously processed between 2005 and 2014 in the BIST Manufacturing Industry Index.

The dataset is a panel data set consisting of 133 financial statements of the manufacturing companies in quarterly periods covering 143,640 observations in the ten-year period. The raw data related to the companies are obtained from Is Investment, Istanbul Stock Exchange, Public Disclosure Platform and Finnet 2000 internet sources and the data has been arranged and made suitable for analysis. Econometric package programs were used for analysis of the data.

Dependent variables used as profitability variables in working; Return on assets (ROA), return on equity (ROE), gross profitability, net profit margin, operating profit margin, gross profit margin, Tobin q rate, and price gain ratio.

Liquidity ratios used as independent variables in the study; current rate, acid-test ratio, and cash rate. Activity rates; sock turnover rate, loan turnover rate, current asset turnover rate, trade debt turnover rate, cash turnover rate, networking capital turnover rate and cash turnover duration (commercial rate). Financial structure ratios; short-term debt to total assets ratio, short-term liabilities to assets ratio, the ratio of current assets to total assets, and net working capital to current assets ratio of the total debt to the total assets (leverage ratio), long-term debt ratio.

Control variables used in the study; the ratio of short-term foreign resources to assets, the total debt ratio of equity sources, the rate of the total liabilities (leverage ratio), long-term debt ratio and with the total assets used as size ratios is the natural logarithm of net sales.

Table-1 includes the variables used in the study, the calculation methods for the variables, and the standard for the variables.

Table 1. Variables and Table of Contents

GROUP OF VARIABLES	NAME OF VARIABLES NAD CALCULATE METHOD	VARIABLE ABBREVIATION
DEPENDENT VARIABLES	Assets Profitability (Net Profit/Total Assets)	AK
	Equity Profitability (Net Profit/Total Equity)	ÖK
	Gross Operating Profitability (Gros profit/(Total Aates-Securities))	BFK
	Net Profit Margin (Net profit/Net Sales)	NKM
	Operating Profit Margin (Operating profit/Net Sales)	FKM
	Gross Profit Margin (Gross profit/Net Sales)	BKM
	Tobin Q (Total liabilities+Equity)/Total Assets	TOBİNQ
	Price Earnings Ratio (Share prize/Earning per share)	FKO
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	Current Ratio (Current Assets/Shor term liabilities)	CO
	Acid Test Ratio((Current Assets-Stocks)/Shor term liabilities)	ATO
	Cash Ratio (Cash Assets /Shor term liabilities)	NO
	Stock Turnover Rate (Cost of goods/Average Stocks)	SDH
	Ratio of Receivable Speed (Net Sales/ Trade Receivables)	ADH
	Current Asset Turnover Rate (Net sales/Current assets)	DVDH
	Trade Debt Turnover Rate (Cost of goods/Commercial debts)	TBDH
	Cash Turnover Rate (Net sales/ Cash equivalentents)	NDH
	Net Working Capital Turnover Rate (Net Sale/(Current assets-Short Term Debts))	NÇSDH
	Short-Term Borrower Total Borrow Ratio(Short-term debts/Total debts)	KVBTO
	Ratio of Current Assets to Total Assets(Current assets/Total assets)	DVTVO
	Net Working Capital to Current Assets Ratio(NWC/Current Assets)	NÇSDVO
	Duration Cash Conversion ((Duration of receivable collection+Duration of Stocks)-Duration of debts)	NDS
	Long-Term Debt Ratio (Long-term debts/(Long-term debts+equities)	UVBO
	Rate of Total Liabilities (Total debts/ Total assets)	TBAO
	Total Debt Ratio of Equity (Equities/Total Debts)	ÖKTBO
	Ratio of short-term debts to assets (Short term debts/ Total assets)	KVYKVO
	Assets (Natural Logarithm of the Assets)	VARLIKLAR
	Net Sales(Natural Logarithm of the Net Sales)	NETSATIŞLAR
	CONTROL VARIABLES	Long Term Debt Ratio(Long-term debts/(Long-term debts+equities)
Rate of Total Liabilities (Total debts/ Total assets)		TBAO
Total Debt Ratio of Equity (Equities/Total Debts)		ÖKTBO
Ratio of short-term debts to assets (Short-term debts/ Total assets)		KVYKVO
Assets (Natural Logarithm of the Assets)		VARLIKLAR
Net Sales(Natural Logarithm of the Net Sales)		NETSATIŞLAR

3.1. Model of the Study

Prior to determining the model of the study, a correlation analysis was performed to determine the relationship between the variables and to measure the degree. Correlation analysis was conducted for the four periods studied (pre-crisis, crisis period, post-crisis period and whole period). Correlation analysis for the pre-crisis periods 2005, 2006 and 2007 in Table 2 shows the correlation matrix of the current ratio, acid test ratio and cash ratio, which have only high correlation value.

Table 2. Correlation Matrix between Dependent and Independent Variables (2005-2007 Period) (Pre-crisis Period)

	CO	ATO	NO
CO	1	0.945	0.719
ATO	0.945	1	0.820
NO	0.719	0.820	1

Correlation analysis for 2008, 2009, 2010 and 2011, which is the crisis period in Table 3, shows the correlation matrix of the current ratio, acid test ratio and cash ratio, which have only high correlation values.

Table 3. Correlation Matrix between Dependent and Independent Variables (2008-2011 Period) (Crisis Period)

	CO	ATO	NO
CO	1	0.956	0.830
ATO	0.956	1	0.858
NO	0.830	0.858	1

In the Correlation analysis for the post-crisis period 2012, 2013 and 2014, Table-4 shows the correlation matrix of the current ratio, acid test ratio and cash ratio, which have only high correlation value.

Table 4. Correlation Matrix between Dependent and Independent Variables (2012-2014 Period) (Post-Crisis Period)

	CO	ATO	NO
CO	1	0.956	0.523
ATO	0.956	1	0.530
NO	0.523	0.530	1

In the correlation analysis for the whole period used in the research in Table-5, the correlation matrix of the current ratio, acid test ratio and cash ratio, which have only high correlation value, is given.

Table 5. Correlation Matrix between Dependent and Independent Variables (2005-2014 Period) (All Period)

	CO	ATO	NO
CO	1.000	.893	.650
ATO	.893	1.000	.687
NO	.650	.687	1.000

Correlation analysis shows the degree to which the variables can be substituted for each other. As a result of the correlation analysis, a high correlation was found between the current ratio, the acid test ratio and the cash rate in all periods. For this reason, the current rate, acid test ratio, and cash rate will be placed separately in the models.

3.2. Method of the Study

In this study, to determine the effect of labor-management on firm performance, the data of 133 firms that were continuously processed in the BIST Manufacturing Industry index between 2005 and 2014 were analyzed using panel data analysis method. Net sales and assets are included in the analysis by taking the natural logarithms. In examining the data for the years 2005-2014 in the study, the data was analyzed separately as pre-crisis period, crisis period and post-crisis period in order to determine the effect of the crisis on the working capital. For the whole turnaround, all period's data were analyzed to determine the effect of the study capital on firm performance.

The Hausman test was first made for the models created and it was determined which models would be analyzed with fixed or random effects. The validity of the hypothesis that the coefficients representing the unit or unit and time differences, ie the error components of the effective model, are independent of the independent variables in the model, can be examined by the test statistic recommended by Hausman. In this case, it is necessary to examine whether the difference between the parameter estimators of the fixed effect model and the parameter estimators of the random effect model is statistically significant (Güvenek and Alptekin, 2010). Regression analysis was applied to the models with fixed or random effects with Hausman test.

3.3. Findings and Analysis

In this part of my study, the relationship between dependent variables indicating firm performance using the independent and control variables obtained from the financial statements for the three months periods of 133 firms that are continuously operating in the BIST Manufacturing Industry Index between 2005 and 2014 was analyzed. The descriptive statistical data for all the cycles were mentioned, the fixed or random effects of the data were determined by the Hausman test and the regression output of 24 models for the rotation was analyzed.

In Table-6, descriptive statistical data of dependent, independent and control variables for 2005-2014 periods are given.

Table 6. All Term Descriptive Statistics Table

	Number of Observations	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum
CO	5320	2.1459	1.57	0.04	34.92
ATO	5320	1.4982	1.05	0.03	33.05
NO	5320	0.4417	0.14	-0.5	13.52
SDH	5320	4.7024	2.77	0	440.79
ADH	5320	4.4623	2.8	0	977.75
DVDH	5320	1.2523	1.06	0	19.67
TBDH	5320	4.7786	3.815	0	148.83
NDH	5320	107.0624	12.835	-3.31	989.76
NÇSDH	5320	6.8649	1.89	-898.24	612.41
KVBTBO	5320	0.7367	0.77	0.1	1
DVTVO	5320	0.519	0.52	0.05	0.97
NÇSDVO	5320	0.2085	0.36	-24.54	0.97
NDS	5320	326.9873	176.8	-966.21	997.65
UVBO	5320	0.2349	0.13	-25.92	143.7
TBAO	5320	0.505	0.44	0.02	10.86
ÖZTBO	5320	2.1063	1.25	-0.91	44.57
KVYKVO	5320	0.3671	0.32	0.01	10.78
VARLIKLAR	5320	8.355	8.33	6.38	10.36
SATIŞLAR	5320	8.017	8	4.19	10.63
NKM	5320	0.0005	0.04	-45.78	14.98
BKM	5320	0.1959	0.2	-24.79	1.21
AK	5320	0.0214	0.02	-2.21	6.8
ÖK	5320	0.0371	0.04	-24.76	60.3
FKM	5320	0.0319	0.06	-30.26	14.52
BFK	5320	0.1179	0.1	-0.51	1.6
TOBİNO	5320	0.505	0.44	0.02	10.86
FKO	5320	50.4814	6.41	-986.02	982.83

In all periods (2005-2014), 5320 observations were examined. According to the descriptive statistical results covering pre-crisis, crisis period and post-crisis period, the current ratio was 2.14, the acid test ratio was 1.49, and the cash ratio was 0.44. Liquidity ratios have been realized above the required rates according to the literature studies. According to the average of all periods in the manufacturing industry index, stocks are transferred in 77.6 days, receivables in 82 days, current assets in 292 days and commercial debts in 77 days. The cash turnover rate is 107.06. The networking capital turnover rate is 53 days. Short-term debt constitutes 73% of total debt and fixed assets constitute 52% of total assets. The ratio of networking capital to fixed assets is 20.85%. The period of cash conversion took place in 327 days. 23.49% of long-term sources are financed by foreign sources. 50% of the assets are financed by foreign sources. Short-term liabilities account for 36% of the assets. Companies in the Manufacturing Industry Index had an average of a 5% net profit margin, 19% gross profit margin, 2.14% asset profitability, 3.71% equity profitability, 3.19% operating profit margin, 11.79% gross profit margin operating profitability.

The Hausman Test results for all periods are given in Table-7.

Table 7. All Term Models Hausman Test Results

Models	Chi-square Statistic	Independent Variables	Significance
Model-1	55.919594	17	0.0000*
Model-2	36.720337	17	0.0037*
Model-3	33.210355	17	0.0106*
Model-4	44.164534	17	0.0003*
Model-5	32.320898	17	0.0137*
Model-6	28.762323	17	0.0368*
Model-7	69.534174	17	0.0000*
Model-8	71.430716	17	0.0000*
Model-9	78.021953	17	0.0000*
Model-10	33.910095	17	0.0086*
Model-11	32.544362	17	0.0129*
Model-12	26.267862	17	0.0697**
Model-13	59.627745	17	0.0000*
Model-14	40.329963	17	0.0012*
Model-15	35.272665	17	0.0057**
Model-16	90.464190	17	0.0000*
Model-17	89.115491	17	0.0000*
Model-18	88.653333	17	0.0000*
Model-19	680169.321146	17	0.0000*
Model-20	535773.694370	17	0.0000*
Model-21	29131.844741	17	0.0000*
Model-22	96.209679	17	0.0000*
Model-23	96.071865	17	0.0000*
Model-24	95.860294	17	0.0000*

* Shows models with fixed effects. ($p < 0,005$)

** Indicates models with random effects. ($p > 0,005$)

The following results were obtained according to the results of all period analyses covering the pre-crisis period, crisis period and post-crisis period.

- ✓ Variable net sales that can best explain the change in the net profit margin. Net sales can explain the change in net profit margin in the same direction and 50.24%. From the independent and control variables, the current rate, the acid test ratio, the net working capital return asset ratio, the ratio of short-term liabilities to assets, and net sales can explain the change in the net profit margin through the same direction. Current asset turnover rate, the rate of total liabilities, the

ratio of equity to total liabilities, and the assets can explain the change in the net profit margin reversely.

- ✓ Variables that can explain the change in the gross profit margin significantly in the same direction; current ratio, the ratio of short-term liabilities to assets and net sales. The current asset turnover rate, the rate of total liabilities, the ratio of own funds to total liabilities, and assets can be explained in reverse. Net sales are the change that can explain the change in the gross profit margin at the highest rate.
- ✓ Variables that can explain the change in asset profitability in the same direction; acid test ratio, cash rate, current asset turnover rate, the ratio of current assets to total assets, the current interest rate of total liabilities, and the ratio of own funds to total liabilities. The change in asset profitability can explain the cash turnover rate and the ratio of short-term foreign resources to assets in reverse.
- ✓ The model in which the effect of independent and control variables on equity profitability was analyzed and they were not statistically significant.
- ✓ The variable that explains the change in operating profit margin at the highest rate is the ratio of short-term foreign resources to assets. The ratio of short-term foreign resources to assets can explain the change in operating profit margin by 52.22% in the same direction. The current ratio, the acid test ratio, the cash rate, the return on assets of net working capital, the ratio of short-term liabilities to assets, and net sales can explain the change in operating profit margin significantly. The period of cash turnover is statistically significant in terms of the rate of total liabilities, the ratio of own funds to total liabilities and assets in the reverse direction.
- ✓ Gross operating is variable net sales, which can explain the change in profit margin at the highest rate. The relationship between the current rate, cash rate, current asset turnover, the ratio of current assets to total assets, duration of cash return, ratio of own funds to total liabilities, the ratio of short-term liabilities to assets and net sales and gross operating profit margin were determined in the same way. Acid test ratio, cash turnover rate, the ratio of short-term debt to total debt, the net working capital ratio of returning assets, the rate of total liabilities, and assets affect the change in gross operating profit margin significantly inversely.
- ✓ Tobin q affects the ratio of current ratio, acid test ratio, cash ratio, ratio of current assets to total assets, ratio of current liabilities to current assets and ratio of short-term liabilities to assets significantly and in the same direction, stock turnover rate, current asset turnover rate, rate, short-term debt to total debt ratio and assets are significantly affecting the reverse. The rate of change in total debt can explain the full change in the Tobin q.
- ✓ The model created to analyze the effect of the independent and control variables on the price-to-earnings ratio is statistically significant, but the rate of explanation of the price-to-earnings ratio of the models is very limited. The model can account for only 1.82% of the change in the price-earnings ratio. They are the only variable assets that can be correlated significantly with the rate of return.

Variables affecting dependent variables in the same period in the whole period; current rate, acid test ratio, cash rate, the ratio of current assets to total assets, net working capital return asset ratio, the ratio of short-term liabilities to assets and net sales. Variables that affect dependent variables in the opposite direction are; the ratio of short-term debts to total debts, the rate of total debts, the ratio of own funds to total debt, the stock turnover rate, the commercial debt turnover rate and assets. Variables that cannot be correlated with dependent variables; loan turnover rate, net working capital turnover rate, cash conversion period and long-term debt to total debt ratio.

4. Result and Evaluation

In this study, the data of 133 firms that were continuously processed in the BIST Manufacturing Industry Index between 2005-2014 years were analyzed separately for the whole period of 2005-2014. In order to determine the effect of the working capital management on firm performance, as the company performance indicators; asset profitability, gross operating profit margin, gross profit margin, operating profit margin, price profit ratio, net profit margin, equity profitability and Tobin q variables

were used. Descriptive statistics were generated for the four periods included in the study for dependent, independent and control variables. Correlations analysis was used for dependent, independent and control variables used in the study. Regression models were established taking into account the high correlation between the current ratio, the acid test ratio, and the cash rate. With the Hausman test, fixed or random effects of the models were determined. Regression analysis was performed on models according to the Hausman test result.

Descriptive statistical results for the pre-crisis period, the crisis period, the post-crisis period and the whole period for dependent, independent and control variables are mentioned below.

The results obtained according to descriptive statistical data of pre-crisis, crisis period, post-crisis period and all period liquidity ratios are as follows;

- ✓ There was no significant change has been the average of cash ratio from liquidity ratios whole the observed in the study period.
- ✓ The current ratio and acid test ratio average decreased in the crisis period and continued to decrease in the post-crisis period. This situation indicates that the enterprises will have difficulty in fulfilling their short-term obligations in the crisis period and in the post-crisis period. This situation is in parallel with the findings of Aşikoğlu and Ögel (2006), the findings of the study of the effects of the crisis of 2001 and Uyar and Okumuş (2010).

The results obtained according to the descriptive statistical data of pre-crisis, crisis period, post-crisis period and all periods of financial structure ratios are as follows;

- ✓ In the average of the ratio of current assets to total assets, an increase was observed not so much in the crisis period. This shows that businesses attach importance to high liquidity grade assets among their assets during crisis periods.
- ✓ The average of short-term debt to total debt ratio increased during the crisis period. Businesses have had to borrow more often in the short-term instead of long-term debt. This may be due to the fact that businesses try to reduce their financial costs by borrowing to short-term credit in order to avoid an increase in borrowing costs during periods of crisis. The increase in short-term debts has an effect that increases the need for operating capital of enterprises. This situation indirectly increased the ratio of short-term foreign resources to assets.
- ✓ The average rate of return on assets from net working capital of enterprises in the period of crisis has decreased dramatically. In terms of liquidity, the business has become more fragile than before the crisis, and they may face difficulties in paying short-term liabilities because of this situation.
- ✓ The ratio of equity to total liabilities decreased in the crisis period compared to the previous period, and the post-crisis period also continued to decline. We can say that businesses focus on using foreign resources to provide for their financial needs.
- ✓ The average of long-term debt ratio decreased rapidly compared to the previous period in the crisis period. During the crisis, businesses increased the usage of short-term resources.
- ✓ The average rate of the total liabilities increased during the crisis period and the increase in the post-crisis period continued.

The results of profitability ratios which are dependent variables that obtained according to descriptive statistics of pre-crisis, crisis period, post-crisis period and in all periods are as follows;

- ✓ Total assets profitability and equity profitability averaged to have a rapid decline in the crisis period according to the pre-crisis period. This is also seen in the work of Uyar and Okumuş (2010). In the post-crisis period, asset profitability and equity profitability increased again to the pre-crisis level.
- ✓ There was no significant change in gross operating profit and gross profit margin by pre-crisis period, crisis period and post-crisis average.
- ✓ The margins of operating profit decreased in the period of crisis and the period after the crisis it has continuously gone down slowly.
- ✓ Average of the earning price ratio and net profit margins decreased rapidly in the crisis period when it's compared to the previous period, and they reached the same level with the pre-crisis level after in the post-crisis period.

- ✓ In the average of Tobin q ratio, there was an increase in the crisis period and the post-crisis period according to the pre-crisis turnover.
- ✓ In the average of the sales used as a size variables, there was no significant change during the crisis period according to the previous period but it increased in the post-crisis period. In the average of assets, slight increases were seen during the term of this periods.

The variables and the periods that are significantly correlated with the liquidity variables as a result of the regression analyses are as follows:

- ✓ There is a positive relationship between the current ratio and the asset profitability in the crisis period and the post-crisis period. There is a positive relationship between the gross operating profit margin and current ratio during the pre-crisis period. In the whole period, there is a negative relationship. There is a positive relationship between the gross margins and the current ratio whole period analysis. There is a positive relationship between the operating profit margin and the current ratio during the crisis period, post-crisis period and all period's analysis. There is a positive relationship between the net profit margin and the current ratio during the pre-crisis period and the whole period analysis. Tobin q was found to be negative with the current ratio in the pre-crisis period and positive in the other periods.
- ✓ There is a positive correlation between the acid test ratio and profitability in all of the periods. There is a negative relationship between the gross operating profit margin and the acid test ratio the pre-crisis period, the crisis period and the whole period analysis. There is a positive relationship between the gross margin and the acid test ratio the post-crisis period. There is a positive relationship between the operating profit margin and the acid test ratio the crisis period and the whole period analysis. There is a positive relationship between the net profit margin and the acid test ratio in the whole period analysis. The pre-crisis period was negative with the Tobin q with the acid test ratio and a positive correlation was found in the whole period analysis.
- ✓ There is a positive relationship between the cash rate and asset profitability before the crisis and the whole period. Gross operating profit margin is positive for all periods. There is a positive relationship between the operating profit margin and cash rate in the post-crisis period, and a positive correlation was found between the Tobin q and all of the turnaround analysis results.

As a result of the regression analyzes the dependent variables and the periods in which a significant relation is determined with the activity ratios as follows:

- ✓ Alacak devir hızı ile aktif kârlılığı ve brüt faaliyet kâr marjı kriz döneminde negatif, brüt kâr marjı kriz öncesi dönemde pozitif, Tobin q oranıyla ise kriz öncesi ve kriz döneminde pozitif ilişki tespit edildi. Alacak devir hızı ile aktif kârlılığı ve brüt faaliyet kâr marjı arasında dönemler itibariyle pozitif ilişki, brüt kâr marjı, faaliyet kâr marjı, net kâr marjı ve Tobin q ile negatif ilişki tespit edilmiştir.
- ✓ Dönen varlık devir hızı ile fiyat kazanç oranı ve öz kaynak kârlılığı arasında anlamlı ilişki bulunamamıştır. Ticari borçların devir hızı ile brüt kâr marjı arasında kriz dönemi ve kriz sonrası dönemde negatif ilişki, Tobin q ile kriz öncesi dönemde pozitif diğer dönemlerde ise negatif ilişki tespit edildi.
- ✓ There is no significant relationship between the net working capital and profitability variables.
- ✓ Inventory turnover speed and asset profitability were negative in the crisis period, gross operating profit margin was negative with the inventory turnover speed during the crisis period, there was positive relative in the post-crisis period and was explored in the positive correlation with the operating profit margin and net profit margin whole in the periods of analysis.
- ✓ Receivable turnover speed, asset profitability, and gross operating profit margin are in a negative relationship during the crisis period. The gross profit margin and the receivable turnover rate are in a positive relationship in the pre-crisis period. A positive correlation was found between the receivable turnover rate and the Tobin q ratio in the pre-crisis period and the crisis period. The positive relationship between the receivable turnover, asset profitability and gross operating profit margin was found to be negatively correlated with the period, gross profit margin, operating profit margin, net profit margin and Tobin q. There was no significant relationship between the current assets and the price-earnings ratio and equity profitability. The negative relationship between the

turnover of the commercial debts and the gross profit margin was negative in the crisis period and the post-crisis period, and positive in the pre-crisis period and negative in the pre-crisis period.

- ✓ There was no significant relationship between the commercial debt turnover rate and asset profitability, gross operating profit margin, operating profit margin, price earning ratio and ROE.
- ✓ A negative correlation was found between the cash turnover rate and the gross operating profit margin.
- ✓ There was a negative relationship between the return on assets of net working capital and asset profitability and gross operating profit margin, the positive relation was with the operating profit margin, net profit margin and Tobin q.
- ✓ The relationship between the cash return speed and asset profitability and gross operating profit margin was determined in the same direction and the profit margin was reversed in the reverse direction. There was no significant relationship between the gross profit margin, price gain ratio and equity profitability.

As a result of regression analyzes, dependent variables with a significant relationship with the financial structure ratios and the periods are as follows:

- ✓ There is a negative relationship between the ratio of short-term debt to total debt and asset profitability in the pre-crisis period, the crisis period and the post-crisis period. There is a negative relationship between the ratio of short-term debt to total debt and gross operating profit margin in the other periods except for the crisis period. There is a positive relationship between the ratio of short-term debt to total debt and the negative relationship between Tobin q and pre-crisis and all period analysis, crisis period and post-crisis period. There is a negative relationship between the ratio of short-term debt to total debt and the gross margin in the post-crisis period. There is a positive relationship between the ratio of short-term debt to total debt and operating profit margin in the post-crisis period. A negative correlation was found between the ratio of short-term debt to total debt and the price-earnings ratio in the pre-crisis period. There was no significant relationship between the net profit margin and equity profitability and short-term debt to total debt ratio.
- ✓ There was a positive correlation between the ratio of current assets to total assets and the four periods between the asset profitability and gross operating profit margin. A positive relationship was found between the ratio of current assets to total assets and the gross profit margin in the pre-crisis and post-crisis period. There is a positive relationship between the ratio of current assets to total assets and the operating profit margin and price-earnings ratio in the pre-crisis period. There is a positive relationship between the ratio of current assets to total assets and the net profit margin and equity profitability during the crisis period. The ratio of current assets to total assets and the Tobin q were found to be positive in the crisis period and in the post-crisis period. The ratio of current assets to total assets and the Tobin q was found to be negative in the pre-crisis period and in the whole period analysis.
- ✓ The ratio of equity to total debt and the post-crisis and all-period analysis have been found to have the same relationship between the asset profitability, gross operating profit margin and gross profit margin. The relationship between the ratios of own resources to total liabilities and the operating margin is reversed. There is a negative relationship between the ratio of equity to total liabilities and the net profit margin in the pre-crisis period, the crisis period and all period analyzes. The ratio of equity to total debt to the Tobin q ratio was positive in the pre-crisis period and negative in the post-crisis period.
- ✓ A negative relationship between the ratio of short-term liabilities to assets and asset profitability has been determined. There is a negative relationship between the ratio of the short-term liabilities to assets and the gross operating profit margin in the crisis period and the whole period analysis. A positive relationship emerged during the crisis period. A positive relationship was found between the ratio of short-term foreign resources to assets and the gross profit margin in the post-crisis and whole-period analysis. There is a negative relationship between the ratio of short-term foreign resources to assets and the operating profit margin in the post-crisis period. Positive relationship emerged in all period analysis. The ratio of short-term foreign resources to

assets and the Tobin q were negative in the crisis period and positive in the other periods. The ratio of short-term foreign resources to assets and the price-earnings ratio, net profit margin and equity profitability were not significantly correlated.

- ✓ In general, there is no significant relationship between the price-earnings ratio and equity profitability and working capital. Statistically, there were explored significant relationships between the total assets' profitability, gross operating profit margin, gross profit margin, operating profit margin, net profit margin and the Tobin q with working capital elements.

5. References

- Akbulut, R. 2011, "İMKB'de İmalat Sektöründeki İşletmelerde İşletme Sermayesi Yönetiminin Kârlılık Üzerindeki Etkisini Ölçmeye Yönelik Bir Araştırma", İstanbul: İstanbul Üniversitesi İşletme Fakültesi Dergisi, C:40, S:2, ss. 195-206.
- Albayrak, Ali Sait. Akbulut, Ramazan. 2008, "Kârlılığı Etkileyen Faktörler: İMKB Sanayi Ve Hizmet Sektörlerinde İşlem Gören İşletmeler Üzerine Bir İnceleme", Zonguldak: Zonguldak Karaelmas Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi, C:4, S:7, ss. 55-83.
- Aşıkoğlu, Rıza. Ögel, Serdar. 2006, "2001 Krizinin İMKB'de Hisse Senetleri İşlem Gören İmalat İşletmelerinin Finansal Yapısı Üzerindeki Etkileri", Afyon: Afyon Kocatepe Üniversitesi İİBF Dergisi, C: 8, S: 2, ss. 1-18.
- Deloof, Marc. 2003, "Does Working Capital Management Affect Profitability Of Belgian Firms?" ,Journal Of Business Finance And Accounting, C.30, no.3-4, ss.573-587
- Kara, Esra. 2010, 2008 Küresel Finansal Krizinin Hisse Getirileri Üzerindeki Etkisi: İMKB'de Bir Uygulama, Bursa: Uludağ Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Yüksek Lisans Tezi.
- Kıracı, Murat. 2000, İşletmelerin Finansal Başarısızlığında Çalışma Sermayesi Yönetiminin Rolünün Oranlar Yardımıyla Tespiti ve Ampirik Bir Araştırma, Eskişehir: Osmangazi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Yüksek Lisans Tezi.
- Lazaridis, Loannis. Tryfonidis, Dimitrios. 2006, "Relationship Between Working Capital Management And Profitability Of Listed Companies In Athens Stock Exchange", Journal Of Financial Management And Analysis, C:19, S:1, ss.26-35.
- Öz, Yaşar. Güngör, Beren. 2007, "Çalışma Sermayesi Yönetiminin Firma Kârlılığı Üzerine Etkisi: İmalat Sektörüne Yönelik Panel Veri Analizi", Erzurum: Atatürk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, C:10, S:2, ss. 319-332.
- Sökmen, Ahmet Gökhan. 2013, Çalışma Sermaye Yönetiminin Firma Performansı Üzerindeki Etkisi: Borsa İstanbul'a Kote Edilmiş İmalat Şirketleri Üzerine Bir Araştırma, Adana: Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Doktora Tezi.
- Uyar, Ali, Okumuş, Ersin. 2010, "Finansal Oranlar Aracılığıyla Küresel Ekonomik Krizin Üretim Şirketlerine Etkilerinin Analizi: İMKB'de Bir Uygulama", Bursa: Mufad Dergisi, NO:46. ss. 146-156.
- Uzay, Nisfet. 2012, "Finansal Krizin Reel Sektör Üzerindeki Etkileri ve Kriz Sonrası Temel Göstergelerdeki Değişim: Kayseri Örneği", Isparta: Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi, C:17, S:2, ss. 121-143.
- Yıldırım, Melahat. 2006, Konaklama İşletmelerinde İşletme Sermayesi (Alacak-Nakit-Stok) Yönetiminin İşletme Kârlılığına Etkisi, İzmir: Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Yüksek Lisans Tezi.

The Relationship between Locus of Control and Organizational Cynicism in Term of Being Unionized

Metin Reyhanoglu, Evren Kiran

1. Introduction

The study is deployed on three pillars, which are cynicism, organizational cynicism and locus of control. It is aimed to examine the differences between concepts within the context of people's lifestyles.

Firstly, cynicism concept is considered as a tendency of a pessimistic behavior about undisclosed purpose of people and an attitude description of disappointment events about them (Kanter & Mirvis, 1991). Cynics think that people are selfish and utilitarian, but they do not demonstrate their intention obviously in communities. Second concept is organizational cynicism that those cynic people also can be found in organizations considered as belief that the organization lacks integrity, negative emotions and critical attitudes (Dean, Brandes, & Dharwadkar, 1998).

Thirdly, locus of control is that the “degree to which persons expect that a reinforcement or an outcome of their behavior is contingent on their own behavior or personal characteristics versus the degree to which persons expect the reinforcement is a function of chance, luck or fate, is under the control of powerful others, or is simply unpredictable” (Rotter, 1990, 489). Those concepts can be defined like what said above but those concepts have also some dimensions that it will be explain at follows.

The main purpose of this study is to analyze moderation effect of lifestyle on the relation between organizational cynicism and locus of control. We used union status and union affiliation of people in terms of lifestyle. Also demographic factors, gender, age, work experience, tenure, marital status and education as control variable investigated as moderation effects.

Although the concepts have recently examined its relationship with other concepts, the relationship between locus of control and cynicism, especially organizational cynicism, were not investigated yet. This study exactly is explorative studies based on the questionnaire. With the findings of the study, hopes to provide the new research directions, also managers will be able to take a chance to develop new policies to overcome the behavior of fatal, skeptical and cynic staffs.

2. Literature and Research Hypotheses

Cynicism is an attitude that directs human behavior. The history of the concept goes up to Diojen in the ancient Greece. In Kanter and Mirvis' the bestselling book (1989), Americans had been integrated this concept with unhappy, skepticism, insecurity, disbelief, and negative and pessimistic views. Cynical people can be also found in organizations as called organizational cynicism.

The concept of organizational cynicism affects the work efficiency, morale and motivation of employees and their belongingness in the negative. It includes negative attitudes and behaviors that employees develop against their organizations. Attitudes consist of three components: cognitive, emotional and behavioral. While emerging an attitude it must be harmonious and coordinated between these three elements (Kalagan, 2009, 44).

The cognitive dimension is the related to belief. Organizational cynicism represents a learned belief that can be related to many objects, resulting from an attitude or experience, generalized from one situation to another (Pelit & Pelit, 2014, p. 82). In this dimension, cynical people tend to believe that human behavior is devoid of goodness and sincerity. For this reason, they think the organization they work for with has betrayed them and believe that the organizations lack in concepts such as honesty, justice and sincerity (Ozler, Atalay, & Sahin, 2010, p. 49). The cognitive dimension is subjected to negative emotions about employee's organization. It includes emotional reaction from the negative side, such as shame, embarrassment, anger as well as individual subjective beliefs and ideas about their organization, associated with experiences (Kutunis & Cetinel, 2010, p. 48). Individuals that experiencing feelings of anger, sadness, fear, and frustration against the organization criticize negatively to the outside world. The behavioral dimension is the action of above-mentioned negative

attitudes. In this dimension, it is subjected that is the lack of honesty in the organization, the meaningful gestures and mimics of employees, sarcastic attitudes, ruthless criticisms, negative discourse targeting the organization and similar situations in parallel with the attitudes and beliefs about the organization (Kutanis & Cetinel, 2010, pp. 188-189).

Employees lose their belief and trust about the organizations because of administrated the wrong practices and politics. Thus, employees become unhappy and desperate, pessimistic, disappointed, and have negative emotions and thoughts against the works and organizations. All these negativities cause the individuals to be unable to enjoy their work, to cool off against all things that related to work (colleagues, organizations, work tools, customers, etc.). These can cause the individual to lower their job performance, also intend to leave the job, or even leave the job. All these are undesirable situations for the organization.

When the studies on domestic and foreign academic writing are examined the concept goes back 20 years only. Although the concept came from 500 BC The first study towards organizational cynicism in foreign academic writing is a doctoral thesis by Brandes (1997) that developed a scale. In 2007, Erdost, Karacaoglu and Reyhanoglu translated the scale to Turkish and applied it to employees of a manufacturing company with high reliable and validity. There are also other translation studies (Kalagan 2009; Karacaoglu & Ince, 2012). In Turkish academic writing organizational cynicism has been examined in relation to other concepts such as organizational support, silence, culture, justice, identification, change, opposition, citizenship and commitment, psychological contract, burnout, leadership, mobbing, job satisfaction and performance, emotional labor and intelligence, trust (Kutanis & Cetinel, 2010; Korkmaz, 2011; Aydugan, 2012; Ozler et al., 2010; Balay, Kaya, & Culha, 2013; Cakici & Dogan, 2014). The reason of organizational cynicism studies mainly applied to staff of service industries (Kalagan, 2009; Kasalak & Bilgin Aksu, 2014; Begenirbas & Turgut, 2014; Misirdali Yangil, Bas, & Aygun, 2013), these professions serve directly to people as human-intensive jobs and that these jobs require communicating with human by face to face.

Locus of control based on two main dimensions: internal and external of control. Some people think about all events realize from depended on their own behavior. However, external locus of control is a concept that person expects the reinforcement from chance or fate, events happen by fatal or powerful people. Thus, locus of control can be also approached as different dimensions instead of taking the form of a binary, internal and external. Here the most of usage of dimensions of locus of control is Rotter's (1990) internal and external control dimensions that are personal control, belief in chance, meaninglessness of the effort, belief in fate, and belief in an unjust world. Personal control is a dimension of internal control; the other dimensions belong to the external control.

So far the research hypothesizes have been developed as follows:

H₁: Locus of control effects to general cynicism and organization cynicism.

H_{1.1}: Internal control effects negatively to general and organization cynicism.

H_{1.2}: External control effects positively to general and organization cynicism.

H₂: Locus of control, general cynicism and organization cynicism depend on the union affiliation.

H₃: The relationship between locus of control, general and organization cynicism varies according to different union membership.

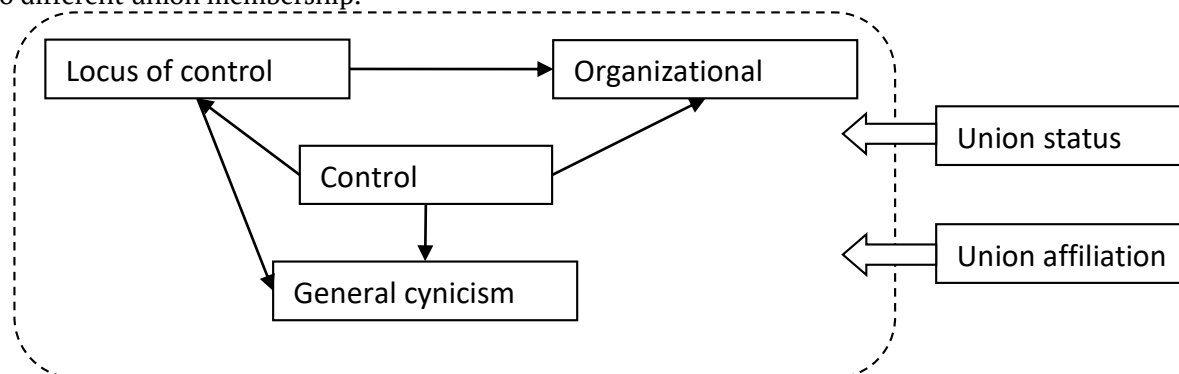


Figure 1. The Proposed Model

3. The Research Method

The proposed model can be seen at the Figure 1. Locus of control with its dimensions effect on organizational cynicism, likewise locus of control effects on general cynicism. IBM SPSS 22 and AMOS 20 were used in the analysis. Here paths analysis conducted to determine the effects between constructs. In the study was used structural equation model that is useful to analyze all constructs together as a model (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2016, p. 711). Also our main purpose that whether lifestyle of staff change this model or not. Union status and union affiliation was used to determine lifestyle of staff. This is our 'postulate' that it can be debatable.

3.1. The Research Population and Sampling

The research conducted on teachers, where work in primary, middle and classical and vocational high schools in Hatay, a province of south of Turkey, in 2016, May-June. 314 usable questionnaires were returned from 500 that distributed to 43 selected schools, return rate is 62.8%. The school sample were selected on the basis of the school distribution of MEB affiliated public schools, primary, secondary and high schools (including technical and vocational schools). 21 of these schools are in primary education, five in secondary education, totally 17 of them are in high school level that 8 in classical and 9 in technical and vocational schools. In each school convenience sampling method (Bryman & Cramer, 2009, 126) was chosen because of unable to reach personnel lists.

3.2. Measurements

We used a questionnaire technique as face to face, to conduct of the study. Our questionnaire has four parts. First three of parts are scales; all were developed with high reliability and validity. Although those scales developed in western countries, based in English, but translated to Turkish with high reliability and validity.

Locus of Control Scale (LCS) has 47 items with 5 dimensions' origins from Rotter's (1990) Internal and External Control Scale, which was translated and developed by Dag (2002), reliability is alpha .91 (in our study reliability is .88). Second part is General Cynicism Scale (GCS) has 7 items with one dimension borrowed from Kanter and Mirvis (1991) and translated in Turkish by Erdost and her colleagues in 2007 with high reliability that is alpha .76 (in this study reliability resulted as .75). Third part is Organizational Cynicism Scale has 13 items with 3 dimensions borrowed from Dean et al. (1998) translated into Turkish again by Erdost et al. (2007). Reliability of these scale is alpha .91 (in this study reliability is .90).

Scales are in the Likert format, ranging between 'strongly disagree' with degree 1 and 'strongly agree' with degree 5. 22 items from locus of control, which are items about all 'personal control' items and five of 'belief in chance' items, are reverse items. The last part of the questionnaire are demographic questions, which are union status, affiliate of union, gender, age, work experience, tenure, marital status, education (Table 1 and 2). In the case of misunderstanding, the Turkish Language Instructor firstly checked the questionnaire and 20 questionnaires were conducted as a pilot test.

3.3. Validity and Reliability

It was observed that the obtained data were not more than 10% missing in each respondent's answers and each statement related to the scales. The outliers were checked and no extreme values were found. It was seen that there were up to 8 missing data in 54 of totally 67 variables in which represents as the scales, and these missing data were filled by 'median of nearby points' because of scales being as ordinal. It is also filled with four variables with mean values, measured by nominal scales, each with a maximum of 5 missing variables. Due to the fact that there are 58 respondents who are not members of any union, the union affiliation has not been filled naturally. For consistency of the responses of each respondent to the scales were examined and it was seen that the standard deviation of responses of any respondent above .50.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics, correlations, validity and reliability

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
mean	179.44	170.55	2.11	2.31	1.13	1.78	2.13	2.31	2.83	2.24	2.73	3.33
(standard deviation)	(99.07)	(99.02)	(.73)	(.62)	(.92)	(.86)	(.78)	(.65)	(.89)	(.73)	(.80)	(.90)
AVE			.50	.47	.74	.58	.52	.43	.44	.48	.35	.51
CR			.75	.77	.92	.87	.81	.89	.70	.78	.62	.76
Cronbach's Alpha			.67	.71	.95	.90	.76	.87	.64	.68	.56	.64
1.experience	1											
2.tenure	.96**	1										
3.oneself	.04	.05	1									
4.self-seeking	-.09	-.10	.40**	1								
5.affective	.07	.09	.19**	.18**	1							
6.cognitive	.14*	.50**	.24**	.21**	.63**	1						
7.behavioural	-.05	-.06	.13*	.12*	.31**	.42**	1					
8.personal control	.08	.12*	-.04	-.22**	.01	-.04	-.19**	1				
9.meninglessness of effort	.14*	.15*	.24**	.20**	.22**	.27**	.13*	-0.10	1			
10.belief in chance	.04	.04	.06	.01	.01	.03	-.01	.22**	.29**	1		
11.belief in an unjust world	.10*	.16**	-.06	-.07	.01	-.07	-.10	.53**	.10	.08	1	
12.fatalism	-.20*	-.11	.08	.15*	-.06	.02	.14*	-.15**	.36**	.21**	-.01	1

Notes: AVE=Average Variance Extracted; CR=Composed Reliability; ** p-value < .01; * p-value < .05

The respondents were assumed to be related to the questionnaire that the questionnaire it has not contain any systematic answering bias (Armstrong & Overton, 1977). It was observed that the highest values of skewness were 1.491 and kurtosis were 2.451, and the critical values (West, Finch, & Curran, 1995, p. 454) were not exceeded. It has been observed whether the multi-collinearity of the assumptions of the regression analysis is examined and it is seen that the tolerance and VIF does not exceed the critical value at above 1 and below 5, respectively (Buyukozturk, 2009, p. 100). Furthermore, the correlation coefficients between the independent variables to be analyzed are below .80 (Bryman & Cramer, 2009, p. 300), indicating that there is no multi-collinearity (see Table 1). It is seen that the Durbin-Watson values that measure the autocorrelation relationship are between 1.5 and 2.5, which is the threshold values in all regression analyzes (Buyukozturk, 2009, p. 100). Consequently, it has no any doubtful of data.

Also common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) checked with Harman's single factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986), as total variance explained of EFA (Explorative Factor Analysis) is very below (12.21%) from 50%. It was decided that not all of the scales were collected in one factor. Those were analyzed internal consistency as Cronbach Alfa for reliability and exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis for validity. Also Correlation analysis were employed to uncover the relationship between variables and for the effect of locus of control to general and organizational cynicism, a model was built and tested with structural equation model. In addition, we calculated average variance extracted (AVE) and composed reliability (CR) of factors as reliability.

All scales checked for EFA and CFA (confirmative factor analysis) in one pool. We used principal component analysis for extraction and varimax for rotation produced (KMO: .825; Barlett's .000) 10 factors after deletion 23 items from LCS. The result of 10 factors supports theoretical background except for general cynicism that breaks in half. Due to the contents of items, we named general cynicism dimensions as 'oneself' and 'self-seeking'.

We conducted CFA for validity of scales in theory. Firstly, first order CFA conducted in one pool and produced acceptable results according to Hair et al. (2006) as $\chi^2(\text{CMIN})= 1119.641$, $df=733$,

The Relationship between Locus of Control and Organizational Cynicism

$\chi^2(\text{CMIN})/df= 1.527$ ($p=.000$), $\text{GFI}=.857$, $\text{CFI}=.926$, $\text{TLI}=.917$ $\text{RMSEA}=.041$ ($\text{PCLOSE}=.999$). All items factor loadings estimates are significant that are between .497 and .964.

In addition, we conducted second order CFA. But LCS and GCS did not produce acceptable results as one construct for each dimension, ($\chi^2(\text{CMIN})= 1269.754$, $df=766$, $\chi^2(\text{CMIN})/df= 1.658$ ($p=.000$), $\text{GFI}=.838$, $\text{CFI}=.904$, $\text{TLI}=.897$ $\text{RMSEA}=.046$ ($\text{PCLOSE}=.939$); factor loadings of personal control and belief in an unjust world are not significant. Then we decided using dimensions of constructs separated from main construct with average scores that is from latent variable in the model.

Some dimensions do not produce good validity, especially for AVE (between .35 and .74). Values of CR are between .62 and .92; and alpha are between .56 and .95. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), the convergent validity of the construct is still valid if the AVE is below .50 but CR above .70. One dimension, which is belief in an unjust world (AVE, CR and alpha are .35; .62; .56 respectively), of LCS dropped from model due to CR below .70. Other values of reliability and validity of constructs are acceptable as can be seen on Table 1.

Table 2. Frequencies

		Frequency	%			Frequency	%
Gender	Female	128	41	Education	Graduated	281	89
	Male	186	59		Post-graduated	33	11
Marital status	Married	256	82	Union status	Yes	265	84
	Single	58	18		No	49	16
				Total		314	100
Age	≤29	38	12	Union affiliation	Egitim-Bir-Sen	88	34
	30-34	63	20		Turk-Egitim-Sen	76	30
	35-39	81	26		Egitim-Sen	53	21
	40-44	63	20		Others	15	15
	45≤	69	22	Total		232	100
Total		314	100	Total		232	100

4. Findings

As it can be seen on the Table 2, female and male are the same percentage. Sample is mostly married, age groups are well distributed, respondents are mostly graduated, belongs to one union. Respondent's union affiliation who belongs Egitim-Bir-Sen (Educators Trade Union), which is more religious-conservative union, has 34%, second Turk-Egitim-Sen (Turkish Education Union), which is more Turkish nationalist-conservative, has 30% and with 21% Egitim-Sen (Education Union), which is more left thinking as politics. The result of union affiliation is nearly¹ to population (Turkish the Official Gazette 2014, July 14th No. 29050, a notice). We used those unions as multigroups analysis.

As it can be seen on the Table 1, reliability of dimensions of Locus of control are not high like general and organizational cynicism. There are significant correlations between some dimensions.

We conducted path analysis from latent variables. One dimension, belief in chance, dropped from the model because of no-significant estimates. All control variables were dropped from the model due to not significant. After revision, the model produced good fit indices, that are $\chi^2(\text{CMIN})= 16.723$, $df=6$, $\chi^2(\text{CMIN})/df=2.787$ ($p=.010$), $\text{GFI}=.987$, $\text{CFI}=.974$, $\text{TLI}=.877$, $\text{RMSEA}=.076$ ($\text{PCLOSE}=.138$).

Table 3. The regression weights of the estimated model

Paths		estimate	standardized estimate	standard error	critical ratio	p	
self-seeking	<-- -	personal of control	-.245	-.216	.062	-3.959	***
oneself	<-- -	meaninglessness of effort	.202	.246	.048	4.17	***
cognitive	<-- -	meaninglessness of effort	.286	.298	.056	5.12	***
behavioral	<-- -	meaninglessness of effort	.092	.105	.051	1.789	.034
affective	<-- -	meaninglessness of effort	.282	.274	.06	4.677	***
affective	<-- -	fatalism	-.165	-.16	.061	-2.706	.007
cognitive	<-- -	fatalism	-.088	-.092	.056	-1.553	.121
self-seeking	<-- -	meaninglessness of effort	.152	.185	.048	3.198	.001
behavioral	<-- -	personal of control	-.217	-.181	.067	-3.254	.001
affective	<-- -	personal of control	-.022	-.015	.079	-.276	.783
cognitive	<-- -	personal of control	-.064	-.048	.073	-.877	.381
oneself	<-- -	personal of control	-.04	-.035	.063	-.639	.523
behavioral	<-- -	fatalism	.065	.075	.052	1.262	.207
self-seeking	<-- -	fatalism	.037	.045	.048	.77	.442
oneself	<-- -	fatalism	-.008	-.01	.049	-.167	.867

As it can be seen on the Table 3, H_1 hypotheses supports that locus of control effects to general and organizational cynicism with their dimensions. According to path analysis personal control, which is part of internal control, effects negatively on behavioral cynicism and self-seeking with $\beta = -.18$ and $\beta = -.22$, ($p < .001$) respectively, that it means that $H_{1.1}$ supports for only behavioral and self-seeking cynicism. Meaninglessness of effort, that is a dimension of external control, effects positively on all cynicism types, oneself $\beta = .25$; self-seeking $\beta = .19$; affective $\beta = .28$; cognitive $\beta = .30$ ($p < .001$) and behavioral $\beta = .11$ ($p < .05$). These results support to $H_{1.2}$ for all dimensions. Finally, fatalism, another one a dimension of external control, effects negatively on affective ($\beta = -.16$; $p < .05$) organizational cynicism. This result does not support to $H_{1.2}$, surprisingly. It should be positive effect.

Our main purpose of the study as mentioned above whether union status and affiliation of respondents change the model or not. For this purpose, we conducted moderate multigrup analysis with chi-squares differences. We have not find any difference between union statuses and affiliated union groups.

Table 4. Multigroup analysis (Estimates/Z-scores with critical ratios)

Paths	union status		Z-score	affiliated union			z-scores of affiliated union		
	no	yes		TES	ES	EBS	TES-ES	EBS-ESEBS-ES	TES
personal of control→self-seeking	-.35	.21***	.939	-.22**	-.28***	-.18*	-.40	-.72	-.31
meaninglessness of effort→self-seeking	.14	.17***	.22	.30**	.07	.24**	-1.971**	-1.53	.53
meaninglessness of effort→oneself	.24**	.19***	-.34	.24**	.22***	.16**	-.10	.53	.60
meaninglessness of effort→cognitive	.29**	.27***	-.15	.60**	.17	.16*	-2.564**	.12	2.92***
meaninglessness of effort→behavioural	.29**	.08	-1.41	.22**	.03	.06	-1.44	-.25	1.22
meaninglessness of effort→affective	.45**	.24***	-1.17	.58**	.17	.15	-2.35**	.13	2.60***
fatalism→affective	-.20	.20***	.00	-.20*	-.06	-.15	.21	-.10	-.33
fatalism→cognitive	-.01	-.14**	-.85	-.11	-.22*	-.04	-.63	-1.18	-.50
self-seeking→cognitive	.29**	.15**	-.98	.18	.03	.20*	-.81	-1.15	-.14
self-seeking→affective	.21	.16**	-.30	-.01	.08	.32**	.41	-1.39	-1.67*
personal of control→behavioural	-.24	.23***	.03	-.25**	-.29***	-.16	-.25	-.81	-.48
overall model (chi-square difference / df)	6.311 / 11			25.223 / 22					

Notes: TES=Turk Egitim-Sen (Turkish Education-Union); ES=Egitim-Sen (Education-Union); EBS=Egitim Bir-Sen (Educators Trade Union); *** p-value < .01; ** p-value < .05; * p-value < .1.

Therefore, we conducted the analysis on the basis paths with critical ratios. As it can be seen z scores on the Table 4, we could not find any differences based on union status (H_2 hypotheses does not supported). Nevertheless, we have find some differences based on union affiliation (H_3 hypotheses does supported, partially). Turk-Egitim-Sen ($\beta=.30$; $p<.01$) has higher meaningless of efforts effects ($z = -1.971$; $p<.05$) on self-seeking than Egitim-Sen ($\beta=.07$; $p>.1$). Also effects of meaningless of effort on cognitive ($z = -2.564$; $p<.05$) and affective ($z = -2.35$; $p<.05$) organizational cynicism of Turk-Egitim-Sen ($\beta=.60$ and $\beta=.58$ respectively; $p<.01$) higher than Egitim-Sen ($\beta=.17$ and $\beta=.17$ respectively; $p>.1$). These results is rational because left thinking more cynics than rights thinking.

Another finding is not rational that Turk-Egitim-Sen ($\beta=.60$ and $\beta=.58$ respectively; $p<.01$) has higher scores than Egitim-Bir-Sen ($\beta=.16$; $p<.1$ and $\beta=.15$; $p>.1$ respectively) based on meaningless of effort effects on cognitive ($z = 2.92$; $p<.01$) and affective ($z = 2.60$; $p<.01$) organizational cynicism.

5. Conclusion and Discussion

Some important conclusions have been achieved as results of the analysis made about the difference in the way of life in the influence of the locus of control in general and organizational cynicism. The result of path analysis that used the structural equation model, internal control that is also named as personnel control effects negatively to both general and organization cynicism.

However, the effect of external control on cynicism was different resulted in two different dimensions. Whereas the effects of meaningless of effort on all type cynicism valued as positive, fatalism effects negatively on affective and cognitive organizational cynicism. We think that fatalism in Turkey is different from external control in term of western Christian view that it consists of religious point of view. Islamist view calls as 'kader' that everything is written beforehand and known by God. Nevertheless, differently we do not know what it happens, so we have the freedom to choose our way, without knowing the consequences. This perspective is closer to internal control.

Another hypothesis that locus of control, general cynicism and organization cynicism depend on the union affiliation, do not supported from the result of multi group analysis. Due to the small number of non-union member (only 49 non-union to 265 union member) in the sample, variance difference may cause this result. Last hypothesis that the relationship between locus of control, general and organization cynicism varies according to different union membership supported partially for paths of meaningless of effort to self-seeking, cognitive and affective organizational cynicism. Here politically left side union (Egitim-Sen) is more cynic and meaninglessness of effort than nationalist and conservative (Turk-Egitim-Sen) one. But when Egitim-Bir-Sen's situation is handled, which is also conservative but more religious, Turk-Egitim-Sen has more effects than counterpart. We realized that Egitim-Bir-Sen is conservative union but its members are mixed because this union became central unions² because of government, which ruled by Justice and Developing Party (AK-Party) for 15 years, support this union strongly.

Our study has some limitations. Firstly, as it was indicated before union affiliation is considered as lifestyle of people, this is debatable. Secondly although the constructs (general cynicism, organizational cynicism and locus of control) are approached in the form of bilateral relations in literature this study approached as related with each other, that is exploratory study. Thirdly, the research conducted on teachers in Hatay, the province of Turkey with limited to time and space and concepts. Fourthly, it was used scales with high reliabilities and questionnaire technique, but some of them were resulted poor reliability and validation.

6. References

- Armstrong, J.S., & Overton, T.S. (1977). Estimating nonresponse bias in mail surveys. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 14, 396-402. doi:10.2307/3150783.
- Balay, R.; Kaya, A., & Culha, A. (2013). Orgut kulturu ve orgutsel sinizm iliskisi [Relationship between organizational culture and organizational cynicism]. *C.U. Iktisadi ve Idari Bilimler Dergisi [C.U. Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences Journal]*, 14(2), 123-144.
- Begenirbas, M., & Turgut, E. (2014). Is yasaminda çalisnlarin duygusal emeklerinin orgutsel sinizme etkileri: Bankacilik sektorunde bir arastirma [The effects of emotional labor on organizational cynicism in work life: A research in banking sector]. *Cankiri Karatekin University, Journal of The Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences*, 4(2), 223-246.
- Brandes, P. (1997). *Organizational Cynicism: Its Nature, Antecedents, and Consequences* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). The University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, USA. Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. AAT 9814494)
- Bryman, A., & Cramer, D. (2009). *Quantitative Data Analysis with SPSS 14, 15 & 16 Guide for Social Scientists*. New York: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.
- Buyukozturk, S. (2009). *Sosyal bilimler icin veri analizi el kitabi [Data analysis handbook for social sciences]* (10th ed.). Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Cakici, A., & Dogan, S. (2014). The impact of organizational cynicism on job performance: a survey research at vocational colleges. *Dogus University Journal*, 15(1), 79-89. Retrieved from <http://journal.dogus.edu.tr/index.php/duj/article/view/683>.
- Dag, I. (2002). Locus of control scale: scale development, reliability and validity study. *Turkish Journal of Psychology*, 17(49), 77-92.
- Dean, J.W., Brandes, P., & Dharwadkar, R. (1998). Organizational cynicism. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(2), 341-352. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/259378>.
- Erdost, E., Karacaoglu, K., & Reyhanoglu, M. (2007). Orgutsel sinizm kavrami ve ilgili olçeklerin Turkiye'deki bir firmada test edilmesi [The concept of organizational cynicism and Testing the relevant scales in a Firm in Turkey]. *15. Ulusal Yonetim ve Organizasyon Kongresi Bildirileri [Proceedings of 15th National Administration and Organization Congress]* (pp. 513-524), Sakarya: Sakarya University.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18, 39-50. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3151312>.

- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis* (6th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Kalagan, G. (2009). *Arastirma gorevlilerinin orgutsel destek algilari ile orgutsel sinizm tutumlari arasindaki iliski [The relationship between research assistants' perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism]* (Unpublished master dissertation). Akdeniz University, Antalya, Turkey. Retrieved from <https://tez.yok.gov.tr/UlusalTezMerkezi/>.
- Kanter, D. L., & Mirvis, P. H. (1991). Cynicism: The new American malaise. *Business and Society Review*, Spring, 57-61.
- Kanter, D. L., & Mirvis, P. H. (1989). *The cynical Americans*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Karacaoglu, K., & Ince, F. (2012). Reliability and validity of the Turkish version of Brandes, Dharwadkar, and Dean's (1999) organizational cynicism scale: The case of organized industrial zone, Kayseri. *Business and Economics Research Journal*, 3(3), 77-92.
- Kasalak, G. & Aksu, M. B. (2014). The relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism of research assistants. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, 14(1), 115-133. doi:10.12738/estp.2014.1.1765
- Korkmaz, C. I. (2011). *Kisilik sinizmi ve algılanan ust yönetim desteginin orgutsel sinizm uzerindeki etkisini incelemeye yönelik bir arastirma [A research on the impact of personality cynicism and perceived top management support on organizational cynicism]* (Unpublished master dissertation). Marmara University, Istanbul, Turkey. Retrieved from <https://tez.yok.gov.tr/UlusalTezMerkezi/>.
- Kutanis, R. O. & Cetinel, E. (2009). Adaletsizlik algisi sinizmi etkiler mi? Bir ornek olay [Does the sense of injustice affect cynicism? A case study]. 17. *Yonetim ve Organizasyon Kongresi Kongresi Bildirileri [Proceedings of 17th National Administration and Organization Congress]* (pp. 693-699), Eskisehir: Osmangazi University.
- Misirdali Yangil, F., Bas, M., & Aygun, S. (2013). A review on hotel employees within the context of general & organizational cynicism. *Optimum Journal of Economics and Management Sciences*, 1(1), 99-112.
- Ozler, D. E., Atalay, C., & Sahin, M. D. (2010). Orgutlerde sinizm guvensizlikle mi bulasir? [Does the cynicism contaminate in organizations with distrustfulness?]. *Organizasyon ve Yonetim Bilimleri Dergisi [Journal of Organization and Management Sciences]*, 2(2): 47-57.
- Pelit, N & Pelit, E. (2014). *Mobbing ve orgutsel sinizm (teori-surec ve orgutlere yansimalari) [Mobbing and organizational cynicism (theory-processes and its reflections on organizations)]*. Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.
- Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1986). Self-reports in organizational research: problems and prospects. *Journal of Management*, 12, 531-544.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method bias in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 879-903. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879.
- Rotter, J. B. (1990). Internal vs. external control of reinforcement: A case history of a variable. *American Psychologist*, 45, 489-493.
- Turkish Official Gazette* (2002). May 31th no: 24808, a notice from Ministry of Labor and Social Security.
- Turkish Official Gazette* (2014). July 14th no: 29050, a notice from Ministry of Labor and Social Security.
- West, S. G., Finch, J. F., & Curran, P. J. (1995). Structural equation models with nonnormal variables. Problems and remedies. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Structural equation modeling concepts, issues and applications* (pp. 56-75). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Notes:

¹According to numbers from Ministry of Labor and Social Security's notice (Turkish Official Gazette 2014, July 14th No. 29050), by 2014 there were 721,690 union members in education sector that .39% of them are Egitim-Bir-Sen members, .32% are Turk-Egitim-Sen, .18 are Egitim-Sen and .11 are others.

²According to numbers from Ministry of Labor and Social Security's notice (Turkish Official Gazette 2002, May 31th No. 24808), there were 653,692 union members in education sector that only .028% of them are Egitim-Bir-Sen members. When compared to the figure in 2014, members of Egitim-Bir-Sen rises incredibly from 18,028 to 279,722.

The Effect of Organizational Justice on The Organizational Commitment

Pınar Başar

Organizational Justice

The field of organizational justice can be defined as the study of people's perceptions of fairness in organizations (Greenberg and Cropanzano, 2001). In other words, organizational justice concerns issues of fairness in the workplace (Nabatchi, Bingham, and Good, 2007). The field of organizational justice which is the study of people's perceptions of fairness in organizations is devoted to understanding these issues (Greenberg and Cropanzano, 2001). The justice issue focuses on the receipt or non-receipt of some valued outcome by one person as a consequence of a decision made by another person, group, or institution. Organizational justice determines if the employee have been treated fairly in their jobs and how it influences other work-related variables (Moorman, 1991). The individual reactions to the distribution of outcomes and the psychological processes that account for these reactions are important for organizational justice perception in the organization.

Fairness is the basic concept in regard of justice from organization justice point of view. Besides fairness, legitimacy is another concept which is related to justice. Legitimacy concept is shaped how people evaluate (either at personal level or institutional level) the fairness of the procedures used by the authority involved. Therefore, the roots of legitimacy lie in justice for procedural nature (Tyler, 2004). The study aims at presenting of the determinants and consequences of normative beliefs about justice in organizations.

Organizational justice although is a plain concept, it is studied for long time and its constructs were investigated for analytical purposes. Organizational justice has developed to include distributive, procedural, and interactional theories (Scandura, 1999). Actually the study of organizational justice constructs were two at the beginning of literature development. These two constructs were distributive justice theory and procedural justice theory. The breakdown of organizational justice into its constructs is only for analytical purposes. Actually they are all interrelated and no one pure construct exist in the real organizational world. Folger and Konovsky suggest that procedures can be interpreted at two levels-instrumental (as means) and ends (as symbolic outcomes): "Instrumentally, procedures are means to the ends of distributive justice as when procedures used for allocation decisions about raises include ways of accurately measuring performance" (1989, p. 126). Interactional justice theory is then added to them. From these three fold theories, further two classes of interactional justice, specifically, informational and interpersonal justice may lead to take a four-factor model of organizational justice instead of three-factor model mentioned above (Greenberg, 1993 in Nabatchi et al, 2007). However such a detail (four-factor model) is to be ignored in this study. The study will be contended with three fold theories of organizational justice.

Procedural Justice

Procedural justice is the first construct in organizational justice context. It could be defined as the perception of the fairness (focus on process) of the means used to achieve the ends (Greenberg, 1990). Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the means used to determine those amounts and is more closely related to the evaluation of the organizational system or institutional characteristics (Folger and Konovsky, 1989).

In general, research suggests that if organizational processes and procedures are perceived to be fair, then organizational participants will be more satisfied, more willing to accept the resolution of that procedure, and more likely to form positive attitudes about the organization (Nabatchi et al, 2007). Examples of procedural justice are the degree of contribution of the person has in decision making and whether or not consistent rules are followed in making decisions.

Distributive Justice

One of other constructs of organizational justice is distributive justice. It can be defined as the perception of the fairness (focus on content) of the ends achieved (received by individuals) (Greenberg, 1990). Distributive justice emphasizes fairness in the distribution or allocation of outcomes. Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of the amounts of compensation employees receive and is more highly related to the evaluation of specific outcomes (Folger and Konovsky, 1989). Distributive Justice is the perceived fairness of the outcomes that an employee receives from organizations.

Interactional Justice

The notion of interactional justice was developed in the 1980s. Interactional justice is what distinguishes a procedure from its enactment (Cole, 2004). Interactional justice refers to (1) The social aspects of procedural justice and (2) The quality of interpersonal treatment people receive during the performing of organizational procedures (Beugre, 1998).

In general, interactional justice concerns about the fairness of the non-procedurally dictated aspects of interaction. These two subcategories of interactional justice: (1) informational justice and (2) interpersonal justice overlap considerably (Nabatchi et al, 2007). Empirical evidences indicate that employees show much concern for the treatment they receive from authority figure and the adequacy which formal decision making procedures are explained with. Perceptions of interactional justice are important over time and are unaffected by the individual's self interest. Interactional Justice clearly means that authority figures are often in risk of being held responsible for their decision with negative outcomes (Folger and Cropanzano, 2001). Interactional justice is considered as an important variable for understanding organizational commitment (Barling Si Phillips, 1993 in Bies, 2001).

Organizational Commitment

The stereotypical view of commitment is loyalty and willingness to work toward organizational objectives (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Over a period of time certain costs accrue that make it more difficult for the person to disengage from a consistent pattern of activity, namely, maintaining membership in the organization. The threat of losing these investments, along with a perceived lack of alternatives to replace or make up for the loss of them, commits the person to the organization (Becker, 1960). Organizational commitment is a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a strong desire to remain in the organization (Porter et al, 1974). These commitments constrain the behavior of participants in any given organization unavoidably and strongly influence it in some instances (Scott, 2003). Goals and plans make possible employees' identification with the organization and support them by reducing ambiguity and clarifying what they should achieve. Deficiency of a clear goal can harm employee commitment (Daft, 2000).

Organizational commitment is a multifaceted construct and terms like allegiance, loyalty and attachment should be considered in its context as well (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Organizational commitment represents an employee's orientation toward the organization in terms of his or her loyalty to, identification with and involvement in the organization (Robbins and Decenzo, 2004). Committed employees identify with and agree to pursue the company's mission (Dessler, 2004). Committed employees ensure that the products or services which are involved with are of a high quality can respond to changes in customer demands, contain innovative features and will have no negative impact on the wider community as well (Newell, 1995). Commitment means that workers will share the leader's viewpoint and willingly fulfil instructions Commitment is hold as resource for organizations, contributing for to foster the organizational effectiveness and efficiency. The overall success is high as much as commitment level is high (Ofenloch and Madukanya, 2007). Employee commitment and involvement are vital for companies to compete in today's speedily changing world.

Three Components Model of Meyer and Allen

Based on different approaches in defining organizational commitment, it has been viewed in three components as follows (Meyer and Allen, 1997): (1) reflecting an affective orientation toward the organization, (2) a recognition of costs associated with leaving the organization, and (3) a moral obligation to remain with the organization.

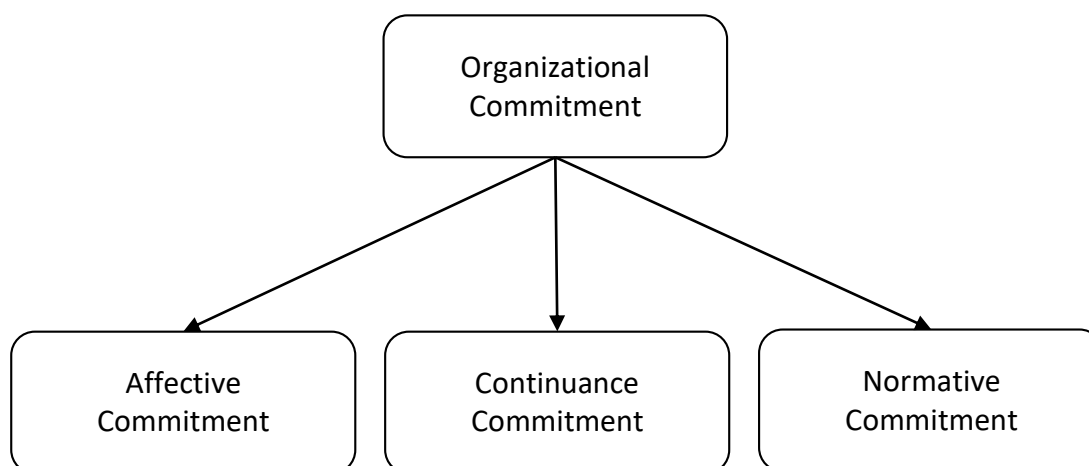


Figure 2.1. Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment

Source: Meyer, J.P. and Allen, N.J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment, *Human Resource Management Review*, 1 (1), p. 67.

Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they *want* to do so (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they *need* to do so (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they *ought* to remain with the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

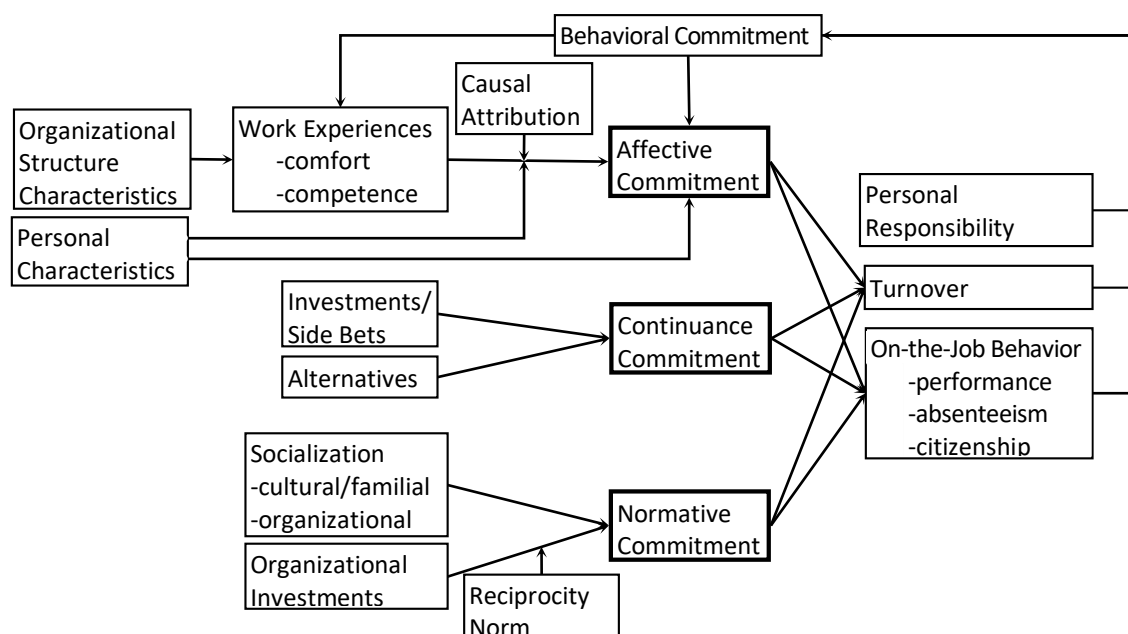


Figure 2.2. Antecedents and Consequences of Three-Component Organization

Source: Meyer, J. P. and Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1 (1), p. 68.

The affective, continuance, and normative commitment should be considered as components, of commitment rather than types of it. If they would be types of commitment it would imply that the psychological states characterizing the three forms of commitment are mutually exclusive. To the contrary, an employee can experience all three forms of commitment to varying degrees (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Focusing exclusively on turnover as a consequence of commitment is shortsighted (Meyer and Allen, 1991) what employees do on the job is arguably as important as whether they stay or leave (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

Healthcare Sector

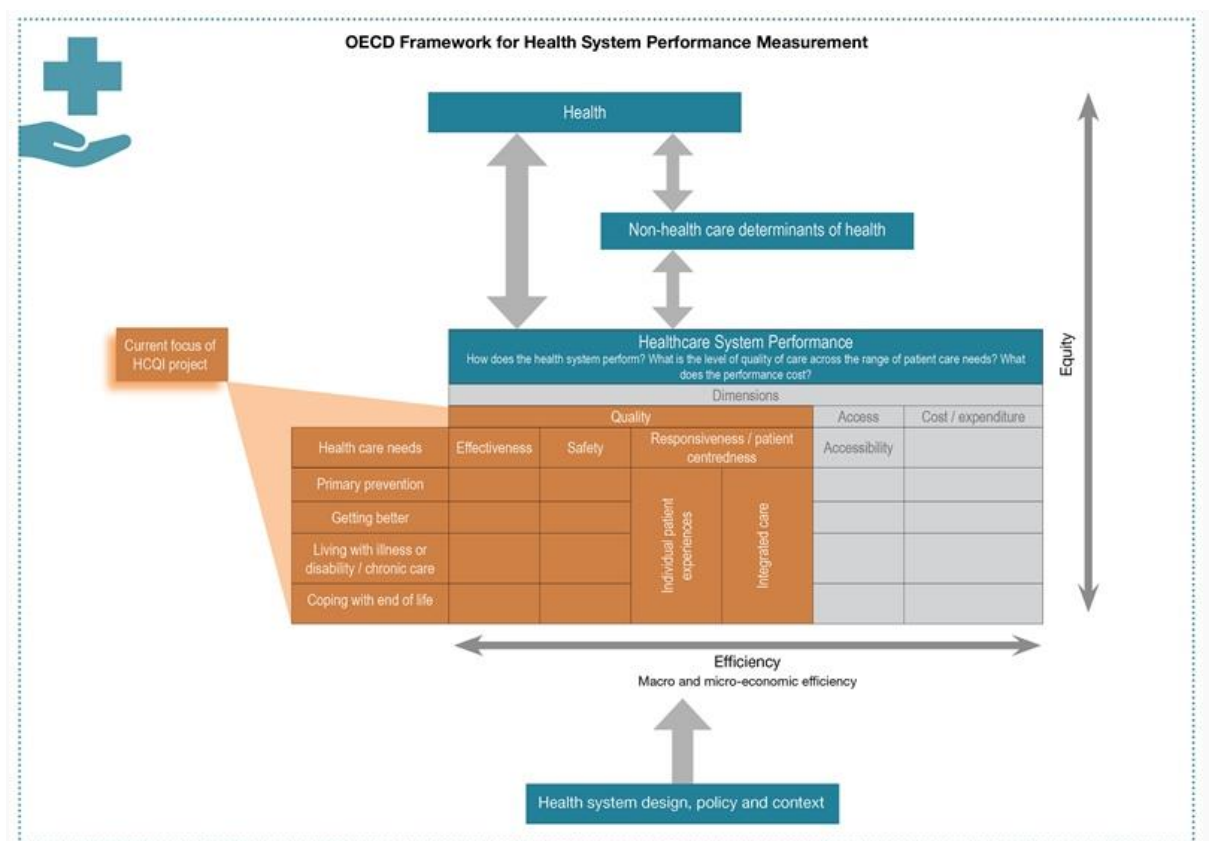
The Health spending forecast can reach almost 9% of GDP by 2030 and 14% by 2060 expenditure in OECD countries. The sustainability of the system is difficult to finance from public resources without major reform. The welfare of the public and economic growth and jobs depends on these improvements (<https://www.oecd.org/health/Health-Brochure.pdf> s.16).

Health spending had fallen in 2010 following the economic crisis and risen again in the last few years across the OECD. OECD, Eurostat and WHO are collecting expenditure and financing information from OECD and EU countries since 2005 (<https://www.oecd.org/health/Health-Brochure.pdf> s.10, 06.02.2017).

The health spending in Turkey increased by 5.4% per capita in 2013. The share of GDP allocated to health spending in Turkey was 5.1% in 2013, compared with an OECD average of 8.9%. Turkey's health spending per person is USD 941 in 2013. OECD 's health spending per person is USD 3453 in 2013 (OECD Health Statistics 2015, s.1, <https://www.oecd.org/els/health-systems/Country-Note-TURKEY-OECD-Health-Statistics-2015.pdf>, 07.02.2017). The Number of health professionals in Turkey is 760.322. The number of Physicians in Turkey is 135.616 (http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/7330775/7339623/Turkey+_in_statistics_2015.pdf/317c6386-e51c-45de-85b0-ff671e3760f8, 07.02.2017).

The OECD Health Care Quality Indicators project has started in 2002. The purpose of the project is to measure and compare the quality of health service provision in the different countries. An Expert Group has advanced the quality indicators at the health systems level. The particular factors on the quality of health services can be evaluated to complement and coordinate efforts of national and other international organizations. The quality can be measured and analyzed for new improvements by policy makers and other stakeholders (<https://www.oecd.org/health/Health-Brochure.pdf> s.10, 06.02.2017 Access the original OECD Health Care Quality Framework (OECD Health Working Paper No. 23.03.2006).

The Effect of Organizational Justice on The Organizational Commitment



(<http://www.oecd.org/els/health-systems/health-care-quality-indicators.htm>, 06.02.2017)

The model is achieved to develop the performance of health care through benchmarking. The most important parameters are used to measure quality of care. The governing principles of health systems are to provide patients effective, safe and responsive care in all OECD countries. The continuous improvement is targeted for the quality of health care services and so the welfare of the community. The OECD has been collecting comparative statistics on the quality of care for: • acute hospital care • primary care • mental health care • cancer survival after diagnosis • patient safety • patients' reported experience of care. (<https://www.oecd.org/health/Health-Brochure.pdf> s.12, 06.02.2017).

The employee is very important for the quality of service. The healthcare sector has a different character, because the role of a medical doctor needs higher intellectual characteristics to be accomplished through a detailed knowledge of anatomy, physiology, diseases and treatment and its applied practice (Van Der Weyden, 2005). Interactional justice is more complex and composite organizational justice dimension. It shades procedural and distributive justice dimensions with its high context. Literature points to the fact that interactional justice is considered as an important variable for understanding organizational commitment (Barling Si Phillips, 1993 in Bies, 2001). Mikula et al.'s (1989) findings explain that people give more importance to interactional justice than they do to procedural or distributive justice.

It is also worth to investigate the roles of a doctor in a health care institution from organizational commitment point of view. The roles played by doctors in health care institutions are construed in a manner by considering two arguments. First, doctors are important and rare. "Despite increasing numbers of doctors in recent years, Turkey continues to have the lowest number of physicians per capita among all OECD countries. In 2006, Turkey had 1.6 physicians per 1000 population, two times less than the OECD average of 3.1" (OECD, 2008, p. 2). Second, doctors have critical and creative thinking abilities obviously and in easily observable manner (intellectual properties of doctors) (Edwards, 2006). The first argument leads to the point that doctors do not acquire normative commitment comparatively (relatively). They have great occupational mobility. The second argument

leads to the point that doctors do not acquire affective commitment comparatively (relatively). They used to take position depending on facts (factual approach). Both arguments drive to the fact to be questioned that organizational commitment genus of doctors should better be continuous commitment, if any. Besides, continuance commitment is the central issue and the most reliable dimension in organizational commitment (Griffin and Hepburn, 2005).

4.1. Research Methodology

Universe of the research is medical doctors in Turkey. Istanbul is taken as a socio demographic represented Turkey considering its high population share in nationwide population. Sampling method is chosen as random sampling providing that three districts are surveyed. Medical doctors are surveyed in public hospitals in Istanbul. Data is gathered with a questionnaire that is constructed in three section, which are personal and organizational characteristics, organizational justice constructs and organizational commitment constructs. The hospitals surveyed are distributed in three main regions in Istanbul: Northern region of Golden Horn, (1) Sarıyer and (2) İstinye districts, and Southern region of Golden Horn, (3) Zeytinburnu district and then Anatolian side of Istanbul, (4) Kadıköy district. These regions are classical for Istanbul Administration. Recently the administration regions are more detailed as the city expands.

The number of distributed questionnaires to medical doctors were 200 and 134 of them were returned. Out of that 134 returned 2 of them were not taken into consideration because of discrepancies in answers given such as multiple answers were given to the same question and as many answers were missed. A 66% return rate is achieved in survey by taking 132 returns of questionnaire into consideration.

Selection of measures that covers elements that are relevant to specific contexts of organizational justice should be done with care. This is necessary because the results of justice researches are in generalizing nature across organizational contexts (Greenberg, 1990). The scales is translated by the author Pınar Başar.

Perceptions of Organizational justice were measured with a 3 construct item scale developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993). Distributive scale measures the degree to which rewards received by employees are perceived to be related to performance inputs. Five items assess the degree to which each respondent believes that he or she is fairly rewarded on the basis of their responsibilities, experience, effort, job stress, and education. Procedural Justice Scale contains items indicating judgments about decisions made about the respondent's job in general by the manager or representatives of the company. All items refer to both fair procedures in the workplace and the degree to which procedures are applied fairly by organizational representatives. Interactional justice concerns the individual's perception of the quality of treatment experienced when organizational procedures are implemented. Empirical evidence suggests that employees show much concern for the treatment they receive from authority figure and the adequacy with which formal decision-making procedures are explained. Moorman (1991) reports that the reliability index (Cronbach's alpha) of Interactive Justice was 0,93 which indicates a strong reliability.

Organizational commitment was assessed using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Meyer and Allen (1990). Twenty itemed scale is used to measure each dimensions of commitment (affective, normative, and continuance). Allen and Meyer (1991 79) reported that items from three constructs of the Organizational Commitment those are the Affective Commitment Scale, the Continuance Commitment Scale and the Normative Commitment Scale provide independence of each other by being loaded on separate factors. The scale is translated by Pınar Öztürk. Briefly, definition of the Affective Commitment Scale was used to develop an initial pool of items that was then administered to a sample of people working in various occupations and organizations. Definition of the Continuance Commitment Scale was used to develop an initial set of items that was then applied to a sample of people working in various occupations and organizations by Allen and Meyer. The Normative Commitment Scale was developed by using the definition of the Normative Commitment. The scale with having an initial pool of items develop was then given to a sample of people working in various occupations and organizations. In studies mentioned in the literature those

employing Normative Commitment Scale have internal consistency estimates (alpha coefficients) range from 0,69 to 0,79 (Allen and Meyer, 1991). After revision of the Normative Commitment Scale by Allen and Mayer recently the scale is left with 6 items which three of them are reverse meaning sentence. Internal consistency of the Normative Commitment Scale has typically been estimated by using coefficient alpha. Reliability for the Affective Commitment Scale was 0,73 (Allen and Meyer, 1997).

The subjects participated into the research are asked to indicate their perceptions by marking one of the five fold Likert Scale. The participants answered questions in Organizational Justice Scale in the range of 1: Strongly disagree (Hiç katılmıyorum), 2: Disagree (Katılmıyorum), 3: Undecided (Kararsızım), 4: Agree (Oldukça katılıyorum), 5: Strongly Agree (Tamamen katılıyorum).

Organizational Justice Scale questions are at the questionnaire, sample is given in Appendix. The subjects participated into the research are asked to indicate their perceptions by marking one of the five fold Likert Scale. The participants answered questions in Organizational Justice Scale in the range of 1: Strongly disagree (Hiç katılmıyorum), 2: Disagree (Katılmıyorum), 3: Undecided (Kararsızım), 4: Agree (Oldukça katılıyorum), 5: Strongly Agree (Tamamen katılıyorum).

4.8. Research Objective and Research Question

The research question “Is organizational commitment level of medical doctors in public health care institutions related to their organizational justice level?”

Constructs of organizational justice and constructs of organizational commitment are in nested characteristics. An impact on procedural justice has attitudinal impacts on distributive justice and on interactional justice. Same is valid for distributive justice and on interactional justice. All organizational justice constructs form a base. Similarly, an impact on affective commitment has attitudinal impacts on continuance commitment and normative commitment. Same is valid for continuance commitment and normative commitment. All organizational commitment constructs form a base. It could be considered that interactional justice is a higher context construct among other organizational justice constructs where continuance commitment is the central dimension within other organizational commitment constructs. Appraisals on them in different considerations could also be possible. It is worth to pay attention that such analytical and critical appraisals on the constructs should be carried by care. That is, only a considerate appraisal trial of one organizational justice construct over (or against) one (or more) organizational commitment construct may yield a meaning. However any one of organizational justice constructs (dependent variable) could be appraised over all organizational commitment constructs (independent variables) for their relatedness. Similarly, any one of organizational commitment constructs (dependent variable) could be appraised over all organizational justice constructs (independent variables) for their relatedness. A holistic and comparable appraisal to be carried for all three constructs (whether for organizational commitment constructs or organizational justice constructs) would agree with their nestedness. Such an appraisal approach for analytical purposes would not harm the nested characteristics of either organizational commitment constructs or organizational justice constructs. Staying within the research question through over all independent variables and comparable dependent variables, two more questions could be asked hypothetically for analytical reasons related to role of doctors in health care organizations.

The research attempts further to question the relationships between the sub-dimensions (the constructs) of organizational justice and organizational commitment. This is meaningful from the point that the sub-dimensions of organizational justice may define organizational justice perfectly and same for organizational commitment. However, only the defining significances of the sub-dimensions of organizational justice for sub-dimensions of organizational commitment are questioned in this context.

Does the newly added organizational justice dimension, the interactional justice dimension bring a meaningful explanation for the roles of doctors in health care institutions from their organizational commitment point of view? The role of a medical doctor needs higher intellectual characteristics to be accomplished through a detailed knowledge of anatomy, physiology, diseases and treatment and its applied practice (Van Der Weyden, 2005). Interactional justice is more complex and composite

organizational justice dimension. It shades procedural and distributive justice dimensions with its high context contend. Literature points to the fact that interactional justice is considered as an important variable for understanding organizational commitment (Barling Si Phillips, 1993 in Bies, 2001). Mikula et al.'s (1989) findings explain that people give more importance to interactional justice than they do to procedural or distributive justice. High context features of interactional justice and the role of a doctor in a health care institution are expected to coincide by this research sub-question. Surely, such a question needs comparable former research results those are lacking for the time being. Answer to this research question can be trace for future studies on the subject.

It is also worth to investigate whether roles of a doctor in a health care institution from organizational commitment point of view. The roles played by doctors in health care institutions are construed in a manner by considering two arguments. First, doctors are important and rare. "Despite increasing numbers of doctors in recent years, Turkey continues to have the lowest number of physicians per capita among all OECD countries. In 2006, Turkey had 1.6 physicians per 1000 population, two times less than the OECD average of 3.1" (OECD, 2008, p. 2). Second, doctors have critical and creative thinking abilities obviously and in easily observable manner (intellectual properties of doctors) (Edwards, 2006). The first argument leads to the point that doctors do not acquire normative commitment comparatively (relatively). They have great occupational mobility. The second argument leads to the point that doctors do not acquire affective commitment comparatively (relatively). They used to take position depending on facts (factual approach). Both arguments drive to the fact to be questioned that organizational commitment genus of doctors should better be continuous commitment, if any. Besides, continuance commitment is the central issue and the most reliable dimension in organizational commitment (Griffin and Hepburn, 2005). Whether the definitive power of organizational justice constructs on organizational commitment constructs is best experienced on the continuance commitment construct for doctors in health care institutions? This fact yields the second hypothetical research question for analytical purposes.

4.9. The Model and the Hypotheses

A model is a helpful tool to comprehend the dynamics ruling research questions. The main-blocks of the conceptual research model are: (1) Medical Doctors, (2) Organizational Justice and (3) Organizational Commitment. These main-blocks of the conceptual research are mapped in the following figure.

The first research question is a basic one for how do organizational justice perceptions relate to the organizational commitment of medical doctors. This concern is shown on the conceptual research model in the following figure.

Further research questions need the main-blocks of the conceptual research model (Medical Doctors, Organizational Justice and Organizational Commitment) be studied in detailed.

Medical doctors, one of the main-block of the conceptual research model, are held under some of their characteristics in this study. Their those characteristics under question are: (1) age, (2) gender, (3) tenure, (4) years of service in that hospital (5) level of management, (6) career, (7) medical branch (if any), (8) intention of progress in career, (9) presence of another doctor in family and (10) district of hospital. These characteristics of medical doctors are the constructs of medical doctors main-block of the conceptual research model.

The Organizational Justice, another the main-block of the conceptual research model, is held under its constructs: (1) Procedural Justice, (2) Distributive Justice and (3) Interactional Justice. The Organizational Commitment, one another the main-block of the conceptual research model, is held under its constructs: (1) Affective Commitment, (2) Continuance Commitment and (3) Normative Commitment.

The nested relationships are complex in nature to be mapped easily. The following figure best describes this situation, from where the research continues to construct the model dynamics.

The Effect of Organizational Justice on The Organizational Commitment

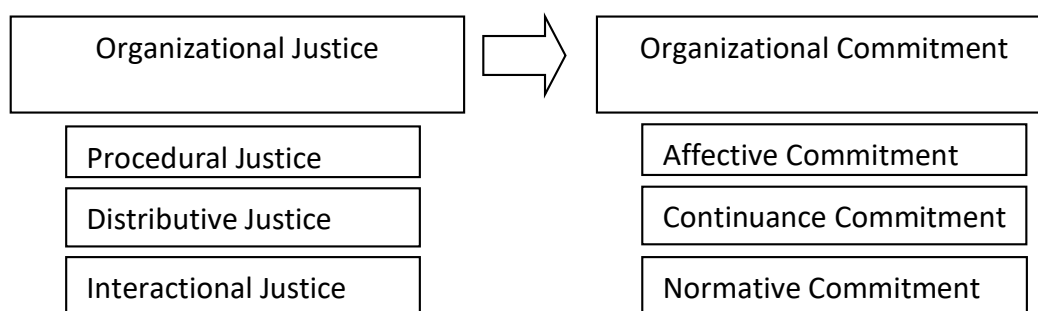


Figure 4.1. Master Map of Nested Relations among The Constructs of Organizational Justice and Organizational Commitment

Hypotheses

Under the light of above research model and research questions, the following three hypotheses are constructed:

“H₁: The organizational commitment of medical doctors is related to their organizational justice”.

“H₂: Interactional Justice combinatorily defines Continuance Commitment, Normative Commitment and Affective Commitment significantly”.

“H₃: Continuance Commitment is better defined than Normative Commitment and Affective Commitment by organizational justice constructs”

5. The Evaluation Of Findings

Overall Organizational justice and Organizational commitment tests has reliability level of (cronbach alpha coefficient) 0,907. Details of reliability according to tests are given in factor analyses tables in follows.

5.2. Descriptive Analysis

The total number of doctors in Turkey is 141.259 and the number of doctors in İstanbul is 28.797 (http://www.tuik.gov.tr/PreTablo.do?alt_id=1095). The sampling is considered to be representative for the main population. The participants are distributed in four main regions in Istanbul: Northern region of Golden Horn, (1) Sarıyer and (2) İstinye districts, (3) Southern region of Golden Horn, Zeytinburnu district and (4) Anatolian side of Istanbul, Kadıköy district. The participants of the study are mostly females in 36-45 ages with 10-19 years of tenure in medicine as shown in above table. They are mostly specialist medical doctors with no administrative duties or responsibilities in their department in operational medical branches. They mostly have medium level progress intentions in their occupation and no other medical doctors in their family. Descriptive analysis in frequency and percentage table is given below.

Table 5.1. Descriptive Analysis

Demographic Characteristics	Alternatives	f	%
Gender	Male	42	32,1
	Female	89	67,9
	Total	131	100,0
Age Group	25-35	42	32,1
	36-45	58	44,3
	46+	31	23,7
	Total	131	100,0
Tenure (years)	1-9	33	25,2
	10-19	52	39,7
	20+	46	35,1
	Total	131	100,0
Service (years)	1-4	36	27,5
	5-10	49	37,4
	11+	46	35,1
	Total	131	100,0
Managerial	Manager	23	18,5
	Non manager	101	81,5
	Total	124	100,0
Career	Doctor	35	26,7
	Specialist	93	71,0
	Assoc. Prof.	3	2,3
	Total	131	100,0
Branch	operational	65	49,2
	non operational	36	27,3
	non specialist	31	23,5
	Total	132	100,0
Progress	Less	21	16,3
	Medium	60	46,5
	Much	48	37,2
	Total	129	100,0
Dr in family	Yes	44	33,8
	No	86	66,2
	Total	130	100,0
District	Sarıyer	26	19,7
	Istinye	40	30,3
	Zeytinburnu	19	14,4
	Kadıköy	47	35,6
	Total	132	100,0

5.3. Tests for Exploratory Factor Analyses

Factor analyses are required in order to determine the questions with variances above an agreeable level in the scale constructs of the Organizational Justice scale and the Organizational Commitment scale. A smaller set of questions are obtained where the questions determined with high variances are dropped.

5.3.1. Factor Analysis of the Organizational Justice Scale

Factor analysis of the Organizational Justice Scale is held below. The following The Organizational Justice Factor Analysis table summarizes the item labels, item descriptions, reliability coefficients for factors with their variances explained. Table is obtained in two iterations. Initial Rotated Component Matrix for Factor Analysis of Organizational Justice Scale is given in Appendix.

Table 5.2. The Organizational Justice Factor Analysis

Factors	Item Label	Factor Loadings	Cronbach alpha	Variance Explained	Average of 5 –fold Likert Scale Replies \bar{x}
Factor 1 Interactional Justice	Concern for rights	0,846	0,939	34,112	3,05
	Adequate justification	0,826			
	Explanation	0,822			
	Sensitiveness to personal needs	0,783			
	Truthful manner	0,772			
	Kindness and Consideration	0,751			
	Respect and dignity	0,751			
	Explanation of details	0,747			
Factor 2 Procedural Justice	Clear explanation	0,586	0,868	16,532	2,85
	Unbiased manner	0,754			
	Extra information	0,723			
	Listening concerns	0,699			
Factor 3 Distributive Justice	Consistency	0,581	0,765	15,041	2,62
	Fair payment	0,782			
	Fair workload	0,779			
	Fair rewards	0,724			
Total	Fair schedule	0,609	0,930	65,685	2,86
	Fair responsibilities	0,505			
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.					0,904
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square			1438,346	
	df			153,000	
	Sig.			0,000	

The following one question is dropped: Because the factor loadings were low.

Question no.	Item label	Item description
10	Necessity	Obligated to stay

The findings of above factor analysis table are satisfactory from the point of views in regard of factors are determined in parallel with literature survey, and levels of reliability, variance explained, sampling adequacy are strong. The highest mean points of medical doctors among the organizational justice constructs is the interactional justice.

5.3.2. Factor Analyses of Organizational Commitment Scale

Factor analysis of the Organizational Commitment Scale is held below. The following The Organizational Justice Factor Analysis table summarizes the item labels, item descriptions, reliability coefficients for factors with their variances explained. Table is obtained in twelve iterations. Initial

Rotated Component Matrix for Factor Analysis of Organizational Commitment Scale is given in Appendix.

Table 5.3. Organizational Commitment Factor Analysis

Factors	Item Label	Factor Loadings	Cronbach alpha	Variance Explained	Average of 5 -fold Likert Scale Replies \bar{x}
Factor 1: Continuance Commitment	Benefits in organization	0,850	0,825	29,078	3,08
	Few options	0,823			
	Disrupt of life	0,754			
	Negative consequences	0,750			
Factor 2: Normative Commitment	Obligation to colleagues	0,839	0,801	24,325	2,75
	Gratefulness to organization	0,839			
	Loyalty	0,836			
Factor 3: Affective Commitment	Sense of belonging to organization	0,849	0,653	17,449	3,21
	Emotional attachment	0,843			
Total			0,618	70,852	2,86
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.					0,742
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity			Approx. Chi-Square		393,429
			df		36
			Sig.		0,000

The following eleven questions are dropped:

Question no	Item label	Item description
1	Fair schedule	Fairness of work schedule
2	Fair payment	Fairness of pay
3	Fair workload	Fairness of workload
5	Fair responsibilities	Fairness of job responsibilities
7	Listening to concerns	Manager listens before for job decisions
8	Extra information	Manager provides Extra information for decisions
10	Challenge decisions	Allowed to challenge job decisions of manager
14	Truthful manner	Manager deals in a truthful manner
15	Concern for rights	Manager shows concern for employee rights
16	Explanation of details	Manager discusses the implications of decisions
17	Adequate justification	Manager brings adequate decision justifications

The findings of above factor analysis table are satisfactory. Factors are determined in parallel with literature survey. Levels of reliability, variance explained, sampling adequacy are strong enough to agree for further analyses of the study. The highest mean points among the organizational commitment constructs is the affective commitment.

5.4. Hypothesis Testing

The Correlation analysis is required before a relatedness analysis is to be performed between the two main issues, the organizational justice and the organizational commitment. The correlation table is in Appendix, covers not only the organizational justice and the organizational commitment but also their constructs' correlations. That correlation analyses yielded positive results so that a relatedness analysis is encouraged. A correlation test is conducted in order to realize the purpose of finding the relatedness.

The coefficients Organizational Justice sub-dimensions (constructs) such as Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice and Interactional Justice of the multiple regression model developed for Normative Commitment are given at the below table.

Table 5.5. Coefficients for Normative Commitment Multiple Regression Model

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	0,666	0,283		2,353	0,020
	Distributive Justice	0,342	0,091	0,311	3,773	0,000
	Procedural Justice	0,017	0,110	0,017	0,156	0,876
	Interactional Justice	0,373	0,121	0,339	3,078	0,003
	R	0,560 ^a				
	R ²	0,313				
	Adjusted R ²	0,297				
	Residual	92,050				

According to the results given at the above table the following multiple regression model could be written for defining Normative Commitment in terms of Organizational Justice sub-dimensions (constructs) such as Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice and Interactional Justice

Normative Commitment = 0,666+ 0,342 Distributive Justice + 0,017 Procedural Justice + 0,373 Interactional Justice + 92,050

Adj R² (Normative Commitment) = 0,297 is noted for comparison purpose to be carried.

Affective Commitment Multiple Regression Model

A multiple regression model is developed where Affective Commitment is defined by Organizational Justice sub-dimensions (constructs) such as Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice and Interactional Justice. The multiple regression model developed is summarized at

The coefficients Organizational Justice sub-dimensions (constructs) such as Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice and Interactional Justice of the multiple regression model developed for Affective Commitment are given at the below table.

Table 5.6. Coefficients for Affective Commitment Multiple Regression Model

The Effect of Organizational Justice on The Organizational Commitment

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,394	0,336		10,098	0,000
	Distributive Justice	-0,182	0,108	-0,163	-1,693	0,093
	Procedural Justice	-0,230	0,131	-0,229	-1,759	0,081
	Interactional Justice	0,312	0,144	0,280	2,171	0,032
	R	0,239 ^a				
	R ²	0,057				
	Adjusted R ²	0,035				
	Residual	129,702				

According to the results given at the above table the following multiple regression model could be written for defining Affective Commitment in terms of Organizational Justice sub-dimensions (constructs) such as Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice and Interactional Justice.

Affective Commitment = 3,394 - 0,182 Distributive Justice - 0,230 Procedural Justice + 0,312 Interactional Justice + 129,702

Adj R² (Affective Commitment) = 0,035 is noted for comparison purpose to be carried.

Continuance Commitment Multiple Regression Model

A multiple regression model is developed where Continuance Commitment is defined by Organizational Justice sub-dimensions (constructs) such as Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice and Interactional Justice. The multiple regression model developed is summarized at below.

The coefficients Organizational Justice sub-dimensions (constructs) such as Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice and Interactional Justice of the multiple regression model developed for Continuance Commitment are given at the below table.

According to the results given at the above table the following multiple regression model could be written for defining Continuance Commitment in terms of Organizational Justice sub-dimensions (constructs) such as Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice and Interactional Justice

Continuance Commitment = 0,196 - 0,051 Distributive Justice + 0,303 Procedural Justice + 0,708 Interactional Justice + 13,948

Adj R² (Continuance Commitment) = 0,877 is noted for comparison purpose to be carried.

Interactional Justice is regressed with 0,373 value coefficient (with statistical significance $p < 0,05$; $p = 0,003$) at Table 5.6. Coefficients for Normative Commitment Multiple Regression Model, with 0,312 value coefficient (with statistical significance $p < 0,05$; $p = 0,032$) at Table 5.8. Coefficients for Affective Commitment Multiple Regression Model and with 0,708 value coefficient (with statistical significance $p < 0,05$; $p = 0,000$) at Table 5.10. Coefficients for Continuance Commitment Multiple Regression Model. Therefore "H₂: Interactional Justice combinatorily defines Continuance Commitment, Normative Commitment and Affective Commitment significantly" is agreed.

On the other hand; comparing the above noted Adjusted R^2 's of each commitment construct according to organizational justice constructs:

Adj R^2 (Continuance Commitment) = 0,877

> Adj R^2 (Normative Commitment) = 0,297

> Adj R^2 (Affective Commitment) = 0,035

Therefore “ H_3 : Continuance Commitment is better defined than Normative Commitment and Affective Commitment by organizational justice constructs” is agreed.

5. Conclusion

The organizational justice and the organizational commitment are attitudinal issues in their nature. The distinction between the attitudinal and behavioral approaches is important and they should be held carefully not to cause any confusion. In the attitudinal approach, issues are directed largely at identification of the antecedent conditions that contribute to the development of commitment and at the behavioral consequences of this commitment. In the behavioral approach, issues are used to be focused primarily on identifying conditions under which a behavior (if it is exhibited) tends to be repeated, as well as on the effects of such behavior on attitude change. This study employs attitudinal approach.

The fairness feeling is important in the organizational world and it is held under the concept of justice in this study. A three component model of organizational justice is used in the study. These components are distributive, procedural, and interactional theories. These theories are based on some social theories held in the study. Theories of Procedural Justice are held for followings: (a) Referent Cognitions Theory, (b) The Self-Interest Model, (c) The Group-Value Model, (d) The Value-Expressive Approach and (e) The Procedural Preferences Model. Theories of Distributive Justice are held for: (a) Equity Theory, (b) The Justice Judgment Model, (c) The Justice Motive Theory and (d) Relative Deprivation Theory.

The justice approach is based on principles of equity, fairness, and impartiality. Three types of justice are of concern to managers. Distributive justice refers that different treatment of people not is based on arbitrary characteristics. Procedural justice refers that rules be administered fairly. Rules must be obviously stated and impartially enforced. Interactional justice refers to the social enactment of that procedure (Greenberg and Cropanzano, 2001). Individuals take action to the quality of their interpersonal treatment as much as structural aspects of the process. The three-component conceptualization of organizational justice is regarded as the dominant model in organizational justice research.

The organizational commitment level of the medical doctors is related to their organizational justice level in parametric terms and are alike in absolute terms. In details, the organizational justice level of medical doctors is slightly bigger than their organizational commitment points, in arithmetic absolute terms. The relatedness of organizational justice and the organizational commitment levels of the medical doctors are in accordance with the organizational theory literature.

The second mind expanding and hypothetical issue is that the continuance commitment is better defined (among other organizational commitment constructs like normative commitment and affective commitment) by organizational justice constructs significantly by the procedural justice and the interactional justice. This result justifies the construing efforts showing that medical doctors have greater occupational mobility and they depend on factual thinking. Besides, this may imply that medical doctors have high expectations from hospitals, the health care organizations which employ them. Medical doctors invest much in those hospitals.

Lahiry's study (1994) of a large public sector undertaking attempted to establish a relationship between organizational culture and the three components of organizational commitment, namely, affective continuance and normative commitment. It was found that while a high level of continuance commitment may keep an employee tied to an organization, it is unlikely to produce a high level of performance. In line with the culture-commitment relationship, Odom et al. (1990) examined the concept of organizational culture, employee commitment, job satisfaction and work group cohesion among executives. The results indicated that the respondents perceived their organization as primarily

The Effect of Organizational Justice on The Organizational Commitment

bureaucratic. Over 85 per cent reported that terms like procedural, structured, orderly, established and regulated described their organizations most or a fair amount of the time. Commitment, satisfaction and cohesion were identified with supportive and innovative cultural dimensions and their work, not with the bureaucratic aspect.

Conceptually as well as in terms of predictive power, whether sector type and management sector (public vs. private) has any bearing on organizational commitment was investigated by Steinhilber and Perry (1996). The results suggest that the sector categorization (its nature) is better at predicting organizational commitment than is the public/ private categorization. The presence of organizational commitment may be a function of factors that are more micro in nature than either of these categories.

In a similar line of research, Balfour and Wechsler (1991) used samples from public organizations to establish the connection between commitment and organizational performance. The results indicated that employees develop a sense of attachment to an organization mainly on the basis of whether they perceive it to be supportive of their values and a hospitable and socially satisfying place to work. This finding implies that employee commitment and attachment to the organization can be increased through efforts to improve the organization's social environment and purposiveness and does not require pay hikes. Although significant benefits may be gained from efforts to increase employee commitment, enhanced productivity may not be one of them.

6. References

- Balfour, D.L. and Wechsler, B. (1991). Commitment, performance and productivity in public organizations. *Public Productivity and Management Review*, 14 (4), 355-367.
- Becker, H. S. (1960). Notes on the concept of commitment. *American Journal of Sociology*, 66 (1), 32-40.
- Beugre, C.D. (1998). *Managing fairness in organizations*, Greenwood Publishing, Westport.
- Bies, R.J. (2001). Interactional (in)justice: The sacred and the profane; in Greenberg, J.S. and Cropanzano, R. (Editors) (2001). *Advances in organizational justice*, Stanford University Press, Palo Alto, California.
- Cole, Nina D. (2004). Gender differences in perceived disciplinary fairness. *Gender, Work and Organization*, 11 (3), 254-279.
- Daft, R.L. (2000). *Management*, 5th Edition, The Dryden Press, Orlando.
- Dessler, G. (2004). *Management: Principles and practices for tomorrow's leaders*, 3d Ed., Pearson Prentice Hall, New Jersey.
- Folger, R. and Konovsky, M.A. (1989). Effects of procedural and distributive justice on reactions to pay raise decisions. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 32 (1), March, 115-130.
- Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today and tomorrow. *Journal of Management*, 16 (2), June, 399-432.
- Greenberg, J. (1993). "The social side of fairness: interpersonal and informational classes of organizational justice", in Cropanzano, R. (Ed.), *Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management*, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Hillsdale, NJ, 79-103.
- Greenberg, J.S. and Cropanzano, R. (Editors) (2001). *Advances in organizational justice*, Stanford University Press, Palo Alto, California.
- Griffin, M.L. Hepburn, J.R. (2005) Side-bets and reciprocity as determinants of organizational commitment among correctional officers, *Journal of Criminal Justice* 33, 611-625
- <https://www.oecd.org/health/Health-Brochure.pdf> s.10-16
- Lahiry, S. (1994). Building commitment through organizational culture. *Training and Development*, 48 (4), 50-52.
- Meyer, J.P. and Allen, N.J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1 (1), 61-89.
- Meyer, J.P. and Allen, N.J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: theory, research, and application*. Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, California.
- Mikula, G., Petri, B. and Tanzer, N. (1989). What people regard as unjust: Types and structures of everyday experiences of injustice, *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 20, 133-149.

- Moorman, R.H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76 (6), 845-855.
- Nabatchi, T., Bingham, L.B. and Good, D.H. (2007). Organizational justice and workplace mediation: a six-factor model. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 18 (2), 148-174.
- Newell, S. (1995). *The healthy organization: Fairness, ethics, and effective management*, Routledge, London.
- OECD (2008). *How Does Turkey Compare, OECD Health Data 2008 Statistics and Indicators for 20 Countries*, IRDES Institut de recherche et documentation en économie de la santé, OECD Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris.
- OECD Health Statistics 2015, s.1, <https://www.oecd.org/els/health-systems/Country-Note-TURKEY-OECD-Health-Statistics-2015.pdf>, 07.02.2017
- OECD Health Care Quality Framework (OECD Health Working Paper No. 23.03.2006 (<http://www.oecd.org/els/health-systems/health-care-quality-indicators.htm>), 06.02.2017)
- Odom, R.Y., Boxx, W.R. and Dunn, M.G. (1990). Organizational cultures, commitment, satisfaction and cohesion. *Public Productivity and Management Review*, 14 (2), 157-169.
- Ofenloch, C. and Madukanya, V. (2007). Organisationales commitment: entstehungsbedingungen und einflussfaktoren am beispiel einer deutschen großbank. *Mannheimer Beiträge zur Wirtschafts- und Organisationspsychologie*, (1/2007), 9-16.
- Porter, L.W., Steers, R.M., Mowday, R.T. and Boulian, P.V. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59 (5), 603-609.
- Robbins, S.P. and Decenzo, D.A. (2004). *Fundamentals of management: Essential concepts and applications*, 4th Ed., Prentice Hall, New Jersey.
- Scandura, T.A. (1999). Rethinking leader-member exchange: An organizational justice perspective. *Leadership Quarterly*, 10 (1), 25-40.
- Scott, W.R. (2003). *Organizations: Rational, natural, and open systems*, Stanford University, Prentice Hall, New Jersey.
- Steinhaus, C.S. and Perry, J.L. (1996). Organizational commitment: Does sector matter. *Public Productivity and Management Review*, 19 (3), 278-288.
- Tyler, T.R. (2004). Justice, Identity and Leadership; in van Knippenberg, D. and Hogg, M.A. (Eds) (2004). *Leadership and Power: Identity Processes in Groups and Organizations*, Sage Publications, London.
- Van der Weyden, M.B. (2005). What is a doctor, and what does a doctor do? *The Medical Journal of Australia*, 183 (11/12), 560-561

The Impact of Health Expenditures on Development: An Econometric Application on OECD Countries

Simay Kızılkaya

I. Introduction

For many years, the countries which are dedicated improving the health of their societies have been trying to maintain sustainability by implementing different investment tools and strategies in this respect. World Health Organization that aims to build a better and healthier future for the whole world defines health as a condition in which physical, mental and social well-being are fully developed and there are no illnesses and weaknesses. The health-related regimes and strategies applied differ from country to country, since the economic, social, geographical and organizational conditions of the countries also differ. The emergence of these differences and the manifestation of different effects bring together the diversity of countries' levels of health, quality of life and developments.

The motivation of this study is to investigate the impact of health expenditures on countries' development, as all countries aim at better health conditions for their societies. In addition, having healthy generations which is possible by creating policies that will increase spending with investments and expenditures in this area is a momentous step in production, growth and development of countries. This paper focuses on OECD countries while performing empirical analysis by considering that closer development levels of countries could be more appropriate to analyze such a concern, since these countries have gained such a momentum in terms of development. Simply, as far as the theoretical background suggests, when GDP is calculated by expenditure method, health expenditure of country is a sub-component that affects growth positively. However, examining the development of countries requires much more sophisticated research.

The term "development" requires comprehensive clarification. At this stage, before development is defined, it is crucial to emphasize that development and growth are different from each other. Economic growth, measured annually, is the real increase in the measure of a country's output or real gross domestic product. On the other hand, development includes economic, social, institutional, environmental and other aspects and their improvements at the same time. Nowadays, many of the countries that are considered as developed or developing have differences in attaining several development targets. There are many studies exploring the growth and development of countries based on various factors, however, when the subject is examined via health expenditures, it is usually growth. This study aims to contribute to the literature by investigating the effect of health expenditure on development and measuring the performance of various other factors for development. Two more factors are included in the panel data analysis.

All in all, general aim of the study is to investigate whether health expenditures, importance given to education and life standards influence development of countries over the years or not. In the following sections, relevant theoretical background, literature, variety of health expenditures among OECD countries, the data set, and econometric methodology are explained. Then, panel regression analysis and results are discussed.

II. Theories of Endogenous Growth and Capabilities Approach

Since there is not a strong theory that underlines this study's focus, this part of the study aims to associate the model that will be constructed with the most related theoretical studies. Growth theories in contrast to development theories are diverse and powerful. The reason for mentioning endogenous growth models in this part of the study is that a variable such as educational expenditure may be included in such models. Since this study focuses on both educational and health indicators, it might have an association with endogenous growth models. Models that show steady growth even without technological progress are called endogenous growth models, reflecting the fact that the growth rate

in these models changes even in the long run on variables such as saving rate and spending on education (Blanchard & Johnson, 2013). According to endogenous growth models, growth is dependent on various variables such as saving rate and education expenditure rate even in the long term (Romer, 1994). Romer's model includes four factors in the production function: labor, capital, technology and human capital. The human capital part of the model might be associated with improvement of health and educational of countries. If human capital is associated with increasing level of production, the development of countries can be affected in the same direction.

Another related approach to development is the "Capabilities Approach", which was introduced by Amartya Sen in 1979 in his study titled *Equality of What?* (Sen, 1980). As a moral framework, the Capabilities Approach considers human life as a sequence of doings and being as combinations of functioning. In general, this approach links to quality of life and capability to function (Sen, 1990). According to Human Development Report in 1990, enlarging choice of people in a process is called human development (UNDP, 1990). As development's objective is expanding people's choices, and expanding people's choices is related with capacities, it can be observed that the capabilities approach is in parallel with. It is emphasized that the neglect of the human dimension of development is the main concern of this approach.

III. Previous Studies on Health, Growth and Development

In recent years, theoretical and empirical contributions to economic growth and development literature have emphasized the importance of human health and healthy generations. When empirical studies are examined, the most concentrated issue is the factors that affect growth. Since development is more comprehensive than growth, this part of the study will first examine the studies on growth, and then the studies on development which are related with health expenditures.

One of the studies conducted by Karabulut (1998) is about Turkey as an OECD member and it includes both historical information and empirical analyzes. The theoretical part analyzed in the study aims to compare Turkey and other countries in terms of health sector indicators. It is a study that examines the period of 1963-1997. The result of this study is that the health sector indicators in Turkey are considerably lower than the developed countries which states the relative low level of health expenditure has the negative impact on growth, development and continuation of other indicators (Karabulut, 1998). The outcome of this study demonstrates that although OECD countries seem to be a group of clustered nations, there may be a high degree of divergence in health expenditures and development levels among their selves.

Another study that investigates the impact of health expenditures on growth, the idea that when education and health are thought to be the two main components of human capital, that investments in related areas can directly affect the human capital level of individuals is being developed by authors. The analytical study covers 15 OECD countries for the years between 1990 and 2006. As a result of this analysis, no statistically significant relation was found between health spending and economic growth (Çetin & Ecevit, 2010). As a study which found out the same result with Karabulut (1998) examines health expenditures and health levels to group OECD countries according to their similarities and differences on this issue. This article is an ideal work for the OECD countries to understand the work they do on health, the developments they have shown, and the economic structures of the countries. One of the most striking results of this study is that the share allocated to health expenditure in Turkey compared to other countries is quite low (Ersöz, 2008).

It is necessary to look at broad-minded studies after the studies on the basis of countries on health expenditure and economic growth are reviewed. One of the extensive studies includes 31 countries, and examines the relationship between health spending and economic growth with a 21-year dataset. The data analyzed in two stages are subjected to the panel data analysis in the first stage and it is revealed that there is a positive relation between them again, as a result of the analysis (Wang, 2011). The reason why economic growth is so much emphasized is that it is one of the significant indicators of development and that it makes the lives of individuals better in terms of quality of life and welfare.

The article to be mentioned now is included in the study because the methods used, although not overlapping with the focus of this research proposal, article is very informative and enlightening about

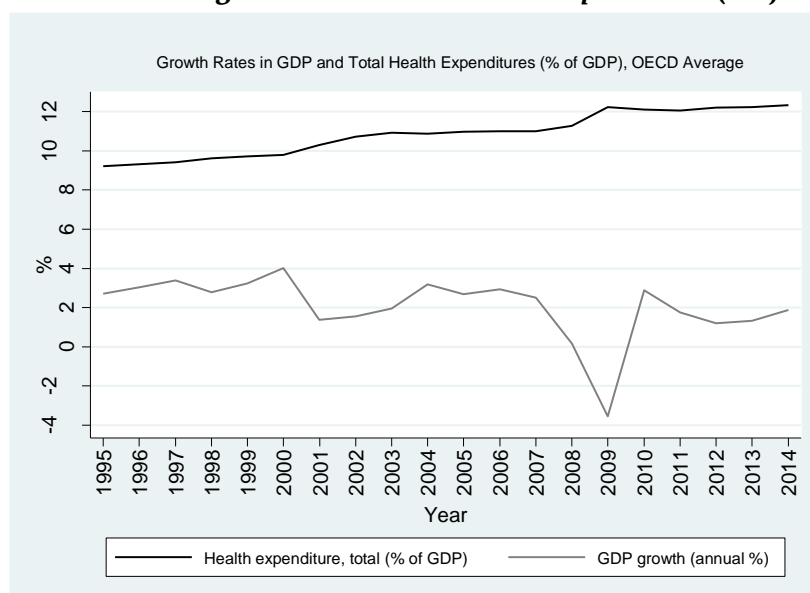
The Impact of Health Expenditures on Development

Human Development Index which is a significant indicator of development and has three main components which are about education, health and income (Pineda & Rodriguez, 2010). While the most recent version of the Human Development Index, a strong the development indicator is examined by authors, by the contribution of literature, study has examined impacts of health expenditures, quality of education and quality of life on development has been carried out from three main components.

IV. Why Do Health Expenditures Differ Among OECD Countries?

Even in countries that have come together for the sake of a common purpose, the importance given to health and the expenditures made and the investments vary. This part of the study will briefly reveal differences in health expenditures among OECD countries. Health expenditures might be provided from two different channels; By the public or private. The investments made by governments in this context, the informants and the incentives are crucial. Countries, especially the OECD members, have shown at every opportunity the importance they place on health expenditures, but the statistics do not prove that it is so important.

Graph 1: OECD Countries Average GDP Growth and Health Expenditures (% of GDP) Comparison



Source: World Health Organization Global Health Expenditure database.

Above Graph 1 presents a comparison the trends of OECD members' average GDP growths and the share of total health expenditures in GDP for the period 1995-2014. It is possible to observe volatility of GDP growth rates with crises over the years. However, even in the post-crisis period in 2009, while average GDP growth of OECD declines, it is observed that the share of health expenditures in GDP has increased slightly.

After looking at the OECD in general, it is necessary point out the country that attracts the most attention to health expenditures among OECD members; United States of America. USA is the country with the largest share of health expenditures in GDP among 35 OECD countries. Norway which the country with the highest per capita income among OECD countries is lagging to catch USA in terms of health expenditures. It is obvious that health expenditures affect health conditions via affecting quality of health services but it is crucial to measure the effectiveness of both the investments and expenditures on health by governments or privately.

Graph 2: Different Health Expenditures Levels Among Some OECD Countries



Source: World Health Organization Global Health Expenditure database.

To mention the difference in the share of health expenditures in GDP in OECD countries, which are generally composed of high-income countries; Between 1995 and 2010, the lowest value among the 31 OECD countries was Turkey in 1995 with approximately 2.5%, while the highest value was USA in 2010 with approximately 17%. Furthermore, the highest value in 1995 is 13% in USA as it was in 2010 among OECD countries. One of the most spectacular causes of these differences is the diversity of welfare levels among countries. It can also be seen from the example of Turkey-USA that among the OECD countries assumed to be close to each other, income levels are quite different. These differences, as well as the decisions made by governments and policy makers and individuals' tendencies are shaping the country's overall investments and expenditures in terms of health. If we make a general conclusion from all these, it is observed that the health expenditures are higher and tend to increase in the countries with high level of welfare according to OECD statistics.

V. Construction of the Data Set and Model

The existence of a relationship between health and development will be estimated using the below model, considering the variables expressed in Table 1.

$$hhdi_{it} = a_i + \beta_1 hexp_{it} + \beta_2 enroll_{it} + \beta_3 grow_{it} + u_{it} \quad (1)$$

The above model is estimated with fixed effect regression using the Driscoll-Kraay Standard Errors approach. STATA 13 program was used for the analysis.

Table 1: Description of Variables

Variables	Description
<i>hhdi</i>	country i's Hybrid Human Development Index during time t
<i>hexp</i>	country i's Health Expenditures (% of GDP) during time t
<i>enroll</i>	country i's Tertiary School Enrollment (% gross) during time t
<i>grow</i>	country i's Annual Growth Rate (%) during time t

The dataset generated includes all OECD countries except Germany, Slovakia, Canada and Czech Republic between 1995 and 2010. The definitions and units of all variables that are presented in Table 1 to be analyzed are explained in this part of the study. Whole data is collected from United Nations Development Programme, World Bank, OECD Data Base and TÜİK. There will be a dataset which

The Impact of Health Expenditures on Development

consists of four main variables which are main indicators related with the article's topic that Hybrid Human Development Index, Total Expenditures on Health as % of GDP, Tertiary School Enrollment (% gross) and GDP Growth Rates (annual %).

The dependent variable is Hybrid Human Development Index, which is one of the most important indicators of development. Hybrid HDI with the most recent calculation formula is used in this analysis. According to Human Development Report in 2010, Hybrid HDI consists of three main dimensions which are life expectancy, literacy, gross enrollment and GDP per capita (United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 2010). Hybrid HDI ranks between 0 and 1. When countries approach to one in terms of HDI, it is a good sign for them. Namely, if the rank is closer to zero country's human development is lower, on the contrary, if the rank is closer to one this refers to a higher human development, relatively.

According to World Health Organization definition with the full title Total Expenditure on Health is calculated in national currency units in current prices, the sum of both general government health expenditures and private health expenditure in a given year. *hexp* is the Total Health Expenditure as Percentage of Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

One of the variables that may influence HDI is education. The importance of education has become a distinctive feature in terms of growth and development. To investigate such a relation between an education indicator and development, Tertiary School Enrollment (% of gross) is used. According to the definition of World Bank, Gross enrollment ratio is the ratio of total enrollment, regardless of age, to the population of the age group that officially corresponds to the level of education shown. Tertiary education, whether or not to an advanced research qualification, normally requires, as a minimum condition of admission, the successful completion of education at the secondary level (World Bank, 2017).

Finally, the last variable that is included in the analysis is economic growth rate. Since Hybrid HDI includes a standard of living component as Gross Domestic Product Per Capita, focusing on the impact of the growth rates of countries on development may have implications for HDI. An increase in the growth rates of countries could be a sign that people could live a better life and countries would be more developed by these increases. According to the definition of the World Bank, Annual Percentage Growth Rate of GDP at market prices based on constant 2010 U.S. dollars is used for the analysis (World Bank, 2017). GDP by the expenditure approach is the sum of Consumption (C), Investment (I), Government Expenditure (G), and Net Exports (NX) (Parkin, 2013).

In terms of components of Hybrid HDI, it should be also indicated that long and healthy life is measured by life expectancy at birth, knowledge is measured by both mean years of schooling and expected years of schooling and the third one, standard of living is measured by GDP per capita. To demonstrate a couple of variables that might be affect Hybrid HDI, it is aimed to present a quality and importance measure for all the components of Hybrid HDI. The descriptive statistics of the above-mentioned data will be interpreted in this part of the study.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for Variables

Variables	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max	Obsv.
<i>hhdi</i>	.8532762	.0525504	.6723124	.9382846	487
<i>hexp</i>	8.077577	2.043893	2.507033	17.01676	487
<i>enroll</i>	56.86406	18.72883	7.3809	102.7309	468
<i>grow</i>	2.949905	3.339709	-14.72438	11.88939	484

"*hexp*", on average, is 8.07% in the selected period for OECD countries. The minimum values of "*hhdi*" & "*hexp*" belong to Turkey in 1995. This shows that Turkey has the least amount of investment and expenditure on health among OECD countries. The country that has the highest value over the years in terms of health expenditures as share of GDP is the USA as mentioned previously in section 4.

Another variable that will be included is related to education. The tertiary education data "*enroll*" can be considered important as it shows an optional type of education, which is not compulsory. In order to monitor development via human development index, the level of education is investigated. In this context, among OECD countries in the period, average tertiary school enrollment rate is approximately

56.86%. The high standard error for this variable indicates the extent of differences between OECD countries. When the minimum value of the enrollment variable is examined, it is observed that it belongs to Luxembourg in 1995. Luxembourg maintains this low course until 2010 in comparison to other OECD members. However, it should be noted that these values are gross. For this reason, the value can be more than 100. For instance, the maximum value was about 102.73 in Greece in 2010. This value cannot be regarded as importance given to education and education level because this value includes year repetition and late registration. Furthermore, the length of education varies from country to country, for example, a shorter primary education period will increase this rate, and a longer education period will decrease.

The last variable is the “*grow*”, which is GDP growth rate that is most associated with development in the literature. This variable is much more sensitive than other variables and can be affected by many changes. The OECD average is approximately 2.94%. There is a very serious difference between the minimum and maximum values, but this may be due to the examination of the 16 years’ period. Among the 31 countries, the lowest value belongs to Estonia in 2009 with an approximate of -14.72%. One of main reasons for the fall is the 2008 financial crisis according to literature. The country with the highest growth rate in 16 years is Latvia in 2006 with about 11.88%. However, this rise does not last long, and with the arrival of the financial crisis, negative values are observed in some years after 2008.

VI. Econometric Methodology

In the previous parts of the study, health expenditure and economic growth, development oriented theoretical and empirical literature were examined. In this section, the necessary methodology is established to analyze whether there is an empirical relationship between the Hybrid Human Development Index, which is one of the most important indicators of development according to literature and health expenditures with some other possibly related variables of development. Here, the panel regression analysis used in the study and the tests required for the data are introduced from the theoretical point of view.

The case in which the panel data set contains a time series of equal length for each cross section is called a balanced panel; change of time series lengths from cross-section to cross-section is called unbalanced panel. This study works with unbalanced panel dataset because the data to be used differs from country to country and the dates to be accessed are different. It is known that there are constraints on estimation methods and tests to be used in unbalanced panel data.

The fixed effect model will be used in this study and how the decision is made will be explained in the analysis part. Fixed coefficient models are used in the case of affecting the slope coefficients of unit effects. Such a model;

$$Y_{it} = a_{ki}X_{it} + u_{it} \quad i = 1,2, \dots, N; t = 1,2, \dots, T; k = 1, \dots, K \quad (2)$$

i. Panel Unit Root Tests

While working with panel data, there is a fact that the nonstationary series causes spurious regressions. To detect such a problem, unit root tests are used. This study will not be able to apply all unit root tests because it works with an unbalanced dataset. To test the variables whether they are stationary or not Im, Pesaran and Shin panel unit root test will be used. This test provides a standardized t-bar test statistic based on Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) statistics averaged across the groups (Im, Pesaran, & Shin, 2003). This test will be examined in two models for each data, with constant and with both constant and trend.

Table 3: Im, Pesaran, Shin Unit Root Test Results

Variables	Model	W statistics	Result
<i>hhdi</i>	Constant	-6.3672*	I(0)
	Constant-Trend	6.7675	I(1)
<i>hexp</i>	Constant	4.0242	I(1)
	Constant-Trend	-2.3097*	I(0)
<i>enroll</i>	Constant	2.1524	I(1)
	Constant-Trend	2.7190	I(1)
<i>grow</i>	Constant	-7.3428*	I(0)
	Constant-Trend	-6.6155*	I(0)
<i>dhhdi</i>	Constant	-4.3106*	I(0)
	Constant-Trend	-6.4748*	I(0)
<i>dhexp</i>	Constant	-12.7281*	I(0)
	Constant-Trend	-9.8305*	I(0)
<i>denroll</i>	Constant	-5.3347*	I(0)
	Constant-Trend	-5.5353*	I(0)

Note: * implies that the hypothesis is rejected according to p-value.

Above Table 3 presents Im, Pesaran and Shin (2003) panel unit root test results. The null hypothesis of this test is all panels contain unit root. So, if the H_0 cannot be rejected that means panel contains unit root and with this variable, regression might be spurious. According to empirical results, H_0 cannot be rejected for hybrid HDI, health expenditures with constant, tertiary school enrollment (% gross). One of the most basic ways of solving the unit root problem is to take the first difference of variables. When the first difference is calculated for the variables (*dhhdi*, *dhexp*, *denroll*) with the unit root problem, all the series became stationary as seen in the Table 3. Participating in the analysis after all series become stationary will give more healthy results.

VII. Panel Regression Analysis Results

Table 4 presents the results of regression using the fixed effect method with the Driscoll-Kraay Standard Errors approach. Before evaluating the results, it is necessary to analyze whether there are autocorrelation and heteroskedasticity problems in the model. Wooldridge test was used for autocorrelation analysis. Wooldridge test's null hypothesis is no first order autocorrelation. Test's probability value is 0.000 which means null hypothesis rejected, there is autocorrelation in the model. On the other hand, to analyze heteroskedasticity Modified Wald test is used. The Wald statistic examines the null hypothesis that the variance of each unit is equal to the panel average, and whether the variance varies with the units for fixed effects models. The probability value of Modified Wald test is 0.000 which means there is a heteroskedasticity problem in the model. When the Hausman specification test is applied to determine appropriate estimation method between random and fixed effects, it is concluded that it is better to estimate the model with fixed effects. Driscoll-Kraay Standard Errors approach can be used for fixed effect models where autocorrelation and heteroskedasticity problems coexist (Driscoll & Kraay, 1998). After these corrections are made, the estimation results of the panel regression analysis can be evaluated.

Table 4: Estimated Model Results (Method: Fixed Effects Regression)

Variables	Coef.	Drisc/Kraay		
		Std. Err.	t-statistics	P> t
<i>Dhexp</i>	.0011249	.0004004	2.81	0.014
<i>denroll</i>	.0003572	.0000614	5.82	0.000
<i>Grow</i>	.0005951	.0000775	7.68	0.000
<i>Cons</i>	.0010207	.0004001	2.55	0.023

Number of Obs.=423

Number of groups=31

F(3,14)=347.40

Prob>F=0.0000

within R-squared=0.3830

First differences of some variables are included in the model to eliminate the unit root problem. Table 4 shows that the within R-squared value 0.3830 indicates that the independent variables can explain for 38.3% of the changes in dependent variable. The result of the F-statistic indicates that the model is meaningful as a whole. Empirical results show that the change in health expenditure as % of GDP, change tertiary school enrollment, and growth rate variables have positive effects on the change in the index of human development and all independent variables are statistically significant. According to estimation results, a positive change in health expenditures will have a positive effect on the change in human development, as expected and it can be stated that it presents the strongest effect from the coefficient than other variables, respectively. The estimation results are evidence of the hypothesis that health expenditures positively affect development. On the other hand, tertiary education, i.e. non-compulsory education, shows an increase in development in the case of increased participation, indicating the importance of education in terms of countries. Economically, if the GDP growth rates increase, welfare levels increase and accordingly development can be achieved that can be observed from the result of analysis.

VIII. Conclusion

From the perspective that the importance of health expenditures by governments' incentives, policies for raising awareness to affect citizens' idea of increasing the value of it that the existence of a relationship between human development index which is one of the strongest indicators of development of countries is examined. From this point of view, whether there is a long-term relationship between health expenditures and development has been empirically analyzed in the study. In the 1995-2010 period, a panel regression analysis was conducted based on the annual data for 31 OECD countries.

In the study, Im, Pesaran, Shin panel unit root test was applied and some variables were found to be non-stationary. The first difference of the variables required to get rid of the unit root problem is calculated. It is determined that all variables are stationary, that is, $I(0)$, according to the repeated unit root test result after this application. According to the Hausman test result, it was decided to make a prediction with the fixed effect model. After the model was established, heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation tests were applied. The presence of the heteroskedasticity was analyzed by Modified Wald test, the result was there is heteroskedasticity problem in the model. Then, according to the Wooldridge test, there is autocorrelation problem in the model too. It has been decided to estimate the model by the Driscoll-Kraay Standard Errors Approach which is a solution to these two problems. According to estimation results, as independent variables; health expenditures as % of GDP, tertiary school enrollment (% gross), growth rate (annual %) was statistically significant and have positive coefficients. This means that all variables used in the model increase the hybrid human development index which is one of the most important indicators of development.

The conclusion that can be drawn from that is health expenditures need to be bi-directionally increased by countries, both by the state and individuals of society to stimulate healthy generations

and development. In this context, both governments and individuals have great responsibility for the stability of their future and raising healthy generations to stimulate and sustain their developments.

References

- Blanchard , O., & Johnson, D. (2013). *Macroeconomics*. London: Pearson Education.
- Çetin, M., & Ecevit, E. (2010). Sağlık Harcamalarının Ekonomik Büyüme Üzerindeki Etkisi:OECD Ülkeleri Üzerine Bir Panel Regresyon Analizi. *Doğuş Üniversitesi Dergisi*.
- Driscoll, J., & Kraay, A. (1998). Consistent Covariance Matrix Estimation with Spatially Dependent Panel Data. *Review of Economics and Statistics* 80, p. 549-560.
- Ersöz, F. (2008). Türkiye ile OECD Ülkelerinin Sağlık Düzeyleri ve Sağlık Harcamalarının Analizi. *İstatistikçiler Dergisi*.
- Güriş, S. (2015). Tek Faktörlü Sabit Etkili Modeller. S. Güriş içinde, *STATA ile Panel Veri Modelleri* (s. 16). İstanbul : Der Yayınları.
- Im, K., Pesaran, M., & Shin, Y. (2003, January 12). Testing for Unit Roots in Heterogeneous Panels. *Journal of Econometrics* , p. 53-74.
- İvrendi, M. (2016). Unpublished Seminar Notes: Applied Econometrics with STATA. *Economics Summer Seminars*. Denizli: Pamukkale University.
- Karabulut, K. (1998). Türkiye'de Sağlık Sektörü-Sağlık Harcamaları Üzerine Bir Uygulama. Erzurum, Türkiye: Atatürk Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- Parkin, M. (2013). *Economics* (11th ed.). Prentice Hall.
- Pineda, J., & Rodriguez, F. (2010). Curse or Blessing? Natural Resources and Human Development. *United Nations Development Programme* .
- Romer, P. M. (1994). The Origins of Endogenous Growth. *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 3-22.
- Sen, A. K. (1980). *Equality of What?* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sen, A. K. (1990). *Development as Capability Expansion*. The Community Development Reader.
- Taban, S., Günsoy , B., Günsoy, G., Erdinç, Z., & Aktaş, M. (2013). *İktisadi Büyüme*. Eskişehir: Anadolu Üniversitesi.
- UNDP. (1990). *Human Development Report 1990*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). (2010). *Human Development Report 2010 The Real Wealth of Nations: Pathway to Human Development*. New York: UNDP.
- Wang, K.-M. (2011). Health Care Expenditure and Economic Growth: Quantile Panel-Type Analysis. *Economic Modelling*.
- WHO, W. H. (2017). What is the WHO definition of health? *International Health Conference*. New York.
- Wooldridge, J. M. (2003). *Econometric Analysis of Cross Section and Panel Data*. Cambridge: The MIT Press.
- World Bank. (2017). *World Bank*. World Bank Web Site retrieved at March 01, 2017, from : <http://www.worldbank.org>
- World Health Organization. (2006). *The World Health Report 2006 - Working Together for Health*. Geneva : WHO Press.

The Effects of Knowledge Management Practices on Organizational Performance: Mediating Role of Organizational Social Capital

Durdu Mehmet Biçkes, Celal Yılmaz, Mustafa Karaca

1. Introduction

Nowadays, transformation and change have gained a rapid attribute which cannot be compared with the previous periods. Organizations need some priorities to sustain their presence and achieve their performance goals in the environment where change is the key determinant. These priorities can be classified as employing qualified human resource, effective human resource practices, knowledge management, organizational learning, core competence, environmental adaptation, innovation, organizational social capital and so on. In the process of internalizing environmental changes, it can be said that knowledge management has vital importance, however in the process of transferring the outputs emerged from the knowledge management practices into organizational activities, social capital plays an important role for enterprises.

Knowledge management, focusing on the management of complexity, uncertainty and change, is defined as “the process of collecting, interpreting, and using of the various knowledge needed to achieve organizational goal”. It is, on the other hand, defined that organizational social capital is emerging from networks of social relations in the internal and external environment and it is a critical intangible asset that has the potential to maximize organizational competitive advantage. This intangible asset, by means of its potential, has a significant role in transforming information and knowledge produced by knowledge management practices into outputs - commercial values. Thus, it can be argued that organizational social capital plays a bridge role between knowledge management practices and organizational performance.

This study aims to determine the mediating role of organizational social capital on the relationship between knowledge management and organizational performance and it has three parts: conceptual framework, research methodology and findings. So at first, the variables and the relationship between the variables are theoretically discussed. Then, research model and hypotheses, sampling, data collection method are given in the second part of the study. Finally the research findings and the implications are expressed.

2. Conceptual Framework

2.1. Knowledge Management

Knowledge management focuses on the complexity, uncertainty and change management (Singh, 2008: p. 24) and it is defined as “the identification and usage of collective knowledge in an organization to increase the competitiveness of an organization” by Andreeva and Kianto (2012). Rastogy (2000) defines it as “a systematic and integrative process that coordinates activities to capture, create, share and disseminate knowledge through individuals and groups who are trying to achieve organizational goals”. Knowledge management is also defined as “a process of creating, collecting, interpreting and usage of knowledge that contributes to the enhancement of organizational performance and the achievement of objectives” (Rasula, Vuksic & Stemberger, 2012: p. 147). It is possible to infer from these definitions that the enhancement of the organizational performance is the common ground. Corresponding with this common ground, Jaitly and Kumar (2012: p. 77) claim that knowledge management is a new management discipline which leads to the achievement of synergy, creating a revolutionary transformation in employees, processes, technologies and organizational performance. The knowledge management process is categorized in various ways in literature. For example, Darroch and McNaughton (2003: p. 575) handle the knowledge management process in three steps: acquiring knowledge, sharing knowledge and response to knowledge. According to Rasula et al. (2012: p. 149) the

stages of the knowledge management process are capturing, usage, sharing and storing of knowledge. Saini (2013: p. 578) categorizes these stages into the creation of knowledge, the coding of knowledge, the sharing of knowledge, and the use of knowledge. In this study, Gold, Malhotra and Segars's (2001: p. 190) classification has been adopted. In their classification, the knowledge management process has four steps, acquisition, transformation, usage and store of knowledge.

Knowledge management practices help to overcome problems such as resource shortage, management problems, and high staff turnover rates. Knowledge management offers practical facilities to gear complex and adverse business environments to a manageable context. Knowledge management leads to gain competitive advantages by reducing production costs and innovative applications (Saini, 2013: p. 577). Knowledge management is a strategic weapon for today's organizations. It is likely that organizations that cannot constantly create knowledge will disappear (Lee & Choi, 2003: p. 189).

2.2. Organizational Performance

The performance of a system is the result of its output or operation in a period. This result is regarded as the level showing how much an enterprise has achieved its tasks and goals. In this case, performance can also be explained as an evaluation of all the work carried out in order to realize business goals (Sahin, 2014: p. 46). From this point of view, Pitt and Tucker (2008) have defined the concept of performance as how and what level the activity is achieved in a process or the specific level of effectiveness of the outputs, succeeded as a result of the achievement process.

In general terms, performance is categorized into two groups, financial and non-financial performance. Financial indicators include sales volume, profitability, return on investment, sales income, equity productivity, earnings per share, etc. Non-financial indicators include, for example, market share, product quality, marketing effectiveness, production efficiency, technological efficiency, number of staff, staff turnover rate, etc. (Chairungruang, 2016: p. 41). In the definition of financial and non-financial performance indicators, it is seen that performance is the improvement which has directly or indirectly positive financial effects, qualitative enhancement (quality, management mentality, environmental awareness, corporate reputation, etc.) and quantitative enhancement (sales amount, profitability level, number of staff, product range, etc.) on planned organizational activities (Biçkes & Özdevecioğlu, 2016: p. 12). It is possible to infer from this definition that the value of any organizational behaviour is directly proportional to the improvements made by organizational performance (Lee & Choi, 2003: p. 190).

2.3. Organizational Social Capital

Social capital theory is based on the assumption that a network of relationships between individuals and groups constitutes a valuable resource. This resource, regarded as capital, is embedded in mutual acquaintance networks (Ofori & Sackey, 2010: p. 72). Social capital, an embedded asset in relation, can develop to the extent that it can facilitate instrumental relationships among people (Shaw et al., 2005: p. 595). Social capital is defined as marginal utility of social relations between individuals and organizations in economic activities. Social capital is held in two types in the literature: organizational social capital and social capital in society because the effects of social capital arise at different levels such as individual, group and society (Tantardini & Kroll, 2015). Defining organizational social capital makes it necessary to interpret social capital "beyond the individual relationships" (Erbil & Ögüt, 2016: p. 195).

Organizational social capital arises from the relationships within an organization (Li et al., 2016: p. 132) and it may also result from associations with other organizations (Erbil & Ögüt, 2016: p. 196). From this point of view, organizational social capital is seen as a critical asset that has the potential to maximize the organizational competitive advantage resulting from social relations in and out of an organization (Shorunke et al., 2014: p. 60).

Organizational social capital consists of structural, relational, and cognitive components (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998: p. 243, Andrews, 2005: p. 584). There are two basic schools of thought regarding the structural component. The first one led by Sandefur and Laumann (2000), focus on the link among individual actors and it is referred to egocentric perspective on social networks. The

second one sociocentrism, is based on the views of Ronald Burt and built on a relative position within a network rather than individual direct relationships. The relational component reflects positive interactions among individuals and concepts such as trust and reciprocity, which are the basics of social capital formation. The cognitive component, including abstractions, particulars and basic assumptions in daily communication, goes beyond the common language (Ruiz et al., 2010: p. 50) and also includes the shared goals and values by organizational members (Li et al., 2016: p. 134). This component also reflects a shared vision that facilitates individual and group activities (Merlo et al., 2016: p. 1215).

2.4. Relations between Variables and Research Hypotheses

The knowledge-based view claims that performance difference among organizations lies in the fact that they have different levels of knowledge and capacity to create and use knowledge (Andreeva & Kianto, 2012: p. 620). In this sense, in many studies, it has been suggested that the way to improve performance is to capture knowledge, share knowledge and integrate it to process of creating value and core competency-based strategies and then use it (Gholami et. al., 2013: p. 209; Omotayo, 2015: p. 11; Schiliro, 2007: p. 20). In this context, many practitioners particularly prefer to use knowledge management practices and a variety of strategic variables to improve performance, which is one of the most critical areas of business management.

This relationship, theoretically expressed in the literature, has also been analysed in a number of case studies. Inkinen, Kianto and Vanhala (2015) have found that knowledge management practices have positive effect on organizations' innovation performance; Darroch (2005) suggests that firms with knowledge management skills use resources more effectively and have a more innovative and higher performance level than others; Tan and Wong (2015) have found that knowledge sources, knowledge management factors and knowledge management process have a direct and significant influence on the production performance; Palacios Marques and Garrigos Simon (2006) express that there is a positive and significant relationship between knowledge development, knowledge sharing and knowledge preservation and firm performance.

In the light of these explanations, the first hypothesis has been formed as follows:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant and positive relationship between knowledge management practices and (a) operational performance and (b) financial performance.

The knowledge-based view argues that there should be positive relationships between members for the creation and transfer of knowledge. At this point, organizational social capital built on mutual relations within the organization is regarded as a vital asset to maximize organizational gains (Khodabakhshi & Abbasi, 2015: p. 56). In terms of organizations, social capital is seen as a prerequisite to transfer and share the significant knowledge (Daud & Wan Yusoff, 2010: p. 142). Social capital in an organization makes easier to capture, encode and transfer it. It also supports the knowledge management process because it makes collective activities more efficient by facilitating the change and transformation of sources into different combinations, contributing to organizational ability to create innovations and superseding formal contracts, incentives, and monitoring mechanisms among the members of the organization (Hoffman et al., 2005: p. 98). In this sense, Daud and Wan Yusoff (2010: p. 142) assert that organizations can produce new knowledge by encouraging applications of new ideas and knowledge sharing through social capital. They also suggest that, new knowledge leads to an increase in the value of organizations when it is combined with the tacit knowledge and used to create new products and services.

Nazem and Korpi (2014: p. 2363) indicate that the creation and development of a knowledge management system will strengthen and stabilize organizational social capital. A number of applied studies have revealed that there is a positive relationship between knowledge management practices and organizational social capital (Yli-Renko et al., 2001: p. 607, Daud & Wan Yusoff, 2010: p. 146, Damirchi et al., 2012: p. 51; Nazem & Korpi, 2014: p. 2363).

Based on the theoretical knowledge and applied research findings in the literature, the second hypothesis of the research is as follows:

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant and positive relationship between knowledge management practices and organizational social capital.

Organizational social capital supports teamwork among employees and enhances operating effectiveness. It facilitates access to resources through communication networks and the development of human capital (Hoffman, 2005: p. 98). Organizational social capital opens up ways to create and nurture a social relationship that shapes values, goals, and expectations of members in an organization. Thus, it contributes to mutual understanding and high level of cooperation among organization members, innovation process, organizational growth, competitive advantage and an increase in performance (Li et al., 2016: p. 132). Social capital embedded in the network of relationships with employees, customers, suppliers, partners and other stakeholders helps to reach organizational performance goals (Daud & Wan Yusoff, 2010: p. 143). Lee and others (2016) have found that there is a positive relationship between board members' external organizational social capital and growth; Steiner and Wang (2016) infer from their study that social capital has a positive and significant effect on firm performance; Javakhadze and others (2016) have found that organizational social capital positively affects organizations' future operating performance, equity return ratios, stock-based performance and risk-adjusted returns.

By means of these explanations, the third hypothesis of the research is as follows:

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant and positive relationship between organizational social capital and (a) operational performance and (b) financial performance.

Considering the information above and relationship between the variables, the last hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 4: Organizational social capital mediates the relationship between knowledge management practices and (a) operational performance and (b) financial performance.

3. Methodology

3.1. Population and Sample

The population of the research constitutes a total of 104 accommodation facilities with the certificate of tourism operation and tourism investment from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism in Nevsehir/Turkey. The data were collected by questionnaire technique. A full count method was used for the implementation of the questionnaire. A total of 208 questionnaires were delivered to accommodation facilities, two for each. Analyses were conducted on 160 questionnaires, completed and returned by the respondents; thereby, yielding a response rate of 76.9%.

3.2. Measurement Variables

Knowledge Management Practices: Knowledge management practices were measured by Darroch's (2003) the knowledge management scale. This instrument with 16 items measures three dimensions of knowledge management practices; knowledge acquisition (6 items), knowledge dissemination (5 items) and responsiveness to knowledge (5 items).

Organizational Social Capital: Andrews's (2010) 6-item scale was used to determine the level of organizational social capital. The instrument measures three dimensions, structural, relational and cognitive dimension, two items for each.

Organizational Performance: Organizational performance has two dimensions, operational performance and financial performance. Operational performance was measured by the scale developed by Bowersox et al. (2000) and adapted by Wang and Wang (2012). For the measurement of financial performance, the scale developed by Inman et al. (2011) was used.

4. Results

4.1. Findings Related to Participants and Business

Table 1 demonstrates demographic data of the participants.

Table 1. Demographic data of participants

Data	f	%	Data	f	%
Gender			Marital Status		
Male	137	85,6	Single	53	33,1
Female	23	14,4	Married	107	69,9
Age			Job tenure		
25 and below	9	5,6	5 and below	15	9,4
26-35	70	43,8	6-10	54	33,8
36-45	52	32,5	11-15	36	22,5
46-55	25	15,6	16-20	29	18,1
56 and over	4	2,5	21 and over	26	16,3
Education			Employee number		
Primary-High school	41	25,6	1-9	70	43,8
Associate	92	57,5	10-49	32	20,0
undergraduate	27	16,9	50-199	36	22,5
Master degree			200	22	13,4

4.2. Descriptive Statistics and the Results of Correlations Analysis

Descriptive statistics, Cronbach's Alpha reliabilities and correlations for all of the study variables are presented in Table 2. Alpha reliability of all measure instruments is higher than (0.70). This reveals that the reliabilities of the scales are over the acceptable reliability limit of (0.60) in exploratory research (Hair et al., 1998: p. 118).

Table 2. Scale means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations

Variable	Mean	SD.	1	2	3	4
1. KMP	3,84	0,48	(0,86)			
2. OSC	3,90	0,60	,679**	(0,82)		
3. OP	3,92	0,57	,576**	,615**	(0,80)	
4. FP	3,53	0,70	,459**	,406**	,435**	(0,82)

Notes: N=160. Correlation is significant at ** $p < 0.01$, (two-tailed). Cronbach's Alpha reliabilities for observed variables are in parenthesis in the diagonal; KMP=Knowledge management practices, OSC=Organizational social capital, OP=Operational performance, FP=Financial Performance.

The results in Table 2 reveal that there are significant and positive correlations between variables. KMP and OSC ($r=0,679$, $p < 0,01$); KMP and OP ($r=0,576$, $p < 0,01$); KMP and FP ($r=0,459$, $p < 0,01$). Similarly, OSC is significantly and positively correlated with OP and FP, respectively, ($r=0,615$, $p < 0,01$); ($r=0,406$ $p < 0,01$). So these results substantiate H1 (a) and (b), H2 and H3 (a) and (b).

4.3. Regression Analysis Results

H4a and H4b posit that OSC will mediate the relationship between KMP and two outcome variables, OP and FP. To test these hypotheses, a four-step procedure is followed to test mediation proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986). They state that the following conditions should be satisfied to imply mediation. Firstly, the independent variable(s) must be significantly correlated with the mediator variable(s). The results presented in Table 2 show that KMP (independent variable) is significantly correlated with OSC (mediator variable). Thus, the first condition for mediation is satisfied. Secondly, the independent variable(s) must be significantly related to dependent variable(s). The regression analysis reveals that KMP is significantly related to the dependent variables, OP and FP (model 1 provided in Table 3 and Table 4). Hence, the second condition is met. The third condition postulates that the mediator variable(s) must be significantly correlated with dependent variable(s). OSC is significantly correlated with both outcome results, OP and FP. Thus the third condition for mediation is also met. The final condition for mediation specifies that when both the independent variable and mediator are incorporated in the regression model, the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable should substantially reduce; indicating partial mediation or it should be eliminated,

demonstrating full mediation. To test this last condition, hierarchical multiple regression analysis is performed for both outcome variables.

The results of hierarchical multiple regression analysis, performed to show the mediating role of OSC on the relationship between KMP and OP, are provided in Table 3.

Table 3. Hierarchical regression equation testing hypothesis 4a

Model	Variables	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Beta	F	t	p
1	KMP	0,576	0,332	0,328	0,576	78,517	8,861	0,000
2	KMP OSC				0,295 0,414		3,573 5,022	0,000 0,000
		0,651	0,424	0,417		25,219		

Dependent variable: Operational performance (OP).

It is seen that the effect of KMP on OP is positive and significant ($\beta=0,579$; $p<0.001$) in Model 1. When OSC is added to the equation, it is found to be significant ($\beta=0,414$; $p<0.001$) but KMP also remains significant although the value of its regression coefficient decreases from ($\beta=0,579$; $p<0.001$) in Model 1 to ($\beta=0,295$; $p<0.001$) in Model 2. These results signify that OSC partially mediates the relationship between KMP and OP. Sobel test is performed to test these results. The results of Sobel test also signify the mediation ($z=7.49$, $p<.001$). Therefore, H4a is partially supported.

The results of hierarchical multiple regression analysis, performed to show the mediating role of OSC on the relationship between KMP and FP, are depicted in Table 4.

Table 4. Hierarchical regression equation testing hypothesis 4b

Model	Variables	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Beta	F	t	p
1	KMP	0,459	0,211	0,206	0,459	42,257	6,501	0,000
2	KMP OSC				0,341 0,175		3,566 1,826	0,000 0,070
		0,477	0,227	0,218		3,334		

Dependent variable: Financial performance (FP).

It is found that KMP significantly relates to FP ($\beta=0,459$; $p<0.001$) in Model 1. When OSC is added to the equation, KMP remains significant although the value of its regression coefficient reduces from ($\beta=0,459$; $p<0.001$) in Model 1 to ($\beta=0,341$; $p<0.001$) in Model 2. However, OSC is found to be insignificant ($\beta=0,175$; $p<0.07$). These results show that OSC does not significantly mediate the relationship between KMP and FP. So, H4b is rejected.

5. Discussion

Organizations are established and structured to accomplish various goals. There is a direct relationship between the level of goal achievement and organizational performance. A number of antecedents are required to realize organizational performance at the desired level. Knowledge management, internalization of environmental changes, creation of new knowledge and organizational social capital are seen among those antecedents. Organizational social capital plays an important role in the transfer of knowledge to organizational activities and operation. This study is conducted to test the mediating role of organizational social capital in the relationship between knowledge management practices and organizational performance. The sample of the study constitutes 160 employees from 104 accommodation facilities with the certificate of tourism operation and tourism investment from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, in Nevsehir/Turkey.

As a result of the analyses, it has been determined that knowledge management practices have significant and positive effects on organizational social capital, operational performance and financial performance. This finding is in parallel with similar research findings in the literature (Andreeva & Kianto, 2012; Damirchi et al., 2012, Alegre et al., 2013, Ahmed et al., 2015). Similarly, they have found that organizational social capital significantly and positively effects operational performance and financial performance. There are many studies in the literature that reveal parallel findings with these results (Leana & Pil, 2006, Andrews, 2010). In addition, research findings have shown that

organizational social capital has a partial mediating effect between knowledge management practices and operational performance. The findings of the studies by Lee and Sukoco (2007) and Ladib (2015) coincide with these results. On the other hand, as a result of the analyses, it has been determined that the relationship between knowledge management practices and financial performance is not mediated by organizational social capital.

The knowledge-based view claims that level of acquisition, creation and usage of knowledge capacity lie at the basis of performance differences among organizations (Andreeva & Kianto, 2012: p. 620). The way to improve performance in this sense is to acquire, share and use the knowledge by integrating the gained knowledge into the value creation process and core competence strategies (Gholami et. al., 2013: p. 209; Omotayo, 2015: p. 11; Schilirò, 2007: p. 20). Thus, it can be stated that the findings are the expected results, considering the studies in the literature.

The findings of the study and the expressed theoretical knowledge are guiding to shape some strategies and practices for researchers. Within the scope of the study, it is required that some antecedents like knowledge management and organizational social capital are necessary to realize the organizational performance at the desired level, in other words to achieve organizational goals. In this sense, organizations should produce new knowledge and internalize environmental changes in a short period of time by means of effective knowledge management practices. In addition, organizational social capital should be invested in order to increase organizational synergies and work capacity and to expand customer portfolio.

In the following studies: a) Relationships between variables can be tested on different samples, b) relationships between variables can be tested in longitudinal studies, c) knowledge management, organizational social capital and organizational performance variables can be dealt with different predictors and outcomes, and d) what can be done to improve organizational social capital could be studied.

6. References

- Ahmed, S., Fiaz, M. & Shoaib, M. (2015). Impact of Knowledge Management Practices On Organizational Performance: An empirical study of banking sector in Pakistan. *FWU Journal of Social Sciences*, 9(2), 147-167.
- Alegre, J., Sengupta, K. & Lapiedra, R. (2013). Knowledge management and innovation performance in a high-tech SMEs industry. *International Small Business Journal*, 31(4), 454-470.
- Andreeva, T. & Kianto, A. (2012). Does knowledge management really matter? Linking knowledge management practices, competitiveness and economic performance. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 16(4), 617-636.
- Andrews, R. (2010). Organizational social capital, structure and performance. *Human Relations*, 63(5), 583-608.
- Baron, R. M. & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182.
- Biçkes, D. M. & Özdevecioğlu, M. (2016). İşletmelerde örgütsel öğrenmenin finansal performans üzerindeki etkisi ve inovasyonun aracılık etkisi. *The Journal of Academic Social Science*, 4(25), 8-28.
- Bowersox, D. J., Closs, D. J., Stank, T. P. & Keller, S. B. (2000). How supply chain competency leads to business success. *Supply Chain Management Review*, 4(4), 70-78.
- Chairungruang, S. (2016). A secret ingredient for SMEs performance: Human resource management in cafés and restaurants in Auckland and Waikato. *Doctoral Thesis*, The University of Waikato, New Zealand.
- Damirchi, Q. V., Vazifeh, R. & Basharlou, M. J. (2012). Knowledge management and social capital at Islamic Azad University case study: Germei branch. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review (Oman Chapter)*, 2(4), 46-52.
- Darroch, J. (2003). Developing a measure of knowledge management behaviors and practices. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 7(5), 41-54.

- Darroch, J. (2005). Knowledge management, innovation and firm performance. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 9(3), 101-115.
- Darroch, J. & McNaughton, R. (2003). Beyond market orientation: Knowledge management and the innovativeness of New Zealand firms. *European Journal of Marketing*, 37(3/4), 572-593.
- Daud, S. & Yusoff, W. F. W. (2010). Knowledge management and firm performance in SMEs: The role of social capital as a mediating variable. *Asian Academy of Management Journal*, 15(2), 135-155.
- Erbil, C. & Ögüt, A. (2016). Örgütsel Sosyal Sermayenin İnşasında Çalışanların Değişen Rolü: Richard Sennett'in Perspektifinden Yeni Kapitalizm Örgütlerine Bakış. *Gazi Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 18(1), 192-216.
- Gholami, M. H., Asli, M. N., Nazari-Shirkouhi, S. & Noruzy, A. (2013). Investigating the influence of knowledge management practices on organizational performance: an empirical study. *Acta Polytechnica Hungarica*, 10(2), 205-216.
- Gold, A. H., Malhotra A. & Segars, A. H. (2001). Knowledge management: An organizational capabilities perspective. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 18(1), 185-214.
- Hair, J. F., Tatham, R. L., Anderson, R. E. & Black, W. C., (1998). *Multivariate Data Analysis*, 5th Edition, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs.
- Hoffman, J. J., Hoelscher, M. L. & Sherif, K. (2005). Social capital, knowledge management, and sustained superior performance. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 9(3), 93-100.
- Inkinen, H. T., Kianto, A. & Vanhala, M. (2015). Knowledge management practices and innovation performance in Finland. *Baltic Journal of Management*, 10(4), 432-455.
- Inman, R. A., Sale, R. S., Green, K. W. & Whitten, D. (2011). Agile manufacturing: relation to JIT, operational performance and firm performance. *Journal of Operations Management*, 29(4), 343-355.
- Jaitly, N. & Kumar, R. (2012). Knowledge Management for the New World of Business. *Journal of Commerce and Trade*, 7(1), 77-81.
- Javakhadze, D., Ferris, S. P. & French, D. W. (2016). Social capital, investments, and external financing. *Journal of Corporate Finance*, 37, 38-55.
- Khodabakhshi F. & Abbasi, B. (2015). The Relationship between HRM Practices and social capital via the moderating role of organizational performance in Islamic Azad Universities of Gilan province, Iran. *Research Journal of Recent Sciences*, 4(3), 52-62.
- Ladib, N. B. R. (2015). Effects of capacity knowledge management and entrepreneurial orientation on organizational effectiveness in the best Tunisian companies: Moderating role of social capital. *Journal of Knowledge Management, Economics and Information Technology*, 5(1), 1-34.
- Leana, C. R. & Pil, F. K. (2006). Social capital and organizational performance: Evidence from urban public schools. *Organization Science*, 17(3), 353-366.
- Lee, H. & Choi, B. (2003). Knowledge management enablers, processes, and organizational performance: An integrative view and empirical examination. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 20(1), 179-228.
- Lee, J. H., Jang, M. & Choi, C. (2016). Social capital of corporate boards: Effects on firm growth. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 44(3), 453-462.
- Lee, L. T. S. & Sukoco, B. M. (2007). The effects of entrepreneurial orientation and knowledge management capability on organizational effectiveness in Taiwan: The moderating role of social capital. *International Journal of Management*, 24(3), 549-572.
- Li, C. P., Yahya, K. K. & Yean, T. F. (2016). Organizational social capital and commitment-based HR practices as the determining factors of organizational performance. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 11(6), 129-144.
- Merlo, O., Bell, S. J., Mengüç, B. & Whitwell, G. J. (2006). Social capital, customer service orientation and creativity in retail stores. *Journal of Business Research*, 59(12), 1214-1221.
- Nahapiet, J. & Ghoshal, S. (1998). Social capital, intellectual capital, and the organizational advantage. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(2), 242-266.
- Nazem, F. & Korpi, M. (2014). Structural model of social capital based on the knowledge management in Islamic Azad University of Shahr Rey. *Indian Journal of Fundamental and Applied Life Sciences*, 4(S4), 2363-2368.

- Ofori, D. & Sackey, J., (2010). Assessing social capital for organisational performance: Initial exploratory insights from Ghana. *Organizations and Markets in Emerging Economies*, 1(2), 71-91.
- Omotayo, F. O. (2015). Knowledge Management as an important tool in organisational management: A review of literature. *Library Philosophy and Practice*, (Spring), 1-23.
- Palacios Marqués, D. & José Garrigós Simón, F. (2006). The effect of knowledge management practices on firm performance. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 10(3), 143-156.
- Pitt, M. & Tucker, M. (2008). Performance measurement in facilities management: driving innovation?. *Property Management*, 26(4), 241-254.
- Rastogi, P. N. (2000). Knowledge management and intellectual capital—the new virtuous reality of competitiveness. *Human Systems Management*, 19(1), 39-48.
- Rasula, J., Vuksic, V. B. & Stemberger, M. I. (2012). The impact of knowledge management on organisational performance. *Economic and Business Review for Central and South-Eastern Europe*, 14(2), 147.
- Ruíz, P., Martínez, R. & Rodrigo, J. (2010). Intra-organizational social capital in business organizations. A theoretical model with a focus on servant leadership as antecedent. *Ramon Llull Journal of Applied Ethics*, 1(1), 43-59.
- Saini, R. (2013). Impact of knowledge management practices on selected industries: a structural equation modeling approach. *Management & Marketing*, 8(4), 577-592.
- Schilirò, D. (2007). *Knowledge, learning, networks and performance of firms in knowledge-based economies*. Ottobre: Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore.
- Shaw, J. D., Duffy, M. K., Johnson, J. L. & Lockhart, D. E. (2005). Turnover, social capital losses, and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(4), 594-606.
- Shorunke, O. A., Akinola, A. O., Ajayi, S. A., Ayeni, M. A. & Popoola, S. O. (2014). Organisational support, knowledge sharing and utilisation as correlate of social capital of insurance managers in Lagos Metropolis. *Journal of Information and Knowledge Management*, 4(8), 53-63.
- Singh, S. K. (2008). Aspects of knowledge management: An analysis. (ed.: Upinder Dhar, VV Nath, Satish K. Nair & Prabhat Kumar Yadav) *New Age Marketing: Emerging Realities*, New Delhi: Anurag Jain. pp. 15-26.
- Steiner, B. & Wang, C. (2016). Social capital, religious affiliation and business performance in Denmark. In *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 1, 17753.
- Şahin, Ş. (2014). Bilişim sistemi uygulamalarının işletme performansına etkileri. *Dicle Üniversitesi İİBF Dergisi*, 2(6), 43-56.
- Tan, L. P. & Wong, K. Y. (2015). Linkage between knowledge management and manufacturing performance: a structural equation modelling approach. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 19(4), 814-835.
- Tantardini, M. & Kroll, A. (2015). The role of organizational social capital in performance management. *Public Performance & Management Review*, 39(1), 83-99.
- Wang, Z. & Wang, N. (2012). Knowledge sharing, innovation and firm performance. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 39(10), 8899-8908.
- Yli-Renko, H., Autio, E. & Sapienza, H. J. (2001). Social capital, knowledge acquisition, and knowledge exploitation in young technology-based firms. *Strategic Management Journal*, 22(6-7), 587-613.

Harmonization Of Work And Family Life And Its Impact On Women's Employment

Nuran H. Belet

1. Introduction

Particularly in the past 20 to 30 years, it is noticeable that women are increasingly involved in the labor market based on their willingness to work after getting married as well as other reasons. These need intended policies are evaluated in two main axis. The first of these is gender policies with women-focused, empowering, developing scope. The second is the harmonization of work and family life in the context of increasing women's employment. In this context, addressing all policy definitions and regulations that enhance women's employment on the axis of business and family life harmonization will lead not only to women's employment but also increase employment in general. In recent years, flexible working styles and its effect in increasing women's employment have been discussed by various parties. Behind all these discussions is the harmonization of work and family life and the application of social protection.

2. Women Employment and General Trends

2.1. General Trends

In developed countries, women's participation rate in the labor force is higher than in developing countries. Although men's participation in labor force is higher than women's at the different levels of development of the countries, as the development level of the country increases, the difference between the employment rates decrease. It is also observed that the participation rates of married women in the workforce are higher in European countries.

Today, the United Nations Development Work and World Development Reports, especially the ILO, aim to increase the protection and participation of women in their working lives. Working life regulating practices, normalizing flexible working patterns, aim to soften conflicts between business and family life in order to increase women's employment and ensure continuity. In fact, the adjustment policies of business and family life are also an important component of the EU's gender equality policies (İlkkaracan, 2010). Often this regulation assures a level of living that is autonomous in relation to people's participation in the labor market and suitable for human dignity (Kapar, 2005). Although the overall trend is unchanged, as can be seen in Table 1, Turkey is among the low-rate country group like the Middle East and North Africa (Bugra, 2013).

Table 1. Labor Force Participation Rates in Turkey and Selected Country Groups by Gender (2011), (%)

Country/Groups	Total	Male	Female
Türkiye	49,5	71,4	28,1
OECD	59,9	69,5	50,9
European Union	57,5	65	50,3
Middle East and North Africa	48,2	73,7	21,1

Source: World Bank

When we look at the labor force participation rates by sex in Turkey, we see that the EU's female labor force participation rate is 50% more than that of my country. As can be seen in Table 2, although there have been significant increases in sex-based employment rates in Turkey in recent years, the current rates correspond to almost half of the EU. In this sense, the problem of women employment still continues and long-term, holistic policies are needed.

Table 2. Status of Women's Employment (%)

Years	Employment Rate	workforce participation rate	Unemployment
2010	24,0	27,6	13,0
2011	25,6	28,8	11,3
2012	26,3	29,5	10,8
2013	27,2	31,2	12,7
2015	27.5	31.5	12.6

Source: Turkish Statistical Institute (TURKSTAT), Labor Force Statistics

When we look at female labor force indicators by educational status, according to 2015 data the labor force participation rate of non-illiterate women is 16.1% while this ratio reaches 71.6% for higher education. Parallel to this ratio, it is observed that as the level of education increases, the employment participation rate increases from 15.6% to 59.9%.

The level of education of the workforce in Turkey is low. The present structure of the workforce in terms of education levels shows a negative picture in terms of labor productivity and economic growth opportunities. 61.4 percent of the workforce in Turkey consists of workers who are illiterate or with education less than high school (TURKSTAT,2015). In this context, active labor market policies are also being developed for the prevention of this negative situation. These programs, which have been implemented in developed countries since the 1930s, have been used extensively since the 1990s.

When we look at the current structure of women's employment, it is shown that the most important element for the female population inactive in the labor force is based on their involvement in domestic/household chores.

Table 3. Distribution of Female Population not included in Labor Force by Causes, (2015)

REASON		Rate (%)
Not seeking a job, but available to start	Discouraged	1.3
	Other	5.7
Working seasonally		0.3
Home Responsibilities		57.3
Education/Training		11.3
Retired		4.6
Disabled, old, ill etc.		12.6
Other		6.8

Source: Turkish Statistical Institute (TURKSTAT), Labor Force Statistics.

According to 2015 data, women are unemployed for longer periods than men, according to their job search periods. While 17, 6% of men are unemployed longer than a year, 26, 8% of jobless women are unemployed longer than a year (ILO, 2016).

2.2. Women's Employment, Crisis and Perception

It is a well-known fact that during economic crises, in parallel to the possibility of working individuals losing their jobs and being unemployed, those individuals who were not working previously in the family enter the labor market. This situation is seen to be especially more intensely observed in women's tendency to approach the labor market. Crisis conditions mainly affect employees in three ways. The first of these is the direct effect on the workforce. It is called "Discouraged Worker Effect"

and negatively affects the workforce. In this situation, some of the unemployed in the crisis conditions, where employment opportunities are greatly reduced, get out of the labor market by giving up searching for jobs. The second direct and positive effect of the crisis on the labor market is for other family members who are able to work enter the labor market, defined as the "Added Worker Effect", when the head of family is unemployed / has a high risk of being unemployed or where the family income drops significantly (Blundell & Meghir, 1998: 104), (Gursel, 2009). Parallel to this, the fact that those who are able to work but who have not / are not able to work are also evaluated within the "additional employee effect". The third is unemployment.

The economic crises have brought to the agenda the increase of international competition, the growth of the service sector, technological advances and intense unemployment, the changing of and mainly flexibility of work and production. Due to the unique qualities of the crisis period, the female labor force has come to the forefront as a workforce suited to flexible working styles by the influence of "gender-based perception" (Belet, 2013). While women's labor force participation, which accelerated in the context of crisis, continues to increase in time, its use as precarious and cheap labor force has also increased in parallel. Dual workloads, insecurity of jobs, lack of wage guarantee, etc. are reasons that support the conditions increasing home-based work by "highlighting the gender-oriented perception" of women in crisis conditions (Belet, 2014).

While it is seen that some of the increase observed in the crisis period, particularly in our country, from the middle of 2008 to the middle of 2011, in the participation of the female workforce, is the additional working effect, in previous crises, it was also seen that women left the labor market parallel to the reduction in unemployment. It is also seen that the number of working women and their participation in the workforce are influenced positively by factors such as the level of education, the increase in income, the increase in the age of retirement. (Uysal, 2012)

In many countries today, the main job of women is seen as housework, and especially since the time spent on housework is high, the participation rate of women in labor force stays low. The vast majority of women are guided to acquire domestic skills from an early age in terms of gender, thought and behavior patterns. Acquiring these skills leads to the concentration of the female workforce in the areas of employment that are extensions of housework, domestic chores. Cleaning and child-elderly care, in general care services are examples of such work. Table 3 provides details for these. In addition, the social role of women in our country; with family responsibilities that are not recognized when they are performed, that are recognized when not performed, are not valued, and are not considered to have financial equivalence. Table 3 shows the "share of home responsibility" as one of the most important factor that leads women not to be included in the workforce. Accordingly, "being busy with household chores" is still seen as the most important factor that excludes women from the workforce. The most concrete indication of this is the responsibility given to the woman in the share of domestic affairs.

According to the 2006 Family Survey data, reproductive activities such as cooking, ironing, and setting and clearing the table are carried out by women (70-90%), and the contribution of men to these jobs is almost negligible (2.3%). While educated and therefore high income earning workers can rid themselves of these responsibilities by buying maintenance services, this is not possible for women who work in unskilled jobs, (TURKSTAT, 2009, p.2)

If there are no "other women" like mother, sister, etc. to whom the woman can transfer the care services, the income that she will earn will be almost the same as the cost of buying these services. For this reason, although most women do want to work, there is no point in doing so. In addition to the above-mentioned negativities for women's participation in the labor market, "perception" and its management issues especially towards the identity of women in our country are more prevalent than EU countries. According to EU member 27 countries' data, the reason for choosing part-time work (27.6% in female labor force) is based on the need to take care of children or the aged in the family, while this ratio corresponds to three times the value in our country (Belet, 2013, p. 15).

It is also seen that the woman leave the labor market faster, especially after getting married and having children. In addition to the employment gap between men and women, there are also large employment gaps between women based on their education level and marital status (İlkkaraca, 2010, p. 4). The precarious working conditions, especially as a result of the deepening of women's poverty,

necessitate new “life strategies”. It is seen that distribution of leaving the labor market or becoming jobless between households shows a difference between the households with and without children. Participation in the workforce and employment of women between ages 25-49 living in small dwellings in the city are greatly affected by the number of children they have, while participation in the rural areas appear to be independent of the number of children (Ministry of Family and Social Policy, 2014).

3. Gender Equality Harmonization Policies and Women Employment

3.1. Gender Equality and Employment Policies

The concept of gender was used for the first time in the early 1970s, pointing to a social order and social relations beyond individual gender differences, personal identification contrasts. In this social order, men and women, are not simply discursive fictions based on biological grounds, but social groups with material inferences based on inequality and exploitative relations (Jackson, 1999, p. 124). On the one hand, gender relations lead to the separation of labor processes by sex, while on the other hand cause labor processes to gain a sexist appearance.

Gender, generally stated is “gender identities” that emerge in different cultures, at different times and in different geographies, based on roles and responsibilities that are socially loaded on women and men. According to the definition made by the UN, gender refers to the social rules, practices and institutions that regulate the relations between men and women, and includes power relations and economic relations between men and women as part of socio-cultural definitions of “femininity” and “masculinity” (United Nations [UN], 2008).

The main emphasis of the policies developed in the framework of gender equality is; equal representation, importance given to gender-related differences. Five strategic areas of strategic importance are considered here: 1. Economic Life, 2. Equal Participation and Representation, 3. Social Rights, 4. Public Life, 5. Gender Roles and Stereotyping (Ecevit, 2010, p.10-14).

Women’s position in social production and reproduction is largely affected by the widespread prevalence of welfare regimes, social state structure and social services in the countries. Despite the existence of these differences, formations such as the European Union, in parallel with their founding philosophies, try to simulate the developments in this area and their effects on states, with the revision of common policies and legal systems and directives for common gender equality policies.

The EU’s emphasis on economic decisions and the inclusion of directives based on gender equality while designing growth-oriented policies is to eliminate the elements that would be qualified as indirect discrimination as well as addressing direct discrimination. Indirect discrimination, a provision, criterion or practice, that women often encounter at work or in social life, if not legalized for a legitimate purpose and is not appropriate and necessary to achieve this goal, although seemingly neutral this provision, criterion or practice makes members of one gender more disadvantaged when compared to the other (Macrae , 2010). For this purpose, in 2002, these items were added to expand Directive 76/207 / EEC. Turkey has made many legal arrangements in favor of women in order to eliminate any gender based discrimination within the reforms that EU has initiated in the EU integration process.

3.2. Harmonization of Employment and Family Life and Employment Policies

3.2.1. Harmonization of Work and Family Life

Work and family life balance and policies aimed at achieving this have been on the forefront for the last 20-30 years and emphasize the role factors such as technological development, increasingly aging population and increasing participation of married women in labor market play in this process and the need for complementary policies towards these. It is stated that these types of politics that normalize flexible working styles mainly aim at increasing women's employment and softening the conflicts between work and family life. In fact, business and family cohesion policies are also an important component of the EU’s gender equality policies (Macrae, 2010).

The harmonization of work and family life due to the development of the concept of gender equality over time and its close interest to economic systems is primarily: (1) harmonization of work and family responsibilities, (2) maternity leave (maternity, paternity and parental leave), (3) adjustment of work and family responsibilities, (4) provision and dissemination of child care and pre-school education services; and (5) provision and dissemination of care services for the elderly and the disabled. In conclusion: reconciliatory policies of work and family life are policies aiming to improve the legal, institutional and social support mechanisms for reconciling the domestic work load of household and household care with the responsibilities of the workplace (İlkkaraca, 2010, p. 8).

In general, policies aimed at reconciling work and family life (İlkkaraca, 2010, p. 9):

1. Laws and workplace practices related to working hours and care permissions

- Legislation on maternity leave, parental leave, paternity leave arrangements.
- Other legal permissions for in family care responsibilities
- Labor Market Regulation (Working hours, wages, flexibility for balance).

2. Institutional services related to care services

- Kindergartens, pre-school institutions
- Elderly care support services and institutions
- Disabled care support services and institutions

Apart from these, there are controversial policies regarding *cash transfers* that can be treated as a third category, supporting the care obligations. There are Women's Human Rights Consciousness Raising Programs that feed into all these mechanisms.

The institutional structure in which all these applications take place; are analyzed in terms of work time and child delivery, parent etc. legislations and practices related to permits, laws and practices for child care services and cash transfers (İlkkaracan, 2010, p. 12). As we have learned from various country examples where business and family life adjustment policies are applied, the beginning of transformations that increase the participation of women in the labor market and / or harmonize the work and family life of working married women are affected by the policies listed above. It is emphasized that even in countries where gender equality and work-family equilibrium policies are more common, such as Norway, married men employees with children who use parental leave help the reproduction in the family become visible. There are also a number of studies that indicate the positive effects of flexible working hours on work-family conflict (İlkkaracan, 2010).

Housework and childcare for women is a condition that prevents them from finding a job. Apart from this, factors such as the accepted traditional role of women and the lower qualification of women's jobs, limited opportunities for promotion and gender discrimination are factors that reduce women's commitment to work. In the context of these factors, the main reasons for women not participating in the wage work force are; (Karabıyık, 2012, p. 1300), the responsibilities related to their children, their home and their husbands, the attitudes of spouses, employment opportunities and the inadequacy of education levels.

The most important policy of harmonization is the care economy and its' financing with macroeconomic policies. The care economy includes "reproductive" activities such as taking care of, protecting and improving the individuals, families and communities that make up the labor force "produce". Care services are primarily seen in the in-home environment and are predominantly carried out by women. The care service crisis is often caused by the states' leaving the costs of care to the family and individuals as a consequence of neoliberal policies. The privatization of care services and the cost of care in this way, due to the lack of social programs to balance the budgets of increasingly indebted governments, is exacerbating the existing disadvantaged positions of the women. It is inevitable for the woman to renounce the labor market in this context (Raaber, 2010, p. 11).

Looking at long-term developments in terms of working women; it has been observed that women tend to work in unpaid family labor, cheap labor in the industrial sector, and also compared to men in the lower wage occupations and business lines in the service sector. The last step reached in the modern sense industrialization, urbanization and globalization phenomenon are now raising the education level of women. A woman who has the opportunity to get employment has first of all achieved her economic independence thereby being self- sufficient and in general she receives respect in the family.

She contributes financially to the family and for both the family and the society presents positive externality. Harmonization policies strengthen the double-earning family model, by promoting not only the progress towards equality of men and women by relieving the constraints that have turned into vicious cycle through the supply of female labor, but also strengthening the progress towards important social goals such as domestic democratization, equality of opportunity between children and fight against poverty.

4. Conclusion

In addition to economic factors, socio-cultural factors, especially the division of women between family life and work life, seem to constitute a major problem for women in the labor force. Therefore, harmonization of work and family life, taking into account the socio-cultural characteristics of the female workforce, will increase women's participation in the workforce.

Women's employment in Turkey is at a remarkably low rate when compared to European Union countries. In particular, immigration from the rural regions to the city, economy's poor job creation capacity, and the cultural factors that exist for women's employment are among the reasons for the low employment rates of women. The issue of women's labor and employment did not receive the desired interest in the social policy title and gender mainstream, but they have not also been separated. Women's employment and the problems surrounding it have mostly been addressed by women's entrepreneurship and vocational courses; and national employment strategies have not been developed and implemented within the context of "regulatory package" applications integrating care economy, supported by long-term macroeconomic policies.

Harmonization policies need to be differentiated to different age groups according to socio-economic income situation. When the general values of the country, its geographical location, socioeconomic imbalances are taken into consideration, the creation of comprehensive and inclusive policies becomes easier. On the other hand, it is necessary to expand the scope of welfare practices, to reconsider the continuing inequalities in the basic infrastructure services that improve education, health and income distribution.

Care services should be addressed as problems that need to be resolved by creating financing within the care economy. Therefore, harmonization policies should focus on removing the male and female role patterns that stand in the way as a difficult obstacle to building a more equalitarian household. In order for women to achieve equal personal and professional development with men, there is need for sensitive policies to ensure that men also participate in housework and child care.

As a result, although there is no legal distinction in the labor force participation of women in Turkey, socio-cultural factors, especially the responsibilities of women in their family life, move them away from the working life. For this reason, in the creation of employment policies, prioritization needs to be given to arrangements in areas of equal pay, equal treatment, maternity leave, parental leave, night work, flexible work, child care, etc., that will also reflect the perspective of women.

5. References

- Bakker, I. (2009). *The Global financial crisis and care: Context and gender aware responses*, WIDE, Report of the WIDE Annual Conference.
- Bakırcı, K. (2010). Türk hukukunda iş ve aile sorumluluklarının uyumlaştırılması: Uluslararası hukuk ve AB hukuku çerçevesinde bir değerlendirme. İ. İlkaraca (Ed.), *Emek piyasasında toplumsal cinsiyet eşitliğine doğru, iş ve aile yaşamının uyumlaştırılması*, (pp. 59-87). İstanbul.
- Belet, N. H. (2014), Kadın işgücünün çeyiz sandığı : Ev eksenli çalışma, *İktisat ve Toplum Dergisi* ,39, 49-61.
- (2013). Kriz olgusunun kadına yönelik algıya ve kadın işgücüne etkisi, *G.Ü.İ.İ.B.F. Dergisi*, Cilt 15(1), 196-223.
- Buğra, A. (2013). *Sürdürülebilir kalkınma, istihdam ve sosyal içerme*, 5. İzmir İktisat Kongresi. İzmir.
- (2012). Türkiye'nineğişen refah rejimi: Neoliberalizm, kültürel muhafazakarlık ve yeniden tanımlanan toplumsal dayanışma, S. Dedeoğlu & A.Y., Elveren (Eds.), *Türkiye'de refah devleti ve kadın*, (pp.47-69), İstanbul, İletişim Yayınları.
- Blundell, L., Ham, J. & Meghir, C. (1998). Unemployment, discouraged workers and female labour supply", *Research in Economics* 52, 103-131

- Dedeoğlu, S. (2004). Dünya ekonomisi ve hayatta kalmanın feminizasyonu: Toplumsal cinsiyet”, (Ed.) S. Dedeoğlu & T. Subasat (Eds.), *Toplumsal cinsiyet, kalkınma ve küreselleşme*, (pp.92- 95) İstanbul, Bağlam Yayınları.
- (2009). Eşitlik mi ayrımcılık mı? Türkiye’de sosyal devlet, cinsiyet eşitliği politikaları ve kadın istihdamı, *Çalışma ve Toplum*, 241-54.
- (2011), *Türkiye’de cinsiyet eşitliği politikaları ve kadın istihdamı*, Kadın Emeği Konferansı, TEPAV-ODTÜ Kadın Çalışmaları , Ankara
- Dedeoğlu, S & Elveren, A. Y. (2012), *Türkiye’de refah devleti ve kadın*, (Eds.), (pp.11-26), İletişim Yayınları, İstanbul.
- Ecevit, Y. (1998). *Türkiye’de ücretli kadın emeğinin toplumsal cinsiyet temelinde Analizi*, 75 Yılda Kadınlar ve Erkekler, İstanbul, Tarih Vakfı Yayınları, (pp.267-284).
- (2010). *İşgücü piyasasında toplumsal cinsiyet eşitliği ve el kitabı*, Ankara
- (2012). Türkiye’de sosyal politika çalışmalarının toplumsal cinsiyet açısıyla gelişimi”, S. Dedeoğlu & A.Y., Elveren (Eds.), *Türkiye’de refah devleti ve kadın*, (pp.97-119), İstanbul, İletişim Yayınları.
- Erdoğan, S. (2004). Sosyal politikada avrupalı bir kavram: Sosyal dışlanma, *Çalışma Ortamı*, 75.
- Estivilla, J. (2003). *Concepts and strategies for combating social exclusion: An overview*, ILO Publication.
- Eurostat (2012). http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/statistics/search_database.
- Eurostat (2009). http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/statistics/search_database
- Filiz, Y. (2011). *Esnek çalışma biçimlerinin kadın istihdamına etkileri ve avrupa birliği istihdam politikaları ve Türkiye karşılaştırması*, KSGM Uzmanlık Tezi, Ankara
- Gürsel, S. (2009). *Küresel ekonomik kriz ve Türkiye Ekonomisinin geleceği*, Uluslararası İktisatçılar Zirvesi, İstanbul, 22 Mayıs 2009.
- Hudson, R. (1997). Regional futures: Industrial restructuring, New High Volume Production Concepts and Spatial Development Strategies in the New Europe, *Regional Studies*, 31(5), 467-478.
- King, R. & Sweetman, C. (2009). Gender Perspectives on the Global Economic Crisis, OXFAM.
- Koray, M. (2005). Sosyal politika (3. Baskı). Ankara: İmge Kitabevi Yayınları.
- Karadeniz, O.(2011).Türkiye’de Atipik çalışan kadınlar ve yaygın sosyal güvencesizlik”, *Çalışma ve Toplum*, 2011(2), 83-127.
- Karabıyık, İ. (2012). İşgücü piyasasının yapısal özellikleri ve Türkiye’de kadınların işgücüne katılma sorunu. *International Journal of Human Sciences*, (9)2, 1282-1310. Retrieved from 12.09.2012. <https://www.j-humansciences.com/ojs/index.php/IJHS/article/.../pdf>
- Kapar, R.(2005). Sosyal korumanın işgücü piyasasına etkisi, DİSK-Birleşik Metal -İş Yayınları, İstanbul.
- Ongan N. T. (2005). Ekonomik krizlerin emek piyasalarına etkiler, DİSK-Birleşik Metal -İş Yayınları, İstanbul.
- ILO, (2006). *Equality at work: Tackling the challenges*, Report Of The Director-General, Global Report under the follow-up to the ILO Declaration, on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, International Labour Conference, 96th Session 2007, Report I (B), Geneva: International Labour Office. Retrieved from 12.09.2012. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/---webdev/documents/publication/wcms_082607.pdf.
- ILO (2010). Global Employment Trends.
- İKV (2001). Avrupa Birliği’nin Sosyal Politikası ve Türkiye’nin Uyumu. Stefaan Hermans, (Ed) pp.11.İstanbul
- İlkkaraca, İ. (2010). Emek piyasasında toplumsal cinsiyet eşitliğine doğru, iş ve aile Yaşamının uyumlaştırılması (Ed).İstanbul.
- Laursen, F.(2012). The Eu’s Lisbon treaty: Institutional choices and implementation, Ashgate Publishing, England.
- Jacson, S. (1999). Heterosexuality in Question, Londra, Sage.
- Macrae,H. (2010).The EU as a Gender Equal Polity: Myths and Realities”, *JCMS: Journal of Common Market Studies*, 48(1), 155–174.
- Metin Ş. (2011). *Kayıt dışı istihdam ve esnek üretim sürecinde kadın emeğinin durumu:Türkiye’de ev-eksenli çalışma*, KSGM Uzmanlık Tezi, Ankara
- Ministry of Family and Social Policy, (2014). *Türkiye’de kadın işgücü profili istatistiklerinin analizi*, Ankara.
- Munck, R. (2003). Emeğin yeni dünyası küresel mücadele, küresel dayanışma..Mahmut Tekçe (Ed). İstanbul.
- Toksöz, G. (2007). Türkiye’de kadın istihdamının durumu, ILO Ankara.
- (2012). Neoliberal piyasa, özel ve kamusal patriarkal çıkmazında kadın emeği” S Dedeoğlu, S. & Elveren A.Y. (Ed.), *Türkiye’de refah devleti ve kadın*, (pp.103-126) .
- (2012), Kalkınmada kadın emeği, Varlık Yayınları, İstanbul.

- Toksöz G. & Makal, A. (2012). Geçmişten günümüze Türkiye’de kadın emeği, Ankara, Ankara: Ankara Üniversitesi Yaynevi.
- TİSK (1999). Çalışma hayatında esneklik. Ankara: TİSK Yayınları, Published Number: 190
- (2005). AB Sosyal gündemi 2005-2010: Küresel ekonomide sosyal bir Avrupa: Herkes için iş ve fırsat, pp.16. Published Number: 260, Ankara.
- TÜSİAD (2003). Lizbon Avrupa Konseyi AB Başkanlar Konseyi Belgesi 23-24 Mart 2000: İstihdam, (2003). Ekonomik reformlar ve toplumsal uzlaşma. Published Number: TÜSİAD-T/2003/1-346, İstanbul.
- TURKSTAT (2015). İstatistiklerle kadın. Retrieved from 10.09.2016, www.tuik.gov.tr.
- TURKSTAT (2009), Aile yapısı araştırması, Ankara. 2006. Mart 2009. www.tuik.gov.tr.
- Raaber, N. (2010) The Impact of the crisis on women: Main trends across regions, Retrieved from 12.09.2012, <http://www.awid.org/Media/Files/IDeA-Brief11.pdf>.
- Saitr, R. (2001). Social Exclusion: The Concept and application to developing countries, Queen Elizabeth House, University Of Oxford, Working Papers Series Report.
- Selamoğlu, A. (2002). Gelişmiş ülkelerde istihdam politikaları, esneklik arayışı ve etkileri *Kocaeli Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi* 2(4), 33-63
- Silver, H. (Ed) (1995). Reconceptualizing social disadvantage: Three Paradigms of Social Exclusion Social Exclusion. Rhetoric, Reality, Responses, (pp.57-80), IILS Publications.
- Pırıs, J.C. (2010). The Lisbon Treaty: A Legal and political analysis, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- UN,(2008). The Millennium Development Goals Report, New York.
- Uysal, G. (2012) Çalışan kadın sayısı artıyor, BETAM,12(137). Retrieved from 14.12.2012, www.betam.bahcesehir.edu.tr.
- Streeck, W. (2009) Flexible Employment, flexible families, and the socialization of reproduction, MPIfG Working Paper (9)13. Retrieved from <http://www.mpifg.de/pu/workpap/wp09-13.pdf>
- Yavuz, A. (1995) Esnek çalışma ve endüstri ilişkilerine etkisi. Filiz Kitabevi, İstanbul.
- Zengingönül, O. (2003 Sosyal politika-esnek çalışma biçimleri paradoksunda Avrupa Birliği örneği”, *Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 5 (4), 157-171.

Evaluation of The Advances of Information Technologies on Advanced Levels on The Organization of Government Accounting Audit in Turkey

Serkan Akçay

1. Introduction

With the onset of the 21st century, information technologies have rapidly spread worldwide and the advances in technology was the fastest compared to any other field. In addition to securing their position in the private sector including all production, sales and service facilities, information technologies have also provided public sector with the share it required. With technology, works taking hours or days now take minutes or seconds. Today, more work is achieved within shorter time frames, which, therefore, provides time-saving. Moreover, technology allowed achieving the same amount of work with significantly fewer individuals. Advantages of technology in terms of time and cost are only a few of its many merits.

Public organizations have gradually grown and become more complicated as a result of rapid population growth, technological advances, and increasing governmental duties. Management of a large-scale and complex organization, in other words, determination of its aims, planning of its activities, establishing its coordination and supervision, depend on the volume and quality of the information it receives from its sub-units, and the assessment of the volume and quality of the information. Within this context, contemporary public organizations have to continuously gather information on the affairs of its various units. This information involves a great variety of issues including cost, production, success in achieving specified goals, quality of labor force, organization-environment relationships, etc. High management efficiency and productivity can only be achieved by providing the information for the benefit of the organization as soon as this extensive information is rapidly gathered and assessed. As it is the case in other organizations, this mainly stems from the obligation of public organizations to conform to technological advances, since technological advances are the most prominent feature of our age (Polatoğlu, 1994).

Rapid technological advances and the resulting spread of the use of information and communication technologies can bring about certain changes to public servicing. Relieving transactions from paper circulation-based bureaucratic processes and thereby accelerating transactions, efficiency in resource utilization and establishing effectiveness, and rationalization of the processes serve as examples of these changes. This approach brings forward the need to earnestly re-question the definitions and meanings of centralized public administration, decentralization, local administrations, audit, coordination, planning, and personnel management, etc. Within this framework, responding to the pressures for change and adapting to the new circumstances following the changes emerge as an obligation for public organizations (Lelebici, Öktem & Aydın, 2003).

The expectation regarding what form the auditing process will take after the adoption of information technologies revolves around the notion that it will ensure the continuity of its conventional process. In other words, with the adoption of information technologies by organizations, more centralized auditing and auditing power are expected above all (Davis, 1989). According to this expectation, widespread adoption of information technologies will merge the decision-making and audit units of organizations and therefore lead to the concentration of power at top managements.

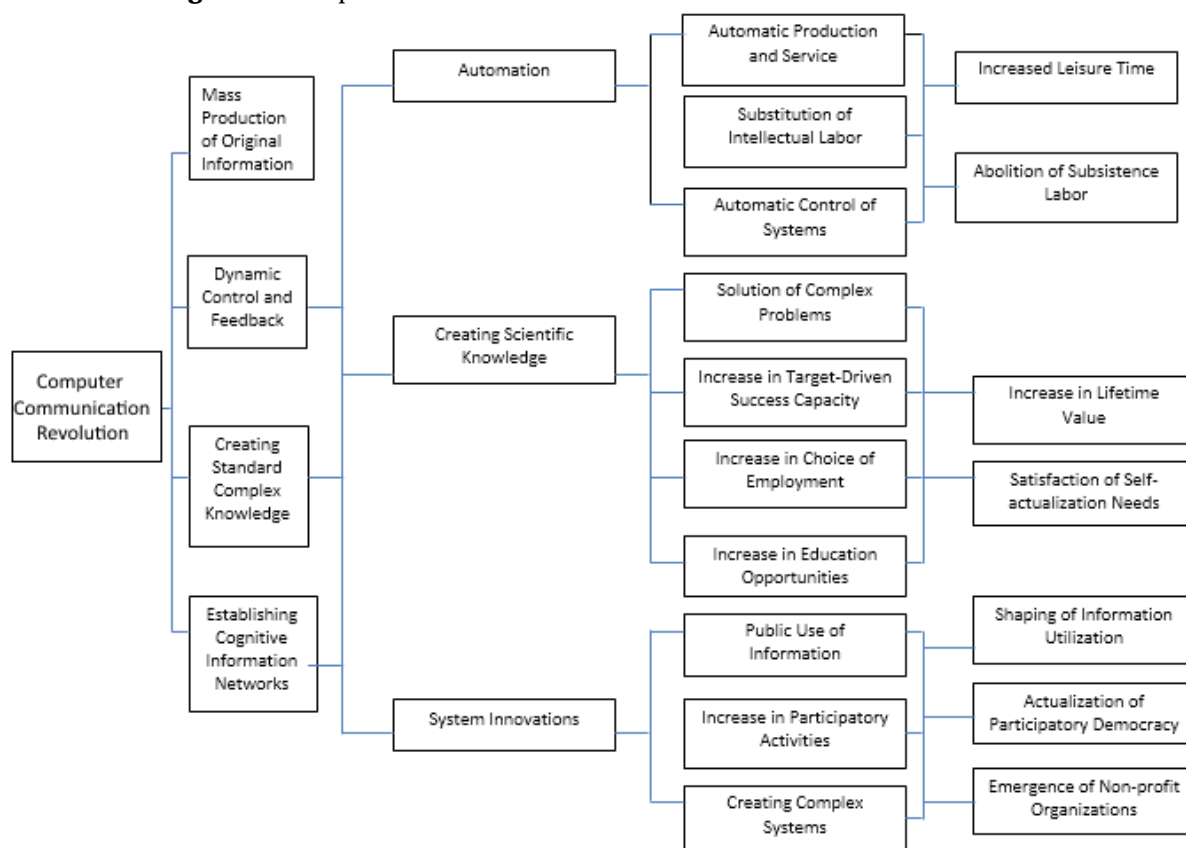
It is asserted that with the use of information technologies in public organizations, administrative structures, which either reduce or abolish hierarchical gradation and middle management levels and favor participation and decentralization, had come to the fore. Administrative structures in which general manager directly communicates with department managers due to the removal of the deputy general manager or in which deputy general managers directly communicate with unit managers due

to the removal of chiefs of the departments have emerged. In this type of public organizations middle-level managers lose their functions and some management scientists argue that middle-level managerial staff are superfluous, increase bureaucracy, decrease productivity, and do not contribute to public services (Heintze & Bretscheider, 2000).

Information obtained through information technologies enables all to assume responsibility about goals, contribution, and behaviors. Thanks to assumed responsibilities, it allows all to become managers by compelling everyone to make decisions and thereby removing the notion of subordination (Erkan, 1994). Hence, a different structural context emerges by means of the decentralization and transfer of authority to sub-levels, empowerment of employees, and increased efficiency and quality of employees through teamwork and participation. This approach by which worker autonomy perception was shifted to a group autonomy perception blurred the conventional control line and rendered teamwork a simultaneous source of motivation, authority, and social control. In conclusion, division of responsibility among the team converted the “economic firm” perception in industrial structure into the “human firm” perception (Belek, 1999).

The influences of information and communication technologies on all organizations including both public and private organizations can be listed as follows (Baştan & Ökmen, 2004):

- ▶ Service efficiency and product range are increased.
- ▶ Appreciation of the skilled labor force within organizations is increased.
- ▶ A managerial approach based on information systems in which mass information is gathered, processed and conveyed to render mass information useful was developed.
- ▶ Organizations were compelled both to be equipped with organizational networks within themselves and to connect with global communication networks.
- ▶ Being discouraged by long distances was diminished; interactive organization or interactive collaboration between organizations created favorable conditions.
- ▶ Audit of cross-border data exchange was facilitated.
- ▶ Mass data transmission, processing, and storage have become as important as capital and raw material.
- ▶ Some disparities in favor of organizations or countries that hold the knowledge to produce information and communication technologies and the ability to effectively use these technologies emerged.

Figure 1. Computer Communication Revolution and its Social Influences

Source: (Masuda, 1990).

The fundamental goals of the strategic planning of information systems are as follows (Cassidy 1998).

- Ensuring the effective management of the high-cost and critically-important assets of information systems,
 - Improving the communication between top management and information system organization,
 - Ensuring that information systems are developed in line with organizational purposes and goals,
 - Ensuring the ideal management and improvement of the quality of information, as it is the most important asset of organizations,
 - Allocating the resources of information systems (software, hardware, physical environment, and labor force) in the best interest of the organization,
 - Within the framework of good project management, ensuring time-efficient and cost-effective investments in information systems (Kayrak, 2007).

2. Definition and History of Information Technologies

Different resources define information technologies differently. The ability to accomplish work more rapidly and the reduced number of personnel to do the same work by the help of today's technology reveal the extent of the importance of information technologies. This situation was well-understood after the advancement of technology and communication in the historical process. This progress still continues in full force.

2.1 Definition of Information Technologies

Information technologies, in general, are technologies enabling information gathering, processing, storage, and, when needed, transmission of information to a certain place or information retrieval from a certain place (Ceyhun & Çağlayan, 1997).

In a broader definition, information technologies refer to a term used to define the technologies that enable effectively and productively performing certain processes such as, data recording and

storage, knowledge production through processing, access to the produced information, and storage and transmission of the produced information. Information technologies include computing and communication technologies based on micro-electronics that conduct acquisition, processing, storage and distribution of audible, visual, textual, and digital data (Bensghir, 1996). An information system is a system that gathers, processes, stores, and reports information from different resources to provide the information required by an administrator to make decisions (Güleş, 2000).

2.2 History of Information Technologies

A review of the historical development of information systems reveals that between 1950 and 1960, data processing, between 1960 and 1970, executive reporting, between 1970 and 1980, decision support systems, and between 1980 and 1990, developments in strategic and end-user support had emerged (Akolaş, 2004). After the 1990s, important steps were taken in the software and communication fields. The progression in the public accounting and auditing field and eventually changes in organization in Turkey occurred especially after the SAY2000 accounting package program, which started its operation in 2001. After 2000, with the commencement of various public information systems including SAY2000 (Internet accounting package program), KBS (public expenditure and accounting information system-PIS), KEOS (public electronic payment system - PEPS), and HYS (expenditure management system-EMS), an important breakthrough was accomplished in public accounting and audit systems. According to the examination of a few of these systems (Akçay, 2017);

a. SAY2000 (Public Internet Accounting Program) consists of five basic modules. Its first module is the accounting module, followed by personnel and salary, health expenses, legislation and information, and online support modules.

b. KEOS (Public Electronic Payment System-PEPS) refers to “an information system that allows public payments by the Ministry and Bank to take place in electronic media”.

c. KBS (Public Expenditure and Accounting Information System-PIS) is a combination of different applications. Through aggregating the financial transaction of expenditure and accounting units within an automation system, these applications aim to establish reliable and fast information flow in electronic media between expenditure units, which realize the expenditure, and accounting units, which carry out the payments, and accompanied with the functions of the SAY2000 system, they will contribute to Public Financial Management.

d. VEDOP (Tax Court Automation Project-TCAP) aims to reduce workload by carrying out all transactions of a tax office via computers, to provide better services to citizens and businesses by increasing efficiency and productivity in the operations of tax offices, to establish more impartial distribution of the tax load, and to enable more productive tax collection. VEDOP was commenced in 1995 as a pilot project to automatize tax offices. In 2004, the second stage of the project, namely the VEDOP-2 project, was commenced and completed. The third stage of the project, namely VEDOP-3, was initiated in July, 2007 (Uğur & Çütçü, 2009).

Furthermore, projects such as, the Board of Finance Inspectors Auditing Information System Project (MTK DEBİS), which allows auditing in electronic media, and the Ministry of Finance SGB.net project, which aims to bring all financial and non-financial transactions of the Ministry of Finance to electronic media, came into operation in 2008. The onset of carrying out works and transactions based on automation through using information technologies led to the obligation to electronically inspect the works and transactions. As the pioneer organization of the inspection services in Turkey, the Board of Finance Inspectors commenced their studies on “e-inspection (*e-teftiş*)” by taking this obligation into account. At the first stage, by using VEDOP as a base, a software to inspect tax offices was developed and MTK VEDEBİS was introduced in July, 2007. In 2008, e-inspection was implemented in a total of 34 tax offices and consequently, transactions of 380,743 taxpayers, which constitute 9.9% of total taxpayers, were electronically inspected (Çetin, 2010).

In addition, the project carried out by the Account Experts Board in collaboration with the Revenue Administration, and the Ministries of Finance of Germany and England to enable an effective risk analysis system and taxpayer selection by establishing information technologies-based information systems and implementing computer-assisted inspection methods was completed in 2008. Moreover,

to more effectively combat informal economy, the studies to actualize certain project goals such as, establishing a more detailed database on taxpayers, widespread use of computerized applications in auditing, systematic and effective identification of the taxpayers who violate tax rules, development and installation of the risk assessment models suitable for the use of the Revenue Administration, development and implementation of computerized audit systems for the simplification of the control of tax compliance, and enabling access through the data warehouse of the Revenue Administration to the information used in the information system serving as a base for the special risk assessment models of the Account Experts Board continue. The effectiveness of audit increases with the advances in information technologies. The developments especially in certain topics now allow electronic auditing implementations. By also raising the auditing standards, the Revenue Administration has already transitioned to and completed certain implementations. The implementations within the scope of the project were commented. There are implementations that raise the standards of auditing, such as, electronic invoice record system (EFKS), electronic bookkeeping application, electronic declaration application, electronic lien project (e-lien, *e-haciz*), audit information system (VEDOS), data warehouse project (VERIA) (Çetin, 2010).

3. Influence of Information Technologies on the Organization of Public Auditing

In some cases, information technologies can eliminate the time required to complete a process. Especially certain processes such as, intra-business accounting, taxation, and building a database can be automatically performed through information technologies, which eliminates the time and labor force required for these processes. In addition, with the widespread use of personal computers, personal productivity applications, which include word processing, electronic spreadsheet, identification, desktop database, and personal digital assistant software, created an important and broad area of use in the organizational structure (Venkatraman, 1994).

As organizations grow, communication and activity problems emerge. To overcome these problems, organizations transfer some of its audit and management responsibilities to sub-levels. This type of implementation leads organizations to tend towards a relatively more vertical structuring. However, as a result of the widespread use of information technologies in organizations, some of the personnel were substituted by computers. This implementation obviates the need for auditing and managing functions to implement delegation through creating a new organizational level, which was the case under previous conditions. Hence, for information-based organizations operating with the facilities offered by information technologies, the need to create a separate organizational level to carry out auditing, which mostly is made up of the data processing function, is obviated. By working in a manner that reduces the number of levels, information technologies shift organizations from hierarchical structures to simple structures. In an information society, by more rapidly, effectively, and healthily carrying out the tasks of mid-level managers, who are typically accepted as information processors, information technologies render the broad employment opportunities reserved for mid-level managers redundant. Information technologies find a broad area of use by means of reducing management levels in organizations (Womack & Jones, 1998).

Integrated Public Financial Management Information System is a new discourse and it is an aggregate of integrated systems constituted by software that supports functional processes related to public finance management, interactively works with other software, and presents reports and information to concerning parties and decision-makers when needed. Although the abovementioned functional processes regarding the public financial management vary depending on the administrative and economic structure of countries, they usually comprise the following: • Macroeconomic forecasting and planning, • Financial planning, • Budget preparation, • Budget process and budget implementation, • Cash management, • Debt management, • Yield management, • Public personnel management, • Asset management, • Accounting and financial reporting, • Monitoring and assessment, • Audit (<https://www.csb.gov.tr>, 2017).

Figure 2 shows the fundamental criteria of the governmental accounting information system.

Fundamental Criteria



Figure 2. Fundamental Criteria of Governmental Accounting Information System

Source: (<http://www.bumko.gov.tr>, 2017).

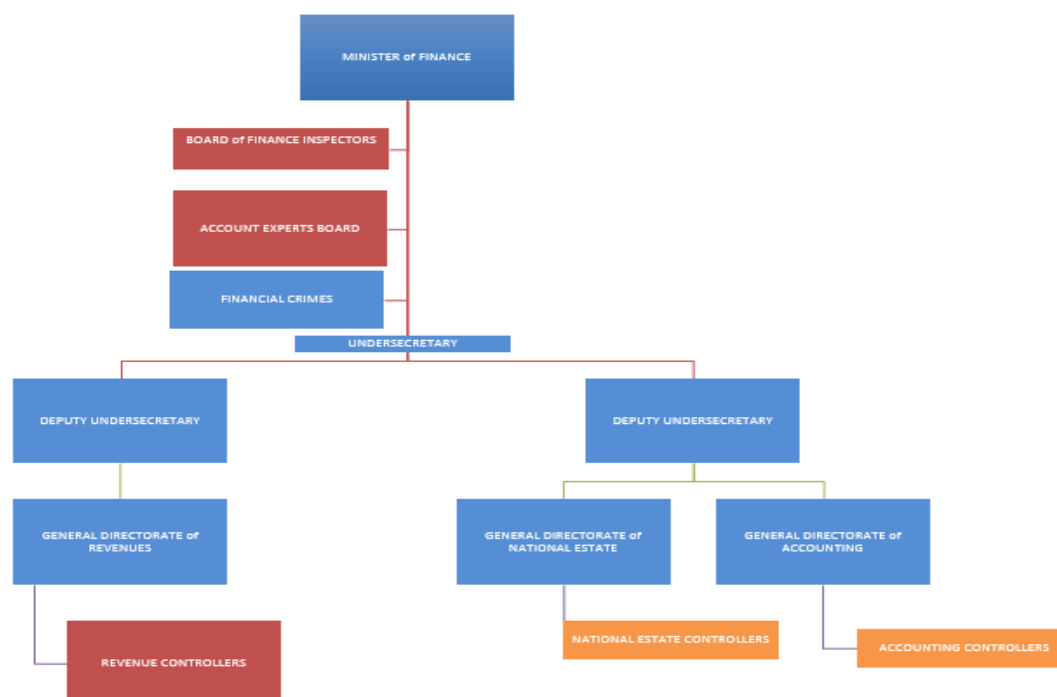
Today, the most important actors of governmental accounting organization are: Ministry of Finance (MF), General Directorate of Public Accounts (GDPA), central accounting, financial office, treasuries departments, revenue boards, and directorates of strategy development (DSD). These are central, rural (city), and rural (county) accounting units. All governmental accounting and audit functions were facilitated by a technological organization structure established between these units. The Court of Accounts, which carries out the public external auditing function, ultimately audits the financial transactions of these units and reports the results to the Grand National Assembly of Turkey (TBMM).

The accounting of governmental organizations is kept and recorded in the SAY2000 systems and payments are made through KEOS (Figure 3).

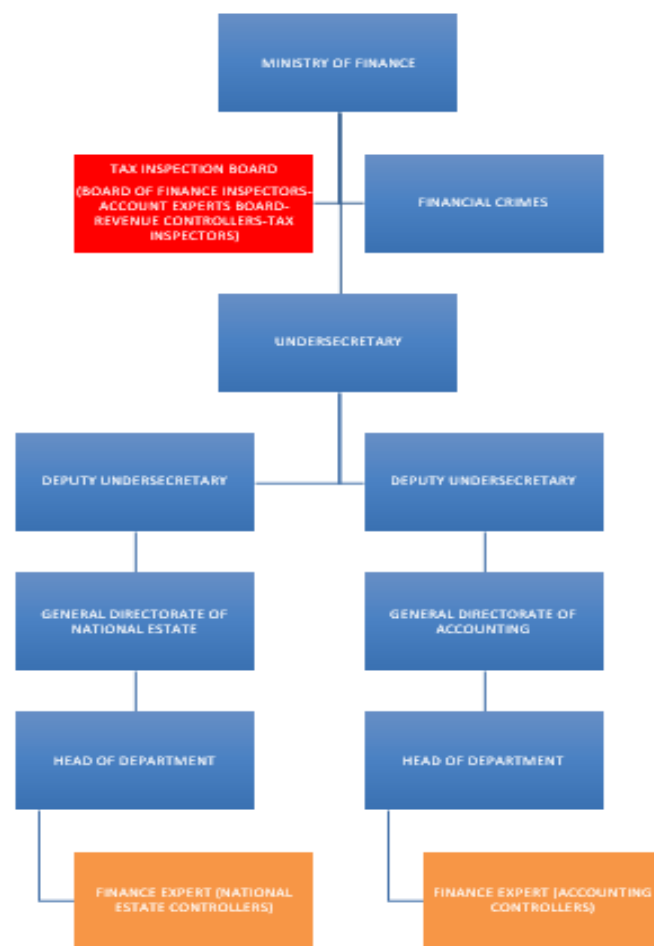
In 2011, the accounting auditor and accounting controller titles were abolished and converted to expert titles. Financial inspectors, account experts, and tax auditors were merged under the name of tax inspectors and attached to the tax inspection board. Converting the accounting auditor and accounting controller titles to expert titles is viewed as a result of the simplification of auditing by the adoption of web-based package programs in accounting operations.

The auditing system in Turkey was formed under the inspiration of France in the Continental Europe system. There is an auditing system based on inspection boards. Especially with the emergence of increasingly specialized ministry-type organizations during the Tanzimat Era, inspectors were assigned and later, inspector boards were established. In Turkey, there was no integrated regulation of the public auditing system before 2001. Auditing units in the public sector were organized separately with various legislations. With the regulations until 2011 that regard both the law no. 3046, which regulates the ministry system, and other laws, the ministry system was restructured. With the Public Financial Management and Control Law no. 5018 enacted in 2003, public institutions and organizations were financially regulated and Directorates of Research, Planning and Coordination Departments (APK) were replaced by Directorates of Strategy Development. Thus, a public financial system that conforms to the framework of private sector rationale was formed. The changes are gradually adopted and one of their recent reflections in the trend is the change made in general public management in 2011. With the Delegated Legislation on the Amendment of Certain Laws and Delegated Legislations on the Arrangement of Financial Rights of Public Officials, No. 666 published on Official Journal dated 02.11.2011, crucial changes in terms of accounting and auditing were made both in the central organization of the Ministry of Finance and in the financial offices in rural organizations. In financial offices, the accounting auditor and national estate auditor titles were abolished and converted to financial office experts. In the central organization, the financial inspector, account expert, revenue controller, and tax auditor titles were converted to tax inspectors. The accounting controllership and national estate controllership titles were received the finance expert title. The accounting auditorship title was abolished in the public sector. A simplification process was carried out in the auditing staff (Küçükyağcı, 2014).

According to the regulations of finance expertise and financial office expertise, expert staff, except for those assigned with the audit task, are assigned to perform the other tasks determined by the ministry and financial office. (Finance Expert Regulation, OJ No. 28269 and Dated 19 April 2012 and financial Office Expert Regulation OJ No. 28334 and dated 25 June 2012)

Figure 5. Previous Organization Chart of the Audit in the Ministry of Finance

Source: (Küçükyavaş, 2014).

Figure 6. New Organization Chart of the Audit in the Ministry of Finance After 2011 DLs

Source: (Küçükyavaş, 2014).

Anglo-saxonization of the previously Continental Europe-based system forms the foundation of the auditing regulations. The public auditing system of the Continental Europe system, which is founded on the concepts of “control/controller” and “inspection board/inspector” who carry out auditing activities under the command of politically-responsible minister and administratively-responsible managers is changed by reducing the inspection boards, which carry out tasks on behalf of politically-responsible ministers, to inquiry units and turning “internal auditing/internal auditors” into the new ministry inspection boards (Karatepe, 2009).

Although they previously were counselling and auditing units within the organizational structure of ministries that were directly attached to the minister, with the restructuring of inspection boards as main service/internal auditing units that are hierarchical subordinates of the undersecretaries and, even, deputy undersecretaries, their independence, which is the main feature of auditing, is revoked. It is clear that a work performed by an auditing unit with revoked independence cannot be called auditing and it can only be viewed as a control activity taking place within the management.

4. Method

The study was based on the content analysis method. In the study, a review of the relevant literature was carried out and by referring to the opinions of the experts in the field, all gathered information was analyzed and interpreted.

5. Results

The results of the study revealed the following conclusions:

- Information technologies were substantially influential on the governmental accounting and auditing in Turkey after 2000.
- The milestone of the audit organization was the adoption of the SAY2000 program in 2001.
- As a result of the influence of information technologies, accounting auditorship and controllership were transformed into expertise titles. The number of the auditors was reduced.
- With the DLs enacted in 2011, important changes emerged in the organizational chart of auditing. The titles of the auditors working in rural cities under the command of financial offices were changed to financial office experts. Their auditing authority was revoked, except for a few assigned individuals. The accounting auditor title was abolished. The individuals working as accounting controllers in the center under the command of the Ministry of Finance received a new title as ministry experts. Their auditing authority was revoked, except for a few assigned individuals and the accounting auditor title was abolished. Other auditing titles (account experts, board of finance inspectors, tax auditors, and revenue controllers) were merged under the name of Tax Inspector Board.
- Converting the accounting auditor and accounting controller titles to expert titles is viewed as a result of the simplification of auditing by the adoption of web-based package programs in accounting operations.
- In governmental auditing, with new regulations, the auditing understanding of the Continental Europe was replaced by an Anglo-Saxon understanding of auditing.
- Auditing was more centralized with the influence of information technologies, since technology reached dimensions that allow centralized auditing.
- As a result of the said circumstances, information technologies initiated the reduction and removal of middle-level management in governmental organization.
- By reducing the number of levels in the organization chart, information technologies enabled the transition from hierarchical structure to simple organization structure. The simple organization structure was also implemented in accounting and auditing following the changes after 2000.
- The auditing of the information technologies in public organizations was carried out by internal auditing units launched in 2016.

References

- Akçay, S. (2017). Türkiye’de Osmanlılardan Günümüze Devlet Muhasebesi Denetimi Süreci ve Sürecin Değerlendirilmesi. *Avrasya Sosyal ve Ekonomi Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 6, 73-104.
- Akolaş, A. (2004). Bilişim Sistemleri ve Bilişim Teknolojisinin Küreselleşme Olgusu ve Küreselleşme Üzerine Yansımaları. *Selçuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 12, 29–43.
- Baştan, S., & Ökmen, M. (2004). Yerel Yönetimlerde Bilgi ve İletişim Alt Yapısı İle İlgili Temel Sorunlar. *Kamu Yönetimi: Kuramdan Uygulamaya*, Ed: A. Yılmaz, M. Ökmen, Gazi Kitabevi, Ankara.
- Belek, İ. (1999). *Postkapitalist Paradigmalar*. 2. Baskı, Sorun Yayınları, İstanbul.
- Bensghir, K.T. (1996). *Bilgi Teknolojileri ve Örgütsel Değişim*. TODAİE Yayınları, Ankara.
- Cassidy, A. (1998). *A Practical Guide to Information Systems Strategic Planning*. St. Lucie Press, 1-32.
- Ceyhun, Y. & Çağlayan, U. (1997). *Bilgi Teknolojileri Türkiye İçin Nasıl Bir Gelecek Hazırlamakta, Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları*, Ankara.
- Çetin, G. (2010). Bilişim Teknolojilerindeki Gelişmelerin Vergilemede Kayıt Düzeni ve Denetim Uygulamalarına Etkisi. *Ekonomi Bilimleri Dergisi*, 1, 85.
- Çütcü, İ. & Uğur, A. (2009). E-Devlet ve Tasarruf Etkisi Kapsamında Vedop Projesi. *Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Dergisi*, 2, 1-20.
- Defterdarlık Uzmanı Yönetmeliği. (2012). R.G. 28334 sayı & 25 Haziran 2012 tarih. <http://mevzuat.basbakanlik.gov.tr/Metin.Aspx?MevzuatKod=7.5.16272&sourceXmlSearch=maliye&MevzuatIliski=0>
- Davis, F. (1989). Perceived Usefulness Perceived Ease of Use and User Acceptance of Information Technologies. *MIS Quarterly*, 13(3).
- Erkan, H. (1994). *Bilgi Toplumu ve Ekonomik Gelişme*. Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları, İstanbul.
- Güleş, H.K. (2000). Bilişim Sistemlerinin Toplam Kalite Yönetimindeki Yeri ve Önemi. *Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi, İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 1.
- Heintze, T. & Bretscheider S. (2000). Information Technology and Restructuring in Public Organizations: Does Adoption of Information Technology Affect Organizational Structures, Communications and Decision Making. *Journal of Public Administration Research & Theory*, 4, 778-812.
- Karatepe, K. (2009). Anglo-Sakson Denetim Sistemi Çökerken Türk Denetim Sisteminin AngloSaksonlaştırılması Üzerine Bir İnceleme. *Kamu Yönetimi: Yapı, İşleyiş ve Reform*, AÜSBF Yayınları, Ankara.
- Kayrak, M. (2007). Bilişim Sistemleri Stratejisinin Önemi ve Sayıştay Deneyimi. *Sayıştay Dergisi*, 199-208.
- Küçükyağcı, N. (2014). 2011 Yılında Çıkarılan Kanun Hükmünde Bakanlık Denetim Sistemine Etkileri. *Başbakanlık Yayınları*, Ankara.
- Leblebici, D.N., Öktem, M.K. & Aydın, M.D. (2003). Türkiye’de Kamu Kesiminde Bilgi Teknolojileri Uygulamaları ve E-Bürokrasi: Örgütsel Dönüşüm Üzerindeki Etkiler. *Kamu Yönetiminde Kalite 3. Ulusal Kongresi*, TODAİE Yayını: 319, 501-512.
- Maliye Uzmanı Yönetmeliği. (2012). R.G. 28269 sayı & 19 Nisan 2012 tarih. <http://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/eskiler/2012/04/20120419-6.htm>
- Masuda Y. (1990). *Managing in the Information Society*, Mass.: Basil Blackwell.
- Polatoğlu, A. (1994). *Türk Kamu Yönetiminde Bilgisayar Kullanma Alanları ve Sorunları*. Amme İdaresi Dergisi, 4, 63-81.
- Venkatraman, N. (1994). IT-Enabled Business Transformation: From Automation to Business Scope Redefinition. *Sloan, Management Review*.
- Womack, J.P. & Jones D.T. (1998). *Yalın Düşünce*. Çev. N. Acar, Sistem Yayıncılık, İstanbul. [https://www.csb.gov.tr/db/strateji/edotordosya/BKMYBS%20\(Web\).pdf](https://www.csb.gov.tr/db/strateji/edotordosya/BKMYBS%20(Web).pdf)
<http://www.bumko.gov.tr/Eklenti/10648,yeni-devlet-muhasebesi-bilisim-sistemi-arif-yildirimpdf.pdf?0>

Turkish Business System and Diversification

Umut Cil

1. Introduction

Sönmez (1990: 12) starts his book with the following words on the one hand: “It does not matter whether we are aware of it or not. Approximately 50 families or capital groups have managed Turkey. And the domination of these families has consolidated with every passing year. From economy to politics, from cultural life to the foreign policy, the decisions determining the destiny of 60 million have been decided by these big families or holding companies”. On the other hand, Buğra (1994: 187) emphasizes that “the decision to enter into a new area of activity is often taken via suggestions and recommendations of government authorities rather than through an evaluation of market signals”. It is obvious that there is an important relationship between governments and businesses. Moreover, as Çolpan, Hikino and Lincoln’s book (*the Oxford Handbook of Business Groups, 2010*) shows, it is important to emphasize that this is not only a case for Turkey but almost for all countries, particularly for developing ones because governments need some specific groups to help them for the growth and sustain it (e.g. Buğra, 1994; Çolpan et al, 2010; Çolpan and Hikino, 2008; Hoskisson, Johnson, Tihanyi and White, 2005; Khanna and Palebu, 2000; Tezel, 1982). Big business groups have undertaken the task of basic developmental actors of modern economic development in successful developing countries (Buğra, 1994; Çolpan et al, 2010; Çolpan and Hikino, 2008). In other words, there are mutual needs between them. In this context, despite the nuances, the holding companies or family holdings in Turkey is assumed under the same conceptual framework with the *groups* of Spain and South America, *business houses* of India, *chaebol* of South Korea, *keiretsu* of Japan and *qiye jituan* of China (e.g. Buğra, 1994; Çolpan and Hikino, 2008; Karaevli, 2008; Özkara et al., 2008).

The relationship between some giant business groups and governments is an important claim which is often expressed as a necessity to grow and make the achieved growth sustainable (e.g. Buğra, 1994; Schneider, 2010; Tezel, 1982). One of the most important reasons behind the frequent discussion of this claim is the growing interest in diversified business groups, which are frequently seen in developing countries as serious economic actors against developed countries (e.g. Colpan, Hikino and Linkoln, 2010). With diversified business groups that is defined by Colpan and Jones (2016: 69) as “the term business group has been used broadly to encompass quite different organizational forms, including network-type, diversified and pyramidal groups, even if most research has focused on ‘diversified’ business groups that are active in technologically unrelated businesses”, the studies on business groups and developing countries show that it is one of the most common growth options, although Nguyen and Cai, (2016) argue that diversification is a rare event. The diversification strategy, which is the most important growth method of these groups and the popularity of the diversification strategy has also constituted an important field of study (Colpan and Jones, 2016). In this context, while it is often claimed that the main motivations identified in the central countries are valid for the whole world, on the contrary, it is emphasized that cultural and national differences will also lead to differences in this field. This study also predicts that the main drivers will differ in different countries. For this reason, it is claimed that the adoption of the diversification strategy of business groups in Turkey, which has a different class from the central country in terms of the national business systems that Whitley presents, can be based on more political-based reasons than the main sources of motivation in the central literature. This study is tried to examine that, different motivations may be the subject of different political periods and even different groups may follow this strategy for various reasons due to different attitudes towards politics with the emphasis on the diversified business groups classification made by Schneider (2010). Therefore, the largest business groups in Turkey have been identified and six of them have been selected to examine the main sources of the motivation behind the adoption of the diversification strategy in different political periods.

Finally, it should be emphasized that in recent years there has been an increasing number of significant contributions from European and Asian countries, but almost all literature and the main

theories still arise in North America, which is the central country. In this study, it is anticipated that the data obtained from Turkey, which is in a different business system (State-Organized Business Systems) from North America (Compartmentalized Business Systems), will be important in terms of further enriching the literature.

2. The Growth of Business Groups

The growth of the businesses is carried out in several ways and they show significant differences among small, medium and large enterprises. However, we can classify them into two main groups; internal (organic) growth and external (inorganic) growth. Whilst the important examples of organic growth are product-related strategies, geographic expansion and integration; inorganic growth is merger and acquisitions, licensing, franchising and strategic alliances. Another important classification is concentration versus diversification strategies that are the main strategies under the corporate level strategies. With the words of Hofer and Schendel (1978, p.27) "corporate-level strategy is concerned primarily with answering the question of what set of businesses should we be in. Consequently, scope and resource deployments among businesses are the primary components of corporate strategy". While concentration refers to focus on the core businesses of companies and become an expert at the core businesses via generic strategies such as differentiation, low-cost leadership and focus; diversification refers the new lines or markets of activities.

Ramanujam and Varadarajan (1989: 525) define diversification as "*the entry of a firm or business unit into new lines of activity, either by processes of internal business development or acquisition, which entail changes in its administrative structure, systems, and other management processes*". It can be related or unrelated to the companies' core activities and it is named as "related diversification" or "unrelated diversification" based on its relationship (Ramanujam and Varadarajan, 1989; Rumelt, 1982). Diversification is done in two ways: The first one is to go to the diversification of products in the relevant market through forward integration, backward integration and horizontal integration. The second way is to go to the diversification of products in unrelated markets. This seen very risky for companies because they are new in a new market and they do not have sufficient information about it. However, Analoui and Karami, (2003) stated that this risk has been decreased over time.

It has been suggested that there are three main motivations behind the diversification strategies of organizations: growth, risk aversion and benefit from economies of scope (Karaevli, 2008):

Growth: When companies believe they have grown up to an advanced level in their main industry or market, they look for ways to invest in other areas.

To Benefit from The Scope of Economies: Another theoretical background is the motivation of benefit from economies of scope based on the field of industrial organization and organizational economics. According to this, by producing different products together, organizations diversify their operations across different product / service areas with the aims to spread the costs of production, advertising, distribution and management to various products and take advantage of the skills of these issues and the customer loyalty (Buğra, 1994; Chang, 2003; Çolpan and Hikino; 2008; Karaevli, 2008; Purkayastha, Manolova and Edelman, 2012).

Risk Avoidance: One of the benefits of the diversification strategy is, by operating in different areas, to spread the risk into different areas as possible and gain the flexibility to deploy resources from each other in independent business units (Baysinger and Hoskisson, 1990; Buğra, 1994; Çolpan and Hikino; 2008; Karaevli, 2008; Purkayastha, Manolova and Edelman, 2012).

Due to directly based on an economic background, the motivation of benefit from economies is the most acceptable reason behind diversification strategy (Chang, 2003; Karaevli, 2008). However, it is not easy to think that theories explaining the motivation of diversification of organizations in developed economies can explain the motivation and forms of diversification of business groups that emerged in developing countries which have different political, economic, legal and institutional conditions for the external environment (Wan, 2005). Since, as Karaevli (2008) also stated, these

theories cannot explain enough this high rate of diversification of family businesses that there is not a clear separation between ownership and management. If so, what are the main motivations of the largest Turkish business groups on diversification? The idea claiming that governments have a significant effect on the issue has become more spoken. Foreign trade and investment policies of the governments and incentives they offer in these areas have encouraged these business groups to invest in different sectors or export and caused to become a diversified company because these big groups want to seize opportunities (Chang and Choi, 1988; Guillen, 2000).

Picone and Dagnino (2016) have classified the main motivation of (unrelated) diversification into three class as i) Environmental and Institutional, ii) Organizational Value-Enhancing and iii) Managerial drivers. As Environmental and Institutional Drivers, the authors have focused on the relationships between unrelated diversification with the institutional context and the institutional context and the relationship the strategic choices and the evolution of the macroeconomic and social system to produce the functions of the missing institutions. While, under the *Organizational Value-Enhancing Drivers*, establishing an internal capital market (e.g. risk reduction, lower costs of financial transaction, proper management liquidity cash practices), achieving market power (e.g. predatory pricing strategy), leveraging valuable and imperfectly imitable resources, cross-fertilization and know-how blending and capturing strategic flexibility are accepted as the main antecedents; Weberian power and prestige and Schumpeterian empire-building reasons, escalating the demand for managerial skills, generating favourable conditions for misleading the shareholders and risk reduction are the antecedents as managerial drivers.

In addition these main motivations, there are some different perspectives which have enough voice in the last decades. First, according to the assumptions of agency theory, growth is not based on any rational strategy of the organization but top managers' desires. Senior executives give the growth decision to satisfy their personal egos or to earn a financial gain (Jensen, 1993; Karaevli, 2008). Interestingly, some researchers suppose that the big economic crisis of USA in 2008 revealed because of this reason (e.g. Reavis, 2009). Another different point of view is *the government policy perspective*. The high diversity of companies is a result of the state policies of the country and the diversity of these policies. Thus, the diversification may be more or less in line with the preferences of the state (Gökşen ve Üsdiken, 2001). Lastly, according to the power perspective, foreign trade and investment policies and government incentives offered in new areas have encouraged big business groups to invest in different sectors because they are stronger than others. As a result, large groups have become diversified as they seek to seize opportunities (Chang and Choi, 1988; Guillen, 2000).

3. Classification of Business Groups

Schneider (2010) classifies business groups into three different classes based on their characteristics.

Table 1: Diversified Business Groups

	Organic	Portfolio	Policy-induced
Core Motivations	Economies of scope (and vertical integration)	Risk management	Government incentives
Scope of diversification	Narrower	Broadest	Broader
Integration of management	High	Variable	Variable
Groups ties to subsidiary	Longer term	Shorter term	Shorter term

(Schneider, 2010; p. 654)

Organic Groups: While the most important diversification type of organic groups developing to benefit from the scope of the economy is usually vertical integration, as companies expand their scope of the economy, they tend to invest more to Greenfields. For example, in the 55-year period between 1938 and 1993, Samsung established 62 new companies and doubled the number of acquisition and it

seems that acquisitions were predominant in the first years and Greenfield in the last decades of this period. In addition, while the establishment of new companies is preferred to enter a new industry, acquisitions are usually used as horizontal integration (Kang 1997: 37 as cited in Schneider, 2010).

Portfolio Groups: Portfolio groups that aim to reduce risk and maximize returns tend to diversify through acquisition rather than establishing a new firm from scratch, but tend to easily transfer firms they find problematic. Such groups are mostly bank-based groups and they more often invest in different sectors than main group companies. Moreover, the technological incentives for management integration are lower, and particularly in developed countries, owners of the group generally permit significant autonomy to the management of subsidiaries. Nevertheless, broad diversification has led to problems of asymmetry of information and agency that can encourage more management integration especially in less competitive markets and in developing countries.

Policy-Induced Groups: Policy-based groups, which are based on government incentives or directives rather than rational decisions, are privileged groups that receive government support for a number of areas, from industrial incentives, privatizations, customs, tariffs and other protection. These groups, which can be classified as a subdivision of patrimonial groups, can be distinguished conceptually from other groups (organic and portfolio) based on stronger economic motivations.

4. National Business Systems (NBS)

The national business system approach developed by Richard Whitley speaks of six different national business systems that vary from country to country, by focusing on the relationship of the forms of doing business in different countries with the social context (Fıkrkoca, 2012). These six different business systems are shaped according to the eight basic dimensions shown in table 2. Moreover, in addition to eight key dimensions, Whitley focused on the following four institutions in order to make cross-country comparisons and to identify sets of business systems (Fıkrkoca, 2012): a) State, b) Financial system, c) Skill development and control system, d) Trust and authority relations

Table 2: Business Systems and Characteristics

Business-system characteristics	Business-system type					
	Fragmented	Coordinated industrial district	Compartmentalized	State organized	Collaborative	Highly coordinated
<i>Ownership coordination</i>						
Owner control	Direct	Direct	Market	Direct	Alliance	Alliance
Ownership integration of production chains	Low	Low	High	High	High	Some
Ownership integration of sectors	Low	Low	High	Some to high	Limited	Limited
<i>Non-ownership coordination</i>						
Alliance coordination of production chains	Low	Limited	Low	Low	Limited	High
Collaboration between competitors	Low	Some	Low	Low	High	High
Alliance coordination of sectors	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Some
<i>Employment relations</i>						
Employer-employee interdependence	Low	Some	Low	Low	Some	High
Delegation to employees	Low	Some	Low	Low	High	Considerable

Source: Whitley (1999, p. 42)

Fragmented Business Systems: These business systems have high direct control and low ownership and alliance coordination. Collaboration between firms is limited and markets are highly competitive. These business systems are often found in environments where trust is low and financial resources are not easily accessible (Hotho, 2014). In such business systems, companies tend to grow less because it is only possible to grow with their own resources (Selekler Gökşen, 2007). It is seen in countries like China.

Coordinated Industrial District Business Systems: In this kind of business systems where small firms dominate, alliance integration is more comprehensive and they are also more artisanal. In these

systems where the resources and opportunities are easily changed by the companies, the companies are supported by the local institutions rather than the national institutions (Hotho, 2014; Selekler Gökşen, 2007). As seen in most of Italy's industrial regions, local government agencies help increase entry and exit barriers and provide a high-quality education system (Best, 1990; Whitley, 1994 as cited in Hotho, 2014).

Compartmentalized: This business system, which promotes competition among firms that tend to be larger and organizationally integrated is usually seen in Anglo-Saxon countries. In these business systems, the risk is not shared with the institutions but thanks to the strong institutional structure they have, it does not hinder their growth (Hotho, 2014; Selekler Gökşen, 2007).

State-Organized Business Systems: In such business systems, states take a more active role in economic development and risk-sharing, and therefore the relationship with the state is vital. These systems, where company owners are usually the most active people in company management, are seen in countries like Turkey and South Korea, and the relations with the state are managed by the owners themselves (Hotho, 2014; Selekler Gökşen, 2007). This encourages direct ownership with closer links between political and economic elites, and limits anti-ownership coordination (Hotho, 2014; Whitley, 2000). Relations among firms are rather weak because the state allocates the resources directly by themselves and the companies are competing for this distribution (Hotho, 2014; Gökşen, 2007; Whitley, 2000).

Collaborative and Highly Coordinated Business Systems: While centralization, professionalization and diversification of activities are moderate in these business systems observed in developed countries such as Germany and Japan where strong links and risk sharing between economic actors are found, the importance of intermediary institutions is great. While states encourage and facilitate business union among economic actors in collaborative business systems, they are playing a more active guide role in highly coordinated business systems (Hotho, 2014; Gökşen, 2007; Whitley, 2000).

5. Data Processing and Discussion

To be able to make comparisons, ten political periods were determined from 1923 to 2016. In these ten periods, there are two military administration, two coalition parties and six single party governments as seen in table 3.

Table 3: Political periods between 1923 to 2016

The Eras	Start	Finish
1- Single-Party Era - 1	30.11.1923	22.05.1950
2- Democratic Party Era - 1	22.05.1950	27.05.1960
3- 1 st Military Coup Era - 3	27.05.1960	20.02.1965
4- Justice Party Era - 1	20.02.1965	26.03.1971
5- First Era of Coalitions - 2	26.03.1971	20.09.1980
6- 2 nd Military Coup Era - 3	20.09.1980	13.12.1983
7- ANAP Era - 1	13.12.1983	20.11.1991
8- DYP Era - 1	20.11.1991	06.03.1996
9- Second Era of Coalitions - 2	06.03.1996	18.11.2002
10- Ak Party Era - 1	18.11.2002	Ongoing

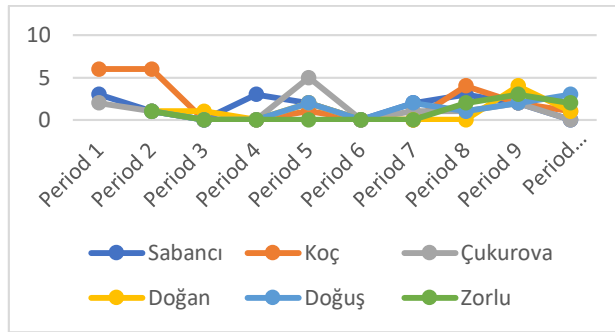
Source: Premiership of Republic of Turkey, 2016

In addition to the periods, Istanbul Chamber of Industry (ISO) has explained Turkey's largest companies since 1968 and in this study, the owner families or groups of these companies have been first determined and state-owned enterprises and the companies that are not diversified have eliminated to determine the largest groups (ISO 500, 2015). Considering this information, the largest 30 groups of Turkey are seen at table 4.

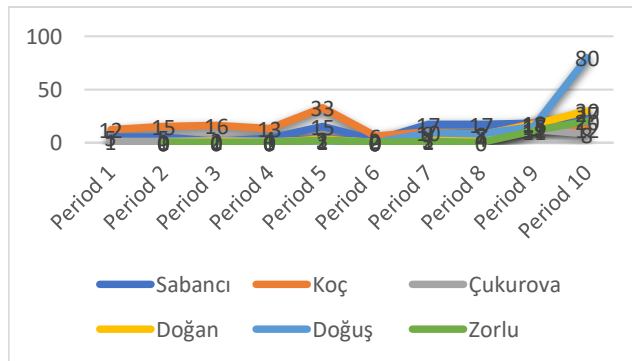
Table 4: The largest 30 business groups or families in Turkey (2015)

Group ID	Group Name	Foundation Year	Ownership Families
1	ÇUKUROVA	1923	KARAMEHMET FAMILY
2	İŞ BANKASI	1924	İŞ BANKASI FUND & CHP
3	KOÇ	1926	KOÇ FAMILY
4	SABANCI	1932	SABANCI FAMILY
5	STFA	1938	TÜRKEŞ AND AKKAYA FAMILIES
6	ECZACIBAŞI	1942	ECZACIBAŞI FAMILY
7	BORUSAN	1944	KOCABIYIK FAMILY
8	ÜLKER	1944	ÜLKER FAMILY
9	YAŞAR	1945	YAŞAR FAMILY
10	ANADOLU	1949	YAZICI AND ÖZILHAN FAMILY
11	DOĞAN	1950	DOĞAN FAMILY
12	KAZANCI*	1950	KAZANCI FAMILY
13	DOĞUŞ	1951	ŞAHENK FAMILY
14	AKKÖK*	1952	DİNÇKÖK FAMILY
15	ZORLU	1953	ZORLU FAMILY
16	ALARKO	1954	ALATON AND GARIH FAMILY AKÇAĞLILAR, BERKER AND GÖKYIĞIT FAMILIES
17	TEKFEN	1956	FAMILIES
18	BOYDAK	1957	BOYDAK FAMILY
19	ENKA	1957	TARA AND GÜLÇELIKFAMILIES
20	KALE	1957	BODUR FAMILY
21	ÇELEBİ	1958	ÇELEBİOĞLU FAMILY
22	GÜRİŞ	1958	YAMANTÜRK FAMILY
23	OYAK	1961	ARMED FORCES PENSION FUND
24	SANKO	1966	KONUKOĞLU FAMILY
25	NERGİS	1967	ÇAĞLAR AND ŞANKAYA FAMILIES
26	KİBAR	1972	KİBAR FAMILY
27	CİNER	1978	CİNER FAMILY
28	ŞAHİNLER	1982	ŞAHİN FAMILY
29	FİBA	1987	ÖZYEĞİN FAMILY
30	ÇALIK*	1930	ÇALIK FAMILY

The diversification information of these groups was investigated and only six of them could be accessed which are Çukurova, Koç, Sabancı, Doğan, Doğuş and Zorlu. The necessary information was collected through activity reports, the official website of the groups, group magazine, news bulletins and books written by founders and managers of the groups (e.g. Bizden Haberler, 2013; Dündar, 2006; 2008; Kırac, 1995; Koç, 1972; 1987; Sabancı, 1985; 1993). When there is conflicting information, activity reports and official documents are considered as a basis. Now firstly the frequencies will be present and then all information will be discussed in depth.

Table 5: Number of Unrelated Diversification

	Sabancı	Koç	Çukurova	Doğan	Doğuş	Zorlu
Era 1	3	6	2			
Era 2	1	6	1	1	1	1
Era 3	0	0	0	1	0	0
Era 4	3	0	0	0	0	0
Era 5	2	1	5	2	2	0
Era 6	0	0	0	0	0	0
Era 7	2	0	1	0	2	0
Era 8	3	4	1	0	1	2
Era 9	2	2	2	4	2	3
Era 10	0	1	0	1	3	2

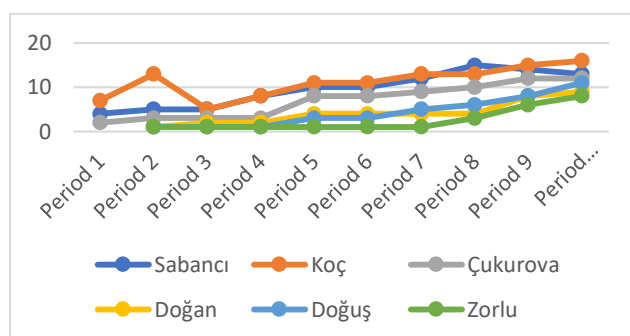
Table 6: Number of Related Diversification

	Sabancı	Koç	Çukurova	Doğan	Doğuş	Zorlu
Era 1	5	12	1			
Era 2	5	15	1	0	0	0
Era 3	1	16	2	1	0	0
Era 4	4	13	1	0	0	0
Era 5	15	33	1	3	2	2
Era 6	2	6	0	0	0	0
Era 7	17	10	3	2	9	1
Era 8	17	7	4	7	8	0
Era 9	18	18	12	17	15	11
Era 10	27	12	8	30	80	20

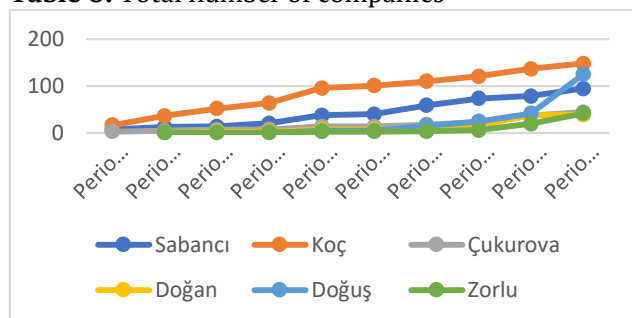
As is seen above, while the huge differences between periods can be observed in terms of unrelated diversification (Table 5), there are more stable changes for the related diversification (Table 6). On the other hand, considering the total number of industries and companies, it would not be wrong to claim that all companies have a sustainable growth almost in all periods although sharp zigzags were seen in some periods (Table 7 & 8).

The background information given in tables 5 to 8 show that there are some very interesting issues: for instance, Era 5 is a complete breakpoint due to the growth activities experienced in terms of all firms and diversification strategies. In this period, about 9 and a half years, exactly 11 governments were established and there are absolute unstable economic and political conditions. As it is claimed often at the main literature, in such conditions, the groups show the tendency to distribute the risk among firms and they try to gain flexibility through unrelated diversification (e.g. Baysinger and Hoskisson, 1990; Buğra, 1994; Çolpan and Hikino; 2008; Çolpan et al, 2010; Karaevli, 2008; Purkayastha et al., 2012). However, considering the related diversification, similar high-level growths are also observed in terms of related diversification, which contradicts the main literature suggesting that firms will make more cautious growth operations and will never do because of the risk factor reaching maximum in these periods as it observed in Era 6 which is a military administration period.

Table 7: Total number of industries/markets



	Sabancı	Koç	Çukurova	Doğan	Doğuş	Zorlu
Era 1	4	7	2			
Era 2	5	13	3	1	1	1
Era 3	5	5	3	2	1	1
Era 4	8	8	3	2	1	1
Era 5	10	11	8	4	3	1
Era 6	10	11	8	4	3	1
Era 7	12	13	9	4	5	1
Era 8	15	13	10	4	6	3
Era 9	14	15	12	8	8	6
Era						
10	13	16	12	9	11	8

Table 8: Total number of companies

	Sabancı	Koç	Çukurova	Doğan	Doğuş	Zorlu
Era 1	7	17	3			
Era 2	13	37	5	1	1	1
Era 3	14	52	7	3	1	1
Era 4	21	64	8	3	1	1
Era 5	38	96	14	8	5	3
Era 6	40	101	14	8	5	3
Era 7	59	110	18	10	16	4
Era 8	74	121	23	17	25	6
Era 9	79	137	37	38	42	20
Era 10	95	148	45	39	125	42

When the other coalitions and military administrated periods are considered, very similar comments can be made for all observed groups. Thus, it is easy to claim that coalition periods not a big problem for largest groups but military administrated periods are a very problematic. For example, considering the unrelated diversification, there is only one observation for all of six groups during the all military periods while there are 29 observations during the coalition governments. Similar observations are seen in terms of related diversification: while there are 137 activities observed in the coalition governments period, only 28 activities could be realized in military periods. When the total industry numbers are examined, only one growth activity was observed for Doğan groups in the first Military Coup Era, while Koç group which is the biggest group of the period reduces its total industry number from 13 to 5. In the second Military Coup Era, there are not any observations. The numbers can be useful but they may not be sufficiently descriptive and hence the percentages and annual averages based on period type will be now examined.

Table 9: Activity Increase Based on Period Type

	Sabancı	Koç	Çukurova	Doğan	Doğuş	Zorlu	Average
Single Parties	70	80	23	11	104	26	52,33
Coalitions	22	48	20	26	21	16	25,50
Military	3	20	2	2	0	0	4,50

Table 10: Average Annual Activity Increase Based on Period Type

	Sabancı	Koç	Çukurova	Doğan	Doğuş	Zorlu	Average
Single Party	1,09	1,25	0,36	0,30	2,81	0,70	1,09
Coalitions	1,47	3,20	1,33	1,73	1,40	1,07	1,70
Military	0,38	2,50	0,25	0,25	0,00	0,00	0,56

Table 11: Growth Rates (Percentage) by Period Type

	Sabancı	Koç	Çukurova	Doğan	Doğuş	Zorlu	Average
Single Party	0,46	0,34	0,32	0,24	1,18	0,48	0,53
Coalitions	0,44	0,32	0,68	1,45	2,34	2,17	1,23
Military	0,06	0,23	0,20	1,00	0,00	0,00	0,25

When only the number of activities are taken into account (Table 9), it is easy to claim that single party governments are the best times to growth, while it is doubled the coalitions periods, there are 11 times more growth activities than military periods. However, considering in annual based, there is a very interesting result that coalitions periods are the period of most growth activity. In these periods, the average of annual growth was 1,70 while it is 1.09 in single party eras and 0,56 in military administration.

The percentages at table 11 represent the average growth rate of each period compared to the previous period. Both coalition governments came into force after a single party government and after each military administration, a single party government came into force but more growth activities have seen in the coalition eras. When the total number of affiliated companies is taken into consideration, the periods in which the Koç and Sabancı groups have the greatest growth periods are single party eras while the coalition periods are the most prosperous growth periods of Çukurova, Doğan, Doğuş and Zorlu groups. This data is not, of course, capable to claim any bold arguments only by itself however it is obvious that there is an important relationship between period type and growth activities.

Lastly, if the Whitley and Schneider's classifications are focused, Turkey is accepted as a member of policy-induced diversified groups of Schneider and state-organized business systems of Whitley. Both classifications emphasize that there is an important relationship between state and groups and having a good relationship with the state have seen crucial due to the state's active role in economy, risk-sharing and resource allocation. In this study, the opposite of these allegations was not reached as well. For example, when the era 10 is focused, while, the Doğuş and Zorlu groups, which had better relations with the ruling party of the period, grew by 197.6% and 110% compared to the previous period, Doğan group, which has respectively bad relations with the state recorded a growth of only 2,63% in the same period. However, it important to highlight that when each group is individually focused, there are some different data. For instance, Koç and Sabancı which are accepted relatively larger, well-established and more institutionalized groups seem to have made more economically rational decisions with the sale of their major companies from time to time. These behaviors called as corporate refocusing (Hoskisson et al., 2005) or Multi-Focusing Diversification (Karevli, 2008) in literature correspond to invest in other high added value areas as in the case of Koç's selling Migros and focusing the Yapı Kredi and Tüpraş. However, this kind of behaviors is not seen for other groups. On the other hand, Schneider (2010) emphasizes that any of these three groups can gain weight in some countries or periods but in practice, these three groups can be observed in each country and period. For example, the core set of organic subsidiaries could be blended other strategies by combining with another set of risk-balancing portfolio investments. In other cases, organic or portfolio groups can be stimulated by specific policies to enter new sectors, especially during periods of rapid political change. This also shows that the mix of diversified groups' characteristics may be valid for different groups in the same country.

6. Conclusion

It has found a voice that business groups are emerging in different forms depending on the different politico-economic environment and business groups also can vary with changes in these conditions. Thus, this study is also built on the idea that the effect of different economic and political conditions may show differences in various business groups. Moreover, we think it will show differences even in diversification and the type of diversification, and the relationships with the government in question period have a significant impact on the decisions of business groups. Therefore, this study set out to determine the relationship between various political eras and the growth and diversification decision of the largest business groups.

It has been determined that different political periods have a significant effect on large groups and when the periods are examined one by one, differences are observed in terms of related and unrelated diversification in different government periods: When the effects of growth, diversification and the type of diversification in each period are analyzed independently and comparatively, the Sabancı and Koç groups achieved the highest growth figures during the single-party periods (Single Party Period,

Democratic Party, Justice Party, Anavatan Party, Doğru Yol Party and AK Party) while the other four groups achieved more growth activity during the coalition-party periods. In the military periods, all the groups except Doğan experienced the weakest times. The era 5, the coalition era, was the period when almost all groups peaked in terms of unrelated diversity. It is clear that the best period is clearly ANAP (Era 7) and the worst is the 2nd military coup (Era 6). The existence of so many growth activities in the seventh period generally overlaps with the liberal economic programs adopted by the Ozal government. Moreover, the good relations with Turgut Ozal, who is the ruling power of the era and the former manager of the group, have a significant influence on Sabancı Group's remarkable growth in this period. Finally, it can be clearly seen that there is a general increase in sector diversity and total activity number although increases or decreases are observed between periods in the numbers or types of diversification.

The study explains the central importance of main growth motivation and pattern in Turkey context and hence it is expected that findings will show significant contributions to the literature. The evidence from this study may suggest completely different and novel point of views. The research results accessed by this study may help business group managers to understand better the new environmental and competitive conditions in the process of integration with the global competition. Also, it may be a guide to decide the new strategies and the necessities of these strategies under these new environmental conditions. Of course, it should not be ignored that this is a proposal work and some changes may be experienced during the process but being a proposal is the main limitations of the study with the time.

7. References

- Analoui, F., & Karami, A. (2003). *Strategic Management in Small and Medium Enterprises*. London: Cengage Learning EMEA.
- Baysinger, B., & Hoskisson, R. E. (1990). The composition of board of directors and strategic control: effects on corporate strategy. *Academy of Management Review*, 72-87.
- Bizden Haberler. (2013). 50 Yıl 50 Kapak: 50. Yıl Özel Sayı. *BizdenHaberler*, 405:1-52.
- Buğra, A. (1994: 2015). *Devlet ve İşadamları* (9th Eds). (F. Adaman, Translator) İstanbul: İletişim.
- Chang, S. J., & Choi, U. (1988). Strategy, structure and performance of Korean business groups: A transactions cost approach. *The Journal of Industrial Economics*, 37 (2), 141-158.
- Chang, S.J. (2003). *Financial crisis and transformation of Korean business groups: The rise and fall of chaebols*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Colpan A. M. and Jones, G. (2016). Business groups, entrepreneurship and the growth of the Koç Group in Turkey. *Business History*, 58 (1): 69-88.
- Colpan A. M., Hikino, T and Lincoln, J. R (2010). *The Oxford Handbook of Business Groups*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Çolpan, A. M., & Hikino, T. (2008). Türkiye'nin Büyük Şirketler Kesiminde İşletme Gruplarının İktisadi Rolü ve Çeşitlendirme Stratejileri. *Yönetim Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 23-58.
- Dündar, C. (2006). *Özel Arşivinden Belgeler ve Anılarıyla Vehbi Koç (1901 - 1960)*. İstanbul: Doğan Kitap.
- Dündar, C. (2008). *Özel Arşivinden Belgeler ve Anılarıyla Vehbi Koç II (1961-1976)*. İstanbul: Yapı Kredi Yayınları.
- Fıkrıkoca, A. (2012). Makrokurumsal Kuram. H. C. Sözen, & H. N. Basım (Eds) *Örgüt Kuramları* (p. 287-315). İstanbul: Beta.
- Gökşen, N. S. (2007: 2015). Makrokurumsal Bakış Açısı: Bir Değerlendirme, A. S. Sargut, & Ş. Özen (Eds), *Örgüt Kuramları* (3. e., p. 331-378). Ankara: İmge.
- Gökşen, N. S. and Üsdiken, B. (2001). Uniformity and diversity in Turkish business groups: effects of scale and time of founding. *British Journal of Management*, 12: 325-340.
- Guillen, M. F. (2000). Business Groups In Emerging Economies:A Resource-Based View. *Academy of Management Journal*, 362-380.
- Hofer, C. W., & Schendel, D. (1978). *Strategy Formulation: Analytical Concepts (The West Series in Business Policy and Planning)*. St. Paul Minn: West Publishing Co.

- Hoskisson, R. E., Johnson, R. A., Tihanyi, L., & White, R. E. (2005). Diversified Business Groups and Corporate Refocusing in Emerging Economies. *Journal of Management*, 941-965.
- Hotho, J. J. (2014). From Typology to Taxonomy: A Configurational Analysis of National Business Systems and their Explanatory Power. *Organization Studies*, 35(5) 671-702.
- Istanbul Chamber of Industry (ISO). (2015, June 6). 500 Largest Industrial Organization of Turkey. Retrieved June 6, 2015, from Istanbul Chamber of Industry (ISO): <http://www.iso.org.tr/sites/1/content/500-buyuk-liste-2015.html>
- Jensen, M. C., (1993). The modern industrial revolution, exit and failure of internal control systems. *The Journal of Finance*, 48:831-880.
- Karaevli, A. (2008). Türkiye'deki İşletme Gruplarında Çeşitlendirme Stratejilerinin Evrimi. *Yönetim Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 85-107.
- Khanna, T., & Palebu, K. (2000). The future of business groups in emerging markets: long-run evidence from Chile. *Academy of Management Journal*, 268-285.
- Kıraç, C. (1995). *Anılarımla Patronum VEHBİ KOÇ*. İstanbul: Milliyet Yayınları.
- Koç, V. (1973). *Hayat Hikayem (Third Edition)*. İstanbul: Apa Ofset.
- Koç, V. (1987). *Hatıralarım, Görüşlerim, Öğütlerim: Vehbi KOÇ (1973-1987)* (Second Edition). İstanbul: Hürriyet Ofset.
- Nguyen, T., & Cai, C. X. (2016). Value-enhancing Learning from Industry-wide Diversification Experience. *British Journal of Management*, 27: 323-337.
- Özkara, B., Kurt, M., & Karayormuk, K. (2008). Türkiye'de İşletme Grupları: Eskiler ve Yeniler. *Yönetim Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 8(1-2): 59-83.
- Picone, P. M., & Dagnino, G. B. (2016). Revamping research on unrelated diversification strategy: perspectives, opportunities and challenges for future inquiry. *Journal of Management & Governance*, 20: 413-445.
- Premiership of Republic of Turkey. (2016). Prime Ministers from the past to present. Retrieved May 01, 2016, from Premiership of Republic of Turkey: https://www.basbakanlik.gov.tr/Forms/_Global/_PrimeMinister/pg_PrimeMinisters.aspx
- Purkayastha, S., Manolova, T. S., & Edelman, L. F. (2012). Diversification and Performance in Developed and Emerging Market Contexts: A Review of the Literature. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 18-38.
- Ramanujam, V., & Varadarajan, P. (1989). Research on Corporate Diversification: A Synthesis. *Strategic Management Journal*, 523-551.
- Reavis, C. (2009). The Global Financial Crisis of 2008 – 2009: The Role of Greed, Fear and Oligarchs, *MIT Sloan Management*, (July), 1-22.
- Rumelt, R. P. (1982). Diversification Strategy and profitability. *Strategic Management Journal*, 359-369.
- Sabancı, S. (1985). *İşte Hayatım*. İstanbul: Aksoy.
- Sabancı, S. (1993). *Değişen ve Gelişen Türkiye*. İstanbul: Güzel Sanatlar.
- Schneider, B. R. (2010). Business Groups and the State: The Politics of Expansion, Restructuring, and Collapse. A. M. Colpan, T. Hikino, & J. R. Lincoln (Eds), *The Oxford Handbook of Business Groups*. (p. 650-669). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Sönmez, M. (1990). *Türkiye'de Holdingler Kırk Haramiler* (4. Edition.). Ankara: Arkadaş.
- Tezel, Y. S. (1982). *Cumhuriyet Döneminin İktisadi Tarihi (1923-1950)*. Ankara: Yurt Yayınevi.
- Wan, W. P. (2005). Country Resource Environments, Firm Capabilities, and Corporate Diversification Strategies. *Journal of Management Studies*, 161-182.
- Whitley, R. (1999). *Divergent Capitalisms: The Social Structuring and Change of Business Systems*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Whitley, R. (2000). The Institutional Structuring of Innovation Strategies: Business Systems, Firm Types and Patterns of Technical Change in Different Market Economies. *Organization Studies*, 21 (5): 855-886.

A Conceptual Framework Suggestion Based On Quadruple Helix Model To Increase Open Innovation Practices In Turkey

Oya Zincir

1. Introduction

Many authors defined managing innovation in an organization, yet they generally described it within the framework of the traditional closed innovation paradigm. According to this paradigm, an organization innovates with its own resources in its own internal R&D department. The term *open innovation (OI)* has been promoted by Henry Chesbrough in 2003 with his seminal article “The Era of Open Innovation” published in MIT Sloan Management Review. He described the OI model within a company that “commercializes both its own ideas as well as innovations from other firms and seeks ways to bring its in-house ideas to market by deploying pathways outside its current businesses” (Chesbrough, 2003:37). Over the years the term and whole concept have been evolved and became more specific. Later Chesbrough re-defined it as “a paradigm that assumes that firms can and should use external ideas as well as internal ideas, and internal and external paths to market, as the firms look to advance their technology” (Chesbrough, 2006:1).

While OI literature grows faster with the contributions of academics in USA and European countries; very few have been conducted on this topic in Turkey. It is rather a new concept in Turkey, accordingly, new studies are underway. For example, a researcher has confirmed that he and his colleagues has conducted a project about Turkish manufacturing companies’ OI practices (Çağatay et al., in press⁵). One can see that there are also some sectoral OI developments. For example, there is an article about Magneto Project which was a result of cross-country OI activities including several companies such as Vestel Electronics, a company from Turkey (Şentürk, 2011). Also, Istanbul Chemicals and Chemical Products Exporters has announced that the association is in a collaboration with other partners from various countries such as Germany, United Kingdom, Belgium, Sweden and Italy for NIR-VANA project which is a part of CORDIS projects. There is also a call for Turkish SMEs to join OPENISME to benefit from open innovation and one of the partners is TAGES from Turkey (see references). Furthermore, this year Hack’n’Break OI Camp will be held in August for the second time at the city of İzmir.

All these studies and the current developments show that there are increasing awareness regarding OI practices in Turkey. This study aims to suggest a conceptual framework based on “The Quadruple Helix Model of Innovation” to practice these kind of innovation activities more often by involving all partners: government, industry, universities and public/civil society.

2. Conceptual Background: Open Innovation and Quadruple Helix Model

To understand OI as a part of Quadruple Helix Model of innovation, one needs to have some information about these concepts. In this section, these concepts have been explained by stating the main findings of some research studies which have been conducted in Turkey.

2.1. Open Innovation

There is a misunderstanding about OI concept. Chesbrough (2017), in his recent article, stated that OI is neither only crowdsourcing where someone looking for a breakthrough solution submits a problem to be solved by a group or an individual, nor managing suppliers better. It is “a distributed innovation process that relies on purposively managed knowledge flows across organizational boundaries, using pecuniary and nonpecuniary mechanisms in line with the organization’s business model to guide and motivate knowledge sharing” (Chesbrough & Bogers. 2015:3).

⁵ I would like to thank Prof. Dr. Selim Çağatay, a scholar in Akdeniz University, to send the result report of their project and allow me to cite this in press research study.

There are different types of OI practices. Gassmann and Enkel (2004) explained OI modes (i.e. inbound (out-side in), outbound (inside-out) and coupled processes). First one is defined as enriching the company's own knowledge base through the integration of suppliers, customers and other external knowledge sources (Gassmann & Enkel, 2004) by cooperating with other firms and/or universities and R&D institutions for developing products, incorporating the customers or end-users in product development activities and purchasing intellectual property rights of other organizations (Parida et al., 2012). The second one, inside-out process, is defined as earning profits by bringing ideas to market, selling IP and multiplying technology by transferring ideas to the outside environment. In this mode, the focus is on externalizing company's knowledge and innovation in order to bring ideas to market faster than they can do this through internal development. Inside-out process support the idea that the locus of invention and innovation need not necessarily equal the locus of exploitation. The last one, coupled process, brings first and second one together by working in alliances with complementary partners in which give and take is crucial for success (Gassmann & Enkel, 2004).

2.2. Quadruple Helix Model

To understand The Quadruple Helix Model (QHM), one needs to understand The Triple Helix Model (THM) first. The concept of this model initiated in the 1990s by Etzkowitz (1993) and Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff (1995). It interprets the shift from a dominating industry-government dyad in the Industrial Society to a growing triadic relationship between university-industry-government in the Knowledge Society. The thesis of the model is that the potential for innovation and economic development in a Knowledge Society lies in a more prominent role for the university and in the hybridization of elements from university, industry and government to generate new institutional and social formats for the production, transfer and application of knowledge (Ranga & Etzkowitz, 2013). QHM, accordingly, is based on THM and adds as fourth helix the 'public', more specifically being defined as the media-based and culture-based public and civil society. This fourth helix associates with media, creative industries, culture, values, lifestyles, art etc (Carayannis & Campbell, 2009). In a OI based QHM, all the partners work together to co-create the future and drive structural changes far beyond the scope of what any organization or person could do alone. This model encompasses also user-oriented innovation models to take full advantage of ideas' cross-fertilization leading to experimentation and prototyping in real world setting (OI 2.0, 2015). As a national innovation system is effected by political and economic systems in that particular country, this model can help us to understand underlying mechanisms for OI practices in Turkey.

3. A Review for OI Research Studies Conducted in Turkey

As it is well known, OI literature is relatively new but growing faster, thus, one can come up with many research studies in this particular concept. On the contrary, there are few research studies conducted in Turkey for OI concept and practices. The reason comes from Turkey's economic situation. The country itself is relatively is a newly open economy, thus, is currently developing its innovation infrastructure.

Table 5. OI Research Studies from Turkey

Author(s)	Year	Sample	Method	Main Findings
Gümüş & Çubukçu	2011	67 large size enterprises in Top 500 companies from various sectors in Turkey	Survey method	Low OI awareness among top Turkish companies
Kaynak & Maden	2012	X	Conceptual	Describes OI concept while embracing different approaches about OI, innovation process and reasons of necessity of innovation in line with the current literature.
Yiğit & Aras	2012	400 students	Survey method	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Examined crowdsourcing concept (which is a user-perspective of OI) in detail - Determined the feasibility of crowdsourcing applications for universities
Yamazaki et al.	2012	100 companies from various sectors in Turkey (a cross-country analysis; whole sample is bigger)	Survey method	<p>The effects of the regulations which promote innovation and provide improved conditions for innovative firms in Turkey had a double effect:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - OI was encouraged in the high-tech firms which are focused on collaborative R&D projects - An important number of high-tech companies from this country aimed at protecting their innovative potential in order to maintain or improve their competitive position.
Rahman et al.	2013	11 SMEs located in city of Bilecik (a cross-country analysis; whole sample is bigger)	Survey method	Some constraints about applying OI practices have been detected such as high economic risk, high cost of OI, lack of financing, government regulations, lack of market demand (low purchasing power of customer), problems with accessing to finance and scarcity of skilled manpower.
Şener & Hobikoğlu	2013	IMES (Istanbul Metalware Manufacturers) Companies	Survey method	The rate of the enterprise thinking that the OI model affects the enterprise negatively is 50% (this rate is occurred by the fears of that profit, human capital would be changed by the OI model, that the intellectual property rights would be betrayed and that the new products could be copied).
Temel et al.	2013	5.863 Manufacturing Companies	Survey method	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cooperating with external parties from the same country plays a dominant role in determining the innovation outcome. - Cooperating with consultants and private labs on the other hand seems

				to negatively affect innovation performance.
Seyfettinoğlu & Taşdoğan	2014	Turkish Food and Beverages Industry (146 F & B firms which were ranked among the first 1000 business enterprises in 2011)	Survey method	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The OI activities at the stage of developing new ideas and collaborative activities with public agencies were found to increase innovation performance of firms. - Developing new ideas and collaboration with consumers and input providers has the possibility to increase firms economic performance respectively.
Satı & Dursun	2015	Companies: Arçelik, Turkcell, Migros, Garanti Bank, Teknosa, Aras Cargo	Case study	<p>E-learning for OI purposes;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - eliminates the barriers. - propagates knowledge sharing through access to expertise and collaboration between employees and partners, and improves the performance and productivity of employees.
Savrul & İncekara	2015	21 EU Countries	Econometric Analysis	Some R&D variables (i.e. GERD) were responsible %45 of the changes in turnover value of SMEs
Yıldırım & Şimşek	2015	98 ICT developer companies in major university technology development zones in Turkey	Survey method	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Companies do not utilize OI sufficiently, but they have intend to. - Main constraint for OI is the lack of resources, while idea management and customer demand do not constitute critical constraints. - Customer immersion, lead users, collaboration and partly innovation intermediaries, innovation networks and platforming are among commonly practiced tools.
Seyfettinoğlu	2016	496 firms which are listed in the first biggest 1000 firms ranked by Istanbul Chamber of Industry (ICI)	Survey method	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - One unit improvement in OI practices produce a reduction on innovation risk that vary between 0,43 to 0,71 units in different industries. - Textile and food industries benefit the most from OI practices in this context
Eriş & Özmen	2016	Dokuz Eylül University Technopark company managers	Survey method and interviews	Categorized the companies in 4 clusters for different OI modes.
Konukbay	2016	160 employees in OSTİM Defence and	Survey method	Universities and public organizations are most-used OI partners, private organizations and organizations from other countries are the least-used ones.

		Aerospace Cluster (OSSA)		
Pado	2016	X	Conceptual	Examines the influence of OI on competitive strategy
Arar & Öneren	2016	Interview with a export-import manager of a tractor company	Multi-criteria decision analysis method	Examines the factors stimulating open innovation: 5 factors have been determined and investigated under two criteria which are the types of OI; inbound and outbound. Based on the factors, the most important ones are <i>Relationship with Supply Chain Elements and Feedback</i>
Şimşek & Yıldırım	2017	102 Technology Intense Companies	Survey method	Collaboration, customer immersion and lead users are top OI approaches
Eriş et al.	2017	X	Conceptual	The study tries to develop an OI model for Turkey
Çağatay et al.	<i>In press</i>	912 Manufacturing Companies	Survey method, Econometric Analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There are differences between various sectors regarding firm openness - There are differences between various sectors regarding the influence of firm openness on innovative and financial performance of companies

Table 1 shows a general overview for the results of some research studies⁶ which have been published in Turkey. One can see that there is either conceptual papers, or empirical papers which examines companies' OI usage and constraints and the effect of OI on some performance measures. These findings led me to write this paper and, moreover, to call researchers for new and different research studies regarding OI practices in Turkey such as open social innovation, OI at different levels (e.g. project level, organizational level).

4. An OI Framework Suggestion for Turkey

In this paper, a conceptual framework based on QHM is suggested to increase OI practices in Turkey. This suggested conceptual framework is expected to help both academics and practitioners to understand better about both current closed and open innovation ecosystem in Turkey and the potential to develop these kind of activities in a broader manner. Based on this, the method of this study is qualitative and the data (which is classified as secondary data) is collected from mostly scientific articles and papers (see Table 1) and, furthermore, some suggestions have been offered in line with these studies and author's own inferences.

Turkey is a large, fast-growing, late industrialized, middle-income OECD economy. Increasing the production of cross-cutting technologies, biotechnology and nanotechnology, as well as ICT software, R&D are being supported. In line with this, innovation strategy and action plans are being prepared by the Ministry of Science, Industry and Technology. Turkey considers an ecosystem approach centered on business sector and entrepreneurs which are quite crucial for a well-functioning innovation system. Through this approach, there is a broad and active participation by non-state actors. The Co-ordination Council for R&D, Innovation and Entrepreneurship aims to ensure the various public actors' intergrity, coherence and target-oriented approach to support the ecosystem. Public research in Turkey is currently undergoing major reforms to improve its quality and relevance, to increase collaboration with private sector and to leverage private funding. Provincial innovation platforms were set up to stimulate co-operation and transform local knowledge into economic and social benefits (OECD, 2014).

⁶ These research studies have been collected from several platforms such as Google Scholar, Scopus by using some keywords such as "Turkey", "open innovation" both in English and Turkish.

In Global Competitiveness Index rankings, regarding innovation indicators, Turkey is 56th of 144 countries. Capacity for innovation is ranked as 77, quality of scientific research institutions as 64, company spending on R&D as 89, university-industry collaboration in R&D as 61, government procurement of advanced technology products as 17, availability of scientists and engineers as 59, and PCT patents, applications/million-population as 42 (WEF, 2015). Furthermore, Turkish companies seek external sources of knowledge for innovation from market sources⁷ of %86,6 and institutional sources⁸ of % 7,0. 21,8% of Turkish large companies and 5,9 of SMEs collaborated for innovation practices with higher education or research institutions. 50,5% of Turkish large companies and 18,21% of SMEs collaborated for innovation practices with suppliers and clients. 21,4% of Turkish large companies and 5,1% of SMEs engaged in international collaboration for innovation (OECD, 2015).

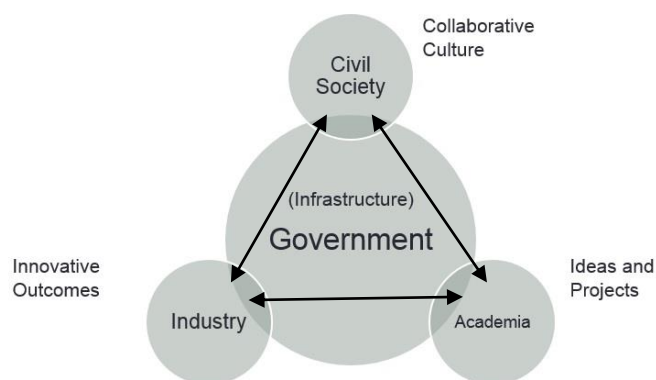


Figure 1. Open Innovation Ecosystem Suggestion For Turkey

In this sense, as the main aim of this study, Turkey's innovation sphere and future of OI in the country can be understood by trying to explain it through QHM approach. For example, government as 'the main component' should promote this innovation paradigm by providing necessary policies, infrastructure and adopting long term strategies. It is important to form awareness of all partners operationally and strategically. For these purposes, public service announcements/ads can be made, online innovation intermediates can be launched since there are a few of them (one example is "acikinovasyon.com"). Some training programs can be developed for both profit and non-profit organizations.

OI courses can be taught in bachelor, master and doctorate degrees. Moreover, conferences, camps, certificate programs or any kind of meetings can be held. Also, some scholars can be specifically trained in this field to supply the relevant expertise. This can help to increase the awareness and future activities, as well as research studies (theses, articles and reports). Another example is knowledge sharing and its mechanisms between the actors. Knowledge sharing is very important for OI activities. As Turkish companies seek external sources of knowledge for innovation from market sources much more than institutional sources, connections and knowledge sharing mechanisms can be strengthened between companies and institutional organizations. As a next step, a national OI index and/or sectoral OI indexes can be prepared and companies can be awarded when they perform successful OI activities. Industry can provide financial services meeting companies' financial support for OI projects.

Table 6. Some Suggestions Regarding OI Based QHM

QHM of OI	Suggestion 1	Suggestion 2	Suggestion 3	Suggestion 4
Government	National OI Index	Infrastructure	Policies	Long Term Strategies

⁷ Market sources include suppliers of equipment, materials, components or software, clients or customers, competitors or other enterprises in the same sector and consultants, commercial labs or private R&D institutes.

⁸ Institutional sources include universities or other higher education institutions and government or public research institutes.

A Conceptual Framework Suggestion Based On Quadruple Helix Model

Industry	OI Indexes for Different Sectors	Financial Services Meeting OI Needs	Knowledge Sharing Mechanisms	Increasing Collaborative Innovation Outcomes
Academia	Idea Generation	Project Development	OI Conferences	OI Courses etc.
Public/Civil Society	Idea Generation	Public Announcements & Advertisements	Collaborative Creativity Activities	Crowdsourcing & Crowdfunding

As can be seen on Table 2, these and other kind of suggestions can be made. The government especially is very important in the first place to help these practices to be increased since Turkey is still lack of proper infrastructure regarding innovation ecosystem. It is possible to say that if the necessary policies and long term strategies are not taken seriously, lack of awareness and understanding can lead OI activities to be hindered. Thus, this may have negative effects on both national innovation system and sectoral ecosystems.

5. Concluding Remarks and Future Suggestions

This study suggest a conceptual framework to increase open innovation awareness and practices in Turkey based on Quadruple Helix Model. This model helps us to understand the theoretical base and underlying mechanisms. As Turkey is a relatively new “open economy” regarding the liberalization movement from 1980s to today, its infrastructure is still developing. It is one of G-20 economies and has some good innovation practices. Serious improvements are underway and innovative activities are on the rise. With the suggested framework, this study can help both academics and practitioners to understand the potential of OI in Turkey with its international connections and to take steps to improve the OI ecosystem. As a future suggestion, this study also can be enhanced with broader research studies including all the partners and their opinions which currently practice OI.

6. References

- Arar, T. & Öneren, M. (2016). Factors Stimulating Open Innovation. *Management Science Letters*, 6:115–126. doi: 10.5267/j.msl.2016.1.001
- Carayannis, E.G. & Campbell, D.F.J. (2009). Mode 3 and Quadruple Helix: Toward a 21st Century Fractal Innovation Ecosystem. *International Journal of Technology Management*, 46(3/4):201-234. doi: 10.1504/IJTM.2009.023374
- Chesbrough, H., (2003). The Era of Open Innovation. *Sloan Management Review*, 44(3):35-41.
- Chesbrough, H., (2006). Open Innovation: A New Paradigm for Understanding Industrial Innovation, in *Open Innovation: Researching a New Paradigm*, Eds. Chesbrough, H., Vanhaverbeke, W. & West, J., pp. 1-12, Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Chesbrough, H., and Bogers, M. 2015. Explicating open innovation: Clarifying an emerging paradigm for understanding innovation. In *New Frontiers in Open Innovation*, Eds. Henry Chesbrough, Wim Vanhaverbeke, and Joel West, pp. 3–28. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Chesbrough, H. (2017). “The Future of Open Innovation”, *Research-Technology Management*, 60(1):35-38. doi: 10.1080/08956308.2017.1255054
- Çağatay, S., Seyfettinoğlu, Ü.K. & Taşdoğan, C. (in press). Etkin Açık-İnovasyon Sürecinin Analizi: Türk İmalat Sanayi Örneği. TÜBİTAK 1001 Projesi Sonuç Raporu.
- Eriş, E.D. & Özmen, O.N.T. (2016). "Stratejik Bir Yönelim Olarak Farklı Modlar Bağlamında Açık İnovasyon", In Proceedings of 24. *Ulusal Yönetim ve Organizasyon Kongresi*, İstanbul, Turkey, pp. 826-830.
- Eriş, E.D., Özmen, O.N.T. & Özel, P.S. (2017). “Üniversite-Sanayi İşbirliği Odağında Açık İnovasyon Ekosistemi Yaratımı Üzerine Stratejik Bir Değerlendirme”, In Proceedings of 25. *Ulusal Yönetim ve Organizasyon Kongresi*, Ankara, Turkey, pp. 996-1007.

- Etzkowitz, H. (1993). Enterprises from Science: The Origins of Science-Based Regional Economic Development and the Venture Capital Firm. *Minerva*, 31:326-60. doi:10.1007/BF01098626
- Etzkowitz, H., Leydesdorff, L. (1995). The Triple Helix: University-Industry-Government Relations: A Laboratory for Knowledge-Based Economic Development. *EASST Review*, 14:14-19.
- Gassmann, O. & Enkel, E. (2004). Towards a Theory of Open Innovation: Three Core Process Archetypes. In Proceedings of *R&D Management Conference (RADMA)*, Lisbon, Portugal, July 6., ss.1-18.
- Gümüş, B. & Çubukçu, A. (2011). "Open Innovation Survey in Top Turkish Companies", In Proceedings of *Technology Management in the Energy Smart World (PICMET'11)*, Portland, OR, pp. 1-6.
- Kaynak, R. & Maden, M.O. (2012). "Expansion of Boundaries on Innovation: Open Innovation", *Ekonomik ve Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 8(1):31-47.
- Konukbay, A. (2016), " Open Innovation Approaches Evaluation of SMEs Sector That Operate in The Defense Technologies In Ankara", *Gazi Mühendislik Bilimleri Dergisi*, 2(1):53-76.
- OECD, (2014), *Science and Technology Outlook: Turkey*, Retrieved August 1, 2016 from http://www.keepeek.com/Digital-Asset-Management/oecd/science-and-technology/oecd-science-technology-and-industry-outlook-2014/turkey_sti_outlook-2014-78-en#.V7CRQvmLTrc
- OECD, (2015), *Open Innovation 2.0*, Retrieved August 2, 2016 from <https://ec.europa.eu/digital-single-market/en/open-innovation-20>
- OPENISME, <http://www.openisme.eu/?s=tages&submit=To+search+type+and+hit+enter>
- Pado, G. (2016). Açık İnovasyonun Rekabet Stratejisi Üzerine Etkisi. *Uluslararası Bilimsel Araştırmalar Dergisi (IBAD) / Journal of the International Scientific Researches*, 1(2): 130-141.
- Parida, V., Westerberg, M. and Frishammar, J. (2012), Inbound Open Innovation Activities in High-Tech SMEs: The Impact on Innovation Performance. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 50: 283–309. doi:10.1111/j.1540-627X.2012.00354.x
- Rahman, H., Acılar, A. & Ramos, I. (2013). Adoption of Open Innovation Strategies Among SMEs: A Comparative Study In Portugal and Turkey. In Proceedings of *The Clute Institute International Academic Conference*, Breckenridge, Colorado, USA, pp.249-258.
- Ranga, M. & Etzkowitz, H. (2013). Triple Helix Systems: An Analytical Framework for Innovation Policy and Practice in the Knowledge Society. *Industry and Higher Education*, 27(4):237 - 262. doi: 10.5367/ihe.2013.0165
- Satı, Z.E. & Dursun, F. (2014). Using The E-Learning Methods For Managing Open Innovation Activities In Business Ecosystems. *Dumlupınar University Journal of Social Sciences*, 42:349-358.
- Savrul, M. & İncekara, A. (2015). The Relation Between Open Innovation and Economic Performance of SMEs. *Journal of Global Strategic Management*, 9(1):125:133.
- Seyfettinoğlu, U.K. & Taşdoğan, C. (2014). Açık İnovasyon ve Firma Performansı İlişkisi: Türkiye Gıda ve İçecek Sanayi Örneği. *İİF Dergisi*, 29(338):09-38.
- Seyfettinoğlu, U.K. (2016). Analysis of Relationships Between Firm Performance and Open Innovation Strategies and Stages in the Turkish Food and Beverage Industry. *Journal of New Mediterranean*, 15(1):42-52.
- Şener, S. & Hobikoğlu, E.H. (2013). Structural Effect of Enterprises Open-Closed Innovation Models Tendencies in Product Output Process: A Study on The Enterprises Located in the IMES Industrial Estate Turkey Example. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 99:986-996.
- Şenturk, R.S., (2011), *An Open Innovation Story from Turkey*. Retrieved August 1, 2016 from <http://www.innovationmanagement.se/2011/09/22/an-open-innovation-story-from-turkey-vestel-magneto/>
- Şimsek, K. & Yıldırım, N. (2017). "Türkiye'deki Teknokentlerde Açık İnovasyon Kullanımını Teşvik Eden Faktörler", In Proceedings of *25. Ulusal Yönetim ve Organizasyon Kongresi*, Ankara, Turkey, pp. 909-920.
- Temel, S., Mention, A.L. & Torkkeli, M. (2013). The Impact of Cooperation on Firms' Innovation Propensity in Emerging Economies. *Journal of Technology Management Innovation*, 8(1):54-64. doi: 10.4067/S0718-27242013000100006

- World Economic Forum (WEF), (2015), *Global Competitiveness Report: Turkey*, Retrieved May 1, 2017 from <http://reports.weforum.org/global-competitiveness-report-2014-2015/economies/#indexId=GCI&economy=TUR>
- Yamazaki, K., Capatina, A., Bouzaabia, R. & Koçođlu, İ. (2012). "Cross-Cultural Issues Related to Open Innovation in High-Tech Companies from Japan, Romania, Tunisia and Turkey", *Review of International Comparative Management*, 13(4):561-73.
- Yiđit, S. & Aras, M., (2012). "Crowdsourcing As A Tool of Open Innovation and Applicability In Universities: Sample Case of Feas In Gaziosmanpasa University", *Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi İİBF Dergisi*, 17(3):485-508.
- Yıldırım, N. & Şimsek, K. (2015). Challenges In Open Innovation For ICT Companies In Technology Development Zones, In Proceedings of *IAMOT Conference*, Cape Town, South Africa, pp. 2701-2721.

International Consequences of Russian-Ukrainian Conflict

Olga Brusylovska

1. Introduction.

All polls showed that a majority of people in Russia could not accept the dissolution of the Soviet Union and the independence of Ukraine. Russians generally say they have a more negative attitude towards Ukraine than vice versa. Polls in Russia have shown that after top Russian officials made radical statements or took drastic actions against Ukraine the attitude of those polled towards Ukraine worsened every time (Popescu & Wilson, 2009). The issues that have hurt Russians' view of Ukraine are: Possible Ukrainian NATO membership; Ukrainian attempts to have the Holodomor recognized as genocide against the Ukrainian nation; Attempts to honour the Ukrainian Insurgent Army.

Russian governments always tried to use these perceptions like instrument in their foreign policy. The turning point came with the Orange revolution in 2004, when Russia's clumsy tactics of interference in support for Viktor Yanukovich backfired, triggering a serious Russian tactical rethink. Drawing its lessons from the central role played by civil society groups and NGOs in the Orange revolution, Russia began developing a rival "counter-revolutionary" ideology, supporting "its" NGOs, using "its" web technologies, and exporting its own brands of political and economic influence. Gleb Pavlovskii describes the Orange revolution as "a very useful catastrophe for Russia. We learnt a lot" (Popescu & Wilson, 2009).

Russian troops are often placed in areas blighted by secessionist conflicts – allowing them to be branded as "peacekeepers". Let's remember summer war in 2008 between Russia and Georgia. Russian point was that "Saakashvili left peoples of Abkhazia and South Ossetia no other choice but to ensure their security and the right to exist through self-determination as independent States". At a conceptual level, the doctrine of remedial self-determination concerns cases where a population is excluded from political participation in the state or is severely mistreated, on grounds of its ethnic appurtenance. The states of the EU demanded "that a peaceful and lasting solution to the conflict in Georgia must be based on full respect fro the principles of independence, sovereignty and territorial integrity recognized by international law, the Final Act of the Helsinki Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe and United Nations Security Council resolutions". The rejection of Russian claims, muted though it was, did not address the existence or otherwise of the doctrine of remedial self-determination. Instead, it appeared to focus on the absence of facts in this instance that might warrant its application. And this serves well Russian foreign politics.

The official Moscow perceives independence of Ukraine as something abnormal and temporary. At the meeting in Sochi after the NATO summit in Bucharest in April 2008, V. Putin said to the US President George W. Bush, "You know, George, Ukraine - is not even a state! What is Ukraine? Part of it territory is Eastern Europe, and a part, and big enough, we gave!" (Volovych 2014).

Putin could not accept the loss of Ukraine, and began to act in accordance with the previously prepared plan. The proponents of "Eurasianism" claim that there exists a separate civilization and historical community in the territory corresponding to the area of the former Russian Empire. They ascribe a cultural meaning to the Russian-speaking community (so-called Russian world). The concept of "nation" is expanded to include areas where the Russian language and culture are dominant (Popescu & Wilson, 2009)

This ideology has become an instrument for managing the conflicts in the post-Soviet area (Abkhazia, South Ossetia, Crimea, and Novorossiya). In Ukraine tensions remain high in the Crimean peninsula, particularly over the presence and operations of Russia's Black Sea fleet. The lease agreement for the fleet is due to expire in 2017 but the Kremlin has expressed a clear desire to keep the base going after this date, even against Ukraine's clearly expressed wishes to the contrary. Russia claims that it has a responsibility to ensure the security of Russian citizens, ethnic Russians and even mere Russian-speakers in "near abroad". But the war in Georgia led to allegations that Russia deliberately

handed out passports to foreign nationals in order to create or bolster minorities it could then claim the right to protect. Estimates for Crimea range from 2,000 to 100,000 (Popescu & Wilson, 2009).

11 March 2014 the Crimean parliament and the city council of Sevastopol adopted a resolution to show their intention to unilaterally declare themselves independent as a single united nation with the possibility of joining the Russian Federation as a federal subject. 16 March 2014 Crimea's government claimed that nearly 96% of those who voted in Crimea supported joining Russia. 17 March 2014 the Crimean parliament officially declared its independence from Ukraine and requested to join the Russian Federation. 18 March 2014 President Putin declared Crimea as a part of Russia. But 27 March 2014 the U.N. General Assembly passed a non-binding resolution 100 in favor, 11 against and 58 abstentions in the 193-nation assembly that declared invalid Crimea's Moscow-backed referendum. In fact, Crimean annexation was never recognized by the international community, instead it was proclaimed illegal by the UN General Assembly which supported the territorial integrity of Ukraine. The referendum results were recognized only by several developing countries that have close ties with Russia.

There are several circumstances when a secession may be regarded as legal: (1) it shall concern people in territories that are subject to decolonization; (2) it shall be envisaged by the national legislation of the parent state concerned; (3) the territory inhabited by a certain people should be occupied or annexed after 1945; (4) the secessionists shall be "a people"; (5) their parent state shall flagrantly violate their human rights and (6) no other effective remedies under national or international law may exist, if any of these conditions are met.

Firstly, Crimea is not subject to decolonization. Under Article 134 of the Constitution of Ukraine "The Autonomous Republic of Crimea is an integral part of Ukraine and all issues delegated to its authority are resolved within its framework of reference as determined by the Constitution of Ukraine." Secondly, secession is not envisaged by the Constitution of Ukraine as a parent state. Generally, all political systems insist on legality of secession only through constitutional means (for instance, the Supreme Court of Canada in the Quebec case, the Supreme Court of Alaska in the Kohlhaas v Alaska case). The Ukrainian legislation is not an exception. Article 73 of the Constitution stipulates that any "alterations to the territory of Ukraine shall be resolved exclusively by the All-Ukrainian referendum", not by the local one. Thirdly, the territory of Crimea was not occupied or annexed after 1945. Fourthly, the secessionists (i.e. Russian population of the Crimea) may not be regarded as "a people". As it follows from the Quebec case "a people" shall be governed as "part of a colonial empire", be "subject to alien subjugation, domination or exploitation", be "denied any meaningful exercise of its right to self-determination within the state of which it forms a part". And in all other circumstances, "peoples are expected to achieve self-determination within the framework of their existing state". And finally, there is no evidence that the rights of the Russian population in Crimea have ever been subject to flagrant human rights violations from the government of Ukraine. The OSCE High Commissioner on National Minorities found no evidence of violations or threats to the rights of Russian speakers during her visit to Kyiv and Crimea in 2014. Thus, all claims that the Russian-speaking population of Crimea was facing oppression are groundless (Stepanowa, 2014).

International law cannot be neutral regarding the unilateral secession of Crimea as the declaration of independence of Crimea was effected through the Russian military assistance. This argument is supported by the ICJ in the Kosovo Advisory Opinion. In particular, in paragraph 81 the following is stipulated: "The illegality attached to [some other] declarations of independence ... stemmed not from the unilateral character of these declarations as such, but from the fact that they were, or would have been, connected with the unlawful use of force or other violations of norms of general international law, in particular those of a peremptory character (jus cogens)." In other words, a unilateral declaration of independence will be recognized as illegal where a violation of jus cogens principles took place. Here, an unlawful secession in violation of jus cogens occurred as Russia violated jus cogens principle of non-use of force under Article 2(4) of the UN Charter. And where a declaration of independence is adopted in such manner, foreign states are under obligation to withhold recognition (Stepanowa, 2014).

The mutiny in the Donbas had been prepared by Russian special services for many years and was only possible due to Russia's direct military aggression. "People's Republic of Donetsk" and "People's Republic of Lugansk" were declared, and May 11, 2014, was held a "referendum" on their independence.

Separatists' leaders had reached an agreement to unite these "republics" into a federal state "Novorossiia" ("New Russia"). Putin first called this part of Ukraine "Novorossiia" on 17 March, 2014 after the annexation of Crimea (Volovych, 2014).

Some commentators and even some Ukrainians suggested a radical solution: abandoning Donbas altogether. This would free Kyiv so it could focus on reforms and spare it a real economic and political burden. But independence for Donbas is probably unrealistic: many forces in Ukraine would be against it, and so would the West. And it is an option that Moscow neither expects nor wants. Russia wants leverage over Ukraine, not burdensome new obligations. Being left with Donbas instead would feel like a bitter disappointment. So, the task is not to annex "Novorossiia" as a result of large-scale invasion of Russian regular troops, but to achieve a change of government in Kiev. For this it is enough to support separatists in "Novorossiia" in various ways: military, economic, political, and informational. This is a war for exhaustion, and terrorist operations will be conducted as long as necessary in order to cause general indignation of the Ukrainian population and to bring it to a point where joining Russia would seem incredible happiness (Liik & Wilson, 2014). Ukrainian authorities need to realize that because of their pro-Western policies, the economy may completely collapse. In other words, if Ukraine is turned into Iraq, it will completely ripen for becoming part of Russia. And for fulfilling this task, Russia has all resources: weapons, ammunition, money and militants for whom the military campaign in the South-East of Ukraine will become a source of earnings and an opportunity to acquire combat experience. The goal of Russia is to preserve the trouble spot in the territory of Ukraine; it needs to have a criminalized region, undermining the state development. That is why, if one suggests Russia to take Donbas in, it will reply saying: "No, thanks, it's yours". Moscow treats Donbas the same as South Ossetia or Transnistria. Besides Novorossiia Project there are number of territorial disputes between Russia and Ukraine: Tuzla Island (the Tuzla conflict exists since at least 2003); strait of Kerch; and Sea of Azov. According to the Russian logic, Ukraine and other Eastern Partnership countries should accept the status of buffer zones.

Why did Moscow decide to go for it? Because it understood that if nothing changed within the system of international relations, it would be slowly losing its positions and further politics would become senseless. So, the important problem and the aim of the paper is to reveal the international consequences of Russian-Ukrainian conflict.

2. The Literature Review.

The paper based on the analysis of international mass media (Newsweek, beyondthe.eu, bintel.com.ua, eustudy.at.ua), analytical articles (Jolanta Darczewska, Kadri Liik & Andrew Wilson, Nicu Popescu & Andrew Wilson), and several interviews, first of all with Russian and Ukrainian political scientists (Dmitrij Danilov, Myhajlo Gonchar, Vitalij Martynjuk, Tatjana Parhalina, Myhailo Pashkov, Armin Staigis, Mihail Subbotin, and Andrej Zagorskij).

2. The Methodological Map.

The Methodological Map of the paper included both theoretical conceptions of well-known critical social theory of international politics (Ashley, 1987) and Critical discourse analysis of the statements made by the representatives of the Russian Federation and Ukraine.

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is the part of the second generation of discourse theories. Norman Fairclough, who is considered to be the main developer of this approach, views discourse as one of the modes of domination or regulation of subordinate relations of social actors. Jacques Derrida's maximalist formula: "Everything is a discourse" is taken as the basis. Poststructuralist discourse analysis intellectually originates from the works of Antonio Gramsci, Mikhail Bakhtin, Michel Foucault, Roland Barthes, Julia Kristeva, and Jacques Lacan in which discourse is analyzed as the total of social practices, within which senses and meanings are reproduced. Social practices formulate discursive event, and at the same time, discursive event formulates them. The notion of "speech act" is central to CDA and it disproves the understanding of language and action as being separately existent. Current theory accepts the statement of Richard McKay Rorty, who said that truth was not the characteristic of the outer world but it was the characteristic of language. Truth is the product of discursive constructing.

Methodology of CDA consists of three stages. On the first stage (description) a researcher divides a text into sentences / propositions and groups them defining the links. On the second stage (interpretation) the researcher correlates the text with the activities making assumptions about the details. On the third stage (explanation) he/she makes an evaluation, taking into account a social context of the speech acts.

Comparing with other approaches, CDA method doesn't have any strictly defined procedure of data collection and analysis; these two processes are determined personally by the researcher. Thus interpretation of the data entails potential subjectivity of the scientist.

The CDA has a number of advantages: 1) it can eliminate the contradiction between qualitative and quantitative orientation of scientific methods; 2) it does not require complicated procedures for the data collection; 3) it is very economical; 4) any other analytical tool allows you to check its results; 5) it involves large amounts of textual material, which allows direct analysis of data, eliminating from allegations of secondary data analysis and interpretation. In the discipline of International Relations using CDA gives an opportunity to convert the study from meta-level to the level of discursive practices. Also it gives a possibility to overcome the artificial division of spheres of internal and foreign policy.

3. Findings.

International law after Russian aggression toward Ukraine. Russia's expansion into Moldova, Georgia, and Ukraine and especially its formal annexation of Crimea have shattered the foundations of the international law, first of all 1975 Helsinki Accords and the 1990 Paris Charter of the CSCE. Russia has been undermining the reputation of the OSCE by its covert boycotting of the Ukraine Special Monitoring Mission and selective cooperation in the implementation of the Minsk Accords.

Russia and Ukraine share 2,295 kilometres of border. But this border till now is pores and Russian troops easily are going to Ukraine and returning back. But the current border-monitoring mission led by the Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe is only symbolic. The mission may even do more harm than good, since the OSCE presence lends legitimacy to an unacceptable situation (Martynjuk, 2016).

Following the signing of the Budapest Memorandum on Security Assurances among the U.S., the U.K., and Russia, as well as similar agreements with France and China, Ukraine agreed to destroy the rest of its nuclear weapons, and to join the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT) (Budapest Memorandum on Security Assurances (5 December 1994). The Budapest Memorandum collapsed after Russia annexed the Crimea. Despite that both European and American leaders called on Russia to stop – at first by terminating support to the “men in green”, later by ceasing conflict escalation and supply of weapons, and not carrying out unilateral humanitarian operations – withdrawal from all these “red lines” was made, because the West avoided getting into a direct confrontation with Russia (Gonchar, 2016).

Moscow is also subverting a core function of the United Nations by using its Security Council veto power to defend territorial gains. This is done at the expense of a founding member of the UN (the Ukrainian Soviet Republic had, unlike the Russian Federal Soviet Republic, its own seat in the UN in 1945-1991).

Crimean annexation was never recognized by the international community, instead it was proclaimed illegal by the UN General Assembly which supported the territorial integrity of Ukraine. On 27 March, the UN General Assembly passed a non-binding Resolution 68/262 that declared the Crimean referendum invalid and the incorporation of Crimea into Russia illegal. The referendum results were recognized only by several developing countries that have close ties with Russia. Given all the abovementioned, claims on legality of the annexation of Crimea have nothing to do with international law (Sviatnenko, 2014; Stepanowa, 2014).

While most of these international institutional links are formally still in place, it is unlikely that they will again become fully functional in terms of Russia's inclusion any time soon. The issue of Crimea's annexation will still remain open, and may persist as a matter of contention for decades.

At the 26 June 2014 session of the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe Ukrainian President Petro Poroshenko stated that bilateral relations with Russia cannot be normalized unless Russia undoes its unilateral annexation of Crimea and returns its control of Crimea to Ukraine

(Volovych, 2014). In February 2015 Ukraine ended a 1997 agreement. On March, 15, 2017, in Verhovna Rada a bill about a break in diplomatic relation with Russia was incorporated. But until now Ukraine does not recall the diplomatic representatives from Russia, while that carries out direct aggression against Ukraine.

Minsk Agreements (February 12, 2015) foresee, among other things, the removal of military hardware from the separatist regions and the monitoring of the Russia-Ukraine border.

The best thing Ukrainian government can do now is to cease any clashes and withdraw the military forces. At the same time, the Minsk Protocol is impossible to implement. Neither for the separatists, nor for the Kremlin, agreements haven't any profit.

Russia not only violated numerous bilateral treaties, especially with Ukraine; it has also devalued important multilateral networks and organizations within which it had been integrated or cooperating for years, if not decades.

Russia – EU tensions. This has been the source of many difficulties in Russia's relations with the West.

Referring to the origins of the Russian-Ukrainian conflict, Putin explained that it had been caused by the haste with which the European Union pushed for association with Ukraine. "That was unacceptable for Russia, because it infringed on its interests in a neighbouring state" (Darczewska, 2014, 4). Nikolai Patrushev, the Secretary of the Security Council of the Russian Federation, interprets the events in eastern Ukraine as "next steps in the plan to disintegrate the Soviet Union and Russia" (Darczewska, 2014, 4). In this context, the annexation of Crimea and the conflict over "Novorossiya" are just other incidents in Russia's information war on the West. This is primarily a "war" of narratives and interpretations. One's own interpretation is being multiplied in all possible ways, while the "foreign" interpretation is being pushed to the margins where it poses no threat. The aim is to neutralise the enemy, support the allies and win over the undecided ones (Darczewska, 2014).

The Russian doctrinaires argue that by fighting liberal globalisation, Russia is primarily confronting anarchism ("the global Mайдan", the negation of all hierarchic rules), and defending the sovereignty of the nation state and the right of nations to choose their own values (Darczewska, 2014).

Difficulties in Russia's relations with the West are triggering internal aftershocks in the world's largest country, permanent UN Security Council member, and second nuclear power – Russia – with implications for world politics. Russia's major trading partner and foreign investor, the EU, has become its main political criticizer and geopolitical competitor in Eastern Europe.

Before the "Ukrainian Crisis", about 75% of foreign direct investment into Russia came from, and almost 50% for Russian foreign trade was with, EU countries (Subbotin, 2016). In 2014, Russia was excluded from the G8 and stripped from its voting rights by the Council of Europe's Parliamentary Assembly. The negotiations about Russian membership in the OECD and New Agreement with the EU are suspended. The Strategic and Modernization Partnerships with the EU only exist on paper. The Foundation Act and NATO-Russia Council are dead, and may never be resurrected.

The EU's restrained initial reaction to Ukraine's first territorial loss may have encouraged Kremlin adventurism in Eastern Ukraine. The merely symbolic dimension of the first round of sanctions in spring 2014 encouraged Moscow to continue its assault on Ukrainian territorial integrity. Unimpressed by the West's initially minor punishments, the Kremlin began its purposeful escalation of existing inner-Ukrainian tensions, thereby consciously triggering a putatively "civil war" in the Donetsk Basin. In violation of the spirit of both the Budapest Memorandum and its own partnership policies in Eastern Europe, the EU continues on a large scale to trade with Kremlin-controlled Russian energy companies. It is reliably and massively filling the Russian governmental coffers with its oil Euros. By continuing its immense energy imports from an increasingly aggressive Russia, the EU is violating the spirit of its Association Agreements with Moldova, Georgia and Ukraine.

Only the mass killing and obvious Russian responsibility for it generated, for the first time during the Ukraine Crisis, fear among ordinary Europeans of Moscow's increasingly reckless behavior. This psychological factor, rather than the numerous Ukrainian victims of Russia's covert proxy war in the Donbas already by July 2014, changed the European public's mood.

Russia is seeking to acquire an informal veto right over further EU and NATO enlargement to the east.

The Ukraine crisis has altered Europe's security structure. Europe is now much less secure, and its security architecture altogether less stable, less predictable.

Factor of China in the Russian-Ukrainian conflict. Concerning of PRC, the personal interest in relations with Ukraine lies in a military-technical sphere. Beijing was interested in up to approximately 30 directions of collaboration in this military-technical sphere, including aircraft carriers, large transport aircrafts, supersonic training jet planes, tanks, the "air-to-air" and "air-to-ground" missiles. Without a collaboration with Ukraine, it would be difficult to bring into an action an aircraft-carrier "Liaoning" (ex-"Varyag" is equipped with the Ukrainian gas turbines), to score a success with the development of new warships, tanks, airplanes, especially aero-engines (20 лет стратегического партнерства Пекина и Киева. Роль Украины в военной модернизации Китая).

But Ukraine admits the roughest error substantially complicating bilateral relations. In August 1996 a prime minister of Taiwan Lien Chan arrived with a private visit to Kyiv. His visit was widely lighted up by the press of the Republic of China, doing the special support on that Ukraine for Taiwan can become a "gate to Europe". The reaction of Beijing was extremely sickly. Kyiv admits very unfriendly foreign-policy step giving out in 2005 a visa to the representative of Taiwan Huang Zhifang to arriving in Ukraine for participating in the meeting of the International Crisis Group. China at once abolished set on beginning 2006 meeting of the commission on a trade and economic collaboration (Brusylovska, 2015).

The line of the behaviour of Beijing in regard to a crisis on Ukraine was formed with an account both actually "Ukrainian" and geo-economic and geopolitical interests of PRC. The produced position had to reflect "fundamental neutrality" of China in conflict situations.

Beijing accused "intervention from the West prevented to the dialogue between a government and opposition, sowing the seed of further social and political discords up country" (Китай недоволен вмешательством Запада в дела Украины).

The activation the USA and EU on Ukrainian political space corrected position of China. On the UN Security Council conference on March 3, 2014 the permanent representative of PRC at the UN Liu Jiei expressed a "large concern in connection with a situation in Ukraine". He added that "China paid attention to the headily kindled Russophobe moods" (Выступление Лю Цзеи на совещании СБ ООН 3 марта 2014 г.).

After voting in UN Security Council on a question about Crimea on that China restrained, and Russia imposed a veto on the corresponding resolution, Ukrainian MFA demanded from the Chinese diplomats of clarification on PRC position. An ambassador in Ukraine Zhang Xiun declared that one of base postulates of the foreign policy of China is a principle of non-interference. This explanation dissatisfied Kyiv because that to interpreted the statements of PRC about the support of "sovereignty and territorial integrity of Ukraine" as support of his position in controversy with Moscow on the Crimean question (Brusylovska, 2015). Chinese position at its visible neutrality contained a "heel" toward Russia. In parallel with the development of official position in China, wide public opinion was formed in behalf on Moscow.

By demonstratively not supporting Ukraine, a country that 20 years ago agreed to dismantle a larger nuclear arsenal than China then and currently possesses, Beijing contributed no less than the West to the 2014 subversion of the international non-proliferation regime. Neither in cultural nor economic terms can China constitute an adequate replacement of the West as Russia's prime partner. Instead, the risks stemming from conflicting interests and the geographical proximity of the two large countries outweigh the opportunities for a close alliance. The current conflict opens a new page in international relations. The lesson that politicians around the globe may draw from the "Ukrainian Crisis" is that if a neighboring state is questioning its borders, your country needs the Bomb. And once your country has the Bomb, you, remembering Ukraine, will never give it up again.

4. Conclusions: possible scenarios

The neutrality status imposed on Ukraine at the international level would first of all mean that Russia's ability to use its own tools to affect the current *status quo* in this country would be much more influential compared with the EU's leverages. The status of a buffer state would certainly be the factor causing a stalemate in the current situation.

The situation after the 2008 conflict in Georgia allows Russia to assume that after the end of the conflict in Ukraine, relations with the West will eventually revert to the "business as usual" situation. Russia hopes to repeat this scenario again. It is important to emphasize that the "business as usual" concept includes not only normalization of economic relations, lifting of sanctions, and renewal of the political dialogue, but also recognition of Russia as a veto holder in the security architecture of Europe. The practical manifestation of such recognition could be that the expansion of the transatlantic institutions further to the post-Soviet space would not be possible without Russia's approval.

Previous Western attitude toward Russian political regime was absolutely wrong. This regime is not only dangerous for Russians, but also for all post-Soviet area. And finally we see how fast can change political and geopolitical situation in Europe. This is big challenge for Europe but at the same time this might be big hope for modern situation.

Eminent Yale historian Timothy Snyder has recently added an argument why the European Council should, after all, officially recognize a future membership option for Ukraine. A formally announced EU entry option would not only strengthen and energize today's reformers in Ukraine, an argument made before. It would also motivate potential foreign investors to come to Ukraine in order to gain a foot in this future EU member country. By encouraging foreign direct investment (FDI) via an EU membership possibility as well as some other measures proposed below, the West could effectively intervene into Ukraine's economic affairs, with little costs – at least during the next years. Without much effort, the EU could help to balance the current discouragement of investment activities by Russia-promoted military and political instability. In combination with other steps outlined here, Brussels' official membership perspective would especially encourage multi-national conglomerates to start building up already today a presence in this large East European market scheduled to become one day an integral part of the EU economy.

References

- Ashley, R. K. (1987). The Geopolitics of Geopolitical Space: Toward a Critical Social Theory of International Politics. *Alternatives*, 12(4), 403-434. DOI: 10.1177/030437548701200401.
- Brusylowska, O. (2015). Russian-Ukrainian conflict. First stage: propaganda war. *Вісник ОНУ. Серія: Соціологія і політичні науки*, 20, 2(23), 59-64.
- Darczewska, J. (2014). The Information War on Ukraine: New challenges, *Cicero Foundation Great Debate Paper*, 14/08, 19.
- Interview with Gonchar, M. (2016).
- Interview with Martynjuk, V. (2016).
- Interview with Subbotin, M. (2016).
- Liik, K., & Wilson, A. (2014). *What will happen with Eastern Ukraine? Policy Memo*, Retrieved at December 14, 2016, from <http://www.ecfr.eu>
- Popescu, N., & Wilson, A. (2009). *The Limits of Enlargement-lite: European and Russian Power in the Troubled Neighbourhood*, European Council on Foreign Relations.
- Sviatnenko, S. (2014). *Ten Western myths about "Ukrainian Crisis"*, Retrieved at December 14, 2016, from <http://beyondthe.eu/ten-western-myths-ukrainian-crisis/>
- Stepanova, A. (2014). *International law on legality of the Crimea secession*, Retrieved at December 14, 2016, from <http://beyondthe.eu/international-law-crimea-secession/>
- Volovych, O. (2014). *The Agony of the Empire*, Retrieved at December 14, 2016, from <http://bintel.com.ua/en/guests/agonija-imperii/>
- Volovich, O. (2014). *Battle of Ukraine*, Retrieved at December 14, 2016, from <http://bintel.com.ua/en/guests/bitva-za-ukrainu/>

Выступление Лю Цзеи на совещании СБ ООН 3 марта 2014 г., Retrieved at December 14, 2016, from http://russian.china.org.cn/exclusive/txt/2014-03/03/content_31653_342.htm

20 лет стратегического партнерства Пекина и Киева. Роль Украины в военной модернизации Китая, Retrieved at December 14, 2016, from <http://mil.news.sina.com.cn/2014-01-15/0935760158.html> 15.01.2014

Китай недоволен вмешательством Запада в дела Украины, Retrieved at December 14, 2016, from http://zn.ua/WORLD/kitay-nedovolen-vmeshatelstvom-zapada-v-dela-ukrainy-134976_.html

A CULTURAL AND AN ETHNIC IDENTITY IN MULTICULTURAL SOCIETIES: THE EXAMPLE OF AHISKA TURKS

Baris Cagirkan, Gunal Bilek

Introduction

Multiculturalism is one of the most significant discussions in postmodern societies. Because of mobilisation and globalisation process, it has become the primary factor for all communities. There are so many different arguments about multiculturalism. Some of them are seeing multiculturalism as a significant element of diversity, a welfare state and so on. However, the others consider multiculturalism as a big problem for the nation-state, social issues in community life, and culture degeneration. In contemporary multicultural societies, the concept of identity has been questioned. One of the most important reason for this argument that identity can be produced and reproduced in multicultural societies based on the social process which people live in the mainstream society. It is necessary to understand the concept of human nature for understanding the concept of identity. John Stuart Mill and Ralph Waldo Emerson realise that people are unique, self-composed, and creative individuals; moreover, people are culture-bearers. The cultures, which people create differ depending on their past and current identities (Taylor, 1996: 29). This uniqueness gives them a chance to build their own identity in different cultures and societies.

For many social scientists, the concept of culture emerges as one of the most difficult concepts to define. Culture has been used as a concept periodically in different meanings since it first appeared. For example, when it first emerged, it was used in the sense of cultivation of animals and crops as a symbol of the settled life (Grisvold, 1994: 7). This definition is influenced by the processes of change that communities have undergone and gained different meanings. Smith (2005: 13) states “the concept of culture has been applied to the development of the human mind individually, linked to learning and manners up to 19th century”.

By way of introduction, it is necessary to indicate that identity is probably one of the most widely used words in postmodern societies. In general sense, the notion of identity is used in connection with all of the following: “(1) Personal individuality is the world of the philosophies of personal growth. With an emphasis on selfhood, self-actualization, and freedom, these discourses are at least as likely to be found in the pages of popular magazines as the consulting rooms of professionals. (2) Lifestyle is covering everything from subculture to sexual preference, and encompassing the collective as well as the individual. (3) Social position and status. The complex societies of the industrialised world are neither undifferentiated nor egalitarian. They are systematically and hierarchically structured regarding social identifications such as gender, age, class, religion, marital status, disability, culture and ethnicity, and so on. (4) Politics. Appropriate collective organisation, regarding voting behaviour and other forms of political action, something has emerged known as “identity politics”. This is pre-eminently the terrain of the new social movements such as those promoting women's rights, gay rights, ethnic civil rights, and so on. (5) The last one is bureaucracy and citizenship. Passports, identity cards, and other forms of personal registration are an established part of the everyday life of the citizens and inhabitants of all countries. They are bound up with nationality, freedom of movement, citizenship rights, taxation, welfare benefits, individual surveillance, criminality, and so on”. These are type of symbol to introduce the identity. People can proof their background check and their identity.

In this essay, I am going to discuss how ethnicity and culture can have an impact on the concept of ethnicity in multicultural societies by using the understanding of the Ahiska Turks' sense of belonging and identity.

Culture and Cultural Identity

Culture and identity have a meaning the differences of individuals with other people in social life, and both of them find expression patterns within a community or society. The general definition of society is that “a group is able to present itself with a distinct identity from other people and introduce themselves to a particular culture, and at least partly bearing a sense of unity on a territory of their own (Say, 2013: 9). Socialisation process is the key to understand both culture and identity in mainstream societies. Both of them can have a different meaning in different cultures and societies. Moreover, socialisation may have an enormous impact on the producing and reproducing process of identity and sense of belonging according to the social interaction theory (Ritzer, 2007). On the other hand; there is no straightforward relationship between identity and social concepts such as religion, family, and gender. Our identities are embedded in a Web of Identity (Livesey, 2004), which is a visual representation of the intersection between identity and society. The Web of Identity (Livesey, 2004: 66) illustrates “the complex and multi-layered interaction between identity and social structure”. People are surrounded by social forces in the society. Social rules and codes give them special way of thinking and acting in the society.

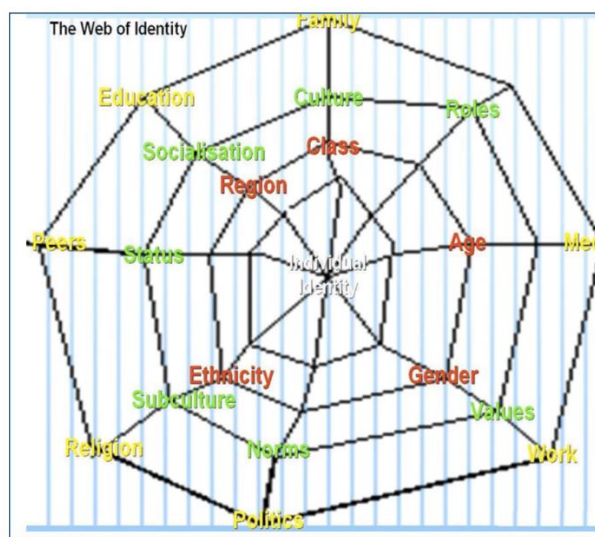


Figure 1: Web of Identity (Livesey, 2004).

Much of the difficulty of understanding the concept of culture stems from the different usages of the term. Generally speaking, culture is used in three different ways. First of all, as exemplified in Matthew Arnolds' *Culture and Anarchy* (1867), culture referred to “exceptional intellectual or artistic endeavours or products, what today we might call high culture as opposed to popular culture”. This sense of culture is more closely related to aesthetics than to social science (Spencer-Oatey, 2012). The second usage of culture is initiated by Edward Tylor in *Primitive Culture* (1870), referred to “a quality possessed by all people in all social groups, who nevertheless could be arrayed on development continuum from savagery through barbarism to civilisation”. Tylor's definition became the foundational one for anthropology. Tylor's definition of culture is “complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society” (Spencer-Oatey, 2012). The third and last usage of culture developed in anthropology in the twentieth-century. As Tylor reacted to Arnold to establish a scientific basis for culture, so Boas reacted against Tylor and other social evolutionists. Whereas the evolutionists stressed the universal character of a single culture, with different societies arrayed from savage to civilised, Boas emphasized the uniqueness of the many and varied cultures of different peoples or communities (Spencer-Oatey, 2012).

Human nature is basically what people share in common. The human abilities can be a variety of different things; for instance, to feel fear, anger, love, joy, sadness, the need to associate with others, to play and exercise oneself, the facility to observe the environment and talk about it with other

humans (Spencer-Oatey, 2012). These similarities can be the main orientation for people to build their culture. Basically, talking about the culture is that talking about who people react in their daily life. The common emotions, thinking, idea, and behaviours can lead to create common cultural elements.

Ethnicity and Ethnic Identity

The concept of ethnicity was first used by the American sociologist David Riesman in 1953. The etymological roots of this word are based on the word *ethnos* in ancient Greece (Eriksen, 1993). Considering its historical development, it seems that the ethnicity has been used in different meanings since the Antiquity (Say, 2013: 157). According to Connor, the first usage of ethnicity expressed “a group of common roots from Greek *ethnos*” (Connor, 2002: 25). Considering the ethnicity as a term of describing a particular situation, Amselle states that the real root of the concept is based on the antithesis between *ethnos* (*ethnos*) and the *polis* (*site*) in ancient Greece. Regarding this understanding that “*ethne*” means societies coming from the Greek culture, but lack of the organization of the city-state. In the Middle Ages, the term had been gained different meaning. It had been used to name non-Christian nations in the church tradition (Amselle, 1998b: 134).

For many social scientists, ethnicity has been used in different ways to point out different sorts of factors. For instance, the anthropological approach to ethnicity is based on the seminal contribution of Fredrik Barth and his collaborators, in *Ethnic Groups and Boundaries* (Barth, 1969), and subsequent contributions made by writers such as Cohen (1985), Eriksen (1993), Geertz (1973: 255-310), and Jenkins (1997). There is an essential, consensual anthropological model of ethnicity, comprising four basic propositions: (1) allowing for the remarks above, about the necessary relation of similarity and difference in all processes of social identification, ethnicity is, in the first instance, about collective identification based on perceived cultural differentiation; (2) ethnicity is concerned with culture (shared meanings) but it is rooted in social interaction; (3) ethnicity is neither fixed nor static, any more than the culture of which it is an aspect or the situations in which boundaries are produced and reproduced, are fixed and static; (5) ethnicity is both collective and individual, externalised in institutions and patterns of social interaction and internalised in personal self-identification. For all anthropologic usage of ethnicity drives general understanding of the term; however, it has been changed the last couple of decades because of the mobility and globalisation process. Both of them has had a huge impact on the concept of the ethnicity. Another usage of ethnicity reveals more of a socio-political analysis of the emergence of identity claims in social sciences. In a broader sense, “ethnic refers here to a common belief based on religion, origin, race, culture,” as Weber once stated (Doytcheva, 2005: 19).

For generally speaking, it is possible to define ethnicity as “a given situation born from birth, accepted by the individual’s sense of belonging, social ties which are the same language, keeping the traditions alive, a social organisation centred on rituals” (Yanik, 2013: 231). The generality of ethnic identity to be one of the most important characteristics of our conception of identity because it makes it possible to compare migrants within an ethnic group, and to draw parallels between representatives of different ethnicities. As such, ethnic identity is the balance between commitment to or self-identification with the culture, norms, and society of origin and determination to or self-identification with the host culture and societies. Personal identity is what makes individuals unique and different from others, including the self-definition of one’s self. Likewise, ethnic identity is whatever makes individuals the same or different in comparison to other ethnic groups. But, it may also encompass a network of strong beliefs, values, and what people hold dear; it builds and shapes peoples’ lives. Ethnic identity surfaces and becomes a substantial part of the migrants’ persona when they arrive in a host country that is dominated by a different ethnicity, culture, language, so on (Constant and Zimmermann, 2007). Ethnic identity is how individuals perceive themselves within an environment as they categorise and compare themselves to others of the same or a different ethnicity. As such, it can “differ among migrants of the same origin, or be comparable among migrants of different ethnic backgrounds” (Constant and Zimmermann, 2007).

For the formation of ethnic identity combination of factors-common descent, a socially relevant cultural or physical characteristics, and a set of attitudes and behaviours is necessary. In this process,

common descent may be real or putative; it is not required that there be a common racial origin. Cultural attributes like distinctive beliefs, institutions, practices, religion, and language often form the basis of identity. In some examples, physical characteristics- pigmentation of the skin or body shape- provide the foundation of ethnic identity. To consolidate such an identity, the members of an ethnic group must also share ideas, behaviour patterns, feelings, and meanings. They should distinguish themselves (we) from others (they). They should also perceive that they share a common destiny (Regmi, 1985).

Ethnic identity becomes pertinent upon arrival in the host country, given that there is a sufficient cultural distance between home and host countries. Ethnic identity is how individuals perceive themselves within an environment as they categorise and compare themselves to others of the same or a different ethnicity. As such, it can differ among migrants of the same origin, or be comparable among migrants of different ethnic backgrounds. We consider the generality of ethnic identity to be one of the most important characteristics of our conception of identity because it makes it possible to compare migrants within an ethnic group, and to draw parallels between representatives of different ethnicities.

There are four measures to understand the migrants' positive ethnic identity differentiated by the strength of cultural and social commitments. These four criteria correspond to: "(a) Assimilation, a strong identification with the host culture and society, coupled with a firm conformity to the norms, values, and codes of conduct, and a weak identification with the ancestry; (b) Integration, achieved when an individual combines, incorporates, and exhibits both strong dedication to the origin and commitment and conformity to the host society; (c) Marginalization, a weak dedication to or strong detachment from either the dominant culture or the culture of origin; and, (d) Separation, an exclusive commitment to the culture of origin even after years of emigration, paired with weak involvement in the host culture and country realities" (Constant and Zimmermann, 2007: 8).

Multiculturalism

When Marshall McLuhan coined the global village metaphor first time, societies were not as diverse as today. This metaphor helps us to understand the social structure of many societies. Multiculturalism is interpreted differently depending on the highlighting point of the community. For instance, politicians use the multiculturalism to make policies to have support from the voter. The fact that society is multicultural or more diverse is not just a population or a matter of economics. It is also understood that it faces some new challenges that require a new political agenda. Although this policy is concerned with the arguments on racial equality of multiculturalism (Modood, 2007).

On the other hand, some of the subculture groups use the multiculturalism to have more rights and freedom from the state. The theory of multiculturalism is not only aimed at strengthening language, but also protecting ethnic and cultural communities, and it should not be forgotten that some cultures are shaped in the axis of religion in addition to having some items that are less necessary than in each culture (Modood, 2007). The concept of multiculturalism is the significant term in postmodern societies to understand the identity and culture. Kymlicka (2001b: 18) states that a nation is a social culture: it is composed of society, a set of social structures, norms and forms of interrelationships, institutions, traditions and cultural customs. It is made up of a wide range of ethnicities, interconnected through a common language and bordered on specific territories. These activities constitute a preference context that offers choices of life that mediate individuals' social self-esteem and group identity development and allow them to choose who they are (Kymlicka, 1995: 82-84).

Multiculturalism is different from unification, not only individuals but also groups, identities, associations, diasporic links, at the level of sense of belonging and political mobilisation. They represent that in all aspects of the groups, they can be different from each other so that they can be included in various forms in the social landscape. Therefore, they will not be able to adapt according to a single pattern; furthermore, they may change the whole society in various ways (Modood, 2007). In multicultural societies, "only migrants are expected to be willing to participate in the political culture of their new homeland; while doing so, they will not have to abandon the cultural life forms of

their origin” (Taylor, 1996: 153). Both normative and pragmatic reason of multiculturalism is that “respect which people need as the rights of the stigmatised or socially pushed identities that people can not afford to ignore for the sake of social cohesion, integration or citizenship” (Modood, 2007). All societies are increasingly multicultural, and at the same time more permeable. They are permeable; multicultural immigrants are meant to be more open; the increasing number of members of these societies means the continuation of a diaspora life in a central place (Taylor, 1996: 82). It is a relatively limited diversity phenomenon, which is perceived differently and originates from the large-scale migrations of people who continue to remain ethnically visible, easily dissolving within the population they meet, and various multicultural, multi-ethnic, polygamous dynamics emerging in connection. Immigrants come from societies or groups that were once seized or inferred by the communities in which they live (Modood, 2007: 19).

Research Design

Within the scope of the research, a total of 30 people were interviewed, including 17 women and 13 men. When we look at the age distribution of participants in the survey, interviews were generally held with participants from 25 to 78 years old. It is important to select the people who are in three different countries as the age group, which is why it is the most important to choose the age of the majority of the participants over 35. The reason for choosing the participants between the ages of 25-35 was born in Ukraine, and they had not seen Ahiska and Turkey in their lives before. In this sense, belonging provides the opportunity to make comparisons between different age groups between culture and ethnicity. One of the most significant contributions of the research is interviewing with individuals who have migrated to three different countries; because it is important that people have interacted in three different countries and with many different cultures. A vast majority of the participants lived in Ukraine for 27 years. Moving in a different groups and trying to protect their own cultures for generations has been an important factor in protecting their ethnic and cultural identity. Semi-structured interview method is used to collect data in the study; because semi-structured interviewing methods to analyse deep and detailed data have been found to be more suitable for the researcher. This method gives the interviewee a chance to avoid talking without having to be prevented or directed on a particular day (Longhurst, 2003). Interviews generally take between 15 and 30 minutes. Thematic content analysis method is used to analyse collected data. The thematic content analysis is a method that used in qualitative research.

Ahiska Turks

As a geological term, Ahiska is used for the region of Adykhon, Ahiska, Aspinza, Ahlkelek, Bogdanovka in the South-West region of Georgia and over 200 villages connected to these units. This region is outside the borders of Turkey with the Treaty of Moscow on March 16, 1921.

The study shows that all interviewees identified themselves as "Turkish". Participants did not use the term “Ahiska Turks” until migrating to Uzbekistan. After that they used a geographical differentiation in order to distinguish themselves from other ethnic groups. And they use it to define themselves as “Ahiska Turk” in other host countries. The participants who were born outside of Ahiska also define themselves as Ahiska Turk.

According to interview number 11, age 23, male:

“I was born in Ukraine and never went to Ahiska in my life, but I always introduce myself as a Turk. My family raised me as a Turkish. I live according to Turkish culture and Muslim rules. I went to school in Ukraine and I have had so many Ukrainian friends. I learned to speak Russian and Ukrainian language, but I never accepted culture and lifestyle. After I turn to my house and close the door, I am Turkish and I can never change this fact”.

The naming and humiliating actions in which they migrated led to the Ahiska Turks becoming a closed group, and isolating themselves from other groups and being firmly tied to ethnicity. Interview number 1, male, explains that:

“During the exile, they took my father and other people to the wagons that used for carrying animals. As the number of people is so high, wagons have become human masses. When my parents

arrived in Uzbekistan, my parents were given humiliating names such as "coming by the wagons". I was born in Uzbekistan. After that, we emigrated to Russia and there they called us "Corli". Corli means "black" in English, and they call us black because they are white. Our colour is different from them".

An other participant states that:

"Some people used to call us as a surka. Its meaning is billet. They see us as uncultured people, so they call us "surka". Especially in Russia, they used to call us "surka" (billet) or "corli" (black). Everywhere we went, people always give a name for us to humiliate".

All participants said that they did not miss the places they had been emigrating. Although they had never been in Turkey before, they have always had a sense of belonging to Turkey when they emigrated to Ukraine and other places.

Interview number 11, male, says that:

"I have never seen Ahiska in my life, I was born in Ukraine. I feel myself in my motherland now. We have always watched Turkish TV programs while living in Ukraine. I do not want to go back to Ahiska because religion and language are different from mine. I do not want to live there anymore. My grandfather has emigrated from Ahiska but their grandfather has also emigrated from Turkey".

Conclusion

Identity and culture are one of the most difficult terms to define in social science. Both of term has a different meaning in different time and society. The concept of ethnicity is also affected by these two conditions. Ethnicity is the first understanding to explain nation state; however, it has been changed in postmodern societies. In the postmodern world, multiculturalism is the key factor to understand. Migration and migrants are getting a more significant impact on the societies around the world. Migration is the worldwide problem, and it needs a common solution for all societies. "Modern views on migrants as transgressors, not just of borders, but also of laws and values, draw on deeply held attitudes toward people on the move as disruptive" (Papastergiadis, 2010: 245). In contrast, postmodern views on migrants as diversity, pluralism, welfare state. The building an identity process is also different from modern world to postmodern world. Modern views on identity are generally related to assimilation policies, but postmodern perspectives on identity are focused on salad bowl policies which they let the people, to have a unique sense of belonging to mainstream society and build a hybrid identity. Multiculturalism is the result of globalisation and mobilisation. These determinants shape the sense of belonging, identity, and ethnicity in contemporary societies. For many subcultures, ethnicity and culture have a huge impact on the concept of identity. Ethnicity might give a particular link to have an ethnic identity and have relationship home backcountry.

Ahiska Turks were one of the minority groups in Ukraine, Uzbekistan, and Russia. They immigrated to in three different countries, but they never gave up to identify themselves based on their national background. Having a sense of belonging to host country was not created by Ahiska Turks. They have always differentiated themselves from other ethnic and religious groups in countries they migrated. Their ethnic identity was the main thing to introduce themselves. As contented before, ethnic identity is that people identify themselves based on their ethnic background, and differentiated themselves, from other ethnic groups. Having a sense of belonging is essential to feel an attachment to an ethnic group or groups. All participants were born outside Turkey, but all of them have a sense of belonging to Turkish community. Even their original town which is Ahiska is not as important as Turkish cities now. They have feelings about because Ahiska was an Ottoman city except for that Ahiska does not have to mean for participants. The study also shows that Ahiska Turks did not use "Ahiska" until 1989, they always used only "Turk" to introduce themselves. Migrating from Ahiska is not main things to identify themselves.

The research indicates that Ahiska Turks did not allow their children to get married from host countries' people. All participants stated not to let his/her child marry a person who is not Turkish and Muslim. Arguing that having the same ethnic background of others in the groups allows code is switching to take place. This, in turn, becomes one of the reasons behind the choices made in building identity and having a sense of belonging to a host country. While not all the participants stated preferences for their children but bride or groom need to share religion, culture, and language to

definite preferences for their children's marriage. This argument supports the claim that cultural attachment is crucial for migrant marriage choices (Ruhil and Daing, 2011). To protect the groups' future, getting married with the same ethnic background is essential.

Reference

- Amselle, J. L. (1998b). *Etni ve Kabile: Her Kapıyı Açan Kavramlar*, Uluslar ve Milliyetçilikler, Haz: Jean Leca, Çev., Siren Idemen. İstanbul: Metis Yayınları.
- Barth, F. 1969. Introduction. In *Ethnic groups and boundaries* (ed.) F. Barth. Oslo: Norwegian University Press.
- Cohen, A. P. (1985). *The Symbolic Construction of Community*. London: Routledge.
- Constant, A. & Zimmermann, K. (2007). *Measuring Ethnic Identity and Its Impact on Economic Behavior*. Bonn: IZA.
- Doytcheva, M. (2005). *Çokkültürlülük*. Çev. Tuba Akıncılar Onmus, İstanbul: İletişim.
- Eriksen, T. H. (1993). *Ethnicity and Nationalism*. London: Pluto Press.
- Geertz, C. (1973). *The Interpretation of Cultures*. New York: Basic Books
- Grisvold, W. (1994). *Cultures and Societies in Changing World*. Pine Forge: Thousand Oaks.
- Jenkins, R. (1997). *Rethinking Ethnicity: Arguments and Explorations*. London: Sage.
- Kymlicka, W. (1995). *Multicultural Citizenship*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Kymlicka, W. (2001b). Western Political Theory and Ethnic Relations in Eastern Europe. IN: Kymlicka ve Opalski (eds), *Can Liberal Pluralism Exported?* New York: Oxford University Press.
- Livesey, C. (2004). Culture and Identity, Sociological Pathways. Available at: <http://www.sociology.org.uk/pathway2.htm>
- Longhurst, R. (2003) Semi-structured interviews and focus groups, IN: Clifford, N. and Valentine, G. (eds.) *Key methods in Geography*, London: SAGE.
- Modood, T. (2007). *Multiculturalism: A Civic Idea*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Regmi, R. (1985). *Cultural patterns and economic change*. Delhi [u.a.]: Motilal Banarasi Dass.
- Say, O. (2013). *21. Yüzyılda Ulus, Çokkültürlülük ve Etnisite*. İstanbul: Kaknüs Yayınları.
- Smith, P. (2005) *Kültürel Kuram*. Çev. Selim Güzelsarı ve İbrahim Gündoğdu. İstanbul: Babil yayınları.
- Spencer-Oatey, H. (2012). "What is culture? A compilation of quotations". GlobalPAD Core Concepts. Available at: <http://www.warwick.ac.uk/globalpadintercultural>
- Taylor, C. (1996). *Çokkültürcülük*. Çev. Amy Gutmann. Ankara: Yapı Kredi Yayınları.
- Yanik, C. (2013). Etnisite, Kimlik ve Milliyetçilik Kavramlarının Sosyolojik Analizi. *Kaygı*, 20 (1), 225-237.

Women's Representation In Turkish Political Life – A Study Into The Ways Of Nomination Of Political Parties For General Elections Of 2015

Nedret Çağlar

Introduction

Politics is one of the fields where gender discrimination is evident. Today, political representation of women is an important social issue as in the past. The judgment that politics is a business of man still exists in many societies. The legislation to ensure gender equality as a requirement of democratization is an important step in ensuring gender equality.

Even if women accounting for about half of the world's population acquired significant gains for women's equality in the early 20th century, there have been problems in the implementation of legislation. Throughout the history, participation of women in social life as the actors of social and economic life has not been at the same level as men (Yaylı & Eroglu, 2015: 506). The inequality between the genders, in particular to enjoy the right to be elected and take part in political decision-making has existed in a significant way. The problem regarding women's under-representation in political decision-making also adversely affect the status of women. As women do not participate in decision mechanisms, effective solutions to improve women's status cannot be put into action due to the lack of sensitivity for women's problems (Gökçimen, 2008: 8). One of the obstacles preventing the existence of women in politics and taking part in political decision-making is gender discrimination.

1. Representation of Women in Social Gender Context

The social gender is a concept pointing to the contrast between the female and male gender and defining the social relations between men and women (Scott, 2007: 11). The social gender is important to explain the basics of gender inequality. This concept, which defines the roles between the genders in society, allows us to understand the causes of women's issues (Yaylı & Eroğlu, 2015:508).

"The social gender covers unequal power relationships that caused men to be more dominant in many areas and often pushed women to the background. Men and the values given to the functions and tasks attributed to men and women are greater in many respects than those given to women and functions and tasks attributed to women"(KSSGM, 2008: 15).

The lack of political interest, low education, low income, discriminatory provisions in law, social judgments, gender roles, attitudes of political parties and political systems are effective in women's taking up less space in the public sphere in relation to men (Caglar, 2011: 59). Women parliamentarians have a fairly reputable training and equipment, as well as background and career experiences. These characteristics are required to be elected and to be a role model (successful female) (Gençkaya, 2008:30). The lack of women's interest in politics is shown as an important problem for the existence of women in politics. This situation causes ignoring women willing for political participation and perceiving their chances of winning less than men in a biased attitude (Çakır, 2008: 40).

Women considered as of secondary importance to men in many societies have become dependent on men. Women's dependence on men causes their economic, social and political positions to be determined by men outside their houses (Türelî & Çağlar, 2010:22; Çakır, 2008:38). The social judgments have been formed in accordance with the understanding that household tasks are feminine and tasks completed outside are masculine. This division of labor reveals an unequal situation against women (Koray, 1995: 7).

Political power determines the dominant gender with the roles given to men and women, and thus determines the other gender. Even if the problem of being of secondary importance of the women, who find a place in the top management, is solved in the individual sense, this problem cannot be solved in the social sense (Akal, 1994: 20-21).

2. Women's Participation in Political Life

According to the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) data, the worldwide average ratio of women's representation in national parliaments is 22.6%, while the rate of representation in the government is 19.4%. The legal quota for women representation in parliament is implemented in Rwanda which is in the first line in the world ranking with 63.8%. When analyzed regionally; representation of women is the highest with 41.1% in the Scandinavian countries (<http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/world.htm>, 2016) Turkey ranks 93 with 14.7%.

The political rights granted to women to be equal with men have not actually put into practice in Turkey as in most of the countries. Gender equality, which is provided in the abstract sense, is not embodied in social life (Çağlar, 2011:59). The right to be elected for women in municipal elections was obtained in Turkey in 1930, and the right to be MPs was obtained in 1934. Even if Turkey obtained the right of women to elect and be elected earlier than many countries (France 1944, Italy 1948, Switzerland 1971), the political representation level of women is below the world average.

The representation of women in Turkey's parliament reached a rate 4.4% in the 2002 general elections after a long process. 98 women deputies entered parliament for the first time at a rate of 17.8 percent in June 7, 2015 elections. This rate increase is not significant when considered in the 550 deputies. 3% decrease in the representation of women was observed in November 1, 2015 elections (TUIK, 2016). The decrease is associated with parties' pulling the candidate desired in the parliament to the front row.

There is seen injustice in the representation of women in Turkey's local elections, including the election of mayor, provincial councilor and council membership. 18 women mayors elected in 2004 local elections, 27 in 2009 and 40 in 2014 (KADER, 2016). The high number of female candidates by the Peace and Democracy Party (PDP) is effective on this rate. 31 of 224 mayor candidates by the PDP in local elections were women in 2014 (BİANET, 2016).

The representation ratio of women in provincial and municipal council is higher than the ratio of mayor (see TUIK, 2016). This is because; provincial and municipal council is much more accessible to women. Tekeli (1982: 290) associates much less representation of women in parliament compared to the municipal council to the "elitist" structure. He expresses that the parliament is open to the extremely elite women and closed to the women, reflecting the normal population. According to Tekeli; the dominance of housewives in society is reflected in the council. Yet, it is not reflected in the parliament.

The important thing about increasing women's political representation is that it should not be limited to increasing the number of women in the parliament. The numerical equality of men and women at different levels of the political process is the main target of gender inequality problems. Women's taking the higher-level tasks in politics will enable the discussion of women's and different segments of society's many problems in a more equitable manner (Aydemir & Aydemir, 2011: 9).

"Quota" is a good method in blocking the activity of one gender in the decision-making process. Quota is a necessary practice to be carried out without waiting for social transformation to ensure women's involvement in political decision-making mechanisms (Yaylı, 2015: 512). While Turkey could not even activate the critical threshold of 30%, this approach today, especially at European level, leaves its place to the "parity democracy" (value equation). That is becoming a requirement of 50% representation of women and men (Sayın, 2007:44 cited from Yaylı & Eroğlu, 2015:513).

3. The Evaluation of Women's Representation in the 2015 General Elections on Party Basis

It is possible to mention two important institutions regarding the political representation in democratic structures: Parliament and political parties. These are both the institutions that determine the political power and represent political representation (Tekin & Çifti, 2006; 71-73). Political parties' compliance with the principle of "represent" is evaluated in terms of the distribution of tasks in intra-party organizations and their methods of selecting deputy candidates from presumptive candidates. Most of the political parties in Turkey has demonstrated a central or leader-based structure in the recent elections (Altıparmak, 2008:74).

Women's Representation In Turkish Political Life

According to the Political Parties Law, determination of the candidates by political parties in Turkey is made by one or more procedures and principles of their charter (Law No. 2820 / 37-1).

Justice and Development Party (JDP Regulation m.123) (AK Party, 2016); determined the candidates through polling centers at the two general elections in 2015.

Republican People's Party (CHP, 2016) determined the candidate with the pre-selection in 7 June elections and with the polling centers on 1 November. However, the list of June election complied with the existing list in the cities where pre-election was conducted. In the Article 12 of the RPP Deputy Nomination Regulation (Regulation, art. 61/a, 61/b), 33% gender quota provisions are included in determining the candidates by the central polling method (CHP, 2014).

According to Article 45 of the Peoples' Democratic Party Regulation (HDP, 2016); candidates in the elections, are determined by polling trends and the central committee (www.internethaber.com, 2016). PDP (HDP) is implementing 40% quota for women. The ratio of women candidates in the 7 June elections was 45%. This ratio was 42.5% in 1 November. PDP (HDP) announced that they have adopted the principle of "half of the candidates will be women candidates in places where the candidates can be elected" in the 7 June elections (www.haberler.com, 2016). Furthermore, it was announced that the applications from candidates who used violence against women and who were polygamous were declined in 1 November elections .

According to Article 89 of the Nationalist Movement Party Regulation (MHP, 2016); candidates were determined through the polling centers in two general elections in 2015.

20 parties and independent candidates participated in June 7, 2015 General Election. 2719 women and 7142 men in total were nominated from the parties. Communist Party is the party participating in the election with the highest number of women candidates (550 = 100%) . The Peoples' Democratic Party is the second party with 249 (45%) women candidates. The number of women candidates is the lowest (8%) in the Felicity Party (SP) (YSK, 2016).

16 parties and independent candidates participated in November 1, 2015 General Election. 1997 women and 6429 men in total were nominated from the parties. Communist Party is the party participating in the election with the highest number of women candidates (306 = 56%). The Peoples' Democratic Party is the second party with 234 (43%) women candidates. The number of women candidates is the lowest (28=5%) in the Felicity Party (YSK, 2016).

When the proportion of women candidates entering the parliament in June 7, 2015 General Election is examined (Table 1); 526 of 2.200 candidates (23.90%) are women. In addition, all parties are under the global average (22.6%) in women representation except PDP (40%). While the number of women entering parliament from the ruling party, the JDP is only 41 (15.89), this number is 32 (40%) in DPD. The women's quota application of DPD and nominating women from places that they can be elected increased this number.

Table 1. Candidates and Elected Deputies in June 7, 2015 General Elections

Parties	June 7, 2015 General Elections									
	Women				Men				Total Representation	
	Candidate	%	Elected Deputy	%	Candidate	%	Elected Deputy	%	Deputy	Vote %
JDP	101	18.36	41	15.89	449	81.64	217	84.11	258	40.9
PRP	109	19.82	21	15.91	441	80.18	111	84.09	132	25.0
PDP	249	45.27	32	40	301	54.73	48	60	80	13.1
NMP	67	12.18	4	5.	483	87.82	76	95	80	16.3
TOTAL	526	23.90	98	17.82	1674	76.10	452	82.18	550	

Source: www.ysk.gov.tr 2200 candidates in total

When the proportion of women candidates entering the parliament in June 1, 2015 General Election is examined (Table 2); 526 of 2.200 candidates (23.90%) are women. In the November elections, the ratios of female candidates of PDP (42.54%) and RPP (22.77%) are over the global average (22.6%). The ratio of the ruling party JDP's women candidates is lower than the world average in both elections.

41 (15.89%) women entered the parliament from the ruling party JDP in and despite the vote rate increase in November, only 34 (10.73) women entered the parliament. This representation constitutes 10.7% of the total deputies. The JDP went to change in candidate list to increase the percentage of votes in June 2015 (Habertürk, 2016). Nominating powerful candidates at front rows influenced women representation unfavorably. When the first four candidates ranking of the party is examined, this situation which is against women can clearly be seen (Table 3).

Table 2. Candidates and Elected Deputies in November 1, 2015 General Elections

Parties	Candidates and Elected Deputies in November 1, 2015 General Elections									
	Women				Men				Total Representation	
	Candidate	%	Elected Deputy	%	Candidate	%	Elected Deputy	%	Deputy	Vote %
JDP	69	12.54	34	10.73	481	87.46	283	89.27	317	49.5
PRP	125	22.77	21	15.67	425	77.23	113	84.33	134	25.3
PDP	234	42.54	23	38.98	316	57.46	36	61.02	59	10.8
NMP	76	13.81	3	7.5	474	85.82	37	92.5	40	11.9
TOTAL	504	22.90	81	14.73	1696	77.10	469	85.27	550	

Source: www.ysk.gov.tr - 504 (22.90%) of 2.200 candidates are women.

Women's Representation In Turkish Political Life

When Table 3 is examined, the number of women candidates from the ruling party JDP in June 2015 was decreased by 6% compared to the general election in November 2015. RPP increased the number of women candidates by 3% in November compared to June. There is an increase of 1.6% in NMP in the November election. In both elections, it was PDP which contained more female candidates than other parties but this party marked 2.7% decrease.

When the party's candidate lists entering the parliament are examined; it is PDP to place women candidates in the first five rankings. Compared to other parties, the ruling party JDP placed women candidates in first place at the lowest rate. It was found out that JDP decreased the number of women candidates in the November 1 election compared to June election. This situation can be seen as the party's policy to make women candidates running more and reach more women voters. While RPP placed 15 women candidates at the first ranking in June election, this number dropped to 13 in November. The number of women candidates at the first and second rankings in the NMP increased in November compared to the June election. While the number of women candidates increased in first ranking, it increased in the second and third place in the November election. While there is a decrease in the number of first-line women candidate of the ruling and main opposition parties, there is an increase in the other parties in November compared to the June elections.

Table 3. The Ranking List (Top 5) of Women Candidates of the Parties Entering the Parliament in 7 June, and November 1, 2015 General Election

Parties n:550	Women Candidates in June 7, 2015		Women Candidates in November 1, 2015		June 7, 2015	November 1, 2015	June 7, 2015	November 1, 2015	June 7, 2015	November 1, 2015	June 7, 2015	November 1, 2015	June 7, 2015	November 1, 2015
	Total	%	Total	%	1.	1.	2.	2.	3.	3.	4.	4.	5.	5.
JDP	101	18.36	69	12.54	4	3	13	6	14	13	14	5	4	8
PRP	109	19.82	125	22.77	15	13	9	14	15	8	7	8	6	8
NMP	67	12.18	76	13.81	4	6	5	10	10	7	5	4	4	6
PDP	249	45.27	234	42.54	26	30	49	43	25	20	28	30	17	12

n: The total number of parties' candidates

Conducted in 87 constituencies.

Source: <http://secim.haberler.com/> (14.01.2016)

While only 5% of the JDP candidates at the first-rank was women, 18% of the RPP candidates at the first-rank was women in June. While only 4% of the JDP candidates at the first-rank was women, 15% of the RPP candidates at the first-rank was women in November. The ratios were calculated according to the 87 constituencies. The number of women candidates at the first-rank decreased at the both parties. The number of women candidates is lowest at NMP. PDP had the highest number of women candidates at all rankings.

Conclusion

Equal representation of women and men in decision-making mechanisms is only possible in the existence of a democratic political system. The representation of women in politics is required to solve the women problems. There is a need for regulations to put an end to male domination in politics and improve the representation of women for the solution of women problem. In democratic systems, the function of political parties is important in the election of people's representatives and political decision-making body. The political parties' placing women in electable rankings and gender quota applications will have a positive impact on the process.

PDP (HDP) had the highest number of women candidates among all parties entering the parliament in 2015 General Elections in Turkey. It was found out that all parties were under the global average (22.6%) in women representation except PDP (40%). The women's quota application of PDP and nominating women from places that they can be elected increased this number.

The ratio of the ruling party JDP's (AK Party) women candidates is lower than the world average in both elections. The JDP had a six percent reduction in the number of women candidates in the November elections compared to the June elections. This decrease was associated with locating male candidates with higher chance of winning.

It is clear that parties placed women candidates in lower rankings rather than the higher rankings. The number of women is more in the big parties than the other parties due to more representation. However, women are given as lower rankings in the party lists of these parties. It was also observed that the Left parties pay more attention to gender equality. These findings are supported by the studies of Kostadinova & Mikulska (2015, p 10). When the party's candidate lists entering the parliament are examined; it is PDP to place women candidates in the first five rankings. Compared to other parties, the ruling party JDP placed women candidates in first place at the lowest rate.

It was found out that JDP decreased the number of women candidates in the November 1 election compared to June election. This situation can be seen as the party's policy to make women candidates running more and reach more women voters. While there is a decrease in the number of first-line women candidate of the ruling and main opposition parties, there is an increase in the other parties in November compared to the June elections.

References

- Akal, C. B. (1994). *Siyasi iktidarın Cinsiyeti*. Ankara: İmge Yayınları.
- Altıparmak, C. (2008). Demokrasilerde Aday Belirleme Yöntemleri. *TBB Dergisi*. (76), 355-375.
- Aydemir, D., & Aydemir, E. (2011). *Türkiye Siyasetinde Kadın Çok Oluyoruz*. Ankara: USAK Yayınları No:11-05.
- Çağlar, N. (2011). Kadının Siyasal Yaşama Katılımı Ve Kota Uygulamaları. *Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Vizyoner Dergisi*. 3(4), 56-79.
- Çakır, Ö. (2008). Türkiye'de Kadının Çalışma Yaşamından Dışlanması. *Erciyes Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*. (31), 25-47.
- Gençkaya, Ö. F. (2008). Kadın Milletvekillerinin Yasama ve Denetim Faaliyetleri ve Rollerini. *Yasama Dergisi*. (18), 5-34.
- Gökçimen, S. (2008). Ülkemizde Kadınların Siyasal Hayata Katılım Mücadelesi. *Yasama Dergisi*. (10), 5-59.
- Koray, M. (1995). *Türkiye'de Kadınlar*. İstanbul: Yeni Yüzyıl Yayınları.
- Kostadinova, T., & Mikulska A. (2015). The puzzling success of populist parties in promoting women's political representation. *Party Politics, Sage journal*. 1-15.
- KSSGM. (2008). *Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliği Ulusal Eylem Planı 2008-2013*, T.C Başbakanlık Kadının Statüsü Ve Sorunları Genel Müdürlüğü, Ankara.
- Sayın, A. (2007). *Kota El Kitabı "Geçici Özel Önlem Politikası: Kota*. Ankara: Ka-der Yayınları'ndan aktaran Yaylı, H., & Eroğlu, G. (2015). Yerel Katılım Bağlamında Türkiye'de Kadın Temsili. *International Journal of Science Culture and Sport (IntJSCS)*. (3), 504-524.
- Scott, J. W., & Kılıç, A. T. (Çev.) (2007). *Toplumsal Cinsiyet: Faydalı Bir Tarihsel Analiz Kategorisi*. İstanbul: Agora Kitaplığı Yayınları.
- Tekeli, Ş. (1982). *Kadınlar ve Siyasal Toplumsal Hayat*. İstanbul: Birikim Yayınları.
- Tekin, Y., & Çiftçi, S. (2006). Temsil Krizi Tartışmalarına Bir Katkı: 22. Dönem TBMM'nde Yapılan Bir Alan Araştırmasının Sonuçları Işığında Türk Siyasal Yaşamında Demokratik Temsil İlkesinin Görünümü. *SÜ İİBF Sosyal ve Ekonomik Araştırmalar Dergisi*. (11), 69-90.
- Türel, N., & Çağlar, N. (2010). Yerel Yönetimde Kadın Temsili: Isparta İli Örneği. *Süleyman Demirel Vizyoner Dergisi*. 2(1), 16-40.
- Yaylı, H., & Eroğlu, G. (2015). Yerel Katılım Bağlamında Türkiye'de Kadın Temsili. *International Journal of Science Culture and Sport (IntJSCS)*. (3), 504-524.

Women's Representation In Turkish Political Life

- Siyasi Partiler Kanunu, Kanun No:2820/37-1, Tarih : 24/4/1983 Sayı : 18027. 26.01.2016,*
<http://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/MevzuatMetin/1.5.2820.pdf>.
- AKP, *Adalet ve Kalkınma Partisi.* 15.01.2016, <https://www.akparti.org.tr/site/akparti/parti-tuzugu>.
- CHP, *Cumhuriyet Halk Partisi Tüzüğü.* 15.01.2016, <https://www.chp.org.tr/Assets/dosya/chp-tuzugu-2015-01-12.pdf>.
- CHP, *Cumhuriyet Halk Partisi Yönetmelikleri, 2014.* 15.01.2016,
<https://www.chp.org.tr/Assets/dosya/chp-yonetmelikleri-2015-01-12.pdf>.
- HDP, *Halkların Demokratik Partisinin Tüzüğü.* 16.01.2016,
<http://www.halklarindemokratikkongresi.net/hdp/tuzuk/kurulus-tuzugu/492>.
- KADER, <http://www.ka-der.org.tr/tr-tr/page/show/400/kader-istatistikleri.html> (16.01.2016).
- MHP, *Milliyetçi Hareket Partisi Tüzüğü, 2009.* 16.01.2016,
https://www.mhp.org.tr/usr_img/mhp2007/kitaplar/mhp_parti_tuzugu_2009_opt.pdf
- YSK, *Yüksek Seçim Kurulu.* 19.01.2016,
<http://www.ysk.gov.tr/ysk/content/conn/YSKUCM/path/Contribution%20Folders/HaberDosya/2015MVES-24ve25DonemAdayCinsiyet.pdf>.
- YSK, *Yüksek Seçim Kurulu.* 19.01.2016,
<http://ysk.gov.tr/ysk/content/conn/YSKUCM/path/Contribution%20Folders/HaberDosya/2015MVES-PartiAdayCinsiyet.pdf>.
- TUİK, http://www.tuik.gov.tr/PreTablo.do?alt_id=1068 (07.01.2016)
- BİANET, <http://bianet.org/bianet/siyaset/154631-secimin-kazanan-kadinlari> (16.01.2016).
- HABERTÜRK, <http://www.haberturk.com/gundem/haber/1129949-1-kasim-surprizleri> (17.01.2016).
<http://www.haberler.com/hdp-kadin-kotasini-arttirdi-7059676-haberi/> (16.01.2016).
<http://www.internethaber.com/1-kasim-secimi-ak-parti-chp-mhp-ve-hdpde-son-durum-ne-813216h.htm> (16.01.2016)
- <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/world.htm> (07.01.2016).
<http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm> (07.01.2016)
<http://secim.haberler.com/> (14.01.2016)

Rethinking sociologically global conflicts

Lucia Fortini

Introduction

Global changes, that have followed the collapse of the Soviet Union, have redefined the boundaries of scientific debate among historians, sociologists and geo-political experts. The American decline, the rise of China and other major non-European countries, and the Arab Spring, are just some of the events that make it ineffective to think about major international issues with traditional tools and concepts. Among these issues, the one particular question is about security (Monteleone, 2012).

The breakdown of the consolidated balance that has characterized the international scenario until the fall of world bipolarity has led to an increase in global players, including not just States, “but also international associations and bodies that play a role in the context of international relationships” (Talia, Amato, 2015; 9). However, this multitude of actors, of various importance and spatially differentiated sphere of action, has failed to impose its political will on the various regional scales.

This created a geopolitical context that has been broken up in which “the end of the bipolar equilibrium of the ‘Cold War’ between the two great victorious powers of the Second World War did not generate, denying every easy prediction, a single superpower” (*ibidem*). While United States, although still maintaining a hypothetical military domain, have limited themselves to playing a role of diplomatic influence, China still seems far from being able to play a hegemonic role on a global scale, and the European Union, another economic colossus, remains not so much credible from a political point of view (Rutigliano, 2005).

The Critical outlook to the related literature and the methodological map

In attempting to make these changes intelligible, several reading keys have been proposed to describe the new world setups following the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989. These interpretations are closely linked to new discourses on security and defense policies, since, even if they are the result of conventions and represent a way of seeing reality, “a map of the world defines in turn the vision of the world of culture that ‘created’ it” (Brotton, 2012). This has some influence, in fact, on the real political relations between states and on the perception that individuals have of other populations and of the same human security. As it is well known, the dominant paradigm saw the world subdivided into two large blocks, the Soviet and the Western ones, and it was along the boundaries set by that configuration that strategies, conflicts and identities were developed (O’Loughlin, 2000). Different alternative interpretation of the world have seen light, as the existence of these two great totems has come to an end (Huntington, 1997).

A first model considered the end of the Cold War, with the disappearing of the antagonist par excellence, as the end of every great and generalized international conflict. A well-known exponent of this vision of the world is Francis Fukuyama who considered the affirmation of liberal democracies as the evolutionary pinnacle of a humanity that would resolve conflicts without using violence (Fukuyama, 1989; Fukuyama, 1992). A world at the end of a story regarded as a linear process in which, apart from some local conflict, there would no longer be clashes of ideologies, but cooperation among peoples would be aimed at achieving common goals. The latest historical events, at least for the time being, seem to have denied what, more than an attempt to interpret the changes, seems to be a wish strongly linked to the idea that Western values, emerging victorious from the clash with the Soviet Union, set the best of the possible worlds, in which the various ideological positions, far from being insuperable, would sooner or later find a common point of arrival.

Another type of interpretation has preserved the idea of a world divided into two parts, although there have been several bases on which to build this division. As Huntington notes, “men are always tempted to divide humanity into ‘us and them’, the equal and the different, one’s own civilization and the other barbarity. (...) This distinction was resumed, and in a sense reversed, at the end of the Cold War by American scholars who divided the world into ‘areas of peace’ and ‘areas of disorder’. The

former comprised the West and Japan, with about the 15 percent of the world's population, the second one, all the others" (Huntington, 1997; 30).

As it is easy to imagine, the risk of the two views that have just been described, the "one world" and "world divided into two", is an analytical flattening of the actual processes and an overly simplified reading of world assets and the new configuration they have assumed. Some authors tried to read this complexity thanks to other two well-known visions of the world, the "realistic theory" and the "chaos' model". In the first case, the main reference unit is the State, and the world is considered a sort of no-rule arena where the 184 countries that compose it are fighting each other to gain power or to limit others' one. It is on this assumption that it is possible to foresee the strategies, the international relations and possible alliances of the actors in the field. The "chaos' model", on the contrary, presupposes "the collapse of the state authority; the disintegration of States, the intensification of tribal, ethnic and religious conflicts; the emergence of international criminal mafia organizations; the stratospheric increase in the number of refugees; the proliferation of nuclear weapons and other mass destruction tools; the spread of terrorism; the multiplication of massacres and ethnic cleansing operations" (*ivi*; 35).

According to Huntington, the just described two visions of the world, although they have the merit of taking some of the ongoing dynamics, are unable to understand the many elements of order that characterize the worldview, sacrificing on the altar of complexity the possibility to emphasize regularity and differences within what is not an indistinct chaos. Therefore, he himself proposes a division of the world based on those who consider the nine different civilizations the planet is composed of, arguing that it is just along the boundaries determined by their coexistence that identity practices and conflicts will develop. This in the conviction that "in this new world, politics at the local level is based on the concept of ethnicity, the global one on the concept of civilization" (*ivi*; 17). However, if this view was undoubtedly anticipatory of today's conflicts between the West and some Islamic units (Panebianco, 2015), it also evokes a world of irreconcilable and stereotyped identities anchored to an identity perspective for traditions, past and immobility, where there is no way to redeem some conflicts. A vision embedded in strong cultural determinism, that is unable to pay due attention, in the analysis of change and of the relationships between different actors, not just to the richness and to the importance of economic and political aspects, but also to the characteristic defined by Appadurai as "the ability to aspire" (Appadurai, 2011). With this, the Indian Sociologist meant the ability of a culture to be not only a tool for building one's own identity on past basis, but also, the means to make it looking to the future and making changes.

Finally, since 1980, there is a parallel development of some branches of geopolitics including, the classical one – which is still concerned with developing countries and security policy workers; the contemporary one, which in Western countries "mainly addresses to issues relating to the well-being of citizens-voters of individual states" (O'Laughlin, 2000); and that of "critical geopolitics, which considers state geopolitics as a means of promoting the rule of the West on the politics and the economies of the world and as the handmaid of the military aggression of the western countries" (*ibidem*). The scholars of the last current, influenced by postmodernist theories and authors from different disciplines, including Nietzsche, Foucault and Derrida, have tried to provide innovative answers to the traditional questions of geopolitics, considering it not a simple way of telling the world but a true "writing of the world (literally geo-graphic)" (Painter, Jeffrey, 2011; 275). A discursive narration that, as Ó Tuatail (1996) claims, as paradoxical as it can seem, in his classical version does not take into account either geography, disconnecting sites from their real dimension, nor politics, considering the form and content of relations between States as something foregone and inevitable.

Some authors, moving from a political geography point of view, instead of geopolitics, prefer to concentrate on ongoing processes rather than developing a crystallized vision of the world as composed of opposing or juxtaposed parts. For instance, Painter and Jeffrey propose a critical and punctual reading of discipline, from a constructivist point of view, trying to make political geography a valid interpretative tool of the fast and uncertain changes that characterize the complexity of the contemporary world (*ivi*). In doing so, by overcoming the traditional split between the various geographies, the two authors recover the contributions of social geography and cultural geography,

traditionally relegated to the sphere of so-called informal politics, extending them to what they call the formal politics, the one “with the capital P”, that studies the institutions, the processes of the state, the government and the formal political organizations (*ivi*).

Painter and Jeffrey's constructivist view sees politics as a process made up of institutional and social practices, that are historically and geographically placed, whose nature is both material and discursive. Politics are necessary to reconcile the needs, desires and aspirations of individuals and groups who, regardless of the basic biological necessities, have a meaning (they are constructed) through the discourse. Discourse, then, in addition to having a legitimating function for the authority, contribute in making the practices and concepts of “real things” which, objectively and apparently autonomously from individual action, are to strengthen (or weaken), and at the same time are strengthened (or weakened) by material practices. In this theoretical context, particular importance is given to the concepts of human agency, strategic action and unequal access to resources that, under an institutionalized framework of sovereignty – and of more or less legitimate authority – and of different political identities, are the basis of that negotiation between individuals and Groups to needs satisfaction.

Although, as we have seen, many authors have tried to formulate a new vision of the world capable of reading the changes that characterize the new post-Berlin-Wall-fall world, their analysis is generally focused on one aspect, cultural, economic, political, emotional. It is therefore evident that it is necessary to restore the complexity of the contemporary geopolitical landscape by considering how all these dimensions interact and represent opportunities, or threats, for the creation of new equilibriums.

Findings

The events of September 11 2001 undoubtedly represented a watershed on the reflexivity of Western countries over the themes of identity, security, risk and enemy. From one day to the other, in fact, we have become aware of the existence of the invisible, endemic but tangible danger of the terrorist threat. An enemy who is “sophisticated, patient, disciplined, and lethal. The enemy rallies broad support in the Arab and Muslim world by demanding redress of political grievances, but its hostility toward us and our values is limitless. Its purpose is to rid the world of religious and political pluralism, the plebiscite and the equal rights for women. It makes no distinction between military and civilian targets. *Collateral damage* is not in its lexicon” (Kean, Hamilton, 2004; XVI). This is what is stated in the final report of *The National Commission on Terrorist Attacks Upon the United States*, instituted in 2002, to investigate the circumstances in which those wretched events occurred. There is no doubt that this description, published in 2004, had largely drawn from the ideas of terrorism that had already begun to settle in Western public opinion; as it is most likely that this official definition has contributed to the consolidation of the image, already themed by some authors over the years (Huntington, 1997), of a conflict based on clashes between civilizations (Flores, 2015) against an invisible and pervasive enemy to be fought in an unconventional way, that is, not with the same means normally used until the fall of the Berlin Wall.

Already in 1999, two officers of the Chinese Army had published their controversial and prophetic view of the transformations that new technologies, in an increasingly global and globalized worldview, were making to weapons and, consequently, to the ways of making war (Qiao Liang, Wang Xiangsui, 2001). The weapons changes, not just as consequence of technological development but also – and this is the main reason – because many tools and instruments that were initially assigned to a very different use and purpose start to be considered as weaponry, such as internet and mass media. In short, the authors argue, there will be a permanent conflict, diffused, potentially, in any sphere of everyday life, and no longer relegated to the battlefield. Indeed, an unrestricted war.

It is simple to understand how easy it was to overlap the concepts of asymmetric and widespread war with that of terrorist. They, as a representative of another civilization, such as the Islamic one, considered intrinsically incompatible with the Western one, do not distinguish between military and civilian targets – indeed, they seem to prefer the latter ones as they aim to cause the greatest possible damage by using any means they have.

The transition between the analysis of reality and prejudice and bias can be short. Indeed, as Flores notes, in fact, the definitions of terrorism of the 21st century are not unanimous and they often suffer from excessive cultural simplification that ignores “the historical and political dimension, transformations and changes, and the new contexts in which new behaviors have been formed and rooted, including those of the people with whom we think we are at war today” (Flores, 2015; 321). Among the authors who have tried to analyze the organizational dimension of terrorist groups there is Knorr Cetina who, drawing on the conclusions outlined in the aforementioned American Commission report on terrorist attacks, tried to explain the complex logistic nature of such attacks (Knorr-Cetina, 2005). If, in fact, the author argues, the countermeasures to be taken concern a global, cooperative, and intelligent engagement that uses sophisticated surveillance and security technologies, “how, then, are we to conceptualize sociologically this ‘hydra of destruction’ which is simultaneously no more than a marginal group of conspirators that makes mistakes, whose tradecraft is not especially sophisticated and which lives from donations?” (*ivi*; 213). According to the author, such organizations are the exemplification of the theory of complexity, to which the concept of “global microstructures” can be applied, i.e. “forms of connectivity and coordination that combine global reach with microstructural mechanisms that instantiate self-organizing principles and patterns” (*ivi*; 214). The application of this construct allows us to consider both the global dimension of the terrorist organization as well as the fact that they “do not exhibit institutional complexity but rather the asymmetries, unpredictabilities and playfulness of complex (and dispersed) interaction patterns” (*ibidem*).

Conclusion

In this context of globalization and political inconsistency, in which new nations emerge in order to become protagonists of the economic scene, it is also necessary to deal with the new risks of liquid society: lack of fundamental points, economic compression of the middle class, new democratic transitions, new identity processes, rediscovery of nationalisms, frustration management, discontent among the people who are suspended between the desire to modernize and the reject of Western values, ecological disasters. This climate of widespread uncertainty has led to the emergence of conflicts and claims that have made the international political scenario even more complicated, with the recent and progressive diplomatic decomposition in increasingly diverse regional groups and with the growing of turmoil and internal crises, which are increasingly more interconnected (Maniscalco, 2014). The dissolution of the equilibrium built on the antagonistic relationship of the two superpowers has led to an endemic international conflict, which characterizes both the relationship between states and their internal affairs (Calzini, 2015). Recent terrorist acts, for example, are part of a crisis scenario characterized by a climate of general unfriendliness that accompanies the relations between the United States, the European Union and the countries from which it is composed, where the economic crisis and austerity policies concurred to create divisions and contrasts (Maniscalco, 2014).

This omnipresence of risk and its increasingly widespread institutionalization accompany contemporary identity processes (Giddens, 1999) and have led to a series of major changes in security and defense policy discourses. In particular, “multivalent threats and a concept of security not restricted to the military perimeter of national sovereignty have expanded the horizons of information services, not only in the spatial sense, but also in terms of intervention fields and ‘subjects’ of securization” (Maniscalco, 2014; 79). As Pagnini and Matejak (2007) note, “Threats linked to terrorism, the pressure exerted by the ever-increasing migratory flows, marginalization and the creation of unstable peripheries of degradation are only some of the factors that in the last few years have most influenced the perception of security, favoring the emergence of what, with increasing insistence, is defined as a real ‘security alert’” (*ivi*; 7). This has contributed to the silent spread of surveillance so that “today’s citizens, workers, consumers and travelers, always in motion but often lacking certainties and lasting ties, learn that their movements are monitored, tracked and localized” (Bauman, Lyon, 2015; VII) daily through their electronic money purchases, internet research, social media and video surveillance systems. This kind of society, that Bauman defined as “post-panoptic” (Bauman, 2002), is legitimized by the awareness that the tradeoff is between freedom and personal security. This is particularly evident, for example, in the tight controls at airports where “passengers in whose threat of

terrorism is well nested, has accepted without protesting these limitations of their freedoms” (Beck, 2008; 4).

As a result of recent tragic and repeated events, the problem of terrorism is at the heart of the intelligence services’ concerns as reported in the *Relazione sulla Politica dell’Informazione per la Sicurezza 2015*, which considers, for example, “emblematic the case of jihadist terrorism, the thread of this report, and probably of future ones, which inevitably shape the processing of policy options and security strategies” (Italian Government, 2015; 89). In this regard, many are the points of attention highlighted by the Report, including, for example, the organization of terrorist attacks, the network established in the territory, the supply of resources from legitimate or predatory activities, the recruitment of followers, including foreign fighters from different countries, reconstruction of organizational forms and coordination (*ivi*; 89-90). Activities that require a huge deployment of resources and a serious and important international cooperation protocol to put together all the jars of a puzzle literally scattered in different contexts and countries.

But, as far as it take up important spaces in contemporary public discourse, and continually animate the debate, terrorism is not the only threat posed by the attention of intelligence activities that is also occupied on issues characterized by less visibility but not by lesser serious consequences:

“To assure every support for the process of internationalization of our businesses, minimizing their risks, and monitoring, in accordance with the criteria of know-how, on the acquisition of external actors, first and foremost those aimed at the national security chain; to analyze and grasp the criticalities of the banking and financial system in a timely fashion; to counter the digital espionage maneuvers that can be attributed to our competitors; to ensure the necessary knowledge contribution to the Government’s energy policies; fighting the illegal economy and the mafia business, operating in the framework of close interinstitutional cooperation. The dynamics of the opposing political antagonism, reconnected to the economic context, and more generally, to the folds of the social fabric, which, from opposite ideological views, attempts to strike the discomfort instrumentally to gain consensus and visibility” (*ivi*; 91). In particular, there is a need to cite cybernetic and economic-financial threats affecting not only military and political apparatus, but also industrial, financial, scientific and technological sectors, whose “preferred target are dual use technologies, information and telecommunications, military (aerospace, aeronautics and maritime systems), energy (low carbon emission solutions), new materials (manufacturing and nanotechnology), biomedical and pharmaceutical technologies, genetic engineering” (Maniscalco, 2014; 83).

Certainly, the sources of institutional communication, such as the aforementioned Report, run the risk of being biased by power relations and the particular economic, party, or political context affecting the organ that produced them, but above all, by a special attention provided to the exhibition form, so that it can tell without disturbing public opinion, and conceals what is considered to be detrimental to national security if it is spread.

Yet, the main point here is the level of complexity and interconnection that affects the various aspects of security, investing more dimensions altogether: the territorial (both local and global), the phenomenal, and the dynamics and processes of the countries (both internal and supranational), and the technical and technological dimension. “A framework of composite, interconnected and strongly evolving threats that will undergo the multiplier effect of equally dynamic and heterogeneous factors, such as the economic recession, the instability of international strategic balances and the fluidity of social models” (*ivi*; 88).

References

- ASHWORTH C., DANDEKER, C., “Warfare, social theory and West European development”, in *Sociological Review*, 35, 1987, pp. 1-18.
- APPADURAI A., “La capacità di aspirare”, in *Le aspirazioni nutrono la democrazia*, Milano, et al./edizioni, 2011, ed. orig. “The Capacity to Aspire: Culture and the Terms of Recognition” in WALTON M., RAO V. (eds.), *Culture and Public Action: A Cross-Disciplinary Dialogue on Development Policy*, Palo Alto, Stanford University Press, 2004.
- BAUMAN Z., *Modernità liquida*, Roma-Bari, Laterza, 2002.

- BAUMAN Z., LYON D., *Sesto potere. La sorveglianza nella modernità liquida*, Editori Laterza, Roma-Bari, 2015.
- BECK U., *La società del rischio. Verso una seconda modernità*, Carocci, Roma, 2000.
- BECK U., *Conditio humana, Il rischio nell'età globale*, Laterza, Roma-Bari, 2008.
- BROTTON J., *Storia del mondo in dodici mappe*, Feltrinelli, Milano, 2012.
- CALZINI P., Molto di nuovo sul fronte nord-occidentale, in "il Mulino" 3/15 anno LXIV n. 479, p. 554-563.
- FLORES M., Le domande che non ci poniamo, in "il Mulino" 2/15 anno LXIV n. 478, pp. 318-325.
- FUKUYAMA F., "The end of history?", in *The National Interest*, n. 13, Summer 1989, pp. 4-18.
- FUKUYAMA F., *La fine della storia e l'ultimo uomo*, Rizzoli, Milano, 1992.
- GIDDENS A., *Le conseguenze della modernità*, Il Mulino, Bologna, 1994.
- GIDDENS A., *Identità e società moderna*, Ipermedium, Napoli, 1999.
- HUNTINGTON S.P., *Lo scontro delle civiltà e il nuovo ordine mondiale*, Garzanti, Milano, 1997, ed. orig. *The Clash of Civilization and the Remaking of World Order*, Penguin Books India, 1997.
- ITALIAN GOVERNMENT, *Relazione sulla Politica dell'Informazione per la Sicurezza*, 2015.
- KEAN, T.H., HAMILTON L.H., *The 9/11 Report: The National Commission on Terrorist Attacks upon the United States, with Reporting and Analysis by the New York Times*, St Martin's Press, New York, 2004.
- KNORR-CETINA, K., "Complex global microstructures: The new terrorist societies", in *Theory, Culture & Society*, 2 (5), 2005, pp. 213-234.
- MANISCALCO M.L., "L'intelligence nel Terzo millennio. Riflessioni a margine della «Relazione sulla politica dell'informazione sulla sicurezza», 2014", in *Democrazia & Sicurezza* - anno V, n. 1, 2015.
- MONTELEONE C., *Politiche di sicurezza e cambiamento globale*, Franco Angeli, Milano, 2012.
- O'LOUGHLIN J., *Dizionario di geopolitica*, Asterios, Trieste, 2000.
- PAGNINI M.P., MATIEK I. (a cura di), *La città e le problematiche della sicurezza: nuovi dialoghi tra geografia politica e geografia urbana*, atti del convegno Trieste 24-25 settembre 2007, La Mongolfiera libri, Trieste, 2007.
- PAINTER J., JEFFREY A., *Geografia Politica*, UTET, Milano, 2011.
- PANEBIANCO A., Perché Huntington non si può ignorare, in "il Mulino" 2/15 anno LXIV n. 478, p. 276-283.
- QIAO LIANG, WANG XIANGSUI, *Guerra senza limiti: l'arte della Guerra asimmetrica fra terrorismo e globalizzazione*, LEG, Gorizia, 2001, ed. orig. *Unrestricted warfare*, PLA Literature and Arts Publishing House Arts, 1999.
- RUTIGLIANO E., "La nuova guerra e l'Occidente", *Quaderni di sociologia*, XLIX, n.39 (3/2005), p.p. 39-54.
- TALIA I. e AMATO V., *Scenari e mutamenti geopolitici. Competizione ed egemonia nei grandi spazi*, Pàtron Editore, Bologna, 2015.

The Lonely Hegemon: the Rise and Fall of Turkey's Hegemonic Ambitions during AKP era

Yücel Bozdağlıoğlu, Hikmet Mengüaslan

1. The Conceptualization of Hegemony in International Relations

The concept of hegemony refers basically to leadership and hierarchical relations in international relations. However, reducing the concept solely to leadership and hierarchy would be misleading regarding the complex nature hegemony. For the very reason of complexity, there are naturally various approaches which conceptualize hegemony and hegemon itself in significantly different ways in the literature.

In International Relations discipline, studies on hegemony primarily deal with the relation between existence of a preponderant power and stability-cooperation; however, that the focus is largely on the preponderance of power leads to understudy of emergence and continuation of hegemony and the conditions which have impact on the success of hegemonic practices. To illustrate, the realist conceptualization of hegemony, to a great extent, hinges upon the superiority of material capacity, mostly military and economic. In *War and Change in World Politics*, Gilpin (1981) elaborates on the relation between the cycles of hegemonic rise-decline and shifts in the balance of power; for him, if it is not profitable to change the international system, no one would bother to challenge. He underlines that states struggle for power, wealth and prestige in an anarchical system and the course of history is characterized by hegemonic wars, which defines the systemic changes. In other words, he argues that counter hegemonic challenges stem from the differential rate of growth in states system, his analysis is confined to accumulation of power and relative power in the structure. The main aspect of this conceptualization, however, seems to be the understanding of the concept of power and hegemony in a one-dimensional way, indicating the unquestioned link between the superiority in material capabilities and prevalence of hegemony.

Unable to account for the unwillingness of US being a hegemon while possessing the unproportioned material capabilities between two world wars, realist approach is exposed modification by neoliberal institutionalists; Keohane in his seminal book *After hegemony* (1984: 34-35) defines hegemony as a situation in which one state is powerful enough to maintain the essential rules governing interstate relations, *willing* to do so. Clearly, the one-dimensional conceptualization is aimed to be complemented with a second aspect, will of the preponderant power to project and utilize its power. However, institutionalist approach does still adopt the material conceptualization of hegemony without questioning. Against this backdrop, the debate between realists and neoliberals on hegemony seems mostly to go around the question whether states need a hegemonic leadership for stability and cooperation. Derivatively, while Gilpin (2001) furthers the debate stating that there is a close link between hegemon itself and the stability in international order, Keohane (1984) attributes the cooperation and stability to the assumption that it is in the common interest for states to cooperate under the institutions founded by a hegemon, even after hegemon itself long gone.

The one-dimensional approach to conceptualization of hegemony, nevertheless, is still lacking of the perceptions of the ruled about hegemon's power. Furthermore, the preponderance of material capabilities does not always guarantee the expected results. In this context, Nye, Jr. examined the nature of power and introduced a distinction between hard and soft power. With the soft power concept Nye, Jr. emphasized the importance of the dimension of acceptance by the others in continuity and success of hegemony. Nye, Jr. (2004, 5-6) describes that soft power is the capacity to attract others and to get them do what you want, yet through your values, ideas or power to set the agenda rather than through coercion. Regarding the US hegemony, he argues that soft power plays a crucial role and it is advantageous than unilateralism and relying on coercive power solely (Nye, Jr., 2002).

Clearly, the realist and institutionalist conceptualizations of hegemony seem to ignore, or worse, underestimate the perceptions of others; and assert that there would be an automatic transmission of material preponderance to obedience. The change and continuity of hegemonic status is discussed to

be only influenced by either differential growth among powers in the system as Gilpin (1981) stated or as Keohane (1984) stressed that states will obey the rule of hegemon for the sake of fulfilling their interests. In these arguments, nevertheless, the lacking part is the consent of the ruled, Gramsci argues. Intrigued by the question why revolution and transition to socialism did not occur in the capitalist industrialized Western countries, Gramsci looked from a different perspective to conceptualization of hegemony (Cox, 1983: 163-164). While Gramscian hegemony does not underestimate the material power in the realist sense, it argues that there must be a balance between force and consent. In this sense, Cox argues that Gramscian conceptualization of hegemony, to some extent, derives from Machiavelli's famous metaphor-half man, half beast with the concept of power as a combination of coercion and consent (Cox, 1983, 164). Through consent, the hegemony is naturalized in eye of the ruled, in other words, ruled accepts the hierarchy of hegemon and acts complying to the ideas, institutions and culture produced in the system founded by the hegemon. He clarifies the distinction between domination and hegemony and claims that the supremacy of a group is manifested in two ways: domination and intellectual-moral leadership (Gramsci, 1971: 45).

Bozdağlıoğlu, on the other hand, argues that although Gramscian hegemony and Nye, Jr.'s soft power have common points in underlining the ideological and ideational framework, the understudied part in their conceptualization is the willingness of the states to abide by the rules set out by the hegemon. To overcome this weakness, Bozdağlıoğlu defines hegemony as the ability to create an international social structure that includes three essential elements: shared knowledge, material resources, and practices; and these three elements are interrelated (Wendt, 1995, p. 73). Shared knowledge, understandings, and expectations "constitute the actors in a situation and the nature of their relationships" (Wendt, 1995, p. 73). The hierarchical, or hegemonic, structure then would be a social structure composed of intersubjective understandings in which states identify with the hegemon and define their interests accordingly. Parallel to that, the social practices are significant in the sense that they produce and reproduce the intersubjective meanings, which in turn constitute social structures and actors alike. The actions of the states, along with shaping the others' perception about itself, contribute the identity of the states (Bozdağlıoğlu, 2013: 7-8).

In this context, the theoretical framework of this study is building on constructivist conceptualization of hegemony. Since realist and neoliberal perspectives deal with hegemony through material supremacy (military-economic primacy), the hegemonic changes are reduced to changes in material capacities of states. Although, while Gramscian hegemony examines how hegemony is accepted by the ruled and underlines the consent part of hegemony and Nye, Jr.'s approach tried to highlight the benefits of attraction and acceptance along with material power, they are both lacking of the theorization of consent in the ruled. On the other hand, constructivist approach gives importance to legitimacy and consent, while at the same time depending on the intersubjective meanings of the actions of the hegemon, it is stated that hegemon's success is closely linked to creation of shared understandings and a relative degree of benevolence (Griffits, 2004, p. 65).

In this study, with a constructivist conceptualization of hegemony, Turkey's foreign policy activism under AKP administration, which is argued to be placed on soft power capacities and shared understandings, culture, consent formulated in Ahmet Davutoglu's Strategic Depth Doctrine, is examined. Depending on the international and regional developments, how Turkey's actions are socialized intersubjectively in the eyes of regional actors is investigated.

2. The Rise and Fall of a Hegemon: Turkey in the Middle East

Debates about policy activism, hegemonic aspirations, and foreign policy orientations in the literature of Turkish Foreign Policy have become a cottage industry. There have been various perspectives and diverse theoretical positions utilized in order to understand and account for Turkey's position in the Middle East. However, a significant breaking point common in all these debates seems to be the AKP's come to power in 2002.

For before 2002, Turkey had mostly a negative reputation in the region due to its imperial past, the Ottoman period. Parallel to that, Turkish image had frequently been related with distrust because of having close relations with West, with repulsion because of the secularization and modernization

processes followed since foundation (Vali, 1971: 273). To this point, it was not surprising that according to Turkish elites' worldviews, Islam and East were the source of backwardness and obstacle before the progress (Ahmad, 1991: 3-4). Then, Turkish official attitude against the Middle East (despite occasional improvements) emerged as isolation and passivity (Robins, 1991: 10-11).

Even though there had been times for active policies in Turkey's vision on the Middle East before AKP administration, for instance Menderes and Özal administrations, those periods can be described as temporary, unsustainable and short-lived, primarily because of lacking of detailed policy formulation and being conjectural in nature. On the other hand, after AKP came to power, the previous attitude adopted in foreign policy was highly criticized as being passive and reactive rather than proactive, especially in the Middle East. For the AKP elites, Turkey should have quitted old habits dominating the foreign policy vision and formulated a foreign policy depending on its Ottoman legacy. Otherwise, it is argued that Turkey could not pursue its interests in international system (Davutoğlu, 2001: 30-33).

The foreign policy perspective of AKP has been referred as "new" and restructured along with the fancy mixture of Islamist background and democratic principles (Oğuzlu, 2008: 15-17). The new image has also been bolstered by the US and the EU. Parallel to that, Turkey got into a process of reconceptualizing its foreign policy roles and can be argued to emerge as a regional country with hegemonic aspirations in the previously Ottoman ruled areas, underpinned by Davutoglu's *Strategic Depth* doctrine.

Ahmet Davutoğlu was quite influential in the foreign policy making process of AKP administration since the beginning he also held the positions of minister of foreign affairs and prime minister in AKP administrations. Davutoğlu envisioned more active Turkey especially in the previously Ottoman ruled regions. He argues that Turkey has the capacity to contribute to regional and global peace and stability (Davutoğlu, 2008: 79-82). Turkey's geographical position is another asset that contributes to its soft power capacity and leadership abilities. According to Davutoğlu, Turkey is positioned in such a way that it is unique and central for Afro-Eurasian region (Davutoğlu, 2008: 78). For a country at such a position, it would be impossible to adopt a unilateral identity and constrain its potential, Davutoğlu argues. Turkey, as a central country, is expected to be an active, to embody a leadership potential and to be attractive thanks to its model (Murinson, 2006: 953). For this purpose, his Strategic Depth doctrine imagined proactive rather than reactionary and passive foreign policy perspective. Turkey should participate more in the regional developments and use its soft power (Davutoğlu, 2012: 2-3). It is clear that Davutoglu's doctrine relies on soft power capacities such as shared ideas, Ottoman heritage, and common culture. In this sense, it would not be wrong to argue that his doctrine gives credit to consent, legitimacy and acceptance dimensions of the Turkish hegemony in the region.

Turkey's Middle East policy under the AKP administration, nevertheless, has not been immune to international and regional developments, which had many pitfalls since 2002 and the hegemonic aspirations of AKP administration in the Middle East have reflected both the domestic and the regional struggles, conflicts, tensions. In this context, the Middle East policy of AKP administration is examined through the conceptualization of rise and fall of hegemonic attraction in the region, namely the rise and fall of a hegemon. In the following sections, how Turkey's hegemonic assets are formed and what have been the founding pillars of Turkey's hegemony are examined. Then Turkey's will to project and the ways Turkish elites preferred to utilize these assets into hegemonic credibility is discussed. Lastly, the developments at international, regional and domestic level which have had impact on Turkey's hegemonic credibility and their outcomes are elaborated on. For this purpose, within a constructivist framework, the assets which shaped the power capacities of Turkey, elements that has impact on the will of AKP administration to be a hegemon, developments that contributed and undermined the credibility of Turkish leadership and acceptance of Turkish image at regional level relied upon the concept of consent are examined.

2.1. The Turkish Experience: Building Hegemony in a Soft Way

Changes in the regional and international level should not be underestimated when analyzing a power which has limited capacities like Turkey; and Turkey's hegemonic assets in the Middle East have been

positively influenced by the changes in the international and regional context during AKP administration. The primary element, in this context, is the policies of United States which became the sole superpower after the end of Cold War. The September 11 attacks had caused a sharp reorientation in US foreign policy in the Middle East. Combatting against terrorism rose top at the policy agenda. With the emerging need for a partner to cooperate in regional affairs, therefore, it would not be misleading to argue that US regional politics were complying with the AKP administration's regional politics during this period (Yeşilyurt ve Akdevelioğlu, 2009).

Secondly, that Turkey started accession talks with European Union for the membership was another development which clearly contributed to the rise of AKP administration as an example in the region. The attention of the regional actors was turned to Turkey, when the reforms started to be implemented, which is quite an important development and has helped Turkey to shine its old image (Kirişçi, 2006: 87-95). Overall, it was significant for firstly, it helped to refute the clash of civilizations discourse. Secondly, it showed "the Turkish experience", an Islamist background administration managing to implement political reforms and democratic principles, could be applicable in the region as well. To illustrate, Turkey under AKP rule was thought as a country which could brought together the Islamic principles and democracy, human rights, freedom (Fuller, 2004: 51). Parallel to that, that an Islamist party comes to power with democratic elections was a remarkable development in the region. Turkey, with its strong economy, democratic and modern institutions, indicated the possibility that a Muslim country and an Islamic background administration could manage the reforms and take its place among the Western countries (Jung, 2005).

Regarding to the part of domestic affairs' impact, one should look at the determinants of policy making. Balcı and Miş argue that Turkey's foreign policy activism is a derivation of domestic policy struggles and in a way, a legitimation effort for the AKP government inside. They describe this legitimation effort as "non-confrontational and consensus-seeking" policy formulation (Balcı & Miş, 2008), and its extension in the foreign policy level is reflected by Davutoğlu's principle of "zero problem policy".

Despite the prevalence of appealing shared understandings for Turkey to be hegemon with soft power, there should also exists a self-understanding of hegemony, in other words, a will for projection of this capacity. To be able to interpret the self-definition of AKP administration, it would be substantially revealing to focus on national role conceptualizations of leaders. For national role conceptualizations are quite a reflective of leaders' views on their countries' position and orientation in the international system (Bozdağlıoğlu, 2012). Furthermore, it has more explanatory potential thanks to its comprehensive perspective on material and ideational aspects of foreign policy, that is to say, it provides a link between the material capacities and how these material capacities are projected via leader's worldviews. Against this backdrop, elaborating on the foreign policy roles adopted by elites would shed light on the policy activism and hegemonic aspirations of Turkey under AKP administrations and the roles adopted by elites during this period are the *axis country*, the *leader country*, the *model country* and the *facilitator-mediator* (Mengüaslan, 2016: 118).

With regards to credibility of Turkish image and AKP administration's performance of the projection of soft power capacities in the Middle East and international system overall, this period can be argued to witness remarkable developments which were quite distinct compared to previous administrations. Firstly, Turkey participated actively in the Alliance of Civilization initiative with Spain. Being a partner of such an international level initiative was quite a strengthening move for Turkish image, for it not only put the idea of cooperation of civilizations on a solid ground but also opened a new way for Turkish image and showed Turkey's leadership capacity (Balcı & Miş, 2008). Parallel to that, Turkey's enthusiasm for holding the non-permanent membership position (2009-2010) in United Nations Security Council should be mentioned here, as well. The arguments proposed by Turkish elites (Gül, 2007) was, in line with Turkey's regional policy perspective and were significant in the sense of underlying the possible contributions under Turkish leadership to the solution of problems before regional stability and cooperation, also remarkable in the sense of heralding Turkey's activism.

Looking at the way Turkey involved in regional developments in this period, one can reach a conclusion that Turkey under AKP administration would not isolate itself and refrain from taking

actions. In this sense, the situation of post-invasion Iraq was one of the issues to which Turkey could not be indifferent. Firstly, it was closely related to the domestic Kurdish issue in Turkey and, secondly, with regards to the rebuilding process of such a regional actor, Iraq was highly important an issue that Turkish policy makers could not opt out of (Park, 2003). In this sense, Turkey spent great efforts in issues related to Iraq and actively participated in the organization of a meeting of Iraq's neighbors in İstanbul in 2007 (Davutoğlu, 2008: 82-83); which was also significant because of its aim to institutionalize the relations between Iraq's neighbors.

The other side of Iraq issue was related to Turkish-US relations. The conflicting interests had always a potential to create a divergence in relations and the parliamentary rejection against the use of İncirlik base by the US for operations in Iraq was quite striking and resulted in straining relations (Arı, 2006: 133-135); however, these two have been always strategic partners and managed to meet on common grounds. Turkey, in order not to miss a chance to be influential in the order to be built in post-invasion Iraq, quitted the conflicting attitude and sought for ways to compromise not before long (Park, 2012). On the other hand, it is also argued that Turkey's challenge against the US, a notorious power in the region, was considered as an act of independence, which would clearly be a break of from official Turkish image as an agent of West, and positively contributed to the reputation of Turkey in the region (Altunışık, 2008: 47-48; Fuller, 2004).

The most important result of the new pro-activist and compromising foreign policy was the improving relations with Syria. Turkish-Syrian relations had frequently tensioned throughout the years and enmity and distrust shaped the relations. However, the "zero problem policy" perspective is the best exemplified in Turkish-Syrian relations (Altunışık ve Tür, 2006; Davutoğlu, 2008). The recovering relations enabled Turkey to adopt a mediator role between Syria and Israel peace talks, which was highly related to improving image of Turkey (Hurriyet, *Syria, Israel launch peace talks under Turkey's auspices*, 21.05.2008). However, Turkey's mediator role could not last long due to the Israeli attacks on Gaza and "Mavi Marmara Incident".

The "zero problem policy", notwithstanding, could not be called as effectual in Turkish-Israeli relations in this period. Largely dependent upon conjectural developments may seem (Oğuzlu, 2010), Turkish-Israeli relations should be interpreted under the framework of precedence of foreign policy roles. While Turkey aimed to build its soft power capacity through good relations and spent effort to act as facilitator-mediator, it could be argued to seek for close relations with Israel; on the other hand, closely linked with Turkey's claims as protecting power of Palestine cause and parallel to Turkey's roles such as leader country and axis country, there were also times that tension and conflicts (most significantly the "One Minute Incident") dominated the mutual relations. On this context, the changes in the mutual relations appeared to reflect the nature of Turkey's flexible policy objectives.

Even though, Turkish-Iranian relations followed a constant path during AKP administration, it was a case which showed the limits of Turkey's hegemonic credibility. The position of Turkey in Iran's nuclear enrichment programme was supportive, while Western and regional countries' attitudes were skeptical (Barkey, 201: 146-147). Turkey sided with Iran and no matter how much effort it spent to convince Western powers about Iranian good will (especially in the UN), the result was not as Turkey expected and showed the limits of Turkey's weight in diverging issues with Western world. Parallel to that, Turkey's offers to Iran to mediate between Iran and West in nuclear deal was kindly rejected by Iran.

Overall, under AKP administration Turkey can be argued to give credit to build soft power capacities, with the help of conjectural developments such as contributory partnership with the US and the attractive membership process with EU. The domestic situation facilitated building a consensus seeking "zero problem policy" and improving relations with neighbors. In this period, Turkey's actions in the region helped to create a positive image in the region and strengthened its soft power capacities. However, with the eruption of sweeping political movements in the region, the credibility and hegemonic assets of Turkey can be argued to get seriously harmed.

2.2. The Decline of Hegemonic Credibility: the Arab Spring and a Tumultuous Region

With the beginning of regional turmoil in 2010, the things got complicated for Turkey which aspired to lead in the Middle East. The rising public demands for political reforms gained a transnational character and got spread to other countries. In a short time, most of the countries in the region had to deal with domestic oppositional movements and adopted various methods for mitigating the tumultuous developments, either via suppression and oppression or cooptation. Looking at the demands voiced and its bottom-up nature, the oppositional movements were called as the Arab Spring, and it was a real test for Turkey's credibility, which it just recently managed to ensure close relations and cooperation with regional countries, notably its neighbors.

As mentioned in the previous section, Turkey aimed to follow a zero problem policy with especially its neighbors and attempted to increase its prestige in both regional and international level. One of the underlying conditions for ensuring such a transformation of Turkey's regional outlook was the desecuritization of relations and promotion of the possibility of cooperation and stability under the leadership of Turkey; nevertheless, the unfolding of the Arab Spring, a highly political development which had potential to overthrow leaders and alter the political scene, broke all the plans and required an overall change in policy perspective swiftly and flexibly. Against this backdrop, the subject of this section is to evaluate Turkey's reactions to regional developments, and to examine to what extent Turkey was able to carry on its hegemonic credibility in the region.

With regards to the Arab Spring and Turkey's close economic and political relations with especially Syria, Egypt and Libya, Turkey experienced a difficult test owing to unpredicted and peculiar nature of each country's domestic nature and reactions to internal developments. Since Turkey's soft power depended on the promotion of democracy, its reactions during the Arab Spring created a straining effect because of the dilemma of pragmatism and credibility. For instance, Turkey preferred to stay passive, in the beginning, to the developments in Libya, and then decided to join the NATO operation. Similarly, it supported the democratic demands of opposition in Egypt and both President Erdoğan (*Turkish PM backs Egypt protesters* February 1, 2011) and Prime Minister Davutoğlu uttered the necessity of giving credit to democratic elections and public demands; and although having close relations with Syria, Turkey became one of the most ardent supporters of Bashar Assad's ousting from power in Syria (Öniş, 2014). At the last instance, however, its contradictory reactions to developments during the Arab Spring critically harmed its credibility in the region.

Nevertheless, the Syrian case should be elaborated on in the sense that it created a vicious circle for Turkey's policy in the region. As mentioned above, Turkey at all platforms uttered the essentiality of Assad's ousting for ensuring the stability and order in Syria. For this purpose, it supported the democratic demands of the opposition groups in Syria and imposed firm sanctions against Assad administration. However, from both domestic and international levels, it has been harshly criticized because of the fact that it got locked in the Syrian quagmire which created quite a negative image of Turkey and harmed its credibility at the regional level.

Another uncalled-for outcome of Syrian problem in Turkey's regional policy has been the allegations of Turkey's support to ISIL and El-Nusra, which led to the emergence of serious divergence between Turkey and the Western world. The immediate result of this was the decrease in the support of West, especially the EU, which was one of the main pillars of Turkey's credibility in the region.

Domestic policy struggles also played its part during this period and imposed limits on Turkey's credibility in the region. To illustrate, the distant and cooling attitudes between Turkey and EU, the slowing reform and democratization processes and politicized nature of problems led Turkish elites to reevaluate their policy orientation. Davutoğlu stated that after all, Turkey shifted to the "precious loneliness" status and transited to the "maximum cooperation policy" (Davutoğlu, 21.03.2013). In this sense, regional and domestic developments, especially region's changing political scene after the Arab Spring appeared to contribute to the constraining of hegemonic assets and credibility of Turkey.

3. Conclusion

In this study, within a constructivist framework, the rise and fall of the hegemonic assets and credibility of Turkey in the Middle East under AKP administration is aimed to be analyzed. For this purpose, the

transformation of founding pillars of Turkey's hegemony and its close link to international, regional and domestic developments, conflicts, tensions are examined.

During this period, Turkey is argued to have hegemonic aspirations inferred from the role conceptualizations such as axis country, center country, and model country. Turkey attempted to build soft power capacities in the previously Ottoman ruled regions and spent huge efforts to form a consent via shared understandings and common culture, its benevolent will as hegemon and its leadership potential to contribute to solutions for regional instability and disorder which are largely underpinned by Strategic Depth doctrine. Turkish elites, in this period, claimed that Turkey had the capacity coming from its Ottoman past, potential to integrate Islamic principles with democratic and free institutions; to some extent concluded successful efforts to strengthen its place among Western world and created attraction as a model for the region.

Not immune to changing international and regional context, Turkey, nevertheless, experienced pitfalls in projecting and utilizing its soft power capacities in the region. Despite having a successful record until the Arab Spring, Turkey appeared to have remarkable challenges against its hegemonic credibility emanating from various reasons. To illustrate, Altunışık argues that since Turkey was unable to solve its internal problems, which rendered desecuritization of relations with regional countries really difficult, seriously harmed the soft power capacities and required the use of hard power in highly politicized issues such as the issue of Kurdish population in northern Iraq. Secondly, since the path Turkish-EU relations followed was one of the founding pillars of Turkey's attraction and credibility in the region, deteriorating and diverging relations negatively contributed to the Turkish image in the region. Furthermore, the peculiar problems of the Middle East region such as the polarized and radicalized nature of affairs emerged as huge an obstacle which Turkey should always be prepared (Altunışık, 2008: 47-49). Similarly, according to Öniş, the Turkish model and experience, in other words Turkey's leadership capacity, fell short of ensuring the expected outcomes during the Arab Spring, especially in the Syrian and Egyptian examples (Öniş, 2014: 205-206). Instead, Turkey is argued to get locked in the regional quagmire by taking sides in the sectarian conflicts (Sunni-Shiite rivalry), applying for unilateral, bold moves in Syrian case.

To conclude, as Davutoglu stated Turkey had to shift to the status of "precious loneliness" or emerged as a lonely hegemon in the region, largely because of the falling credibility of its soft power capacities. Looking from the other side, a hegemonic projection which solely relied upon soft power and attraction and not complemented with hard power capacities appeared to have limits and fall short of ensuring the policy objectives. In this context, a hegemony project which is unable to create shared understandings, not supported with material capacities and fraught with contradictory social actions, would not have a long life span in a region like the Middle East that is always subject to outside effects, embodying highly politicized relations and abounded with weak state-society relationships.

4. References

- Ahmad, F. (1991). Politics and Islam in Modern Turkey. *Middle Eastern Studies*, 27 (1), 3-21.
- Aljazeera Newspaper. (2011, 1 February). Turkish PM backs Egypt protesters. *Aljazeera*. Retrieved from: <http://www.aljazeera.com/news/middleeast/2011/02/2011121115128839350.html>.
- Altunışık, M. B. (2008). The Possibilities and Limits of Turkey's Soft Power in the Middle East. *Insight Turkey*, 10 (2), 41-54.
- Altunışık, M. B. ve Tür, Ö. (2006). From Distant Neighbors to Partners? Changing Syrian-Turkish Relations. *Security Dialogue*, 37 (2), 229-248.
- Arı, T. (2006). Türkiye'nin Ortadoğu Politikası ve ABD ile İlişkileri: Politik İkilem. In Z. Dağı (Ed.), *Doğu'dan Batı'ya Dış Politika Ak Parti'li Yıllar* (pp. 115-140). Ankara: Orion Yayınevi.
- Balcı, A. & Miş, N. (2008). Turkey's Role in the Alliance of Civilizations: A New Perspective in Turkish Foreign Policy?. *Turkish Studies*, 9 (3), 387-406.
- Barkey. H. (2012). Turkish-Iranian Competition after the Arab Spring. *Survival*, 54 (6), 139-162.
- Bozdağlıoğlu, Y. (2012). Konstrüktivizm ve Rol Teorisi: Kimlik, Rol ve Dış Politika Analizi. In T. Arı (Ed.), *Uluslararası İlişkilerde Postmodern Analizler -1: Kimlik, Kültür, Güvenlik ve Dış Politika* (pp. 127-150). Bursa: MKM Yayıncılık.

- Bozdağlıoğlu, Y. (2013). Hegemonic (In)Stability Theory And US Foreign Policy: The Legacy of The Neocons In The Middle East. *Anadolu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 13 (3), 1-12.
- Cox, R. W. (1983). Gramsci, Hegemony and International Relations: An Essay in Method. *Millennium: Journal of International Studies*, 12 (2), 162-175.
- Daly, J. C. K. (2004, January 29). Erdogan and 'Conservative Democracy. *UPI*. Retrieved from: <http://www.upi.com/Erdogan-and-Conservative-Democracy/49051075413615/>.
- Davutoğlu, A. (2001). *Stratejik Derinlik*. İstanbul: Küre Yayınları / Stratejik Araştırmalar Dizisi.
- Davutoğlu, A. (2008). Turkey's Foreign Policy Vision: An Assessment of 2007. *Insight Turkey*, 10 (1), 77-96.
- Davutoğlu, A. (2012). Principles of Turkish Foreign Policy and Regional Political Structuring. *Turkish Policy Brief Series*. TEPAV.
- Davutoğlu, A. (2013, March 21). Zero Problems in a New Era. *Foreign Policy*. Retrieved from: <http://foreignpolicy.com/2013/03/21/zero-problems-in-a-new-era/>.
- Fuller, G. E. (2004). Turkey's Strategic Model: Myths and Realities. *The Washington Quarterly*, 27 (3), 51-64.
- Gilpin, R. (1981). *War and Change in World Politics*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Gilpin, R. (2001). *Global Political Economy*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Gül, A. (2007). Why is a non-permanent seat for Turkey at the United Nations Security Council important for herself, her region and the world?. *Turkish Policy Quarterly*, 6 (4).
- Gramsci, A. (1971). *Selection from the Prison Notebooks*. Edited and translated by Quintin Hoare and Geoffrey N. Smith. International Publishers, New York.
- Griffits, M. (2004). Beyond the Bush Doctrine: American Hegemony and World Order. *Australasian Journal of American Studies*, 23 (1), 63-76.
- Hurriyet Newspaper. (2008, 21 April). Syria, Israel launch peace talks under Turkey's auspices. *Hurriyet*. Retrieved from: <http://www.hurriyet.com.tr/syria-israel-launch-peace-talks-under-turkeys-auspices-8991018>.
- Jung, D. (2005). Turkey and Arab World: Historical Narratives and New Political Realities. *Mediterranean Politics*, 10 (1), 1-17.
- Keohane, R. O. (1984). *After Hegemony: Cooperation and Discord in the World Political Economy*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Kirişçi, K. (2006). Turkey's Foreign Policy in Turbulent Times. *Chaillot Paper*, No: 92. Institute for Security Studies.
- Murinson, A. (2006). The Strategic Depth Doctrine of Turkish Foreign Policy. *Middle Eastern Studies*, 42 (6), 945-964.
- Nye, J. S. (2002). *The Paradox of American Power: Why the World's Only Superpower Can't Go It Alone*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nye, J. S. (2004). *SOFT POWER: the Means to Success in World Politics*. New York: PublicAffairs.
- Oğuzlu, T. (2008). Middle Easternization of Turkey's Foreign Policy: Does Turkey Dissociate from the West?. *Turkish Studies*, 9 (1), 3-20.
- Oğuzlu, T. (2010). The Changing Dynamics of Turkey-Israel Relations: A Structural Realist Account. *Mediterranean Politics*, 15 (2), 273-288.
- Oniş, Z. (2014). "Turkey and the Arab Revolutions: Boundaries of Regional Power Influence in a Turbulent Middle East." *Mediterranean Politics*, 19 (2), 203-19.
- Park, B. (2003). Strategic Location, Political Dislocation: Turkey, The United States, and Northern Iraq. *Middle East Review of International Affairs*, 7 (2), 11-23.
- Park, B. (2012). Turkey, The US and The KRG: Moving Parts and The Geopolitical Realities. *Insight Turkey*, 14 (3), 109-125.
- Robins, P. (1991). Turkey and the Middle East. *Chatham House Papers*, The Royal Institute of International Affairs. London: Pinter Publishers.
- Vali, F. A. (1971). *Bridge across the Bosphorus: The Foreign Policy of Turkey*. The John Hopkins Press: Baltimore.
- Wendt, A. (1995). Constructing International Politics. *International Security*, 20 (1), 71-81.

The Lonely Hegemon

Yeşilyurt, N. ve Akdeveliođlu, A. (2009). Turkey's Middle East Policy Under JDP Rule. The *Turkish Yearbook of International Relations*, 40, 39-69.

An Assessment on the Mobbing Decisions of the Republic of Turkey Ombudsman Institution

Selda Çağlar

Introduction

The “mobbing” concept, which is the verb form of the word “*mob*”, which means rudeness that does not fit the laws and is associated with extreme violence in English. It has been derived from “*mobile vulgus*” in Latin, and expresses psychological violence, sieging, abuse, annoying or causing distress. The use of this concept in association with working life to mean “*psychological harassment at workplace*” and its inclusion in the scientific literature dates back to 1980s (Kazaz & Baymoldina, 2016, pp. 37-38; Committee on Equality of Opportunity for Women and Men Publishing, No: 6, 2011; 5-6; Karatuna & Gok, 2012:43).⁹ In the report on “*Safety and Health in Work Life*” prepared by Dr. Heinz Leymann in 1984, psychological terror or mobbing at work life was defined as “*a concept that contains constant hostile and immoral behaviors directed to another individual by one person or more people to make the individual become helpless and defenseless avoiding the rescue of the individual from this helpless state*” (Çukur, 2016, p. 4).

When mobbing is accepted as a phenomenon that disrupts the health, safety and peace of a workplace, it produces objective results. However, more important than this, mobbing is a phenomenon that has the capacity of violating more than one person at a time. Each mobbing case leads to violations of human rights in many fields like personality, honor, working and health; and in some cases, the violation of legal principles like bad treatment, ban on discrimination and equation may accompany. For this reason, mobbing has been prohibited in many domestic laws as well as in international laws, victims are protected with regulations in Criminal Law, Labor Law, Law of Obligations and Administrative Law; and the violations are made to face sanctions (Cobb, Esq. 2012: 8-24; Cukur, 2016: 39-104; Kazaz & Baymoldina, 2016: 43-48; Ergin, 2013: 61-79; Guerrero, 2014: 477-500).

However, legal protection for mobbing victims is not realized through mere legal regulations and judicial bodies. The Ombudsman has an important function in this field. However, it is necessary to consider that the Ombudsman Institution is a body that has to investigate the complaints and make suggestions about any types of acts of the administration¹⁰ within the limitations of the functioning of the public services in a manner that is based on the human rights and with a justice concept in terms of complying with the present laws and regulations (Eren, 2000; 88-91; Yıldırım, 2014: 200-201; Karci, 2015: 34-58), and it does not have the power of legal sanctions.

In this study, the complaints about *mobbing* (in some decisions the term “*harassment at work*” is used) made to the Ombudsman Institution of the Republic of Turkey released in the official website of the Institution have been examined; and the subjective assessments and interpretations of this

⁹ There is no consensus on this term even in the literature of English-speaking countries. The bullying at work cases are frequently referred as “employee abuse” or “workplace terrorism” in the United States of America. However, the specialists from the USA are also familiar with the expression “mobbing”, which is used in Germany, Italy and Sweden. In the United Kingdom, the term “workplace bullying” is preferred. See, Frank Lorho & Ulrich Hilp, European Parliament Directorate-General for Research Working Paper Bullying at Work, Social Affairs Series SOCI 108 EN, European Parliament L-2929 Luxembourg, 2001, p. 6.

¹⁰ In the Regulation of the Ombudsman Institution in Republic of Turkey, the term “administration” refers to the following units; public administrations under the jurisdiction of central government, social security institutions, local administrations and their associated units, local administration unions, circulating capital enterprises, funds established by laws, public law corporations, government business enterprises, institutions whose capital assets belong to the public more than fifty percent and the associated partnerships, public professional organizations, legal entities providing public service with private laws. See, The Ombudsman Institution Law - Law No: 6328, Date of Acceptance: 14/6/2012, Official Gazette: Date: 29/6/2012, Volume: 28338; and By Law on the Procedures and Principles regarding the Implementation of the Ombudsman Institution Law, article 3-e, Official Gazette, Date: 28.03.2013 Official Gazette, Volume: 28601 (Duplicate).

Institution, which acts as an additional channel to seek for rights, on these complaints, have been discussed in the context of human rights accompanied by the decisions of higher judicial bodies, relevant regulations and relevant doctrines.

1. The Common Method Practice of the Ombudsman Institution on Mobbing Complaints

The Ombudsman Institution (TOI) follows a common method in all applications and complaints about mobbing. In the initial assessment made under the heading of The Preliminary Review Process, the Institution firstly decides whether the application, no matter it is about mobbing or about any other issue- is within its jurisdiction or not, if the complainant has the condition of violation of interests, and if the complaints are made within the relevant deadline. Especially in mobbing complaints, the Institution does not seek the condition of “exhaustion of administrative remedies” provided that it is limited with the attitudes and behaviors of the administration (By Law on the Procedures and Principles regarding the Implementation of the Ombudsman Institution Law, artical 12/5)¹¹. It is considered that the waiver on the obligation of solving the mobbing complaints claimed to stem from the attitudes and behaviors of the administration by applying to an upper level administrative unit may be based on two basic reasons that are interrelated with each other:

1. The possibility of obtaining a positive result by complaining about the attitudes and behaviors of the administration to the same or upper level administrative unit is low.
2. Avoiding that the individuals, whose interests are harmed by these attitudes and behaviors and who are affected in a negative way, lose time with the administrative application processes, and to prevent that they receive more harm.

In all applications which are accepted after The Preliminary Review Process, TOI firstly examines the statements of authority (complainee) on complaint and the statements and claims of complainant on the subject , and then proceeds with the legal assessments. In the “Legal Assessment and Rationale” part, the Institution makes a decision by determining the relevant national and international regulations on the subject matter, concretizes the phenomena and states its justification in terms of laws, equality principles, human rights and good governance principles.

2. Assessment of “The Rule of Partial Recommendation and Partial Dismissal”

In the process between the date TOI started active duty on March 29, 2013 and late 2016, there are 4 dismissal decisions on the mobbing complaints declared to the public. When the text of the decisions is examined, it is observed that the proceedings/actions/attitudes and behaviors of the administration, which are claimed to cause mobbing, were tested to see whether these complaints had the conditions set by the high supreme courts (mostly Court of Cassation) accepted by documents and reports and by official institutions; in other words, it was tested whether they fit the official mobbing definition or not. According to the definition that is the basis in all decisions of TOI, mobbing is “*a phenomenon of the whole of the malicious, deliberate and negative attitudes and behaviors performed by one or more people at workplace against another person or persons continuing for a certain duration in a systematic manner, aiming to intimidate, passivize or make the employee resign from work, damaging the values, professional status, social relations or health of the victim(s)*”. This definition is made in terms of the attitudes and behaviors of the administration, and in case the proceedings of the administration are considered, it is explained with examples like *temporary assignment (changing the workplace), not assigning the tasks required by the profession (title), (not) assignment of the employee, not performing personal benefits, starting a discipline investigation* (Ministry of Labour and Social Security, 2014: 9-12; Committee on Equality of Opportunity for Women and Men, 2011; Court of Cassation 9. Criminal Chamber, B. 2010/38293, D. 2013/5390; Court of Cassation, Assembly of Civil Chamber, B. 2012/91925, D. 2013/1407; Court of Cassation 22. Civil Chamber, B: 2014/18743, D: 2014/24185).

¹¹ However, if the mobbing claim of the complainant is due to the actions and / or actions of the custodian, the TOI calls for the exhaustion of administrative remedies and expresses this as a precondition in "The Preliminary Review Process " section of the decision text.

In all applications, TOI has not limited itself with the classification of the complaints for all of the proceedings and attitudes of the administration as mobbing, and assessed all the phenomena and proceedings in terms of the definition and elements of mobbing handling them in the context of compliance with legal procedures. In the files rejected by TOI, it was stated that the events and phenomena did not reach the level of mobbing, or no information, finding or evidence was detected about the psychological harassment, and the relevant administrative proceedings complied with laws (Decision No: 2016/679, Date of Decision: 08/08/2016, para. 31; Decision No: 2016/592, Date of Decision: 25/07/2016, para. 46; Decision No: 2016/588, Date of Decision: 14/07/2016, para. 34-35; Decision No: 2014/1657, Date of Decision: 09/10/2014, para. 39, 40/D, 40/F).

In situations which were concluded by TOI as the conditions of complaint being not present but the proceedings and/or acts of the administration being against the law, it is observed that the Institution rejected these complaints in terms of mobbing, but the administrative proceedings were against the law, and therefore, the Institution made several recommendations. To illustrate these recommendations which bear the name *“The Rule of Partial Recommendation and Partial Dismissal”*, it is possible to mention that in one specific event, the Institution rejected an application claiming that the applicant was assigned to another unit without giving specific job definitions at the university he worked, he could not perform his duties because of not knowing to perform which duty under which branch of the university, and disciplinary proceeding was started for him, and he was given forfeiture of allowance, and these proceedings were against the law and were mobbing. The Institution rejected the application in terms of mobbing and made recommendations to the administration about the disciplinary punishment. In terms of mobbing, the claim was rejected with the justification *“the acts of the administration did not have the qualities like despising, belittling, being exposed to bad behavior, and therefore, no psychological pressure (mobbing) was applied on the applicant about the assignment, and the acts and proceedings against the complainant were not performed in a systematic, continuous and frequent manner”*. About the disciplinary punishment, the Institution concluded that *“the administration told to the complainant about the job definition of the complainant after the investigation started, and for this reason, evidence on disciplinary punishment had missing points, and when the fact that the disciplinary punishment given by the administration was considered in terms of compliance with legislation in force, the forfeiture of allowance as a disciplinary punishment given to the complainant did not comply with the laws..., the cancellation of disciplinary punishment could not be recommended by the Institution, but the administration might be advised to accept that it had acted in a wrongful manner and the act in question was against the law”* (Decision no: 2015/4226, Date of Decision: 25/01/2016, para. 23-25; for similar decisions, see; Decision No: 2015/4700, Date of Decision: 26/02/2016, para. 26-27; Decision No: 2015/5611, Date of Decision: 22/06/2016, para. 106-108).

Nearly all of the mobbing (psychological harassment) claims of the public servants investigated in this section stem from the *“hierarchical relations”* within the relevant institution. Actually, the hierarchical superior has the possibility of applying mobbing to subordinates about the civil service status, for example assignment-promotion, disciplinary punishment, changing the service place (through temporary assignment or transfer assignment), rejecting leave demands, giving orders to subordinates, and auditing their proceedings. However, according to the Council of State decisions, such proceedings that have the purpose of punishing the officer or keeping him/her away without caring for the requirements of the service and public benefit are assessed as psychological harassment. In case the conditions set in the regulation exist, the administration does not have the authority to punish the officer only by giving disciplinary punishment, and it does not have any other authorization (Kasapoglu Turhan, 2013:96-98; Guveyi, 2013: 1473-1477).

In the complaints that demanded the detection of incompliance to the laws in the proceedings of the administration, TOI has investigated the proceedings of the administration in terms of reason, subject matter and purpose as if it were an administrative court, and audited the complaint in question in terms of appreciative authority limits. If the proceedings of the administration complied with the laws, it rejected the application; and if the proceedings of the administration were against the law, but did not reach the level of mobbing in terms of the definition and elements of mobbing, in other words,

if the proceedings were individual ones, the application was rejected in terms of mobbing and the Institution made recommendations to the relevant administration about the proceedings.

3. Assessment in Terms of Recommendations

As of late 2016, the fact that among the decisions announced to the public, there is only 1 “recommendation” given by TOI on mobbing sets extreme limitations for us to make analyzes in this topic. We will try to overcome this limitation in the result section by assessing the “The Rule of Partial Recommendation and Partial Dismissal”.

In the one single application, the complainant stated that while he was on active duty in the Turkish Statistical Institute as a specialist, he was exposed to threats, despising, mobbing and similar acts in a planned and constant manner; and as a result, he had to resign from his/her post. The events and phenomena claimed by the complainant to be the bases for mobbing were briefly as follows; *Being addressed with humiliating statements by the Deputy Chairman of TSI (Turkish Statistical Institute), being threatened with punishments like banishment and disciplinary punishment; and after having received warning punishment after the investigation with the claim s/he did not obey the working hours, his/her 3 verbal and 2 written leave status demands were rejected by not answering within a 6-month period, being assigned to another unit 3 times despite knowing that s/he did not have the relevant experience, being assigned to Regional Management of TSI with Transposition Board decision although his assignment was made as a result of the exam taken by him/her to be assigned in central personnel cadre; then, being assigned in Labor Statistics Team in Economic Research Group although not having any experience, and resigning due to these reasons with the belief of not being able to perform his/her duty well and because of his/her ongoing education in Ankara.*

The response of the administration for these claims was as follows; *despite the tolerance of 30 minutes, the Complainant came to work late in a frequent manner, and for this reason, an investigation was started about him, and a punishment was given; he had the habit of receiving continuous medical reports for leave status, and when he requested leave, he had already completed his/her annual legal leave status; it was decided that the complainant was assigned to the Regional Management due to the necessity and upon the requirement of the Transposition Board; and the assignment of the Complainant in Labor Statistics Team was based on the need for a technical support in the Information Technologies Department.*

In the “Assessment and Justification on the Basis of Compliance with Laws and Equity” declared by TOI, it was determined that the Complainant did not have any problems with his/her institution for the past 5 years since he started his job, he received the right to become a specialist in the proficiency exam, did not have any previous disciplinary punishments, and most probably, the Institution did not find it usual that the Complainant started to come late to work and leave earlier than usual after that date, and therefore it investigated the warning punishment in detail. As a result of this investigation, *“the Complainant came to work late for 11 minutes on 13/05/2013, this situation was within the 30-minute tolerance limits, he left work 3 minutes late; on 27/05/2013 and 28/05/2013, he came to work 30 minutes late after the 30-minute tolerance; however, the Institution assessed his leaving work 20 minutes later as showing his goodwill, and found the decision of the administration to give warning punishment without considering the past services and his clean past status in terms of disciplinary punishment to be contrary to equality principles”.*

The Complainant not being given permission for leave status for 6 months was assessed as not having declared a concrete evidence for, which showed that the proceedings of the administration of such a big institution like Turkish Statistical Institution would be disrupted in case the Complainant was given leave status, in other words, the leave status not being given to the Complainant was not based on public benefit principle and was considered as contrary to the law. The Institution also decided that the transfer assignment could not be performed by the administration for the purpose of punishment with reference to the decision of Council of State (Council of State 5th Chamber, B. 1998/2342, D. 1999/853, Date: 07/04/1999). In this concrete event, it was declared that the Complainant was assigned to a different city not within the same region, which was against the Regulation of Turkish Statistical Institute Staff Assignment Through Transfer without completing the actual compulsory working period, and emphasized the statement of the administration “A. K., who was investigated and

given punishment due to being frequently late for work, was appointed to ... Regional Management upon the requirement of ...”, which showed that the appointment in question had the purpose of punishing, and as a result of all these events, the Complainant was exhausted in psychological context, his/her working motivation decreased, and eventually, the Complainant resigned from civil service.

It is possible to conclude the following results from the “Recommendation” of the Ombudsman Institution;

- It is against the usual flow of life that people who have relatively long past history in work-life at a certain institution having conflicting relations with their institutions after a certain time, and the complaint must be handled by considering the whole process together with all the events and phenomena.
- It must be considered whether the hierarchical superior who has his/her signature in the administrative proceedings that lead to mobbing complaint is the same person or not.
- It must be investigated whether the administrative proceeding is against the statements of the administration in the complaint, and it must be determined whether the same proceeding is applied to everybody in an objective manner.
- It will not suffice if the proceedings of the administration comply with the law, it must also obey the equality and goodwill principles as well.
- The administration may not use its hierarchical power and authorities for the purpose of punishing its employees.
- It is compulsory that the administration shows that it performs all of its acts and proceedings for the purpose of public benefit, and it must base these acts and proceedings on righteous justifications.

4. The Burden of Proof in Mobbing Applications

In administrative and judicial decisions in Turkey, the proof of mobbing claims with absolute evidence without doubt is not sought, and the existence of events and phenomena that recalls mobbing, in other words, the existence of simple doubt is considered sufficient. The reason for this is the fact that it is accepted extremely difficult to prove mobbing claims, and it is common to judge based on evidence that may be the presumption for mobbing (Bursa District Administrative Court, B. 2014/4053; D. 2014/3839, Date: 07/11/2014). In other words, it is sufficient if the Complainant puts forth the events that may be suspicious of considering mobbing at workplace together with findings and comments. In such a situation, the burden to prove that mobbing did not occur is up to the defendant (Court of Cassation 22nd Civil Chamber, B. 2013/693, D. 2013/30811, Date: 27/12/2013). Because, the borders of the burden of proof, which were forced, led to the search for new methods in law of procedure. Circumstantial evidence is the result of such an understanding. The proof will be accepted as accomplished with the result that will be achieved by considering the typical flow of events and experience rules (Ustundag, 1997: 622; Court of Cassation, Assembly of Civil Chambers, B. 2012/9-1925, D. 2013/1407, Date: 25.09.2013).

On the other hand, it is also sought that the events claimed to be mobbing by the complainant must be consistent, there must be witness statements, the personal rights and health must be under serious attack, and there must be a strong indication like resignation (Court of Cassation 9th Civil Chamber, B. 2007/9154, D. 2008/13307, Date: 30.5.2008; Court of Cassation 7th Civil Chamber, B. 2014/14808, D. 2015/131, Date: 20.01.2015; Court of Cassation 9th Civil Chamber, B. 2008/22535, D. 2010/7225, Date: 18/03/2010). Although seeking the condition of personal rights being under serious attack seems to contradict with the “circumstantial evidence”, this may not produce negative results for the burden of proof on behalf of the complainant since personal rights are defined in a broad sense in such decisions. However, it must also be considered that there are several judicial decisions which accept that “*there is no need for **serious**¹² violation of personal rights for the existence of mobbing, unjust treatment in terms of personal rights is sufficient; it is also sufficient if the complainant claims the phenomena that will arouse doubts for mobbing at workplace; and the defendant has to prove that there was*

¹² This is our emphasis.

no mobbing at the workplace” (Court of Cassation 22nd Civil Chamber, B. 2013/693 D. 2013/30811, Date: 27/12/2013; Court of Cassation 22nd Civil Chamber, B. 2014/2157, D. 2014/3434, Date: 21/02/2014). However, even in such decisions, in case the mobbing claims are not proven without doubts in a convincing manner by the complainant, generally the claim for damages is rejected (Court of Cassation 7th Civil Chamber, B. 2015/37812, D. 2016/6073, Date: 10.03.2016)¹³.

TOI seeks the existence of findings or documents that support the mobbing phenomenon, which is also the case in Court of Cassation and Council of State. The information and findings of the Complainant set forth to prove his/her claims, and the explanations of the administration to refute these claims are assessed as a whole, and the mobbing claim is accepted to be proven with findings and proof like witness statements, medical reports, resignation, and the belief that administration performed proceedings for the purpose of punishment.

In case no information, finding and evidence are detected about the psychological harassment applied to the applicant of the Complaint, and in case the applicant cannot document and prove mobbing, the mobbing complaints are either rejected or partly rejected (Sample Decision: The Ombudsman Institution; Complaint no: 2015/4226, Date of Decision: 25/01/2016, para. 21). The Ombudsman Institution, which does not consider being exposed to unjust and unequal treatment or to authoritarian attitudes of the managers at workplace as mobbing, and accepts that some unjust, unpleasant or unethical treatments of the administration cannot be accepted as mobbing unless they end up with an unbearable situation or complete resignation although they cause distress for the complainants, shows that the Institution follows the Higher Judicial Jurisprudence (Complaint no: 2015/4226, Date of Decision: 25/01/2016, para. 21; Complaint no: 2015/4700, Date of Decision: 26/02/2016, para. 25; In the same direction; Court of Cassation 22nd Civil Chamber, B: 2014/18743, D: 2014/24185, Date: 16/09/2014). In other words, TOI seeks for the condition of violation of personal rights by any repetitive bad treatment, behavior, arguments and conflicts, and does not consider the negative attitudes, behaviors, arguments and conflicts that do not have continuity and that happen only once as mobbing in case no other proof is submitted (Decision no: 2016/588, Date of Decision: 14/07/2016, para. 34).

Based on these data, it may be concluded that the Ombudsman Institution gives a rejection or partly rejection decision in mobbing complaints when no information, finding, and evidence are detected in the file and when the applicant cannot submit any proof showing psychological harassment applied to the him/her (Sample decision; Decision no: 2015/4226, Date of Decision: 25/01/2016, para. 21).

Result

Mobbing (psychological harassment) is not a phenomenon with a legal definition in the Turkish Legal System. It is mentioned as a concept in the Code of Obligations (Item 417). It is stated that the employees have to take precautions; however, the definition and the elements are not mentioned (Centel, 2012: 22-24; Altun, M., Sayer, A., Barutçu, A., 2017:521-522). It is not included even as a concept in the Labor Law and in the administrative regulations. For this reason, it is necessary to refer to the doctrine and jurisprudence to define the meaning and scope of mobbing. This is why the Ombudsman Institution of the Republic of Turkey assesses the mobbing complaints according to the meaning and content defined by official reports, Higher Judicial Jurisprudence and to the doctrine. We, too, have to make our assessments on the mobbing decisions of the Ombudsman Institution in a comparative manner with similar jurisprudence.

¹³ It is possible to argue that there is a consensus both in national and foreign court decisions on the conclusion that being authoritarian for a manager will not mean mobbing alone (The Decisions of Berlin, District Labor Court, 15.07.2004 T., E. 16 Sa. 2280/03 and Schleswig-Holstein District Labor Court, 01.04.2004 T., 3 Sa. 542/03) [29], Narrator: <http://bianet.org/bianet/yasam/145643-is-hukukunda-yeni-bir-kavram-mobbing5>; Court of Cassation 9th Civil Chamber, B. 2010/38293, D. 2013/5390, Date: 12/02/2013; Complaint no: 2016/679, Date of Decision: 08/08/2016, para. 26).

Since the Ombudsman Institution has been active for only 4 years, and there are few applications¹⁴, it does not seem possible to claim that the jurisprudence of this Institution on mobbing are settled (especially in terms of recommendations). However, it has been observed that this Institution cares for a certain stability in all decision-making processes, bases its decisions on official institutional texts and on the jurisprudence of other judicial bodies in terms of the definitions and elements, the legal assessments of it are made by considering nearly all the regulations and international agreements; it works with the sensitivity and methodology of an administrative jurisdiction body when there are claims about incompliance/contradiction to law in the administrative proceedings, and establishes its decisions on convincing, detailed and sound justifications.

When the decisions of the Ombudsman Institution given in mobbing complaints are analyzed, it is necessary to consider that this Institution is not a judicial body, it has limited authorization and duty definitions, it does not have any sanctions other than deciding on the determination and termination of the mobbing in question, which is different from the mythology of the judicial justice (especially Court of Cassation) that may demand material and moral indemnities, and for this reason, this Institution investigates the events and phenomena in question in terms of compliance to laws and equity principles as well as conformability, and it has to make decisions on administrative proceedings as well as the mobbing claims.

On the other hand, when the fact that there is a difference in the viewpoints and assessments on mobbing between its own departments of Court of Cassation is considered, the Ombudsman Institution cannot be expected to decide in line with the decision of the Court of Cassation or Council of State. As a matter of fact, TOI seems to have adopted a different assessment method perhaps between the departments of Court of Cassation seeking the condition of serious attack to personal rights to lessen the load in favor of the victim in terms of burden of proof. Because since the mobbing claims in judicial justice demand material and moral indemnities, Court of Cassation has to consider both parties of the claim in terms of rights and obligations and make them come to an agreement, the Ombudsman Institution has to determine the incompliance of the administration to the laws, and protect the employee against the administration that is in a powerful position.

As it is observed clearly in the “dismissal” and “the rule of partial recommendation and partial dismissal” decisions, provided that TOI decided based on the whole of the file that the conditions of mobbing were not met in the proceedings, acts and attitudes of the administration; the Institution did not only hold the administration responsible for burden of proof, but also derived proof and conclusions from the declaration and proceedings of the administration. If the proceedings of the administration complied with the laws, it rejected the mobbing complaints, and if the proceedings of the administration did not reach the level of mobbing in terms of definition and relevant factors despite being contrary to the laws, in other words, if the proceedings were individual proceedings, or if these proceedings did not have the purpose of despising and punishing, it rejected the application in terms of mobbing, but made recommendations about the administrative proceedings to the relevant administration.

Until now, TOI has given only one “recommendation”; and in this recommendation, it accepted that it was not adequate to perform proceedings in compliance with laws, and the administration also had to obey the equality and goodwill rules. It also pointed out that the administration was not allowed to use the hierarchical power and authority for the purpose of punishing its employees; and considered it compulsory for the administration to show that it performs all the proceedings for the benefit of public and explains its acts with legal and righteous justifications. In other words, the Institution interpreted the findings showing that the administration did not justify its acts and proceedings with

¹⁴ This situation is not different for judicial institutions. Only 236 out of 665.248 business lawsuits that were brought to Court of Cassation between 2006-2015 were related with mobbing. In the majority of these, there are no mental anguish demands. Similarly, 221 out of 492.422 business lawsuits that were brought to Court of Cassation between 2010-2015 were related with mobbing, and only 54 of these demanded mental anguish. 43 of these 54 cases in which mental anguish was demanded due to mobbing were rejected because the claims were not proven. Ahmet Taskin (2016), *Workplace and Mobbing in terms of Labor Law*, Yetkin Publishing, ISBN 978-605-05-0070-7, Preface.

legal and righteous reasons in favor of the complainant and against the administration; and found it sufficient that the proceedings had a systematic character applied against the complainant. Nor did the administration expect the complainant to prove that his/her personal rights were damaged seriously; and accepted the resignation as a sufficient unjust treatment.

Bibliography

Altun, M., Sayer, A., Barutçu, A. (2017). Yargı Kararları, Kamu Görevlileri Etik Kurulu Kararları ve İlgili Mevzuat Perspektifinde İşyerinde Psikolojik Taciz (Mobbing) [Psychological harassment in Workplace (Mobbing) within Judicial Decisions, Decisions of The Council of Ethics For Public Services and Perspective of Relevant Legislation], *TBB Dergisi [Union of Turkish Bar Associations Review]* (128), 511-544.

Bursa District Administrative Court, B. 2014/4053, D. 2014/3839, Date: 07/11/2014

Centel, T. (2012), İşyerindeki Psikolojik Tacizin Hukuki Boyutu [Legal Dimension of Psychological Harassment at Workplace], 20-33, içinde 2012 Uluslararası İşyerinde Psikolojik Taciz Kongresi [2012 International Psychological Harassment at Workplace Congress], Chief Editor: Emine Sonal, Bilinder Publishing, İzmir.

Cobb, E. P. Esq. (2012), Workplace Bullying: A Global Health and Safety Issue, Senior Regulatory & Legal Analyst, The Isosceles Group Boston, MA United States of America.

Commission on Equality of Opportunity for Women and Men (2011), Psychological Harassment at Workplace (Mobbing) and Solution Proposals, Commission Report, TBMM Printing Office, Ankara, URL: <http://www.tbmm.gov.tr/komisyon/kefe/index.htm>

Council of State, 5th Chamber, B. 1998/2342, D. 1999/853, Date. 07/04/1999

Court of Cassation 22nd Civil Chamber, B. 2013/693, D. 2013/30811, Date:27/12/2013

Court of Cassation 22nd Civil Chamber, B. 2014/18743, D. 2014/24185, Date:16/09/2014

Court of Cassation 22nd Civil Chamber, B. 2014/2157, D. 2014/3434, Date:21/02/2014

Court of Cassation 7nd Civil Chamber, B. 2015/37812, D. 2016/6073, Date: 10.03.2016

Court of Cassation 7th Civil Chamber, B. 2014/14808, D. 2015/131, Date:20.01.2015

Court of Cassation 7th Civil Chamber, B. 2015/37812, D. 2016/6073, Date:10.03.2016

Court of Cassation 9th Civil Chamber, B. 2007/9154, D. 2008/13307, Date:30.5.2008

Court of Cassation 9th Civil Chamber, B. 2008/22535, D. 2010/7225, Date:18/03/2010

Court of Cassation 9th Civil Chamber, B. 2010/38293, D. 2013/5390, Date: 12/02/2013

Çalışma ve Sosyal Güvenlik Bakanlığı [Ministry of Labour and Social Security] (2014). İşyerlerinde Psikolojik Taciz (Mobbing) Bilgilendirme Rehberi [Guidance on Psychological Harassment (Mobbing) in Workplaces], Özel Matbaası 2. Baskı, Ankara.

Cukur, C. (2016), Türk Hukukunda ve Karşılaştırmalı Hukukta İşyerinde Psikolojik Taciz [Psychological Harassment at Workplace in Turkish Law and in Comparative Law] Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi Araştırma Hizmetleri Başkanlığı [Grand National Assembly of Turkey, Department of Research Services], Yayın No: 9 [Publishing No: 9], TBMM Basımevi [TBMM Printing Office].

Erdogan, G. (2012), İşyerinde Psikolojik Taciz (Mobbing) Davranışlarının Hukuksal Açısından Değerlendirilmesi [Analyzing Psychological Harassment at Workplace (Mobbing) in terms of Law], 90-128, içinde , 2012 Uluslararası İşyerinde Psikolojik Taciz Kongresi [2012 International Psychological Harassment at Workplace Congress], Chief Editor: Emine Sonal, Bilinder Publishing, İzmir.

Eren, H. (2000), Ombudsman Kurumu [The Ombudsman Institution], AUEHFD, IV (1-2). 79-96.

Ergin, H. (2013), Avrupa Hukukunda İşyerinde Psikolojik Taciz [Psychological Harassment at Workplace in European Law], içinde Çalışma Hayatında Psikolojik Taciz (Mobbing) Panel ve Çalıştay Bildiriler Kitabı [Psychological Harassment (Mobbing) in Work-life Panel and Workshop, Book of Proceedings], Compiled by: İsmail Akgun, Ozyurt Printing Office, 61-79 ISBN: 978-975-455-200-3. Retrived at May 7, 2017, From https://www.csgb.gov.tr/media/2076/mobbing_2013.pdf (7.5.2017)

Guerrero, M. I. S. (2014), The Development of Moral Harassment (or Mobbing) Law in Sweden and France as a Step Towards EU Legislation, *Boston College International & Comparative Law Review*, 27 (2), Boston College, 477-500.

https://www.bc.edu/content/dam/files/schools/law/lawreviews/journals/bcicl/27_2/10_FMS.htm
(15.9.2017)

Guveyi, U. (2013), Memur Disiplin Hukukunda Mobbing [Mobbing in Disciplinary Law of Civil Servants], Gazi Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesi Dergisi [Gazi University Faculty of Law Review] XVII (1-2), 1455-1481.

Karatuna, I. & Gok, S. (2012), Yükseköğretimde Psikolojik Taciz Konulu Araştırmalar Üzerine Bir İnceleme [An Examination of the Studies Conducted on Psychological Harassment in Higher Education], 41-60, içinde 2012 Uluslararası İşyerinde Psikolojik Taciz Kongresi [2012 International Congress "Psychological Harassment at Workplace" April 19-20, Izmir-Turkey], Scientists Association, Chief Editor: Emine Sonal, Bilinder Publishing, Izmir.

Karcı, S. M. (2015), Ombudsman Tavsiye Kararları ve Türk Kamu Yönetiminde Uygulanabilme Sorunu [Ombudsman Recommendations and the Problem of Applicability in Turkish Public Administration], Ombudsman Akademik Dergisi [Journal of Turkish Ombudsman Institute] 1(2), The Ombudsman Institution, 34-58. ISSN: 2148-256X.

Kazaz, N. & Baymoldina, S. (2016), Mobbing in Work with Legal and Psychological Directions, International Refereed Scientific Journal Vision, 1(1).

Law 6328, The Ombudsman Institution Law, Date of Enactment: 14/6/2012, Official Gazette: Date: 29/6/2012, Number: 28338.

Lorho, F. & Hilp, U. (2001), European Parliament Directorate-General for Research Working Paper Bullying at Work, Social Affairs Series SOCI 108 EN, European Parliament L-2929 Luxembourg.

Odyakmaz, Z. (2015), 3. International Ombudsman Symposium September 16-17, 2015 Ankara, The Ombudsman Institution, Speech of Session Moderator, 31-33. Retrieved at May 9, 2017, from <https://www.ombudsman.gov.tr/contents/files/pdf/kdk-sempozyum-3.pdf>

R.T. The Ombudsman Institution, Complaint No: 2014/1657, Decision Date: 09/10/2014

R.T. The Ombudsman Institution, Complaint No: 2015/4226, Decision Date: 25/01/2016

R.T. The Ombudsman Institution, Complaint No: 2015/4700, Decision Date: 26/02/2016

R.T. The Ombudsman Institution, Complaint No: 2015/5611, Decision Date: 22/06/2016

R.T. The Ombudsman Institution, Complaint No: 2016/588, Decision Date: 14/07/2016.

R.T. The Ombudsman Institution, Complaint No: 2016/592, Decision Date: 25/07/2016

R.T. The Ombudsman Institution, Complaint No: 2016/679, Decision Date: 08/08/2016

Regulation on the Method and Principles on the application of the Ombudsman Institution Law, Official Gazette, Date: 28.03.2013; Official Gazette, Number: 28601 (Duplicate).

Taskin, A. (2016), İş Hukuku Açısından İşyeri ve Mobbing [Workplace and Mobbing in terms of Labor Law], Yetkin Yayınevi. ISBN 978-605-05-0070-7.

Turhan, K. M. (2013), Kamu Görevlileri Bakımından İşyerinde Psikolojik Taciz (Mobbing) ve Hukuki Korunma Yolları [Psychological Harassment at Workplace (Mobbing) in terms of Civil Servants and Legal Protective Measures], *TBB Dergisi [Union of Turkish Bar Associations Review]* (105), 89-128.

Ustundag, S. (1997), Medenî Yargılama Hukuku [Law of Civil Procedures], Altıncı Baskı. C: I-II, AlfaYayıncıları, İstanbul.

Yıldırım, A. (2014), The Journal of Academic Social Science, (2- 2/2), 197-217.

Portraits From The National Economic Policies Of The Union And Progress Party

A. Baran DURAL

In the social division of labor established by the state itself during the Rise of Ottoman Empire, the religious state bureaucracy was generally regarded as an area where the Turks gathered. The basic obligation of the military and bureaucratic state system was left to the elites of Balkan nation and the prominent people of Timariot, depending on their condition of being Muslim and being raised as Devshirmes. Since Suleiman the Magnificent ("Kanuni") did not require a national market to work in harmony with the capitalist market economy, civil and military bureaucracy was collected from Muslim/Muslimized (Christian-Jewish) people. Since military and management art was a valid lucre to be among the elite professions and the ruling classes, Muslims who occupied these positions were called "*Dominant Nation*". In a giant empire based on the conquest economy, trade was neither a prestigious nor a vital element. Turkish Anatolian villagers already performed agricultural production (Kodaman, 1991: p. 190-191).

Introduction: Brief Economic Structure of the Ottoman Empire

As it was not welcomed for the citizens to work in the democracy of Athens during the Ancient Greek period, the minorities chose the way to fill the gap left to them in the state structure by engaging in trade that Turks and Muslims did not take kindly, as well as by performing their part of the agricultural production, from the Rise of Ottoman Empire to the midst of the Stagnation Period. "Until the mid-19th Century all the banking affairs in the Empire, were in the power of Jews, Armenians and Greeks called Galata banker. As Canyas who says "They dominated money-credit market for centuries by giving loans to government, palace, and provincial governor and by regulating money transfers, especially the transfer of the tax revenues in the Ottoman Empire" stated (Canyas: p. 5680), the minority bourgeoisie had fulfilled being the function of "assistant device" for the elites of state executives until the 1840s. By all means the minority's specialization in the trade and money economy over time and their evolving into a basic class (minority bourgeoisie), were not initially a result of either a sneaky riot operation conducted against Turks or an "enmity towards Turks" that was asserted to be driven by these minority elements. Until capitalist market mechanisms gained the key position of global domination in the Age of Dual Revolutions and the Ottoman Empire fell behind the capitalist world due to its structural features, the dominance of minorities in the trade and banking affairs did not attract Turk and Islamic elements. This was because the position of Muslims was higher than that of non-Muslims in the field of public law in the Ottoman Empire.

However, conditions would begin to change from the middle of the 18th century. In the late 17th century, when it was noticed that "conquest and holy war" economy followed by the Ottoman Empire had come to a dead end, prominent political leaders would start to think about administrative and financial reforms that would recover the country again. Due to a sense of "conquest and holy war" that was followed for centuries, "military units" would be selected as elements to be handled first. The question, "How Can Turkey Be Rescued?" that determined the agenda of the country by the end of the 19th century, indicated that the Ottoman Empire could not be resolved by conservative reforms or touches upon right and left sides of the state. The Period of Union and Progress organized under the active cooperation of military and civil bureaucracy in the Ottoman Empire was representing the last "liberation" opportunity for the empire.

When it came into power, the priority issue for the Party of Union and Progress was to abolish the capitulations. Yet in May 1913, in other words in the Supervisory Power of the Party of Union and Progress, Grand Vizier Hakki Pasha demanded a meeting in order to increase customs duties to 15 percent, to close foreign post offices and to make foreigners an income taxpayer and to abolish the capitulations, via a note sent to England. The step that was taken in the Supervisory Power but that was rejected by England with the support of other great powers was actually just the beginning. Indeed,

The Party of Union and Progress¹⁵ that abolished the capitulations unilaterally by making Sultan to sign a royal decree on 18 September 1914 (Türkmen: p. 339-340), would perform an intensive struggle to actualize this practice, which was not accepted even by ally Germany at the beginning, on the international platform until 1917.

In conclusion, “Being young, being educated, coming from ruling classes, being a Turk or defending Political Turkism and bourgeois mentality” considered among the general characteristics of the staff of Union and Progress (Akşin, 1998: p. 46-47), covers the basic motives that started the bourgeois democratic revolution in Turkey. These staff, most of who have a little bourgeois mentality and who were trained in Western modern educational institutions, cannot be regarded and passed over as a simple “*interim period*” during the transition from Empire to Republic as some people claim. It may be more appropriate to define this period as a reference point moving Ottoman administrative reforms to Turkish Republic and/or as a “*foreword*” of Republic, in the Turkish modernization that started with Tanzimat.

The Milestone of the Young Turk Finance Unionist Cavit Bey

Cavit Bey, who would not leave from the Party of Union and Progress he joined in 1907 until his death (1874-1936), wore an ordeal by assuming the almost permanent position of Finance Ministry during The Young Turk Revolution. Cavit Bey, who was appointed as a clerk for the Administration in Secondary School (Rusdiye) under the Ministry of Education (Maarif Nezareti) in 1899, taught “Science of Wealth and Financial Procedure (Ilmi Servet- Usulu Maliye)” in the School of Male Teachers (Darilmuallim). Having returned to Thessaloniki under the influence of political events in 1902, Cavit Bey became a director at Fevziyye School that continues its activities today (Tuncer, 2004: p. 5-6) .

His political life that started in Ottoman Liberty Society and Masonic lodge of Thessaloniki, gained a new dimension upon the merger of the Ottoman Liberty Society with the Party of Union and Progress in 1907, and then he was appointed as lecturer for Political Economics and Statistics lessons in the faculty of political sciences (Mektebi Mulkiye) having returned to Istanbul after the revolution. Cavit Bey, who served as a deputy of Thessaloniki and Canakkale during three periods of the Ottoman Constitutional parliaments, rose to the leading staff of the Party of Union and Progress during the period 1916-1917. Cavit Bey, who became one of the leading names of the political wing of the party with his efforts like Talat Pasha (he is suggested to be the second name with Kara Kemal after Talat Pasha), was known for his defense of liberal politics (Islamic Encyclopedia-VII, 1993: p. 175) . Cavit Bey, who served as the Finance Minister in Huseyin Hilmi Pasha and Ibrahim Hakki Pasha Cabinets respectively, was in charge of the Ministry of Public Affairs for Sait Pasha’s government in 1912. The famous financier would be in charge of the Ministry of Internal Affairs and the Ministry of Maritime Affairs by proxy, in the absence of Talat and Cemal Pasha in this period.

Cavit Bey, who supported France in the triangle of Germany-France-England competing to take the lion’s share from the Ottoman market (Aydemir-II, 2006: p. 512), noted that the capital was required for development and the capital needed by the Ottoman Empire could be obtained from only abroad under the current circumstances. Cavit Bey, who did not miss the imperialist qualities of the capitulations, emphasized that the national capital should be strengthened and it should be dominated over the domestic market by pointing that these three states exploited the Ottoman Empire through foreign investors. Cavit Bey, who was among the founders of the Crédit National Ottoman that commenced operations for strengthening the Ottoman citizen private enterprise in 1917 together with Kara Kemal, was appointed again to the Ministry of Finance upon the bringing of Talat Pasha to the Prime Ministry. (Tuncer: p. 8-9)

From Liberal Economy to National Recovery

M. Cavit Bey, who defended “Freedom of Occupation (Meslek-i Serbesti)” in other words who was an economist at the Manchester School of liberal doctrine, complained that liberalism he was believing

¹⁵ The official procedure was completed with the notification of Said Halim Pasha’s Unionist Government informing all relevant embassies that effective date of the royal decree had been determined as 1 October 1914.

that it was dominating entirely in Europe for a century could not succeed in anywhere and anytime. According to Cavit Bey, who reminded that socialists did not approve the views on the impunity of private property of the liberal philosophy violated by socialism seeking the leadership of the working class, the factors motivating laborers to work would disappear in a system in which property is removed completely or partially (Çavdar, 1992: p. 83). Cavit Bey said, "Humanity is progressing to freedom, not autocracy. Effort seems to be the first basic idea of personal benefit in making self-sacrifice to others everywhere" (Cavit Bey, 2001: p. 50-55).

In the period of Cavit Bey, who underlined that progress in the agricultural development could only be achieved by improving the situation of the peasantry, the Anatolian and Rumelian villagers were supported for the provision of the seed wheat. He was arguing that Turkey having no big industrial establishments, should accumulate capital and it should be supported by a development program based on agriculture while providing accumulation. Cavit Bey, who reminded that the return of art, commerce and agriculture could be calculated through the possibilities, supported a sense of industry giving priority to the products of which raw materials grow inside. Thinker explained the ways of the economic solutions that the Party of Union and Progress would adopt as follows:

"We will not chase a dream by following excessive career; the truth, we will try to follow the things that are only true and produce them. We wish the opening of factories for the goods of which raw materials are manufactured in our country. But we will be in opposition surely to the enterprise, since we will avoid from planting some industrial seeds that will not grow in these lands for a long and long time, and from the people's putting our source to useless expenses" (Cavit -Suayip- Tefvik, 1906: p. 1-2).

Cavit Bey, opposing the capitulations strongly since he could not accept the intervention of foreign states to the Ottoman's internal affairs, predicted that an economic partition period, which the conditions of the liberal market economy would govern as soon as The World War I was over, would start. In a sense, Cavit Bey who felt "globalization and the world's re-sharing system" between World War II, was proposing that capital, factories and farms should be made ready in order to go to economic war preparedly.

Finance Policies of Cavit Bey

The views of Cavit Bey, who pointed out the importance of extending the banking sector and directing the capital distribution by the domestic banking sector, about borrowing and taxation relations are as follows:

"According to Cavit Bey, states have to apply to either the taxation or the borrowing to meet their needs. However, the tax is required to pay the debt in the future. In other words, the final source of income is tax. Borrowing means to leave a burden that can be already tolerated to next generations, and to spread the expenses for an urgent need to many years. The governments have the right to borrow on one condition that goods and services inherited from their predecessors are left to the successors exceedingly. ..There is a direct relationship between borrowing and taxation. It should be taken into account when attempting to borrow and an essential borrowing should be allowed. In taxation, incomes are increased by conducting businesses and the increase could be made permanent" (Eroğlu, 2002: p. 177).

Cavit Bey, who emphasized the importance of the operation of the market under its own circumstances and opposed to any protectionism on the one side, could not admit even his belief that the bourgeoisie growing in the country should be made up of domestic capital owners, would mean a serious intervention in the market economy. Cavit Bey, shifted from the free market economy to the minimum intervention of the state, from there up to the non-intervention of the state on the shaping of the economic structure "if possible", did not give up his goal of independent economic structure, although he contradicted himself; in other words, he preferred independence instead of "economy book". Having said that political power should clear the way for a free enterprise instead of dealing with trade, while Cavit Bey was repeating his known views of liberalism against protection (Cavit: p. 270-276), gave up "ideal liberal politics" in the Period of Union and Progress and followed national economic policies. The Finance Minister, who was one of the first performers of the "balanced budget

and hard money” policies in which sensitiveness was followed by especially Ismet Inonu after the Kemalist Revolution, reported that keeping tax rates constituting the fundamental of the budget at the small-middle level would increase incomes. The points underlined by Cavit Bey, who addressed the parliament during the budget negotiations in 1909, can be summarized as follows:

“Cavit Bey said that ... Members of parliament will allow the money, which will be spent on the general services of the state for the first time in six hundred years, to be collected under the name of taxation; the national financial sovereignty is based on all the main sovereignties; having a full Treasury means dominating everything; the greatest weapon of the management of constitutional monarchy and autocracy is the financial weapon but they abuse their weapon... ::The reasons for the revolts in the history of revolution in all contemporary states are financial problems and privileges as in our country; there is always receiving party on the one side but the minority giving nothing in return; on the other side there is always giving party but receiving nothing in return, the poor nation community! ;the first ones continue their existence in a shameless, faceless world of debauchery” (Tuncer: p. 18) .

In a sense, when liberal economic policies in the Ottoman Empire are considered effective in 1908-1918 and the fact that the Ottoman Empire that was in search of strange “modernization without bourgeois” went both economic and financial bankruptcy in that period, it tightened the Party of Union and Progress. Mehmet Cavit Bey, who is shown as a strict follower of Sakizli Ohannes Pasha, has the characteristic of being the first Unionist entering the Ottoman cabinet as a continuation of liberal politics. It is important that Cavit Bey, who resigned from the position of the ministry after protesting the “*secret participation*” in World War I, continued maintaining his organic integrity with the party and became an effective name in the field of finance of The Party of Union and Progress.

Having pointed out that transferring technical information and bringing specialists from foreign countries were importance, Cavit Bey requested technical staff by applying to the Japanese government during the period of his Ministry (Zurcher, 2012: p. 188), and as a loyal Ottoman citizen, he could understand the protective, conservative and economic policies of the Party of Union and Progress pursuant to the emerging conditions. Cavit Bey was able to work with Kara Kemal in a political movement where Ziya Gokalp was a dominant theoretician, and he could keep control of civil leadership with Talat Pasha and Kara Kemal.

However, Finance Minister Mehmet Cavit Bey came to a tremendous ending. Having stayed abroad during the National Struggle and gathered his old friends who lived around Europe twice in Rome, continued his support of France. Having attempted to establish a pro-French government in Istanbul, Cavit Bey attracted Ankara government because of his dominance of economic issues. He participated in Lausanne negotiations on behalf of Turkey as “financial consultant”. (Sarihan-IV, 1992: p. 154-155) Having returned to home with the signing of the Treaty of Lausanne, although Cavit Bey wanted to stay out of active politics, he could not achieve this due to the Unionist “spirit of solidarity”. When it was learned that Cavit Bey, who rose to the position of the leader of the Party of Union and Progress in Turkey together with Kara Kemal Bey due to the deaths of the leading unionists and their disarrangements, chaired a meeting with his Unionist Companions, the Kemalist leadership followed him closely. Since the assassination of Izmir was used for silencing the Unionist opposition in the country and political conspiracy, Cavit Bey who would be arrested, was sentenced to death, even though there was no strong evidence against him in the court. He was executed by hanging pursuant to his punishment on 26 July 1926 (Çalışlar, 2010). According to Akyol, who wrote a critical article against the sense of justice of the Independent Courts after years from his death, if Cavit Bey had not been executed, most likely he would have been the Finance Minister for ten years later. (Akyol: p. 2010)

The Organizational Power of “Little Master:” Kara Kemal

On the eve of constitutional monarchy II, just like Talat Bey, Kara Kemal (Ahmet Kemal Bey), who was an officer in postal administration, stepped towards the civil service by being the postmaster’s clerk. Having met with Talat Bey during his civil service in the postal administrations of Istanbul, Edirne, Serez, Kastamonu and Izmir, Kara Kemal’s dependence on Talat Pasha (later on) would continue until the triple leadership had to leave the country. Kara Kemal, who would become one of the first five

names of the civil wing of the Party of Union and Progress with the support of Talat Pasha, was paying attention to live in the public, especially small -scale retailers, and trying to feel the pulse of lower-middle class by spending time in coffee houses where the small -scale retailers gathered up. Kara Kemal Bey, who witnessed the discussions on the low-level daily politics in the small -scale retailer coffee houses where he had traditionally visited as he liked to smoke hookah, was trying to attribute the small -scale retailers in coffee houses to a party by considering responsible professional small -scale retailers as the starting point of the establishment of the local bourgeoisie of which absence was felt in Turkey.

The party was thus taking concrete steps to break the congregational type organization that constitutes an obstacle for organization within the framework of capitalist market relations and establishment of social structure pursuant to nation and state. At the 1909 meeting where it was decided to solve the problem of development by taking European nations as an example, the leadership of the Party of Union and Progress assigned Kara Kemal to organize every small -scale retailer such as porter, boatman, coachman (a low-level independent employee who does not have a specific employer) and to increase the influence of the party on the civil society. With the activities of Kemal Bey, these sections would first turn into the Party of Union and Progress and then turn into the power of the Kemalist movement on the streets and mass base in cities (Tekeli&İlkin, 1977: p. 286) .

“National Consumption” founded by the Unionist leadership, including Kara Kemal in the same year, was a kind of national consumption union that was active in order to ensure that Muslim and Turkish producers find more buyers in the market. Kara Kemal Bey, who would rise to the responsibility of the party in Istanbul soon, was thinking of solving the problem of qualified and intermediate staff that would work in Turkish industrial facilities, through “apprenticeship course” he put into service in the capital city. Kemal Bey, asking the trainees following the night courses to work in the daytime and practice, took care to ensure that the selected children were from the needy circles around the streets. (Tanin, 1916) Kemal Bey, united Istanbul small -scale retailer under small -scale retailer organization, then divided this organization into 12 different branches according to the activity branches. As the branches expanded, the most productive six branches were turned into consumption cooperatives. The issue of regulation of national economic activities through cooperative formation that was pointed out by many important theorists especially Ethem Nejat, was transformed into act from intention by the corporation of the cooperatives established by Kara Kemal. Kemal Bey was conducting his studies in accordance with “*national economic policies*” which were carried out in “New Magazine” and “Economics Magazine”. Vural sums up a crucial role of Kemal Bey’s activities in the solution of the social base problem, which is of great importance for the Party of Union and Progress first and the Kemalist movement, with the following opinions from Toprak, as stated below:

Creating Middle Class from Small -Scale Retailers

This ‘middle class’ built by the state during the war, would create the economic base of the staff that would carry out the National Struggle in Anatolia. On the other hand, ‘public opinion’ was largely determined by the small -scale retailer. They would also reach power to control and check the government that was controlling small -scale retailer. Therefore, it is possible for the Unionist administration to continue its existence and power with dominating the market on the one hand, in other words the small -scale retailer organization. ... In particular, small -scale retailers of porter, coachman, bargeman and lighter man, bakery would soon be the power centers of the Party of Union and Progress” (Vural: p. 114-115) .

Talat Bey, who realized the organization ability of Kemal Bey, made Kemal Bey to be elected for the head office of the party in 1912, and he was taking return of this movement in Babiali Raid. Kemal Bey, who seized the Sirkeci Postal Administration, controlled all the domestic and international communication of the government to be overthrew. From this date, Talat Bey would use Kemal Bey in order to hold the civil wing’s head high against the military wing of the movement and not to be out of the way in events that affect the fate of the country closely. (Esatlı, 1975: p. 240-246) Talat Pasha, made a civilian pasha after a while, would be called “Great Master” and Kara Kemal Bey would be called “Little Master” in the Party of Union and Progress from after on.

When the wheat brought from Romania was offered to the public for the solution of wheat troubles in Istanbul during the war, it caused conflict between the government and the municipality, and then Kara Kemal would become a part of an activity and establish, "Special Trade Commission" for the regulation of Istanbul's Rationing. This organization drawing attention as the first example that the Party of Union and Progress undertook the execution of an actual economic business solved the basic consumption needs of the capital on the one hand while giving priority to the domestic small -scale retailer on the other hand. Vural's¹⁶ analysis enlightening this issue is as follows:

"Special Trade Commission" would purchase the basic necessities of military and civil part in Istanbul from the country and abroad and then sell them to state institutions and the public. For this purpose, an agreement was made with Anatolian merchants to bring goods from Konya, Ankara, Eskisehir, and Karaman to Istanbul with wagons. This situation, which is called 'wagon trade' and takes a great form of profiteering, could not be performed without the help of influential people. The need to bribe the person who would make it through this intermediation process increased the price of every commodity carried. Since Istanbul's business was mostly in the hands of the Greeks, the mills were seized on the possibility of enrichment of the Greek Mill Owners by stockpiling and the decision was announced by the mayor, Ismet Bey" (Vural: p. 184-185).

Social State Principle in the Institutionalization of Economic Life

However, the seizure of the mills here did not aim at expropriation in the general sense. Agreements were signed with the Greek merchant mill owners, Greek millers gave the daily flour to the municipality due to the agreement, and the municipality distributed it to the bakeries and delivered the bread to the people for 60 kuruş. All this activity was carried out under the control of Kara Kemal Bey. Nevertheless, as a result of facing new objections to this circulation, first, "Directorate of Rationing" was established under the supervision of Ministry of National Defense, and after this public institution failed, Talat Pasha gave the task of providing rationing to Kara Kemal Bey and his colleagues again. "Ministry of Supply" was established with the emerging of new Ministry in the cabinet on July 30, 1918, at this time Talat Pasha assigned Kara Kemal Bey, being regulated the rationing from the back of the stage until that day, for the Ministry of Supply. (Doğru, 2009: p. 12-16)

A budget of 5 million liras was allocated in favor of the Ministry of Supply and all the means except for the necessities of the army in transportation were reserved for the use of the Ministry. The Ministry of Supply would take over tithe over the price to be calculated together with The Ministry of Finance, while producers would be obliged to provide product as much as tithe to The Ministry of Supply. The Minister of Supply of Kara Kemal, who was unable to achieve many goals with the end of the war, represented the functioning face of the Party of Union and Progress in line with social state principles. However, for this reason, Doğru commented on the efforts of Ministry of Supply's such as:

"25 soup kitchens were opened for this purpose and it was proposed to open soup kitchens of the Ministry of Supply in places where Kızılay has no soup kitchens. Furthermore, subsidized food distribution made it possible for civil servants to meet their needs, such as clothes and shoes" (Doğru: p. 14).

However, the life of the Ministry of Supply ended with the withdrawal of the Party of Union and Progress from the government, and it was decided to establish the General Directorate of Rationing after abolished the Ministry investigated by the research commissions established during the reign of Ahmet Tevfik Pasha. Kara Kemal Bey's Milli Mahsulat, Milli Mensucat, Milli İthalat Companies and National Development Bank were seized. (Alp, p. 2015)

The vitality actualized by Kara Kemal on economic life became determinant in particular within the context of the war conditions and the National Development Bank, which provided only the citizens of the Ottoman Empire to buy stocks providing loan to Muslim and Turkish entrepreneurs, was put into service by the Party of Union and Progress. In a comment published in the world newspaper regarding Ottoman National Credit Bank that was established through Kara Kemal Bey and later merged with İş

¹⁶ Vural's views are also mentioned in the works of Sertel- Yedek quoted in this article. (yn)

Bankası; it was stated regarding the importance given to the ideas of banking, loaning and economic independence by the Party of Union and Progress can be summarized as:

“The efforts for establishing a central bank based on domestic capital were finalized by the establishment of the “Ottoman National Credit Bank, based on Imperial Decree (the order of the Sultan) on 11 March 1917. Ottoman National Credit Bank was established in Istanbul with capital of 4 million Ottoman Liras. The Bank was designated and authorized to carry out all kinds of banking operations, as well as public works such as railway, highway, passage, canal, port, draining swamp and land irrigation, to participate in or otherwise to support the capital of national companies for the development of agriculture, trade and industry. Likewise, the bank was granted the right to carry out state-owned financial affairs and to keep the money, escrows, bonds and stocks of the public in custody without violating Ottoman Bank law”(Dünya, 2013) .

As a result of Kara Kemal Bey’s policy to transform the small -scale retailer organizations into cooperatives and cooperatives into companies that were operating under market conditions; “Milli Mahsulat Anonim Şirketi” was opened on 23 August 1915, “Milli İthalat Kantariye Anonim Şirketi”, “Milli Ekmekçiler Anonim Şirketi” and “Milli Mensucat Anonim Şirketi” were opened on in 1916. (Alp: 2015) According to a record dated 1918 and kept by the Ottoman Empire, the number of companies founded by the support of the state during the war is given as 98. The financial problem of these companies, also known as “Kara Kemal companies”, was provided by the profit of the companies established earlier in the same way. (Tekeli- İlkin, 2000: p. 1164-1165) Sertel-Yedek, reminds that The Ministry of Supply failed to regulate the economic structure and social distribution mechanisms, notes that the Party of Union and Progress took one last step to regulate the market with the impact of the economic downturn doubled towards the end of the war as:

“The Economics Council was established with 24 members, including permanent members and appointed members together with appointed members Ziya Gokalp and Kara Kemal Bey under the Presidency of Trade and Agriculture Minister in 1917. The Economics Council adopted the intervention of the state to the economy, not the free economy model in the majority during the first meeting they held”, points out that Kara Kemal Bey, who was relegated to Malta during the Armistice period, tried to revive the companies he established within the national economic policy after his escape to İstanbul” (Sertel&Yedek, 2015: p.290-292).

Conclusion: The Development Problem from the Party of Union and Progress to the Republic

Upon returning from Malta, Kara Kemal, who was organized based on local organizations in Uskudar, Beylerbeyi, Beykoz, Kavaklar, Bogazici in the form of a solidarity and protection organization among the Unionists who were left without leader in the country during Armistice period, would soon turn the organization into a secret resistance organization. Kara Kemal Bey, who activated famous “Karakol Society” for the armistice period, would start contributing to the national independence struggle as of November 1918 (Aysal, 2007: p. 532).

On the other hand, before finished mentioning about Kara Kemal it will be appropriate to draw attention to the constitutional analysis of the Constitutional Monarchy II and Young Turk Revolution, and a different debate on the death of Kara Kemal Bey. According to this view, the social groups, which appeared in the revolt that took place in Anatolia against heavy taxation in 1904-1905, had also clear impact as much as military and civil bureaucracy in the Young Turk Revolution. (Koçal, 2013: p. 246, 354) In this context, Kocal who reminds that the Party of Union and Progress had established a class alliance with small -scale retailers-tradesmen-small/medium local bourgeoisie and some landowners in Anatolia as in Rumelia raises the following speculative theory regarding the nature of the historical block from Union to Kemalism.

Cavit Bey and Kara Kemal were men of thought and action from two different economic schools. The main problem that brought these two names together was the hope of offering an answer to the dilemma, “How can Turkey be saved?” Just like Ethem Nejat who would be the second man of the Communist Party of Turkey, Yusuf Akcura and Ziya Gokalp who had very different nationalist theses in social engineering, secularism and Islamic separatism and even Celal Bayar who went between moderate statism and liberalism, Cavit and Kara Kemal Bey were also revolving in a desperate effort to

keep Ottoman Empire alive. However, the First World War that would rule history decree and declare the end of the age of empires would not have a privilege to the Ottoman Empire. Especially Cavit Bey and Kara Kemal, struggles, ideas and discussions of the Unionist leadership, would be dragged from the Ottoman Empire to Kemalist independence struggle and from there to the new Republic of Turkey. Apparently, as long as Turkey continues its search for development, Unionist leadership and the thesis of the it's economic leaders will continue to be discussed.

References:

- Akyol, Taha (2010). İstiklal Mahkemeleri'nin Adaleti: Cavit Beyin İdamı [The Justice Vision of Freedom Courts: Execution of Cavit Bey]. <http://www.milliyet.com.tr/cavit-bey-in-idami/taha-akyol/siyaset/siyasyazardetay/25.10.2010/1305703/default.htm>. Retrieved: 14-03-2017.
- Akşin, Sina (1998). *Jön Türkler ve İttihat Terakki* [Young Turks and İttihat Terakki]. Ankara: İmge
- Alp, Soner (2015). İttihatçıların Kara Kutusu İaşe Nazı Ahmet Kemal Bey [The Black Box of Unionists: Kara Kemal Beg]. <http://www.cihanharbi.com/ittihatcilarin-kara-kutusu-iaşe-naziri-ahmed-kemal-bey/>. Retrieved: 10-03-2017.
- Aysal, Necdet (2007). Çöküşten Mütarekeye Osmanlı'da Haber Alma [Intelligence Activities from Collapse Era till the Armistice. Atatürk Yolu s. 40. Ankara AÜ İnkılap Tarihi Enstitüsü.
- Canyaş, F. Orkunt (2014). Osmanlı İmparatorluğunun Son Döneminde Bürokratik Elitin Modernleşme Çabaları ve Misyonerlik Faaliyetleri [The Modernization Attempts and Missionary Assults of the Burocratic Elites at the Collapse Era of the Ottomans]. *Journal of Yaşar University*. İzmir: Yaşar Üniversitesi.
- Cavit, Mehmet & Şuayip, Ahmet & Tevfik, Rıza (1906). Mukaddime ve Program [The Programme]. *Ulumu İktisadiye İçtimaiye Dergisi c:1*.
- Cavit, Mehmet (2001). *İktisat İlmi* [The Science of Economics]. Ankara: Liberte.
- ÇALIŞLAR, Oral (2010). Asılan Cavit Beyin Oğlu Şiar Yalçın [The Son of Executed Cavit Bey: Şiar Yalçın]. <http://www.radikal.com.tr/yazarlar/oral-calilar/asilan-cavit-beyin-oglu-siar-yalcin-1025067/>. Retrieved: 14-03-2017.
- Çavdar, Tevfik (1992): *Türkiye'de Liberalizm (1863-1990)* [Liberalism in Turkey (1863-1990)]. Ankara: İmge.
- Dinçaslan, Mehmet (2012). Osmanlı Devletinin Kapitalistleşme Sürecinde Farklı İki Aydın Portresi: Ziya Gökalp ve Mehmed Cavit Bey [Two Different Intellectual Portraits from the Capitalization Process of Ottoman State: Ziya Gökalp and Mehmed Cavit Bey]. *Ekonomi Bilimleri Dergisi c:4 No: 2*.
- Doğru, Cem (2009). Birinci Dünya Savaşı Döneminde Ekonomide Bir Kurumsallaşma Çabası. İaşe Nezareti [Ministry of Supply as an Institutionalization Effort During the I. World War]. *Namık Kemal Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, s. 4*. Tekirdağ: Namık Kemal Üniversitesi SBE.
- Eroğlu, Nazmi (2002). Mehmed Cahit Bey'in İktisadi Görüşleri [The Economic Thoughts of Mehmet Cavit Beg] ataturkilkeleri.istanbul.edu.tr/wp-content/uploads/2013/03/ydta-02-eroglu.pdf. Retrieved: 13-03-2017.
- Esatlı, Mustafa Ragıp (1975). *İttihat ve Terakki* [Progress and Union]. İstanbul: Hürriyet.
- Koçal, Vedat A. (2013), II. Meşrutiyet'ten Cumhuriyete Türkiye'de Otoriter Yönetim Geleneğinin Sosyo- Ekonomik Kökleri [The Roots of Authoritarianism in Turkey: From Second Constitutional Era to Republic]. *Niğde Üniversitesi İİBF Dergisi c:6 s.2*. Niğde: Niğde Üniversitesi.
- Kodaman, Bayram (2006). "II. Meşrutiyet Dönemi (1908-1914) [The Second Constitutional Era (1908-1914)], *Türkler c. XII* [Turks- XII]. Ankara.
- Sarıhan, Zeki (1992). *Kurtuluş Savaşı Günlüğü- IV* [The Dairy of the National Struggle- IV]. Ankara: TTK.
- Sertel, Savaş- Yedek, Şahin (2015). İttihat ve Terakki'nin Küçük Efendisi: İaşe Nazırı Kara Kemal Beyin Hayatı ve Faaliyetleri [The Life and Efforts of the "Little Master" of Progress and Union Kara Kemal]. *Tarih Okulu Dergisi y: 8 s. XXIV*. İzmir: TOD.
- Tekeli, İlhan & İlkin, Selim (2000). Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nun I. Dünya Savaşı'ndaki Ekonomik Düzenlemeler İçinde İaşe Nezareti ve Kara Kemal Beyin Yeri [Supply Ministry and the Place of Kara

- Kemal within the Regulations of Ottomans' Economic System during the I. World War]. *XXII. Türk Tarih Kongresi Ayrıbasım*. Ankara: TTK.
- Tekeli, İlhan & İlkin, Selim (1977). Kör Ali İhsan Bey ve Temsili Meslek Programı [Kör Ali İhsan Beg and Representation of Professions Program]. *Atatürk Dönemi Ekonomik ve Toplumsal Sorunlar (1923-1938)*. İstanbul: İktisadi Ticari Bilimler Yayınları.
- Tuncer, Polat (2004). İttihatçı Cavit Bey (Liberal Mazlum) [The Persecuted Unionist Cavit Beg]. *Liberal Düşünce Bahar 2004*. Ankara: Liberal Düşünce.
- Vural, Mithat Kadri (2016). Savaş Yıllarında Milli Burjuvazi Oluşturma Çabası Olarak "Harp Zenginleri" ve Buna Yönelik Eleştirileri [War Richies and Attempts Towards Building a National Bourgeois Class Within the War Years: Harsh Criticisms]. *Çağdaş Türkiye Tarihi Araştırmaları Dergisi XVI/32*. İzmir: TC 9 Eylül.
- Zürcher, Eric J. (2012). *Modernleşen Türkiye'nin Tarihi [The History of Modern Turkey]*. İstanbul: İletişim.
- _____ (2013). Osmanlı İtibar-ı Milli Bankası- İş Bankası Birleşmesi [The Unification of Osmanlı İtibar-I Milli Bank and İş Bankası]. <http://www.dunya.com/gundem/osmanli-itibar-i-milli-bankasi-turkiye-is-bankasi-birlesmesi-haberi-198838>. Retrieved: 12-03-2017.
- _____ (1993). M. Cavit Bey [M. Cavit Beg]. *İslam Ansiklopedisi c. VII*. İstanbul: Türkiye Diyanet Vakfı.
- _____ (1916), *Tanin gazetesi Ekim 1916*. İstanbul: Tanin.

Sustainable Ecotourism Possibilities in Çanakkale Area

Rüştü Ilgar

1. Introduction

Tourism, which is effective in the protection and development of environmental elements, helping social and cultural progress, is developing as an important service sector, but it also has an aspect which pollutes the physical environment (Polat and Önder, 2006). Unplanned urbanization, which has emerged in parallel with the rapid population growth and migration, causes the damage of the texture that exists in the center and the destruction of history, nature, cultural values which are the raw materials of tourism (Kurter, 2007). Parallel to rapid economic, political, technological developments and changes in the world, important changes have also been observed in tourism consumption patterns in recent years. There is a decline in the participation in luxury tourism movements; there is a tendency to move away from conventional tourism centers, even if just a bit. Therefore, the changes in both the tourist profile and consumption habits cause new concepts like 'Eco-Tourism', which anticipate the conservation of natural, cultural environment and its balanced utilization, to emerge. The concept of ecotourism, which has developed in 1990's, includes elements of rural and cultural tourism elements and is stated as the most appropriate type of tourism that can be developed in sensitive natural and cultural areas. Ecotourism is seen as an important tool in ensuring sustainable development (Avcıkurt, 2003, Arslan, 2000) against the destruction caused by the uncontrolled mass tourism movement on the environment and society. Ecotourism has begun to be considered as a new approach in terms of increasing the incomes of the people in the rural areas and reducing the rural-urban income gap, preventing migration from rural areas to cities and improvement of the living conditions of people living in rural areas (Campbell, 1999). Long-term effects of ecotourism; to protect the natural environment and to develop the awareness of its protection; on one hand to protect the activities of local people based on farming, on the other hand, to ensure their sustainability by providing additional income. Ecotourism protects natural areas in terms of including the local community, encouraging environmental education and generating income (Demir and Çevirgen, 2006). Indeed, it can be said that the ecotourism activity applied in a certain region represents both a tourism concept that preserves plant diversity, region characteristics and cultural heritage in the region and also enables the local people in the region to maintain their socio-economic conditions. (Türker and Aydın, 2010). In rural area; In areas where natural and historical attractions are at a certain level, it is aimed to develop alternative tourism activities by directing population, whose main economic occupation is agriculture, to do small tourism business by providing accommodation to visitors along with carrying out agricultural activities (Akşit, 2007; Yürük, 2003).

The data about the emergence of the concept of ecotourism for the first time is different. The term ecotourism was first used by Kenton Miller in 1978 (Rahemtulla & Wellstead, 2001, Yilmaz, 2005). At the beginning of the 1980's this concept was introduced by Lascurain. This concept has been described as trip made to enjoy uncorrupted natural areas with specific scientific purposes and scenic views, wild life and natural plant cover (Blamey 2001). The World Fund for Nature (WWF), who has made one of the remarkable definitions of ecotourism, describes ecotourism as follows: The type of tourism which has the least impact on the natural environment around the wild nature and which is economically beneficial to local communities (Yücel, 2002). At the "World Ecotourism Summit" in 2002, a common definition adopted by all countries was determined. According to this, ecotourism has been adopted as "an approach or attitude to secure the sustainability of the natural resources of the earth, as well as supporting the economic development of the indigenous people besides protecting the social and cultural integrity of them" (Yürük, 2002, www.novitas.com, 2008).

Ecotourism has a sustainable tourism character in the context of assessing natural and cultural resources, which are intended for nature (Weaver, 1999). While ecotourism contributes positively to the promotion of natural and cultural areas with rare features, the income that is earned from visitors can be used for the protection of the private area as well as the elements and these areas become the center of attraction (Akıllı, 2004). Ecotourism activities provide the continuity of environmental

resources while meeting the physical and sensory needs of tourists (Altıparmak, 2002). As a matter of fact, the essence of ecotourism is a tourism approach which is conscious in terms of the use of the natural environment, socially responsible and economically efficient (Hamele & Zimmer, 1989). Ecotourism activities include herborization in nature, nature photography, wildlife watching, farm life, mountain climbing, nature walk, rafting, camping etc. (Polat & Önder, 2006).

Tourism attractions are divided into two as natural and cultural attractions. Natural attractiveness can be divided into subclasses as follows: (Mountains, canyons, beaches, caves, volcanoes, fossil fields), climate (heat, precipitation, daylight), hydrology (lakes, rivers, waterfalls, hot waters), Wildlife (mammals, birds, insects), vegetation (forests, pasture areas), location (centrality, tip) (Yılmaz, 1999; Weaver & Opperman, 2000). Cultural tourism attractions are made up of tourism attractiveness with more sub-classes than natural resources such as place (prehistoric remains, historical places) or event (exhibition, fair, folkloric ceremonies). Tourism plays a big role in preserving, maintaining, assessing and promoting natural and cultural values. Turkey shows a great potential for ecotourism-oriented nature tourism with its natural, cultural values, authentic cultures and geological heritage. Ecotourism is an approach that is sensitive to environment and requires sustainability. Ecotourism is a good tool for the conservation and development of natural environment and cultural heritage when implemented with ecological management and planning.

World Tourism Organization is the international organization that directs, supports the tourism activities in the world and organizes the cooperation. The year 2002 was declared by the World Tourism Organization (WTO) and the United Nations Environment Program (UNEP) as "Ecotourism and Mountains Year". It has been prepared with such purposes as minimizing the adverse effects of tourism on socio-cultural and natural life, providing the development and consciousness of the region by contributing economically to the regions where natural and cultural resources are concentrated (Yücel, 2002). The fact that ecotourism has become increasingly important in areas with economic development potential had influence on the announcement of 2002 as *World Ecotourism Year*. At the same time, ecotourism's being a powerful tool for the conservation of the natural environment, if it is well planned, developed and managed, also played an important role (Erdoğan, 2003).

Ecotourism, which is carried out in order to discover nature in the world, has also become a current issue frequently in Turkey in recent years. The Ministry of Tourism sets out a policy aimed at spreading holidays in such a way to diversify tourism products and to reduce pressure on coastal areas and to distribute tourism socio-economic benefits to less developed regions. Many projects have been developed for this purpose. It is clear that Turkey is one of the most important tourism areas in the Mediterranean. When we look at Çanakkale as an ecotourism city, we see that its potential is very high. It has important advantages such as history, culture, diversity of nature. Çanakkale is a very rich province both in terms of natural beauties and historical beauties. It comes to the forefront in Ecotourism with its national parks, nature, sea, forests. In order for this richness of Çanakkale to be uncovered and presented to the tourists, it is necessary to make a successful presentation of the potential of our country and to market it in this context. However, it seems that we are not in a sufficient level to make use of this potential. For example, it is seen that thermal springs in Çanakkale are not equipped sufficiently. Çanakkale is a region of high potential for Ida Mountain nature tourism, a source of oxygen. It also has effect on herborization tourism with many plant species and its own species, which have an impact on. But it does not have enough importance.

Due to the fact that Dardanelles is the migration route of the migratory birds and fish between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean Sea, it becomes a scene of intense migration (Çalışkan and Tosunoğlu 2010). However, in province-wide the wetland areas are under the influence of adverse conditions (such as settlement, illegal hunting, grazing press, etc.) since no work has been carried out for protection.

As a result, Çanakkale is one of the provinces where ecotourism is potentially the most intense. Assessment of this potential and carrying out works appropriate for it are necessary for Çanakkale province.

Due to having approximately 8000 km long beaches, rich history and cultural heritage left from various civilizations and an extraordinary biodiversity because of its climatic diversity, it alone can be compared with an entire European continent. For example, about 420 bird species have been identified

in Turkey whereas 500 bird species all over Europe. In addition, about 9,000 of the 12,000 plant species identified in Europe are in our country. Turkey has a wealth of unrivaled levels compared to other countries in terms of natural asset such as mountains, forests, flatlands, springs, shores, lakes, rivers; flora and fauna, interesting geological formations such as caverns and canyons. The fact that Turkey is a developing country and most of the natural and rural cultural values are still alive points to the existence of a great potential for sustainable ecotourism in many regions of Turkey (TÜRSAB, 2002). These are; Blue Flag Project (in order to ensure that the general environmental standards are monitored in terms of adequate swimming water quality and beach / marina services), Atak Project (in order to correct infrastructure deficiencies and later define new coastal management methods), Belek Management Plan, Mountain-Nature Walking Project (Trekking), Yayla Touristic Project, River Touristic (Canoe-Rafting) Project, Bike Tour Route Determination-Improvement Project, Mounted Hiking Project, Cave Tourism Project, Sportive Fishing, Bird Observation (Ornithology), Botanic (Herborization) Project (Anonymous, 2009; Bakırcı, 2002; Çağatay et al. 2002).

The areas indicated in red on the world map below show areas where ecotourism can be done intensively. According to the map, the southern regions of Turkey are all shown in red. However, although Turkey is a very rich country with its natural geography, it cannot fully make use of this richness. Because almost all of our country is a paradise for ecotourism.

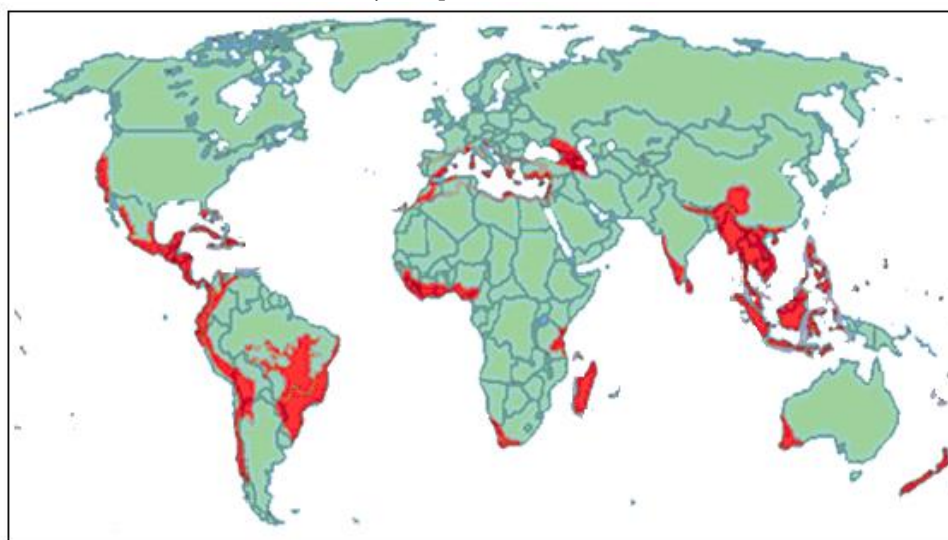


Figure 1: Areas of Ecotourism in The World

2. Method

Firstly the aim of the study is to investigate the positive and negative aspects of ecotourism from cultural, social and environmental aspects and to examine it in the direction of supportive and critical opinions by focusing on the meaning of ecotourism in Çanakkale region. Although the concept of ecotourism is not exactly a definition, in general it is a type of tourism which is "based on nature that ensures the sustainability of natural resources and which aims to know the local people, who have created a unique culture, as well as their culture as and supports the economic development of local people." Method: Various methods have been studied to determine the potential of the study area for ecotourism activities, review/research oriented method was used.

Çanakkale is established in the northwestern part of Turkey that separates Asia and Europe from each other and on two sides of the strait bearing its own name. The province covers an area of 9.933 km² between 25° 40' – 27° 30' eastern longitudes and 39° 27' – 40° 30' northern latitudes. A large part of the Çanakkale land is in the South Marmara Part of Marmara Region; a small area along the shore of Edremit Gulf is in the Aegean Region. The total coastline length of the city is 671 km. .

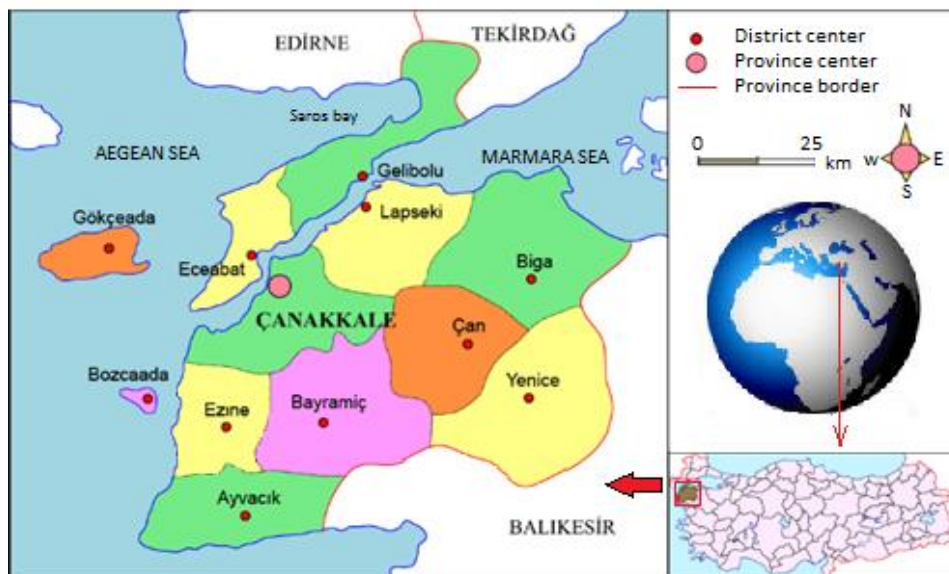


Figure 2: Location Map of Çanakkale

3. Findings

Elements of Natural and Cultural Attractiveness in Çanakkale, Dardanelles is important ecotourism area. Within the coastal section from Kumburnu to Melet stream, where the Çanakkale Strait is opened to the Aegean, four important regions have been declared by the Ministry of Tourism as "Tourism Area and Center" and the planning activities are continued to be carried out in these areas. (Özel 2004: 73-74). In the Aegean Sea, within the provincial border of Çanakkale, there are Gökçeada, Bozcaada and Tavşan Islands which are the biggest islands of Turkey. In the study, Gokceada and Bozcaada have been given a wide space due to their important tourism potential. Islands, seacoast, rivers and lakes, thermal springs and mineral springs, mountains and forest resting places constitute the natural attraction elements of Çanakkale. Çanakkale with Gökçeada, Bozcaada and Tavşan Islands coasts, is one of the provinces that has the longest coastline in Turkey. The total length of the coastline of Çanakkale Strait, one of the world's major waterways, is 671 km. This feature comes to the foreground as an important factor in the development of tourism and recreation opportunities in the city. However, when the coastal uses are examined, it is seen that this potential is not used properly and accurately (Doğan Gazetecilik 2005:270-269). Bay of strait (Canakkale, Karanlıkliman, Çam Burnu area) and Gökçeada, is an attractive region for scuba diving enthusiasts. There are sunken wrecks, remaining from the World War I, in Kuzu Port. Around Eşek Island, Orfoz and Karyer islands are very suitable for diving to see marine species. Mermer Burnu, Tuzburnu, Çanak Port, Bakla Taşı and Pınar Dere come to the forefront as the diving points of the island (Çanakkale Governorship 2004: 80-81). The coast between Yıldız Bay and Yelken Kaya have been allocated to the Turkish Marine Research Foundation (TUDAV) and Turkey's first "Underwater National Park" was established here in 1999 with the initiatives of the Foundation. "Gökçeada Marine Park", established for research, protection and education purposes, has 200 m. width and 1 mile length (Aydoğan 2002: 210). The deep history of the island, beautiful beaches, vineyards, pine groves, seafood, wine and fresh air attract more tourists every year (Çanakkale Governor's Office 2004: 82).

Gelibolu Peninsula has not been brought up to the forefront in terms of tourism investments due to the fact that the part of the peninsula that can be evaluated in terms of the coastal facilities is in the "Gelibolu Peninsula Historical National Park". Historical National Park of Gelibolu Peninsula: The area of the 33,000 hectares of the National Park, named after the Gelibolu Peninsula, was declared National Park in 1973 in order to protect the natural and cultural values as well as the traces and memories of the Gallipoli Wars, which are of great importance in terms of World War History.

In general war memorial and the marine sports of Saros Gulf coasts, which are important for fishing, may create demands in local and foreign tourism by being taken into consideration in terms of

underwater sportive fishing. In Saros, which is the favourite of divers due to its proximity to Istanbul, it is possible to find a lot of wreckage that attract the interest of divers (Ministry of tourism 2002:768). However, it is necessary to establish "Underwater Diving Centers" which will create a great resource for Çanakkale by removing the diving ban on wrecks applied at certain dates of the year, making the relevant regulations and allowing underwater diving (Aydoğan 2002: 210). No large and small rivers within the province have regular regime. Almost all of them rise in April and May when autumn rains and snow in the highlands begin to melt. Besides this the current of water drops to several liters per minute. Therefore, the rivers within the provincial borders are not suitable for transportation, carrying and water sports. Only the presence of freshwater fish is causing local fishing activities as amateurishly but these activities do not constitute a strong economic potential (Çanakkale Municipality and Local Agenda 21 Çanakkale 2004: 71-72).

The main ecotouristic attractions of the region include Gelibolu Peninsula Historical National Park, Troia Historical National Park, ancient cities and ruins, museums, martyrdoms, monuments and castles. "Gelibolu Peninsula Historical National Park" is located within Çanakkale provincial borders, at the southern end of the Gallipoli Peninsula, near the European side of the Dardanelles Strait. The places where the sea and land battles of Çanakkale were fought In World War I are located in the National Park. In addition to a wide range of submerged ships, cannons, trenches, castles, bastions, and hundreds of other remnants of war, over 250 000 Turkish martyrs and over 250,000 graves and monuments of Australian, New Zealand, English and French troops are located in this park. War zones, war graves, monuments and war related remnants were registered as "Historical Sites" and "Cultural Assets". Also There are many "Archaeological Sites and Monuments" dating back to 4000 BC. There is an interesting collection of "Cultural Heritage" that includes beaches, bays, stunning geological and geomorphological formations, a salt lake and unique examples of 15th century military architecture within a wide variety of "Natural Sites and Monuments" (Ministry of Tourism 2002: 773).

Some of the cemeteries and monuments in Gelibolu Peninsula National Park are as follows:

- Çanakkale Monument of Martyrs,
- 57. Regiment Martyrdom,
- Mehmetçiğe Derin Saygı Memorial, (Deep Respect to Memetçik Monument),
- The Memorial of Yahya Sergeant,
- The First Martyrs Memorial: Havuzlar Martyrdom,
- New Zealand Memorial,
- Lone Pine Memorial.

Troia Historical National Park: Troy National Park is a very important location with its unique values and ecotourism potential. Troia is not only one of the most important places of Çanakkale but also one of the most important places of the world. Remains of the city which was founded nine times from 3000 BC to 300 AD; are located 32 km from Çanakkale, at the place where Dümrek Kara Menderes Stream meets, at Hisarlıktepe which dominates Çanakkale Strait. Troia's remains, first uncovered in 1873, reveal the civilization involved in ancient legends (Yalçın 1988: 37-38). The most important streams of the region are as follows: Streams emerging from the Biga Peninsula, Karamenderes Stream, which flows into the Sea of Marmara in the north, The Tuzla Stream, which is born in Kazdağı in the south and spills into the Aegean Sea, Sarıçay and Kara Menderes Streams (Doğan Gazetecilik 2005: 268).

National Park located in the borders of Çanakkale, is suitable for ecotouristic activities such as bird watching, foto safari, bicycle tourism, camping, caravan tourism, farm tourism. The number of visitors to the National Park, wich was visited 463.563 people in 2014, is potentially increasing. The number of people visiting the National Park can be increased even more with advertising. While these activities are being planned, wellbeing of local people should be taken into consideration as well as rural development.

Ida Mountain Most of the endemic species of Turkey are located on the mountain. Ida Mountain is one of the richest regions of Turkey in terms of oxygen density. With this feature, it has a positive effect on the enrichment of flora varieties. 21 plant species grow on İda Mountain only. This situation is referred to as "Ida Mountain Endemic" in the literature. İda Mountain has a different importance among them. The area where this fir species grows, on the northeast slopes of Babadağ and at the height

of 1000-1500 m., has been declared as "İda Mountain Fir Nature Conservation Area". The fact that most of the endemic species in Turkey grow in the İda Mountain indicates that there is sufficient potential for ecotourism, which has recently started to develop in Turkey and is considered as one of the tourism types of the future in the world. All these botanical riches are very suitable to be put to good use in terms of botanical tourism. (<http://bolge3.ormansu.gov.tr/3bolge/DoğaTurizmi/>.pdf 11)

Other Land: The richness of the plant cover in the province of Çanakkale and the forests' covering large area have also affected the wildlife in a positive way. In addition, the fact that the province is surrounded by seas has added a considerable amount of richness to wildlife. The forest, which is made up of water and mixed tree species around it, allows a large number of deers, partridges and wild pigs to live (Özel, 2004: 52).

Table 1: Cultural Appeals in Çanakkale and its Regions

NAME OF SETTLEMENT	ANTIQUITY CITY AND SITES	MUSEUMS	HISTORICAL STRUCTURES (Castle, Mosque, Fountain, Bath, Tomb, House, Fountain, Bridge)
Çanakkale / Center	- Abydos - Troya	- Canakkale Archaeological Museum, - Çanakkale Martyrs Monument War Museum - Çanakkale Command Museum - Nusret Mine Ship - Piri Reis Museum - Çanakkale Ethnographia Museum- - Troia Ancient City	- Çimenlik Castle - Nara Castle - Fatih Mosque - Kale Masjid - Atik Hisar
Ayvacık	- Apollon Simintheus Temple - Assos Athena Temple - Gargara - Zeus Sunağı		- Babakale - Behramkale Bridge - Murat Hüdavendigâr Mosque - Tuzla Hüdavendigâr Mosque - Ümmühan Hatun Mosque - Tuzla Hüdavendigâr Complex
Bayramiç	- Skepsis		- Hadimoğlu House- - Kebrene
Biga	- Parion - Priyapos		- Biga Ulu Mosque
Bozcaada		- Bozcaada Castle and Museum	
Çan			- Çan Thermal - Tepeköy Thermal - Kirazlı Spring Water

Sustainable Ecotourism Possibilities in Çanakkale Area

Eceabat	- Maydos - Sestos	- Kilitbahir Castle and Etnographia Museum	- Kilitbahir (Kilid-ül Bahr) Castle - Bigalı Castle - Seddülbahir Castle
Ezine	- Alexandria Troas - Neandria		- Asilhan Bey Mosque - Asilhan Bey Hamamı - Ezine Ulu Mosque - Kestanbol Thermal - Koçali Stones and Column - Abdurrahman Mosque - Sefer Şah Mosque - Ahi Yunus Zayive and Tomb
Lâpseki			- Yakup Bey Complex - Umurbey Hüdavendigâr Mosque - Lâpseki Wall

The main tourist activities in Çanakkale that are within the scope of Ecotourism and the activities eligible for inclusion are:

- 1)→ Birdwatching (Ornithology) Tourism
- 2)→ Photo Safari
- 3)→ Flora and Fauna Tourism
- 4)→ Trekking (Mountain Climbing)
- 5)→ Bicycle Tourism
- 6)→ Other

1) *Bird watching (Ornithology)*: By walking in the Gallipoli Peninsula Historical National Park, it is possible to observe birds in the following areas which are very rich in bird species:

* Skamender Valley

* Kumkale Reeds

* Umurbey, Çardak Lagoon and Biga Reeds (<http://visitcanakkale.com/TR/gelibolu-yarimadasi-tarihi-milli-parki/S/21838>)

* Troia Historical National Park

2) *Photo Safari*:

Due to the fact that there are many historical remnants and natural beauty in Gelibolu Peninsula Historical National Park, there are landscapes in the region very suitable for photography. These activities are commonly carried out in areas such as;

- Sestos

- Agonya

- Lysimachia

- Elaius (Eski Hisarlık)

- Protesilaion (Karaağaç Tepe) (<http://www.parklarimiz.com/gelibolu-yarimadasi-milli-parki.html>)

In this context, the opening and exhibition of the photography exhibition, which consisted of photographs taken by the course attendees during the photo safari, at Gelibolu Mola Cafe on June 26, 2009 at 06:00 PM at the end of the "Basic Photography Course" organized by Nefsak, has been promising for the photography activities in Gelibolu.

(<http://sbbatir.blogspot.com.tr/2009/07/gelibolu-fotograf-sanat-dernegi-gefsak.html> 10*)

3) *Flora and Fauna Tourism*: Çanakkale is similar to other regions of Turkey except Black Sea in terms of climatic view (Özel 2004: 47). 55% of the province's surface area is covered with forests. The remaining area is covered with meadow, pasture and arable land (www.canakkale.gov.tr). In the region, coastal and southern parts are places where plant cover is seen intensely. It is observed that this density is decreasing as you go towards inner parts. Throughout Çanakkale forests start at sea level, they get more intense above 300 m. of height.

Çanakkale province is located on migration routes of many migratory birds. Menderes Delta and Sarıgöl, which are located in Kumkale, Tuzla, Biga Plains and stream mouths on both sides of the strait,

especially within Troia Historical National Park, are home to a large number of water birds. Raptor birds are common in the Kaz Mountains (Çanakkale Governor's Office 2004: 134).

As the province of Çanakkale is established on both sides of the Çanakkale strait that connects the Aegean and the Black Sea, provincial waters are quite rich in terms of aquatic environment species. Pilot studies on the protection and production of prey animals are being carried out in Kalkım Han and Gökçeada, which are located in the provincial borders. In addition, "Wildlife protection area" have been determined in certain regions of Bayramic and Yenice districts, and Çanakkale-Güreçe, Çanakkale-Gökçeada and Gelibolu Korudağ regions. (Çanakkale Municipality and Local Agenda 21 Çanakkale 2004: 108-109).

4) *Trekking*: It is aimed to identify and support ecotourism activities that can provide alternative income for local people who are dependent on natural resources by Ecotourism, which was established in 2003 by the General Directorate of Nature Conservation and National Parks in both Gelibolu and Troia National Park. Relevant activities include İda Mountain biking, photo safari, hiking and trekking activities. For example, the Mountaineering Community has carried out trekking activities from Gelibolu Peninsula Soğanlıdere region to Çanakkale Monument of Martyrs. 29 members of the community participated in the event.

([Http://www.comu.edu.tr/haber-1273.html](http://www.comu.edu.tr/haber-1273.html) 12 *)

5- *Bicycle Tourism*: There is a two different bike tours can be done at Gelibolu National Park. The first is the route from Kilitbahir to Martyrdom. The other tour can be done with agricultural areas and nature observations on the route from Eceabat, Gelibolu to Kabatepe direction through highway, Kilye Bay, Main Promotion Center, Alçıtepe-Seddülbahir-Abide, Hisarlık Tepe in front of Morto Bay, Alçıtepe, Behramlı, Eceabat. The other's riding bicycle stands out as an important sporting activity because it is considered as an open air activity and also provides transportation. It is a healthy sports activity that makes the individual feel free, offers opportunity to know nature better, and relieves the individual and bicycle tours made in the majority of national parks as ecotourism activity can also be done in Truva. Natural and historical beauties in the near surroundings are suitable places for visitors and athletes to explore these areas on their bicycles. Troy, Araplar Strait, Papaz Beach, Yenikoy Beach, Kemerdere Location are among the tracks with significant potential.

Troia Antique City and its surroundings were declared a National Park on Dec. 7, 1996, with the decision of the Council of Ministers. In the National Park, the archaeological site has been regarded as the center. The borders have been determined with the Aegean Sea in the west, the Canakkale Straits in the north, the state highway in the east, and in the south, recommended park tour route. The borders of Troia National Park within these boundaries is 13 350 ha. (Özel 2004: 89-90).

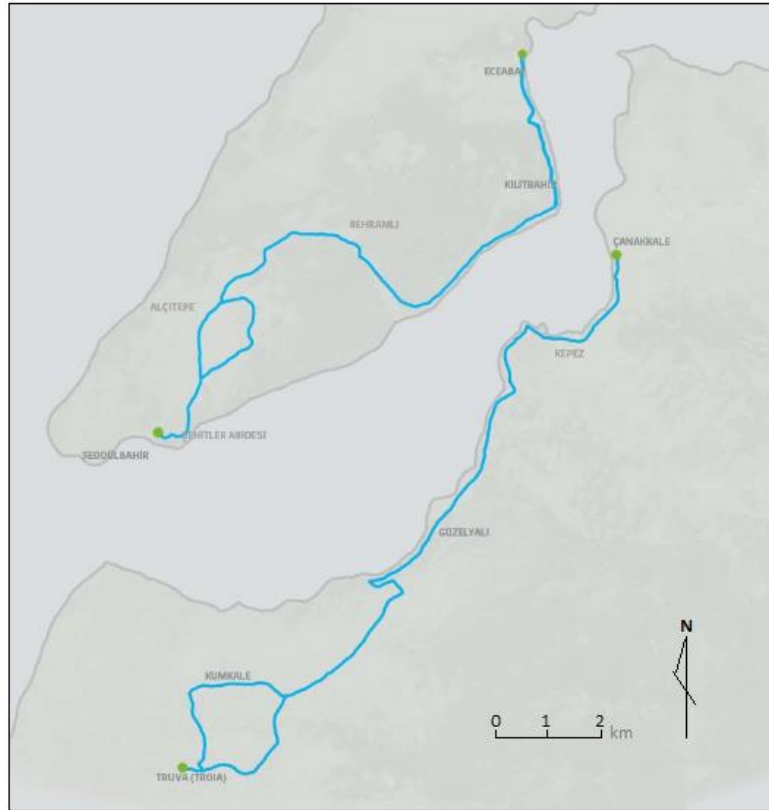


Figure 3: Optimum bicycle route

7) Other

Within the scope of ecotourism, farm and village activities can be done. (Eg Bayramiç Yeniköy) Goat and sheep can be milked and cheese and yogurt can be fermented. Ecotourism activities can be done in the form of yoga, paint workshop, shay bale, plastering work, food production. Chickens' natural eggs are collected and tomatoes grown in the garden are collected and prepared for breakfast. Nonviolent communication can be realized. (NVC).

The hot springs had a very rich potential for Çanakkale in the past and they still have rich potential today. For example, Alexandria Troas, Kestanbol Thermal Spring, Aphrodite-Zeus Ayvacik Thermal Spring. In terms of this privilege, areas with historical characteristics need to be protected. In addition, Tuzla, Külcüler, Tepeköy, Kirazlı, Hıdırlar, Kızılca Tuzla, Küçükçetmi, Çan Thermal Springs are very important. However, it is seen that many of our historic sites seem to have been unprotected or left them to their fate. Çanakkale province has a number of underground therapeutic water resources in terms of thermal tourism. Some of these are described below.

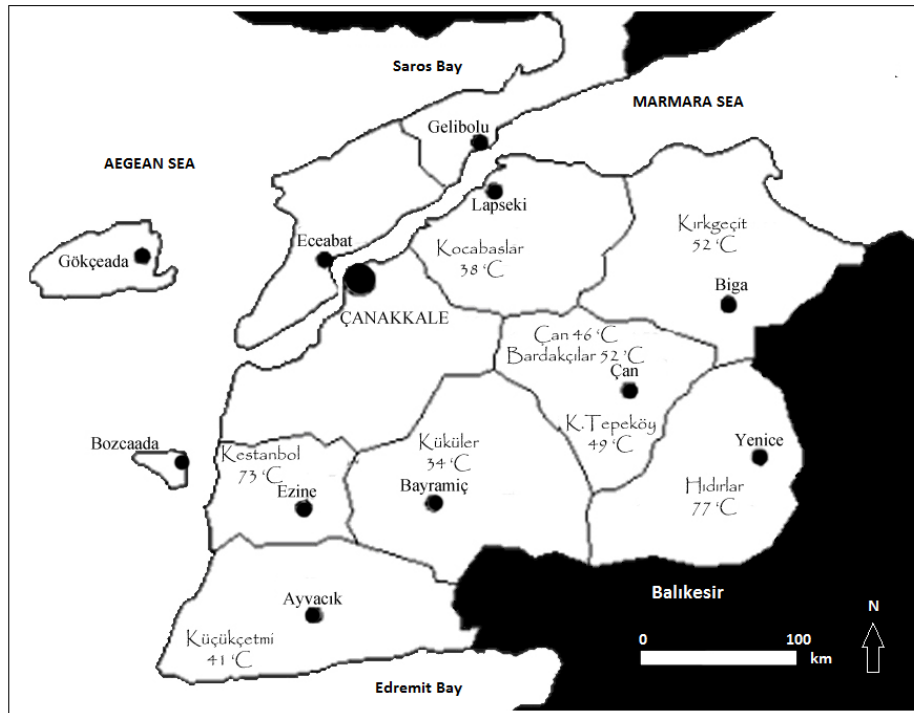


Figure 4: Hot Springs Map of Çanakkale

4. Discussion

Çanakkale Troy, Gelibolu Peninsula, Ida mountain have a great amount of natural, historical, cultural ecotourism potential in terms of strait. In today's world, the increase in urbanization and the decrease in natural areas with the influence of industrialization and the fact that people are becoming more and more distant from nature have had some negative effects and started to create pressure on people. The desire to move away from these pressures and the desire to be close to nature have also begun to influence people's understanding of holiday. Especially after 1980's, when industrialization increased, we see that the concept of "ecotourism" enters into the definitions of tourism. Our country has begun to take a larger share in the tourism sector over the last 20 years. However, besides tourists mostly visiting our coastal areas in summer, our country has the natural conditions and richness suitable for all kinds of tourism activities during the 4 seasons of the year.

When we look at Çanakkale as an ecotourism city, we see that its potential is very high. It has important advantages such as history, culture, diversity of nature. Çanakkale is a very rich province both in terms of natural beauties and historical beauties. It comes to the forefront in Ecotourism with its national parks, nature, sea, forests. In order for this richness of Çanakkale to be uncovered and presented to the tourists, it is necessary to make a successful presentation of the potential of our country and to market it in this context. However, it seems that we are not in a sufficient level to make use of this potential. For example, it is seen that thermal springs in Çanakkale are not equipped sufficiently. Çanakkale is a region of high potential for Ida Mountain nature tourism, a source of oxygen. It also has effect on herborization tourism with many plant species and its own species, which have an impact on. But it does not have enough importance.

Due to the fact that Dardanelles is the migration route of the migratory birds and fish between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean Sea, it becomes a scene of intense migration (Çalışkan & Tosunoğlu 2010). However, in province-wide the wetland areas are under the influence of adverse conditions (such as settlement, illegal hunting, grazing press, etc.) since no work has been carried out for protection. As a result, Çanakkale is one of the provinces where ecotourism is potentially the most intense. Assessment of this potential and carrying out works appropriate for it are necessary for Çanakkale province.

5. References

- Aksit, S., (2007). "Doğal Ortam Duyarlılığı Açısından Sürdürülebilir Turizm", Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, Erciyes Üniversitesi, Sayı:23, 2007/ s 441-460.
- Avcıkurt, C., (2003). "Turizm Sosyolojisi" Detay Yayıncılık, Balıkesir.
- Arslan, Y., (2000). "Tur Operatörlerinde Tekelleşme Eğilimleri Karşısında Türk Seyahat Acenteleri İçin Alternatif Politikalar", Yayımlanmamış Doktora Tezi, Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Ss. 208-210.
- Akıllı, H., (2004). "Ekoturizmin Sosyokültürel, Ekonomik, Yönetimsel ve Çevresel Etkiler Bakımından İrdelenmesi, Antalya Köprülü Kanyon Milli Parkı Örneği", Akdeniz Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Kamu Yönetimi ABD, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Antalya.
- Altıparmak, M., (2002). "Turizmin Çeşitlendirilmesi, Sürdürülebilir Turizm ve Planlama", s: 275, II. Turizm Şurasın Bildiriler Kitabı.
- Anonymous (2009). <http://www.turcev.org.tr>, Erişim Tarihi: (20.11.2009).
- Aydoğan, N. B., (2002). "Çanakkale Turizminin Profili ve Çeşitlendirilmesi". Ankara: Turizm Bakanlığı, Geleceğimiz Turizm/II. Turizm Şurası Bildirileri, I. Cilt, 12-14 Nisan, s. 207-211.
- Bakırcı, M., (2002). "Ekoturizm", T.C. Turizm Bakanlığı Turizm Şurası Bildirileri, 11 Cilt. Ankara.
- Blamey, R.K., (2001). "Principles Of Ecotourism, Encyclopedia Of Ecotourism", Chapter 1.
- Campbell, L., (1999). "Ecotourism in Rural Developing Countries", Annals of Tourism Research, Vol:26
- Çağatay, A., Yurdaer, M. & Kırış, R., (2002). "Ekoturizm İçin Mekan ve Yerel Toplulukların Katılımının Planlanması", T.C. Turizm Bakanlığı 2. Turizm Şurası Bildirileri, s, 205, Ankara.
- Çalışkan V. & Tosunoğlu M., (2010). "Çardak Lagünü (Lapseki-Çanakkale) çevresinde insan çevre etkileşiminin yerel toplum tarafından algılanması", Türkiye Kıyıları'10, Samsun, 27 Nisan-01 Mayıs
- ÇANAKKALE VALİLİĞİ (2004), "Çanakkale Müze ve Ören Yerleri Rehberi", Çanakkale: Çanakkale Valiliği Yayını.
- ÇANAKKALE BELEDİYESİ ve YEREL GÜNDEM 21 ÇANAKKALE (2004). "Çanakkale Yerleşmesinin Durum Raporu 2003". (Düzenleyen Talat Koç). Çanakkale: Çanakkale Kent Konseyi Yayınları: 2.
- Demir, C. & Çevirgen, A., (2006). "Ekoturizm Yönetimi", Nobel Yayın Dağıtım, Ankara
- Doğan Gazetecilik (2005). "İl İl Yurdumuz-Türkiye İller Ansiklopedisi-Doğal Yapı/Tarih/Sosyal Yapı/Ekonomi/Kültürel Yapı". İstanbul: Doğan Yayın Holding A.Ş., 1. Cilt, s. 268-288.
- Erdoğan, N., (2003). "Çevre ve (Eko)turizm". Pozitif Matbaacılık, Ankara.
- Hamele H., & Zimmer P., (1989). "How Tourism and The Environment Can Co-Exist?, The Second International Colloguy of Mediterranean Coasts and Environmental Protection, Abstracts", İzmir.
- Kuter, N., (2007). "Çankırı Kenti Açık Ve Yeşil Alan Varlığı İçinde Tarihi Kent Merkezinin Kentsel Peyzaj Tasarımı Açısından Değerlendirilmesi", AÜ Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Doktora Tezi, Ankara.
- Kuter, N., (2007). "Çankırı Kenti ve Çevresinin Turizm Açısından Değerlendirilmesi", ZKÜ Bartın Orman Fakültesi Dergisi, 9, 11
- Lascurain C.H. (1996). "Tourism, Ecotourism, And Protected Areas", 139, Iucnworld Conservation Union.
- NOVİTAS Turizm (2008). Ekoturizm, <http://www.novitas.com.tr/eko.htm>, Erişim Tarihi: Temmuz,
- Özel, A.E., (2004). "Çanakkale İli Doğal ve Kültürel Potansiyelinin Turizm ve Rekreatyonel Kullanım Yönünden İncelenmesi". (Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi) Çanakkale: Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi.
- Polat, A. T. & Önder, S., (2006). "Karapınar İlçesi ve Yakın Çevresi Peyzaj Özelliklerinin Ekoturizm Kullanımları Yönünden Değerlendirilmesi Üzerine Bir Araştırma", Selçuk Üniversitesi Ziraat Fakültesi Dergisi 20 (40) 53-64.
- Rahemtulla, Y.G., & WELLSTEAD, A.M., (2001). "Ecotourism: Understanding Competing Expert And Academic Definitions", Infor. Report Nor-X-380 Canada
- Turizm Bakanlığı (2002). "Türkiye'nin Turizm Değerleri", Ankara: Tanıtma Genel Müdürlüğü Yayınları, Cilt 2, s. 749-777.
- TÜRSAB DERGİSİ (2002). Sayı 223, Eylül, s.22, İstanbul.
- TÜRSAB DERGİSİ (2002). "Turizmde Yükselen Değer: Ekoturizm", İstanbul.

- Türker, M. & F., Aydın, İ. Z., (2010). "Ekoturizmin Orman Köyleri Kalkınmaları Üzerindeki Sosyoekonomik Etkilerinin Ölçümü (Camili Biyosfer Alanı Örneği)", III. Ulusal Karadeniz Ormancılık Kongresi 20-22 Mayıs 2010 Cilt: I Sayfa: 115-129.
- Weaver, D.B. (1999). "Magnitude Of Ecotourism in Costa Rica And Kenya", *Annals Of Tourism Research*, 26 (4) 792-816.
- Weaver, D. & Opperman, M. (2000). *Tourism Management*. John Wiley & Sons, 468, Australia,
- Yıldırım, T. & Koçan, N., (2008). "Nevşehir Acıgöl Kalderası Kalecetepe ve Acıgöl Maarlarının Jeoturizm Kapsamında Değerlendirilmesi", *Ege Üniversitesi Ziraat Fakültesi Dergisi* 2008, 45 (2): 135-143.
- Yılmaz, E., (1999). "Analitik Hiyerarşi Süreci Kullanılarak Çok Kriterli Karar Verme Problemlerinin Çözümü", *Doğu Akdeniz Ormancılık Araştırma Müdürlüğü, Doğa Dergisi*, O.B. Yayın No: 127, Doğa Yayın No: 16, 5, 95-122, Tarsus.
- Yücel, C. (2002). "Turizmde Yükselen Değer; Ekoturizm", TÜRSAB Ar-Ge Departmanı Raporu.
- Yürük, E.Ö., (2002). "Turizmin Geleceği: Ekoturizm", Ankara Üniversitesi, Çankırı Meslek Yüksekokulu Yayınları
- Yürük, E.Ö., (2003). "Turizmin Geleceği: Ekoturizm", Türkiye'nin Alternatif Turizm Potansiyeli Güncel Sorunlar Konferansı, 3- 4 Mayıs 2008, Çankırı.

Developing a Likert-type Scale for Measuring Women's Attitude toward Sexist Men

Gazi Kısa

Introduction

Sex and gender stereotypes might have been around since the beginning of humanity because men and women have different genitals and it was the women who had to get pregnant to and feed the baby. So, while women had to take care of the children, men had to go hunt and bring food to the family to ensure the survival of their next generation (Feingold, 1994). These naturally occurring family roles must have slowly given way to other assumptions and generalizations about men and women as different kinds of human beings who have different roles in society. In support of this, Barry *et al.* (1957) found that the more a society is based on an economy requiring strength, the greater the emphasis on sex differences in socialization. Sex stereotypes are defined as the structured set of beliefs about the personal attributes of women and men by Ashmore and Del Boca (1979).

In the modern civilization traditional gender roles are fading away; now mothers work outside the home and provide for their children as well as the father. Fathers are spending more time with childcare than before, at least in USA (Bianchi, 2000). However, gender stereotypes, which have been around for so long, are not going to change easily. They are still transferred from parents to children (Endendijk *et al.*, 2013).

One other reason why gender, and all other, stereotypes have persisted so long might be because they are a part of cultural worldviews that protect people against death-related concerns and make them feel some symbolic immortality as terror management theory suggests (Schimel *et al.*, 1999). According to terror management theory, people have developed some evolutionary defense mechanisms against their anxiety caused by being aware of an inevitable mortality. One of these are cultural worldviews that give them an illusion of order and predictability in the world and in turn make them feel secure. As long as they conform to the rules prescribed by their culture, they hope to deal with their mortality, either literally or symbolically (Pyszczynski, Greenberg, Solomon, Arndt, & Schimel, 2004). A big part of cultural worldviews is the stereotypes. It was found that, indeed when people are reminded of their mortality, their stereotypic thinking and preference for stereotype-consistent individuals increases (Schimel *et al.*, 1999).

Unlike other stereotypes which are generally toward outgroups that live far away, sex and gender stereotypes may be the most problematic because both genders have to live together all the time. Especially women are regularly victimized by those stereotypes, probably because they are physically less muscular than men. Today, gender stereotypes negatively affect and restraint women in many ways. For example, one study shows that priming gender role stereotypes causes women to stay away from masculine occupations by affecting perceived ability, because of the prevalent stereotypes about women's ability (Rudman and Phelan, 2010). Women are not rewarded equally as men for engaging in some of the same transformational leadership behaviors (Loughlin *et al.*, 2012). Performance of women is evaluated less accurately and more negatively by people with traditional gender stereotypes (Bauer and Baltes, 2002). When raters are all male, females' performance is rated lower than that of males' (Bowen *et al.*, 2000). Stereotype threat in women which is caused by stereotypes about women's math performance, decreases their actual performance in math, thus becoming a self-fulfilling prophecy (Spencer *et al.*, 1999).

The victimization of women is even more severe in highly conservative countries where traditional stereotypes are prevalent. One of these highly conservative countries is Turkey, from which the sample of this study was also recruited. According to unofficial sources (<http://www.anitsayac.com>) in the first 263 days of 2017 (up to September 20, 2017) 169 women were killed in Turkey, mostly by men close to them. That's more than one woman every other day. The number of physical, verbal and psychological violence cases is not even known because most cases are not reported in fear of more violence.

Traditional worldview in Turkey and in other Muslim countries treats women as a possession which symbolizes the honor of her current “owner” (her father or her husband after she gets married). If she leaves her owner and attempts to have a relationship with another man, her current man will feel insulted and will have no other way to rescue his dignity other than killing her (for a thorough review see Sakallı-Uğurlu & Akbaş, 2013).

One of the factors that make those stereotypes so persistent is the fact that some women in those countries also have them. Even though it is to their disadvantage, women adopt and embrace sex and gender stereotypes as part of their cultural worldviews. Especially in traditional countries some women accept being treated as a subordinate class, because “it is how it is”. Those that don’t accept the discrimination, mostly don’t express it in fear of social pressure.

Recently though, there has been a slight move against traditional practices even in most conservative countries. For example, one woman wore a skirt and walked in the streets of Afghanistan in 2014, shocking people around her (“#BBCTrending”, 2014). Again in 2014, two women in Saudi Arabia drove their cars in the streets even though it was strictly forbidden (“Two women referred”, 2014). These may seem like trivial events, but from the perspectives of women, in countries where they are suppressed so much, these are very courageous steps. They show us that there are at least some women who reject being treated like second class human beings and want to stand up for their rights.

Still, such women stand out as the exception in traditional countries. Most women accept their reality as it is and go on with their lives among their sexist husbands, fathers and brothers. In fact, the proportion of women that reject traditional stereotypes and react to sexism can show how much that country is developed in terms of human rights, freedom and equality. For example, Turkey, where women have equal legal rights like election and being elected, thanks to the reforms of Kemal Atatürk, can be considered more developed than Saudi Arabia where women do not have equal rights like men. Despite the legal rights, though, women are still victimized in Turkey because of prevalent traditional and religious stereotypes.

It is clear that a scale that measures women’s attitude toward sexist men could be useful to determine development stage of a society. If the proportion of women that do not consent to traditional stereotypes is high, then that country can be considered in a higher stage in terms of human rights and equality. However, if the proportion is small, those women might be in serious danger; as they may be considered a threat to the cultural worldview of the general population.

The present study

Women, might be aware of the discrimination and inequality and want it to change or they might accept it as part of their worldview and blame themselves for it (Foster, Matheson, & Poole, 2001). According to the five-stage model of intergroup relations (Taylor & Mckirnan, 1984), minority groups in the first stage, blame their group membership for the inequality. In the second stage, they start to think that transition to the advantaged group is possible and it is based on individual achievement. This second stage requires rejecting group stereotypes that result in rigid stratification in the first stage. In this study, a scale that measures how accepting or rejecting women are toward gender stereotypes is developed. In a way, this scale will discriminate those women who have advanced to stage two or higher, from those who are still in stage one according to the five-stage intergroup relations (Taylor & Mckirnan, 1984).

This scale will also be important from the point of terror management theory. Stereotype-inconsistent women might be perceived as a threat to the worldview of a conservative person. Determining women who have negative reactions to sexist men might identify those who are in danger of being disliked (Schimmel *et al.*, 1999) or even harmed (Rothschild *et al.*, 2009) in highly traditional countries.

The Scale of Attitude of Women toward Sexist Men (AWSM) contains sentences that describe reactions to prejudiced and sexist men, and asks women how much they agree with each sentence on a 5-point (from 1- *strongly disagree* to 5- *strongly agree*) Likert-type scale. Higher scores mean more acceptance of stereotypes and sexism. Ambivalent Sexism Scale (ASI, Glick & Fiske, 1996) was also included to check for convergent validity of AWSM.

Developing a Likert-type Scale for Measuring Women's Attitude toward Sexist Men

The scale also contains questions for demographic variables for statistical comparisons to check the construct validity. Among demographic questions there was a conservatism scale asking participants to rate themselves on conservatism in four dimensions (*traditional, conservative, strict, and religious*). More conservative people should score higher in AWSM. Participants were also asked to indicate the direction of their political orientation on a seven points Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Radical left) to 7 (Radical right) with a middle point of 4 (Middle). Since right-wing people have been associated with more conservative views (Altemeyer, 2006) it is expected that AWSM scores should increase as political opinion moves to the right.

The survey was sent to general psychology students as an online survey. The online survey was also shared on Facebook to reach a more diverse sample with different education levels and ages. As education increases, AWSM scores are also expected to decrease, because education has been found to have a negative correlation with conservatism (Sidanius, Pratto, & Bobo, 1996). In addition, as age increases AWSM scores are expected to increase as well, because older people were shown to be more conservative (Hiel & Brebels, 2010).

Since most participants were university students, a demographic question concerning which field they are studying was also included. It was speculated that those studying in social sciences (philosophy, sociology, etc...) are more interrogative about social rules and therefore should score lower in AWSM; although no previous study was found to support this speculation.

Method

Data Collection

Data was collected online in two stages, one year apart. METU survey website and Qualtrics Survey Software were used for the first and second parts of online data collection, respectively. The link to the survey was mainly sent to general psychology students to participate in exchange for bonus course credits. The survey link was also shared on Facebook in order to reach a more diverse sample, although we did not get many responses from there.

Participants

A total of 688 women answered the online survey. 195 of them did not complete the survey and were dropped from the analysis. A few participants left one or two fields on the scale empty but they were not dropped from the analysis in order to avoid data loss. Of the remaining 493 participants, sixty (12 %) were reached through Facebook, the rest (88 %) were all students in Middle East Technical University from different departments who were attending the general psychology class at the moment. Ages ranged from 18 to 56 ($M = 21.7$, $SD = 3.0$). Nine (1.8 %) of the participants had high school or lower education level, 449 (91.1 %) were undergraduate students, 11 (2.2 %) had an undergraduate degree, 19 (3.9 %) were graduate students, and 5 (1.0 %) had graduate degrees. 160 (32.5 %) participants endorsed being a student of or having studied a field in social sciences (History, Sociology, Philosophy, or Psychology).

Scores on the four dimensions of conservatism were summed to create a composite conservatism score. With a minimum of 4 and maximum of 20, mean conservativeness score of the participants was $M = 11.12$, $SD = 4.96$.

On the political orientation scale, participants were normally distributed with a mean of $M = 3.18$, $SD = 1.23$; with the majority indicating their orientation as "3 = Near Left" and "2 = Left".

Materials

Ambivalent Sexism Scale (ASI). This is a 22-items scale developed by Glick and Fiske (1996) to measure *benevolent* and *hostile sexism* toward women. 11 items measured benevolent sexism and the other eleven measured hostile sexism toward women. The scale was translated to Turkish by Uğurlu-Sakallı (2002) with a sample of 1023. On the Turkish sample, internal consistency coefficient of the scale was .85, test-retest reliability was .87, and its correlation with another scale measuring a similar

construct (Sex Role Stereotyping, SRS) was .60. In the current study, the Cronbach's alpha of the scale was .93.

Scale of Attitudes of Women toward Sexist Men (AWSM). 50 sentences describing positive or negative attitudes and reactions toward sexist men (e.g. It would make me angry to have a boss or a teacher who thinks that women are less successful than men) were generated by 7 graduate students and one professor (Prof. Dr. Nuray Sakallı-Uğurlu) in Social Psychology department of Middle East Technical University (METU) in Turkey. The sentences were discussed in class and those which were not agreed on by the group were discarded. Therefore, the 50 sentences that were retained had face and content validity. Participants answered the scale on a 5-points Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Negative reactions to sexist men were reverse scored, so that higher scores in the scale meant higher acceptance of stereotypes and discrimination.

Results

Factor Analysis and Reliability

Negative sentences were reverse-scored in SPSS before conducting any analysis. Reliability analysis for the internal consistency of the 50-item scale, revealed a Cronbach's alpha of .94 ($\alpha = .94$), which shows that the 50 items were strongly related to each other.

An initial principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation and a cutoff of .40 was conducted to establish the correlations between items and to make it easier to create a shorter scale. PCA revealed that 10 items (e.g. "I find it difficult to communicate with men that do not consent to gender roles") did not have any correlation stronger than 0.40 with other items and therefore were dropped from the analysis, as they were probably measuring different things than the rest of the scale. The second PCA with the remaining 40 items revealed an overall KMO score of .935, with the individual items all having KMO scores above .76; and also Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ($X^2(1176) = 11236.45, p < .001$); which all mean that the sample size was adequate for factor analysis.

The PCA also revealed 8 factors that had eigenvalues larger than 1 and had a 61.55 % explained cumulative variance. However, visual inspection of the scree plot revealed five points that drop sharply before the plot levels out, which means after the five biggest components, the remaining ones add little to the explained variance. In addition, there were five items that had multiple factor loadings larger than .40, which makes it difficult to interpret the results. Therefore, it was decided to run another PCA after removing items with multiple factor loadings and by forcing SPSS to retain only five factors.

The resulting five factors with 35 items had a cumulative explained variance of 54.41 %. However, five more items had multiple component loadings. Those five items were removed and forced factor extraction was reduced to four as the last factor had only one item loading remaining. The resulting analysis showed only one item with multiple factor loadings. When it was removed, the remaining 29 items generated a true simple structure where each factor loaded strongly on at least four items and each item had only one factor that loaded strongly on it.

The remaining 29 items accounted for 53.36 % of the variance. A second reliability analysis with the remaining items revealed a Cronbach's Alpha score of .92, which was still a very strong reliability score.

The final scale with the 29 items can be requested from the author by e-mail.

Factor 1 had an eigenvalue of 9.38 and explained 32.33 of the variance. Items on Factor 1 were highly related to opinions about traditional gender roles (e.g., "I agree with men who think that childcare is only women's responsibility.", and "I would like to marry a man who thinks that my main responsibility is cooking at home."); so the first factor was named as "Attitude toward traditional gender roles".

Factor 2 had an eigenvalue of 2.73 and explained 9.42 % of the variance in the data. Items in Factor 2 were highly related to behavioral reactions to stereotypes (e.g., "I would not want to befriend a man who thinks that women are bad drivers", and "I hold off from men who think that housework is women's responsibility"); therefore the 2nd factor was named as "Reactions to stereotypes".

Developing a Likert-type Scale for Measuring Women's Attitude toward Sexist Men

Factor 3 had an eigenvalue of 1.76 and explained 6.08 % of the variance. Items in this factor were mostly related to reactions to physical abuse and discrimination (e.g., "It would not want to be friends with a man that physically abuses his spouse", and "I would object if men are paid more than women at workplace"); therefore the 3rd factor was named as "Reactions to abuse and discrimination".

Factor 4 had an eigenvalue of 1.61 and accounted for 5.53 % of the variance. Items in this factor were related to reactions to downgrading women (e.g., "Men who underestimate me because I am a woman, make me angry." and "I think men who look down on women are repulsive"). Therefore the 4th factor was named as "Reactions to downgrading".

Validity

AWSM and ASI. Scores on each item on AWSM were summed to create a Total AWSM Score. For the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, two separate scores for benevolent and hostile sexism were calculated along with an average ASI score. An inspection of normal Q-Q plots showed that all scores were approximately normally distributed.

Pearson conduct moment correlation analysis showed that there was a small but significant positive association between average ASI and AWSM scores ($r = .238, p < .001$). The correlation between scores on the hostile sexism subscale of ASI and AWSM was higher ($r = .304, p < .001$). The correlation between scores on benevolent sexism and AWSM was the lowest ($r = .137, p = .002$) and it was only significant at $p < .01$. So, AWSM turned mostly related to hostile sexism. Given the fact that the data was only collected from women, the low correlation scores (although still significant) are understandable.

AWSM and Demographic Factors. There was a weak but significant negative correlation between AWSM scores and education ($r = -.098, p = .029$). As expected, higher education was associated with lower AWSM scores. Also, it was speculated that those studying in social sciences should score lower in AWSM than other participants. Indeed, there was a significant difference between the two groups with participants studying in social sciences scoring lower than other participants, $M = 3.10, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.75, 5.45], t(418.78) = 2.59, p = .01$.

Moreover, there was a small but significant positive relationship between political orientation and AWSM scores ($r = .201, p < .001$). As political orientation moved to the right wing, AWSM scores increased.

Surprisingly, conservatism did not have any significant relationship with AWSM scores ($r = -.028, p = .544$). In addition, contrary to what was expected, age did not have any significant correlation with AWSM scores ($r = -.017, p = .705$).

Table 2 shows correlations between the scales and demographic variables.

Table 2

Pearson correlations for the main variables

	Conservatism	ASI Score	Age	Education	Political Orientation
Conservatism					
ASI Score	.109*				
Age	.166**	-.001			
Education	.198**	-.088	.435**		
Political Orientation	.098*	.300**	-.137**	.012	
AWSM Score	-.003	.333**	-.032	-.172*	.249**

Note. * = statistically significant at $p < .05$, ** = statistically significant at $p < .01$.

Discussion

The initial 50 items describing attitudes of women toward sexist men were eventually reduced to a reliable set of 29 items. These items formed four factors that tap attitudes toward traditional gender roles, reactions to stereotypes, reactions to abuse and discrimination, and reactions to downgrading, respectively.

The Attitude of Women Toward Sexist Men (AWSM) scale also significantly correlated with Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI), which supports its criterion validity. The scores on AWSM also had significant relationship with education level and political opinion, which add to the scale's construct validity.

Participants that were studying social sciences scored significantly lower in AWSM than others. Even though most of them were at the end of their first year at the university, it must have been enough for them to question the accuracy of the traditional gender roles and stereotypes. This finding is a crucial warning for other researchers, especially those studying social subjects. These researchers should be aware that students studying social sciences can have different reactions than others, as they are already familiar with these subjects.

Overall, this study demonstrates that AWSM can be a reliable and valid scale that measures attitudes of women toward sexist men.

Limitations and Future Research

The data was mainly collected from young university students, with only sixty of the respondents coming from Facebook. This problem, limited the diversity of the participants which was probably the reason that AWSM scores did not correlate with age and conservatism. Had the sample been more diverse with different ages and conservatism levels represented equally, there would be a higher chance of measuring the true effect of these factors. Moreover, with a more diverse sample from different education levels and political orientations, the relationship between AWSM scores and these factors could have been even stronger.

One other reason concerning the low relationship between conservatism level and AWSM scores could be that the order of responses on the conservatism scale were the opposite to that of the preceding scales (AWSM and ASI). So that, some participants might have responded without looking at the labels, while others did look at them. This problem might have confounded the results significantly. Future researchers should pay attention to the order of the responses and should make sure that they are all in the same order to avoid confusion.

Future research should also check the validity of AWSM with a more diverse sample. Moreover, the relationship of AWSM with other scales measuring sexism should be determined.

References

- Altemeyer, B., (2006). *The authoritarians* (E-book). Retrieved from <http://home.cc.umanitoba.ca/~altemey/>
- Asmore, R. D., Del Boca, F. K. (1979). Sex stereotypes and implicit personality theory: Toward a cognitive-social psychological conceptualization. *Sex Roles*, 5(2), 219-248.
- Barry, H. A., Bacon, M. K., & Child, I. L. (1957). A cross-cultural survey of some sex differences in socialization. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 55(3), 327-332. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/h0041178>
- Bauer, C.C., & Baltes, B.B. (2002). Reducing the effects of gender stereotypes on performance evaluations. *Sex Roles*, 47(9/10), 465-476.
- #BBCTrending: Who is Kabul's bare-legged woman? (2014, December 9). Retrieved from <http://www.bbc.com/news/blogs-trending-30399682>
- Bianchi, S. M. (2000). Maternal employment and time with children: Dramatic change or surprising continuity? *Demography*, 37(4), 401-414.
- Bowen, C., Swim, J.K., & Jacobs, R.R. (2000). Evaluating gender biases on actual job performance of real people: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 30(10), 2194-215.
- Endendijk, J. J., Groeneveld, M. G., van Berkel, S. R., Hallers-Haalboom, E. T., Mesman, J., and Bakermans-Kranenburg, M. J., (2013). Gender stereotypes in the family context: Mothers, fathers, and siblings. *Sex Roles*, 68, 577-590. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11199-013-0265-4>
- Feingold, A. (1994). Gender differences in personality: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 116(3), 429-456.
- Foster, M. D., Matheson, K., & Poole, M., (2001). Responding to sexual discrimination: The effects of societal versus self-blame. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 134(6), 743-754.
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (1996). The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory: Differentiating hostile and benevolent sexism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70(3), 491-512.
- Hiel, A. V., & Brebels, L., (2010). Conservatism is good for you: Cultural conservatism protects self-esteem in older adults. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 50, 120-123. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2010.09.002>
- Loughlin, C., Arnold, K., & Crawford, J. B., (2012). Lost opportunity: Is transformational leadership accurately recognized and rewarded in all managers? *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal*, 31(1), 43-64. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02610151211199218>
- Pyszczynski, T., Greenberg, J., Solomon, S., Arndt, J., Schimel, J., (2004) Why do people need self-esteem? A theoretical and empirical review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 130(3), 435-468. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.130.3.435>
- Rothschild, Z. K., Abdollahi, A., & Pyszczynski, T., (2009). Does peace have a prayer? The effect of mortality salience, compassionate values, and religious fundamentalism on hostility toward out-groups. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 45, 816-827. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2009.05.016>
- Rudman, L.A., and Phelan, J.E. (2010), "The effect of priming gender roles on women's implicit gender beliefs and career aspirations", *Social Psychology*, 41(3), 192-202. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1027/1864-9335/a000027>
- Sakallı-Uğurlu, N., (2002) Ambivalent Sexism Inventory: A study of reliability and validity. *Türk Psikoloji Dergisi*, 17 (49), 47-58.

- Sakallı-Uğurlu, N., & Akbaş, G., (2013). Namus kültürlerinde “namus” ve “namus adına kadına şiddet”: Sosyal psikolojik açıklamalar. *Türk Psikoloji Yazıları*, 16(32), 76-91.
- Schimmel, J., Simon, L., Greenberg, J., Pyszczynski, T., Solomon, S., Waxmonsky, J., & Arndt, J., (1999). Stereotypes and terror management: Evidence that mortality salience enhances stereotypic thinking and preferences. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 77(5), 905-926.
- Sidanius, J., Protto, F., & Bobo, L., (1996). Racism, conservatism, affirmative action, and intellectual sophistication: A matter of principled conservatism or group dominance? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70(3), 476-490.
- Spencer, S. J., Steele, C. M., & Quinn, D. M. (1999). Stereotype threat and women’s math performance. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 35, 4-28.
- Taylor, D. M., & Mckirnan, D. J., (1984). Theoretical contributions: A five-stage model of intergroup relations. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 23(4), 291-300. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8309.1984.tb00644.x>
- Two women referred to “terror” court for driving in Saudi Arabia (2014, December 25). Retrieved from <http://www.theguardian.com/world/2014/dec/25/women-charged-saudi-arabia-driving-ban-terror-court>

Quarter Of The World GDP: Inequality And Growth Analysis For Four Countries From Historical Perspective

Hatice Küçükkaya, Sedat Alataş

1. Introduction

There is a wide literature concerning growth-inequality relationship. This relationship is discussed both in academic and policy arenas. In literature it is shown that, both positive and negative effects have existed. In theoretical literature the overall effect of inequality on growth using cross country data have generally proven. The debate regarding the overall effect of inequality on growth has been fostered by a growing empirical literature.

Until the late 1990s, empirical literature indicates that more inequality hinders future growth prospects. A negative effect of inequality was usually obtained from a cross sectional OLS estimation of growth rates. In recent years, the empirical literature starts to include the latest panel estimation methods like fixed effects and first difference GMM panel estimators. These studies report a positive effect of inequality on growth.

The split that is commonly observed between the negative and positive effects of inequality reported in studies are based on different specifications. One argument states that the neglect of time-invariant omitted variables in cross-sectional studies biases the estimated coefficient on inequality downwards. The impact of measurement error on estimation results is another factor that has been suggested. Studies which report a positive effect of inequality on growth using panel methods also rely on the more limited time series variation in the data. This approach is likely to be more sensitive to measurement error, particularly when the variable is persistent and the time structure is short (Barro, 2000; Durlauf et al., 2005). In contrast, the negative effect reported in cross-sectional analyses could also reflect country specific measurement error in inequality statistics (Knowles, 2005).

According to existing literature, inequality may encourage or restrain growth in rich as well as poor countries. We tend to select four countries because of the availability of inequality data permits. Our sample is quite historical in view of existing inequality data.

2. The Literature Review

Many theoretical studies seek for the relationship between income inequality and economic growth. Most of the studies in literature examine both the effects of inequality on economic growth and the effects of economic growth on inequality. Some studies also analyze the relationship within the framework of causality. We mostly concentrate on the causality between inequality and growth.

Bourguignon (2004) reviews the two-way relationship between growth and distribution. In his section, which seeks for the effects of inequality on the rate of growth, both positive and negative relationship is showed. In consideration of hypotheses like credit market imperfections, average tax rates, social conflict and political instability; alter the sign of the relationship. He finds out that the initial level of inequality matters of economic growth. Initial per capita income levels affect positively or negatively the speed of democratization of countries. Barro (2000), in his broad panel of countries, reports that higher inequality tends to hinder growth in poor countries and encourage growth in richer countries.

Perotti (1996) emphasized that there is a positive association between equality and economic growth. Indication about the association between equality and growth is stronger in democracies. Piketty and Saez (2003) concludes that countries with a high level of poverty rate and high degree of income inequality have a greater impact on economic growth than countries with low poverty rates and low degree of inequality.

On the other side, some economists show that negative causal relationship between inequality and growth. One of these studies, Alesina and Rodrik (1994) establish that the greater the inequality of

wealth and income, the higher the rate of taxation and the lower growth. In other words, they conclude that inequality in land and income ownership is negatively correlated with subsequent economic growth.

3. The Methodological Map

This section describes the variables, model and provides summary statistics. Following the existing empirical literature analyzing the relationship between economic growth and income inequality, the bivariate model can be described as follows

$$\text{Economic Growth} = f(\text{Income Inequality}) \quad (1)$$

Inspired by the empirical literature, for each estimation, this study employs two indicators: (i) GRO: growth rate of per capita GDP (1990 International Geary-Khamis Dollars) as a proxy for economic growth, (ii) INQ: share of top 1% in gross income as a proxy for income inequality. The data were compiled from the Maddison Historical GDP Data and the World Wealth and Income Database (TWWID), respectively. This study covers four countries -Australia, Canada, France and United States- and annual data for the period 1922-2008¹. Since our study mainly focuses on the causality relationship between economic growth and income inequality from historical perspective, we choose these countries for empirical analysis. The sample is also restricted to the period 1922-2008 on the basis of availability of data, especially on income inequality indicator. Natural logarithm of income inequality is used in the econometric analysis.

In Table 1, the average, the maximum, the minimum and standard deviation of the series are illustrated.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of data

Countries	Variables	Mean	Max	Min	Std. Dev.	Obs.
Australia	GRO	1.951	10.565	-10.539	3.138	87
	INQ	2.063	2.648	1.529	0.282	87
Canada	GRO	2.450	16.239	-16.773	4.578	87
	INQ	2.340	2.840	1.955	0.245	87
France	GRO	2.531	49.824	-18.128	7.241	87
	INQ	2.273	2.939	1.945	0.282	87
United States	GRO	2.206	18.711	-21.455	5.551	87
	INQ	2.456	2.975	2.046	0.304	87

Note: Income inequality is natural log from. max, min, obs. and std. dev. denote maximum, minimum, observation and standard deviation, respectively.

As illustrated in Table 1, there are considerable variations in variables over the years. For example, while, the income inequality ranges from a low of 1.529 to a high of 2.648 in Australia, the economic growth ranges from a low of -18.128 to a high of 49.824 in France.

4. The Method and Findings

As implicitly mentioned above, our paper represents an attempt to estimate the following equation for each country

$$GRO_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 INQ_t + u_t \quad (2)$$

The empirical modeling framework consists of second steps. First of all, stationarity of variables are analyzed by using unit root tests and the order of integration of the variables is found. Figure 1, 2, 3 and 4 denotes Australia, Canada, France and USA, respectively. In addition to stability conditions, autocorrelation and heteroskedasticity tests are represented in Table 2 and 3, respectively.

After these steps, the causality relationship between economic growth and income inequality are examined.

Figures 1-4 should be inserted into this page (from the word document named 'figures_8104')

Table 2. Autocorrelation tests

Lag	Australia	Canada	France	USA
1	6.016 (0.197)	6.614 (0.157)	8.574 (0.072)	2.279 (0.684)
2	8.321 (0.080)	3.305 (0.508)	5.065 (0.280)	5.017 (0.285)
3	3.560 (0.468)	4.582 (0.332)	2.493 (0.645)	8.664 (0.070)
4	1.855 (0.762)	4.371 (0.358)	6.892 (0.141)	0.899 (0.924)
5	2.110 (0.715)	1.025 (0.905)	6.002 (0.199)	0.580 (0.965)
6	4.539 (0.337)	5.690 (0.223)	11.308 (0.023)	1.851 (0.763)
7	7.224 (0.124)	3.453 (0.485)	10.180 (0.037)	3.991 (0.407)
8	1.358 (0.851)	4.798 (0.308)	1.367 (0.849)	4.546 (0.337)
9	0.973 (0.913)	0.983 (0.912)	8.810 (0.066)	0.943 (0.918)
10	4.008 (0.404)	4.533 (0.338)	4.793 (0.309)	1.015 (0.907)
11	8.321 (0.080)	2.113 (0.714)	2.863 (0.580)	2.255 (0.688)
12	4.938 (0.293)	0.999 (0.909)	1.092 (0.895)	2.924 (0.570)

Note: The p-values are illustrated in parenthesis.

Table 3. Heteroscedasticity tests

Countries	Statistics
Australia	230. 557 (0.041)
Canada	153. 170 (0.284)
France	223.234 (0.080)
USA	152.471 (0.107)

Note: The p-values are illustrated in parenthesis.

5. Unit Root Tests

The maximum integration degree of the variables are determined by three unit root tests developed by Dickey and Fuller (1979), henceforth ADF, and Phillips and Perron (1988), henceforth PP, which test the null hypothesis of unit root without structural breaks and Lee and Strazicich (2003), henceforth LS, which test the null hypothesis of unit root with structural break. At this point, we wish to emphasize that the unit root tests without structural breaks (Augmented Dickey Fuller and Philips Perron) may result in misleading inferences if there are structural shifts in data. Since our study mainly focuses on the impact of income inequality on economic growth from historical perspective, it would be natural to

expect that some structural breaks may occur over the years. Hence, we also apply unit root test allowing for structural breaks.

The ADF test is based on estimating the test regression

$$\Delta y_t = \beta' D_t + \varphi y_{t-1} + \sum_{j=1}^p \omega_j \Delta y_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t \quad (3)$$

where D_t is a vector of deterministic terms (constant, trend) and ε_t is assumed to be homoscedastic. The ADF test statistic is based on the least squares estimate of Eq. (3) and is given by

$$ADF_t = t_{\varphi=1} = \frac{\hat{\varphi}-1}{SE(\varphi)} \quad (4)$$

On the other hand, PP unit root test differs from the ADF test mainly in how it deals with serial correlation and heteroscedasticity in the error term. In particular, PP test ignores any serial correlation in the test regression. The test regression for the PP test is as follows

$$\Delta y_t = \beta' D_t + \varphi y_{t-1} + u_t \quad (5)$$

where u_t may be heteroskedastic. The PP test correct for serial correlation and heteroscedasticity by directly modifying the test statistic.

Lastly, Lee and Strazicich (2003) propose an endogenous two break minimum Lagrange Multiplier unit root test that allows for break under both the null and alternative hypotheses. The two break LM unit root test statistic can be estimated by regression according to the LM principle as follows (Lee and Strazicich, 2003):

$$\Delta y_t = \delta' \Delta Z_t + \phi \tilde{S}_{t-1} + u_t \quad (6)$$

The breakpoints are determined to be where the test statistic is minimized. The asymptotic distributions of the LM unit root tests can be described as follows (Lee and Strazicich, 2003):

$$LM_\rho \rightarrow \inf \left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\sigma_\varepsilon^2}{\sigma^2} \left(\int_0^1 V_B^{(m)}(r)^2 dr \right)^{-1} \right] \quad (7)$$

$$LM_\tau \rightarrow \inf \left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\sigma_\varepsilon}{\sigma} \left(\int_0^1 V_B^{(m)}(r)^2 dr \right)^{-1/2} \right] \quad (8)$$

ADF (1979), PP (1988) and LS (2003) unit root test statistics are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Results for unit root tests with/out structural breaks

Countries	Variables	ADF		PP		LS	
		Constant	Constant and Trend	Constant	Constant and Trend	Model A Break in Constant	Model C Break in Constant and Trend
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Australia	GRO	-6.727*** (1) [0.000]	-6.747*** (1) [0.000]	-4.322*** [0.000]	-4.229*** [0.006]	-7.056*** (1925) (1930)	-7.769*** (1927) (1933)
	INQ	-1.661 (0) [0.447]	-1.433 (0) [0.844]	-1.621 [0.467]	-1.369 [0.863]	-2.131 (1987) (1998)	-6.242 (1952) (1984)
	ΔGRO	-9.012*** (1) [0.000]	-8.958*** (1) [0.000]	-19.800*** [0.000]	-19.638*** [0.000]	-9.696*** (1941) (1946)	-9.826*** (1929) (1933)
	ΔINQ	-9.920*** (0) [0.000]	-10.008*** (0) [0.000]	-9.920*** [0.000]	-10.069*** [0.000]	-8.113*** (1928) (2003)	-10.862*** (1985) (1989)

Quarter Of The World GDP

Canada	GRO	-5.543*** (0) [0.000]	-5.507*** (0) [0.000]	-5.570*** [0.000]	-5.536*** [0.000]	-4.665*** (1925) (1961)	-8.124*** (1932) (1945)
	INQ	-1.246 (1) [0.650]	-0.711 (1) [0.968]	-1.375 [0.590]	-0.694 [0.970]	-1.796 (1937) (1947)	-4.630 (1940) (1986)
	ΔGRO	-11.516*** (0) [0.000]	-11.432*** (0) [0.000]	-14.033*** [0.000]	-13.893*** [0.000]	-11.323*** (1927) (1929)	-12.388*** (1930) (1935)
	ΔINQ	-7.015*** (0) [0.000]	-7.176*** (0) [0.000]	-7.108*** [0.000]	-7.264*** [0.000]	-8.443*** (1939) (1998)	-9.598*** (1939) (1943)
France	GRO	-6.981*** (0) [0.000]	-6.932*** (0) [0.000]	-6.939*** [0.000]	-6.880*** [0.000]	-5.888*** (1929) (1947)	-10.564*** (1943) (1948)
	INQ	-2.603** (1) [0.09]	-1.936 (1) [0.626]	-2.212 [0.203]	-1.256 [0.891]	-2.930 (1943) (1947)	-5.065 (1946) (1976)
	ΔGRO	-11.068*** (1) [0.000]	-11.011*** (1) [0.000]	-19.964*** [0.000]	-19.785*** [0.000]	-10.316*** (1941) (1949)	-12.709*** (1944) (1947)
	ΔINQ	-6.978*** (0) [0.000]	-7.303*** (0) [0.000]	-6.978*** [0.000]	-7.243*** [0.000]	-5.292*** (1928) (1948)	-9.043*** (1932) (1944)
United States	GRO	-5.272*** (0) [0.000]	-5.245*** (0) [0.000]	-5.338*** [0.000]	-5.314*** [0.000]	-6.636*** (1926) (1935)	-7.438*** (1935) (1948)
	INQ	-0.806 (1) [0.812]	-0.217 (0) [0.991]	-0.795 (0.815)	-0.245 (0.991)	-1.201 (1937) (1991)	-4.942 (1953) (1983)
	ΔGRO	-10.506*** (0) [0.000]	-10.446*** (0) [0.000]	-12.542*** [0.000]	-12.433*** [0.000]	-9.286*** (1926) (1944)	-10.990*** (1941) (1950)
	ΔINQ	-7.256*** (0) [0.000]	-7.547*** (0) [0.000]	-7.262*** [0.000]	-7.411*** [0.000]	-8.231*** (1939) (1987)	-8.448*** (1930) (1942)

Note: While the figures in the parentheses () for ADF test indicate the number lags of selected based on the SIC, they show break points for LS test. However, the figures in the parentheses [] indicate p-values for ADF and PP tests. The bandwidth selected is based on Newey-West using Barlett Kernel for the PP test. Model A and C refers level shifts and level and trend shifts, respectively. The critical value of model A is -4.545 at the 1% level. The critical value of model C is -6.42 at the %1 level (Lee Strazicich, 2003, Table 2). ***, ** and * denote statistical significance at the 1, 5 and 10% level of significance, respectively.

The results reported in Table 4 indicate that while GRO in level appears to be stationary, INQ is only stationary in first-difference. More specifically, the unit root test results indicate that while null hypothesis of no unit root is rejected at the 1% significance level, namely, there is a strong evidence on the non-existence of unit root in GRO, null hypothesis of no unit root is accepted at the 1% significance level, confirming that there is a strong evidence on the existence of unit root in INQ.

It is also clearly seen that the unit root test results which do not take into account structural breaks - presented in column (1), (2), (3) and (4)- are in agreement with the unit root tests allowing for structural breaks - presented in column (5) and (6)-. However, we wish to emphasize that LS (2003) unit root test

is able to capture true structural changes, implying that it is better to utilize LS (2003) unit root test than the ADF and PP unit root tests. As mentioned above, the falls which took place between periods before and after the Second World War and rise in inequality during the 1980s are captured by LS (2003) correctly.

6. Causality

After having tested each time series for unit root via ADF, PP and LS, we now turn to run the causality analysis. In this study, we utilize Toda and Yamamoto (1995) (henceforth TY) approach to examine the causality relationship between economic growth and income inequality. In contrast to conventional causality procedures, as pointed by Toda and Yamamoto (1995), the TY (1995) approach does not require testing for cointegration relationship and estimating vector error correction model. Moreover, it can be applied to series with arbitrary integration orders. This is the main reason for applying TY causality procedure in this study.

While the standard Granger causality analysis requires estimating a VAR(p) model in which p is the optimal lag length, TY (1995) estimate the following VAR ($p+d$) model

$$y_t = v + A_1 y_{t-1} + \dots + A_p y_{t-p} + \dots + A_{p+d} y_{t-(p+d)} + u_t \quad (9)$$

where y_t is vector of k variables, v is a vector of intercepts, u_t is white noise residuals, A is the matrix of parameters and d is the maximum integration degree of the variables.

In order to test the null hypothesis of no causality, we conduct a modified Wald test on the first p parameters in Eq. (9), follows an asymptotic X^2 distribution with p degrees of freedom. Of course, the system must satisfy the stability condition and the common assumptions (autocorrelation and heteroscedasticity)ⁱⁱ to yield valid inferences. In addition to this, as shown in previous section, the unit root analysis implies that the maximum integration order (d) of the variables equals to one in the TY approach. The results from TY causality analysis are illustrated in Table 5.

Table 5: Toda and Yamamoto causality test results

INQ to GRO			
Countries	VAR($p + d$)	Statistics	Probability
Australia	6	8.44	0.13
Canada	13	18.44*	0.10
France	6	13.79***	0.01
USA	12	12.08	0.357
GRO to INQ			
Australia	6	7.40	0.192
Canada	13	38.76***	0.00
France	6	13.20**	0.02
USA	12	11.90	0.37

Note: ***, ** and * denote statistical significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level of significance, respectively.

As shown in Table 5, there is unidirectional causality linkage from income inequality to economic growth in Canada and France, indicating that the null hypothesis of non-causality from economic growth to income inequality and from income inequality to economic growth is rejected at conventional levels. Besides that, unidirectional causality relationship is statistically significant only at the 13% and %19 significance level in Australia. For USA, the null hypothesis of no causality cannot be rejected which implies that economic growth is not sensitive to income inequality, or vice versa.

7. Conclusion

This paper aims to provide empirical evidence on the causality relationship between income inequality and economic growth. Using time series approach, this so-called relation is examined by using historical data for four countries –Australia, Canada, France and US- for the period 1922-2008. The

findings show that there is unidirectional causality linkage from income inequality to economic growth in Australia, Canada and France.

In fact, these findings are in agreement with existing literature. As also noted by Barro's implication (2000), it is seen that inequality encourages growth in rich countries. About insignificant results for USA, we can propose that various theoretical effects of inequality on growth are nearly fully offsetting (Barro, 2000, 17). One more implication –the total effect of income distribution inequality on economic growth is weak and often not statistically significant- supports our results.

Deinenger and Squire (1998, 260) claim that the relationship between initial asset inequality and future growth disappears in high income countries. It can be said that possible transmission mechanisms affect the relationship in different ways: negative, positive or balance effectⁱⁱⁱ.

8. References

- Alesina, A. & Rodrik, D. (1994). Distributive politics and economic Growth. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 109(2), 465-490.
- Barro, R. J. (2000). Inequality and growth in a panel of countries, *Journal of Economic Growth*, 5, 5-32.
- Bourguignon, F. (2004). The poverty-growth-inequality triangle', Paper presented at the Indian Council for Research on International Economic Relations, New Delhi.
- Deinenger, K. & Squire, L. (1998). New ways of looking at old issues: inequality and growth, *Journal of Development Economics*, 57, 259-287.
- Dickey, D. A. & Fuller, W. A. (1979). Distribution of the estimators for autoregressive time series with a unit Root, *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 74 (366), 427-431.
- Durlauf, S. N., Johnson, P. A. & Temple J. R. W. (2004). Growth econometrics', *Vassar College Economics Working Paper*, 61.
- Knowles, S. (2005). Inequality and economic growth: the empirical relationship reconsidered in the light of comparable data, *The Journal of Development Studies*, 41(1), 135-159.
- Lee, J. & Strazicich, M. C. (2003). Minimum Lagrange multiplier unit root test with two structural breaks', *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 85 (4), 1082-1089.
- Perotti, R. (1996). Growth, income distribution, and democracy: what the data say', *Journal of Economic Growth*, 1, 149-187.
- Persson, T. & Tabellini G. (1994). Is inequality harmful for growth?, *The American Economic Review*, 84(3), 600-621.
- Phillips P. C. B. & Perron, P. (1988). Testing for a unit root in time series regression', *Biometrika*, 75 (2), 335-346.
- Piketty, T. & Saez, E. (2003). Income inequality in the United States, 1913-1998, *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 118(1), 1-39.
- Thewissen, S. (2014). Is it the income distribution or redistribution that affects growth?', *Socio-Economic Review*, 12, 545-571.
- Toda, H. Y. & Yamamoto, T. (1995). Statistical inference in vector autoregressions with possibly integrated processes', *Journal of Econometrics*, 66, 225-250.

ⁱ According to World Bank, Australia, Canada, France and United States account for around %25 of the gross world products in 2014. This figure is calculated by GDP, PPP (constant 2011 international Dollar). The source is the World Development Indicators of World Bank.

ⁱⁱ The TY (1995) causality procedure satisfies the stability condition and the common assumptions.

ⁱⁱⁱ In some cases positive and negative effects can appear in same magnitude, so they neutralize each other.

RURAL THEATERS IN TURKEY AND WOMEN'S POSITIONS

Dilek Eroglu, Esra Acar

Introduction

One of the human arts, which started with imitation, is theater. The statements found in theater resources like "a-3000-year old art" are even far away to express the development of theater in societies. As Mehmet Fuat stated in the history of theater, "Even while standing in front of the picture of wizard who dressed like deer on the cave wall in southern France which dates back maybe more than fifty thousand years, it must be known to be far away from the beginning of the theater. With the man's imitation of animal which he was going to hunt the other day, theater started. This imitation of human beings to affect the nature with magic evolved to a charm with dance and music and initial magic turned into religion, science and art (Fuat, 1963).

Fischer in the work of "The Necessity of Art" says "The initial mission of art is to provide community power- against nature, enemies, realities. Art is a magic tool, a gun used in survivor of community. At the beginning of humanity, there was less relation between art and beauty and no esthetic concern. Efforts of human beings to be superior tonature with the fear of nature are the basics of many art. First hunters, who dressed like animals and made hunting easier, are the ancestors ofthe art." (Fischer, 2012)

Theater is an important communication and education tool in society and among people in the society. It offers various benefits to attenders even in preparation and presentation processes. In preparation process, it provides various personal and social empowerment benefits like effective communication, working in group, empathy, etc. In presentation process, audiences gain various new perspectives. Therefore, theater is interactive and offers important education environmentfor both attenders and audiences.

The history of the theater is a kind of evidence of interaction between cultures. When the roots of rural drama are examined, it is seen that there are features of abundance and worship ceremonies dating back to before history. The concerns of continuity of life are about the earth that supplies place and nutrition and there has always been theater in ceremonies that celebrates the coming of spring which sends winter and its infertility away. (Karacabey, 1995)

Even if the regions are far away each other and there are differences because of this distance, there are some common features pointing out same roots. These roots;

- 1.Effects of Hellenistic Civilisation and classical mythology
- 2.Middle East Turkish tradition features especially shamanism
- 3.Influence of different cultures during migration period (Sütçüoğlu, 2014).

Even if theater's roots in Turkey dates back to long long ago, in historical period, cultures' holding theater differ from each other. This difference also occurs in between urban and rural areas. In Turkey, it is seen that organised and written theater develops more quickly in cities. Even if there is devotion to tradition in rural areas and a gap between urban and rural areas, rural drama includes various phrases and behaviour transfered from generation to generation. (Karacabey, 1995)

In Ottoman period in Anatolia, the difference between rural and palace takes the new theater culture with itself. Meddahlik, Karagoz and Ortaoyun are among them. The rural drama, which is away from palace theater and can be continued in rural area, is an important source feeding the palace theater. (Sokullu, 1997; Düzgün, 2000)

Among 18332 villages in Turkey, only four of them have a rural theater. This research discusses the foundations of limited numbered theaters, their basic features, current conditions and women's position in this structure.

Method

This research is used quantitative data. The primary data of the research are the interviews with the headmen of villagers and managers of associations. Secondary data from is gatherde other researches, media, scientific reports.

1. Women In Rural Areas In Turkey

The population in rural areas of Turkey is %24 part of whole population. The decrease in rural population is not just because of repulsive effect of rural area and charming effect of urban area. A great deal of rural population are urbanised without migration. Due to The Manucipality Law, numbers of rural people automatically decreased with villages' connection to the nearest city center as a district. After this decision, agriculture fields in these villages are opened for settlement. The families who earn their life from agriculture found themselves in urban life, in which this production is banned, in a night (Eroğlu, 2017).

It is seen that in rural areas the works done by women are the continuation of motherhood and being house wives. In rural areas, women do works like carrying woods, baking, working in the fields which needs intensive efforts besides cleaning the house, cooking, laundry. However, they can't reach the technology that supplies more efficiency and reduces the difficulties.

As it happens in all over the world, in Turkey, there is feminisation in agricultural production. Some ongoing researches show that because of the climate change and the increase in the cost of the production, men have started to have durations of migration which can reach eight months and as a result of this, women have had to have the whole responsibility of the house. It is more common in literature to find the term "feminisation" (Anonim, 2016; Eroglu, 2017). These conditions of women point out an important points in the perspective of rural development action plan; It is becoming more impossible to apply a rural development without women's active attendeance.

Women earn income in return to their productivity. %89 of women working in rural area are in the satue of free workers. Money from their products and management of this money are in the hand of men. Even women who are generally free family workers, work as seasonal worker, they can't get as much money as men because their effort is seen less precious (Anonim, 2012).

As it is in the whole world, in Turkey, the role of women in agricultural production has differences among regions and cultures. Especially in the houses which have less fields, they attend every part of the agricultural production. Inspite of the whole skills on the management of natural resources, they don't have any word in management. For instance; farming. Women are active in every process of it. Women are the only ones who know when to milk the cows, how to milk, what to do in which season with milk. Despite this, men have the control of the income. Women are not able to decide even to buy milking machine (Gülçubuk et all, 2009).

Formal and informal education which is limited for women due to the gender roles is in an important place. Women are the %75,5 of the illiteral population in Turkey. One out of five women, which means approximately 5 million 732 thousand, don't know reading and writing. Besides this, %21,5 of women are literal without graduating from any formal education institue, %37, of them are primary, %7,4 of them secondary school, %10,6 of them high school and only %3,9 of them university graduaters. In rural area, women are disadvantaged in both formal and informal education. Gender inequalities occur more noticeably in rural areas than urban areas. When literacy rates are examined, it is seen that whereas the rate of illiteral women in urban areas is %16,6, in rural areas this number is %30,8 and in some regions it reaches %60s. Same rates for men are in urban areas %3.9 and %9 in rural areas. Migration from rural to urban, east to west transports the illiteracy to urban areas (Anonim, 2009).

In rural areas, the illiteracy rate of the rural population just in Istanbul is higher than that of the urban illiterate population. In all other regions, the illiteracy rate of the urban population is lower than the illiteracy rate of the rural population. Women have less opportunities to learn reading and writing than boys (Günel ve Kartal, 2015).

The right to use capital created by patriarchalism causes the low level of formal organization and entrepreneurship of women. Many women in living in rural areas don't have any right to manage fields.

The managers of these fields are these women' fathers, husbands, brothers, etc (Alkan ve Toksoy, 2009).

2. Women In Theater

Traditional theater perspective occurred in vintage festivals in 5th and 6th centuries. What is known about theater today derives from these festivals. In the 6th B.C both women and men attended these festivals. However, in the 5th B.C., when the theater got the shape what we know today, women started not attending them. There is no evidence that shows anything about social pressure about this (Case, 2010). To keep women away from the theatre, men played women's roles by wearing costumes and having masks on their faces. In Elizabeth Period, women participated in theater, but not totally. However, no sooner than the theater turned into a profession, women were taken away from the stage again. The women masqueraded as men in some of Sheakespear's plays have been the evidences that women found a way for themselves to be on the stage despite the all difficulties and pressure. When Ottoman Period is examined, theater can be thought to be divided into two parts; Anatolian and Palace Theaters. Rural drama and male dominant influence are noticeable in Anatolia. Men named «ZENNE» who masquaraded as women are among the examples of this influence. The women's becoming visible in theater emerged in the period after the proclamation of the republic in which women were accepted as citizens in social life and their basic rights were recognized by the government. Today, the existence of women in public and private theaters is the evidence that obstacles of community about women in theater have almost vanished.

In general meaning, rural theatre states the rural people's animating of the daily events of rural people in a simple way on special days with wearing various costumes (Karadag, 1978). These plays as a transition to rural theaters are the improvisational or pre-known and repeatedly transfered plays that the genders generally play seperately and transfer gender roles to new generations while they are enjoying. There is no certain theater place and written text. Rural drama can be encountered in almost every rural area in Anatolia. Rural drama can't be held without the people and strucure of the villages. Music, costume and jewellery are unique for each village. (Karadag, 1978) These plays, generally prepared by familiar people can be either didactic or just for fun. These shows have continued for many years without any organisation. The aim of these demonstrations is to teach gender to new generations.

In Anatolia, theater demonstrations are held in traditional rural wedding ceremonies. In these plays, the basic reasons of playing seperately and dresssing in like other sex are patriarchal system and influence of Islam. (inan Gönen, Türk kültüründe kız kaçırarak evliliğin köy seyirlik oyunlarındaki izleri)

The evolution of the plays into organised theater having written texts and organisation is in the 19th century. Today, among 18332 villages, just four of them have rural theater organisations. These are; Bademler Rural Theater / İZMİR, Yeşilköy Rural Theater / ANTALYA, Balıkliova Rural Theater / İZMİR, Arslanköy Rural Theater / MERSİN. Although information about rural drama is often seen in folk culture researches, there are limited studies on rural theater.

2.1. Bademler Rural Theater

Bademler Rural Theater is the oldest one of these theaters. It is 9 km from Urla and 35 km from Izmir. It's population is 2000 people and the number of women and men is nearly equal. There has been agriculture of olives and tobacco for many years. Agricultural Development Cooperative, founded in 1964, became a new way for new sectors. The literacy rate is 100%.

The theater was founded in 1930s. In the first years, the themes of the plays were about the life in the village. In 1980's it is more common to see political plays in the theater. In recent years, there have been plays themed social criticism. In this year, plays named "Lutfen Kizimla Evlenir Misin?" and "Ada" are played. To provide the continuity of the theater, two or three people who have never been on the stage are included in the play. There is a theater hall built collaboratively and a toy museum in the village.

«...on the some tombstones in the village cemetry there are not only the names of death people but also their characters they have played. In the duration when the electricity hadn't arrived yet, villagers coming back from the tobacco fields met in storage area of tobacco or at homes and had

rehearsals. Until the theater hall was completed, the plays had been presented in the school garden or in the storage area of tobacco.» (Anonymous, 2017)

Women started participating in the theater from a few years after the foundation of it. In the theater, women's age range is between 12-80. The number of women in theater depends on the characters in the play they play. Besides being actress or director in the theater, some of the women are housewives and some of them work in either as an officer or in a private sector. Some of these women demand some help from their husbands or from other women in the process of demonstration. Women are active in theater in Bademler. It can be said that there is approximately equal gender relations both in public and private area. Despite the whole participation in public area, women continue to achieve gender roles in private area.

2.2. Yesilkoy Rural Theater

It is 44 km from Antalya. The population of the village is 4500 and there is equality between the number of women and men. Agriculture is the main source of income. There is a 180-people theater hall in the village which was built with the financial support of Ministry of Culture. The theater was founded in 1960s and women participated in this process in 1980s. Until 1980s, there had been only a play in a year. The money coming from the tickets of these plays was used for the development of the village, for young people in the village and for cooperative association in the village. In 2008, the village extended its domain. In the village, there has been a theater festival every year since the year 2008 in which "Yesilkoy Egitim Kultur ve Dayanisma Dernegi" was founded. With the organisation of association, in a year one play can be presented 20-25 times. They have tours to other villages to play and demand no money. They do it for free and if they sell tickets, they give the money to the village they have been to.

The number of the women in theater is not stable and changes according to the play. In last three years, it is defined that number of women has not been more than seven. Their age range is 20-60 and all volunteers. Everybody prepares his or her own costume but decor is prepared by men. These women work as an agricultural worker and housewives. In day time, they finish their work and in the evenings they have rehearsals. Besides theater, there is a Women Folk Dance Team and a chorus in the village.

2.3. Balıklıova Rural Theater

It is 63 km from Izmir and 30 km from Urla, founded in the southern part of Karaburun Peninsula. There are 1700 people in the village which include approximately same number of women and men. Fishing and agriculture are the main sources of the income.

When compared with other rural theaters, Balıklıova rural theater is new as it has been just six years since it was started. Balıklıova Rural Theater was founded with the demand from the villagers after Prof. Dr. Semih CELENK, instructor in Fine Art Faculty of Dokuz Eylul University, moved to the village. Balıklıova rural theater has only a play in a year. Until now, they have played «Rumuz Goncagul, Midas'ın Kulakları, Vatan Kurtaran Saban, Toros Canavarı» This year, they play «Resimli Osmanlı Tarihi» In the past, there was an old wedding salon in the village and plays used to be presented there. But, unfortunately, this salon collapsed and plays started to be presented in Necati Cumalı Salon and Urla Atatürk Culture Center.

Even theater is very new, women have been in this process since the beginning of it. The number of women and men in the theater is nearly equal. Their age range is 14 to 54. These women are housewives or have their own businesses. Same as the other villages' women, they work in day time and have rehearsals in the evenings. Besides being an actress in the theater, women make costumes. In 2017, the theater has got the help of decor from Izmir State Theater for the first time. Balıklıova has housed the "International Rural Theater Fest" with Bademler rural theater.

2.4. Arslankoy Rural Theater

Arslankoy was founded 59 km away from Mersin. According to the gathered information from the headman of the village, there are 2500 people including almost same number of men and women. Arslankoy, which was used as a plateau by people from Cukurova and Karaman, is one of the places

where some of poets like Karacaoglan and Dadaloglu who have a great place in the folk literature lived. Agriculture is the initial sources of income in the village.

The theater was founded in 2001 by Ummye KOCAK with her own words «to demonstrate the problems of women in the village». The basic feature of the theater that makes it unique among others is that it consists of just women. Ummye KOCAK says the reason of this is to make women feel themselves more comfortable and to increase the number of women. In the theater, women play men's role with changing costumes and make-up. The women in theater, whose age range is between 20-60, work in fields in the day time. Since the day it was founded, the plays named «Tas Bademler, Hasret Cicekleri, İki Okuz Parası, Hamlet Hamit, Ozon Tabakası, Miktar Adayı Hasret Ana, Baba Ben Geldim» have been presented. Ummye KOCAK, the founder and the director of the theater, doesn't live in Arslankoy any more but in the other village near it. Ummye KOCAK, whose name is always mentioned not only because of being a theater director but also because of the films directed by her, was awarded as «The Best Eurasian Woman Artist in the Cinema» in New York Movie Festival with her movie named «YUN BEBEK».

Conclusion

In rural areas, women are in disadvantaged position because of masculine social relations both in public and private area. It is impossible to solve gender inequality problem with focusing on just economy due to the fact that current authority relations are reproduced with the rural development attempts. The only thing to open the way of sustainable development is the attendance of both women and men in social life with a good synergy. For this reason, participatory rural theaters are very important organisations that must be examined carefully in details

The evolution of rural drama into rural theater is an important point of community empowerment in this rural area. Even these rural theaters don't call themselves "participatory", it can be concluded from the gathered data that women are volunteers and have been active in these theaters since their foundations. This shows that these theaters are participatory, not only in the structure but also in role distribution, in choosing a text, and in work share. Whereas some conditions that makes private area roles of women continue like women's sewing costumes are seen, it is described as "people's doing what they know well" by one of the headmen.

While rural drama has pressure on women about reproducing gender roles again and again, rural theaters have shown a good deal of development in both women attendance and their sustainability in theater. The details of women empowerment in public and private areas are not the topics of this study, but they are among the necessary elements that must be examined in further researchs.

Drama is an important and strategic tool in the transfer of social codes to new generations. Rural Theaters play an important role especially in teaching gender roles. Participatory theaters can be more effective to improve communication between genders.

Theater is a kind of rural development tool used for community empowerment in all over the world. However, it doesn't have a systematic program for rural development in Turkey. Considering the increasing of rural migration to urban, these theaters have the risk of losing their sustainability.

References

- Case, S. E., (2008) *Feminism and Theater*, ISBN 978230521179.
- Boyacıoğlu, F., (2004) *Geleneksel Tiyatro Ve Uyumsuzluk Tiyatrosu*, Selçuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 2004, 11, ISSN 1302 1799.
- Karadağ, N., (1978), *Köy Seyirlik Oyunları*, Ankara: Türkiye İş Bankası Yayınları
- Sütçüoğlu, O., (2014), *Bir Anadolu seyirlik Oyunu ve Ritüelinin Çözümlemesi*, *Mediterranean Journal of Humanities*, 261-274 pp
- Sokullu, S., (1992), *Tiyatro Komedyanın Evrimi*, Kültür bakanlığı yayınları, 289pages
- Düzgün, D., (2000), *Osmanlı Döneminde geleneksel Türk tiyatrosunun genel durumu*, *Türkiyat Araştırmaları Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 63-69pp
- Karacabey, S., (1995), *Gelenekselden Batı'ya Türk Tiyatrosu*, *Tiyatro Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 3-10pp

- Fischer, E.,(2012), Sanatın Gerekliđi, Pavel Yayınları, 264 pages
- Fuat, M.,(1961), Tiyatro Tarihi, Mitoş Yayınları, 248pages
- Eroglu, D., (2107), Sürdürülebilir Yaşan Penceresinden yerel ve kırsal kalkınma; Kırsal Alanlarda Toplumsal Cinsiyet İlişkileri (in press)
- Anonim (2012), TÜİK, Tarımsal İşletmeler (Hanehalkı) Ücret Yapısı Araştırması Sonuçları
- Anonim (2008), www.unicef.org, Eğitimin Toplumsal cinsiyet açısından incelenmesi Türkiye Raporu
- Gülçubuk, B., Yıldırak, N., Kızılaslan, N., Ozer,D., Kan,M., Kepođlu,A., (2009) Kırsal Kalkınma Yaklaşımları ve politika deđişimleri, Ziraat Mühendisleri Odası Yayınları
- Alkan, S. ve Toksoy, D., (2009), Orman Köylerinde Kadın ve Kırsal Kalkınma. (Trabzon ili örneđi). II. Ormancılıkta Sosyoekonomik Sorunlar Kongresi. 19-21 Şubat 2009, Isparta, 99-107
- Gürel, N. Ve Kartal,S.,(2015), Examining Access to Education in Turkey According To Some Variables, Elementary Education Online, 14(2), 593-608pp.

Pınarhisar's of Ayan Proprietor Hadji Ali Agha The Bosphorus Minister

Mensure Öztürk

1. Introduction

Pınarhisar was included in the Ottoman borders in the fourteenth century, during the rule of Murad I. At that time, nomadic tribes were settled in this area in framework of housing and enlivening implementations (Yarçı, 2007: 16). Pınarhisar was recorded as a township in 1509, and as a sub-district in 1528, while some of its villages were regarded as foundational villages (Gökbilgin, 2007: 396). In 1667, as a township it was administered by the district of Vize. By the eighteenth century, it was referred to as both sub-district and township, and in the second half of the nineteenth century, it was a township administered by the district of Vize (Doğan, 2014: 210).

In the early nineteenth century, when Uzun Hacı Ali Ağa (Long Hadji Ali Agha), the main focus of this study, was the ayan (notable member) of Pınarhisar, records indicate that there was an attack on the township of Pınarhisar on March 19, 1807. There were 500 houses in Pınarhisar, which allowed the government to have some demands from the township. Considering the total population, the government ordered them to send 19.000 kile of cereals (an old measure for cereals used in the Ottoman era, Develioğlu, 1993), 3.000 kile of wheat and 10.000 kile of barley to the Aydos storehouse. They also demanded 40 horses. However, some residents were too poor to meet these demands, and the township ask for mercy for those who were unable to contribute. Another document used for comparison relates to the period when Hacı Ali Ağa was the ayan and is also dated 1807 (March 23). This document indicates that Hacı Ali Ağa, ayan of Pınarhisar, was ordered to send the cereals to the relevant officer one hour before for the soldiers protecting the Black Sea coast. The government also sent a letter to Hacı Ali Ağa, reinforcing the orders, which indicates the importance of the issue. Accordingly, the food that was to be supplied from the township of Pınarhisar was loaded on 40 horses, and another amount of cereals loaded on 40 horses were demanded in addition from a village administered by Pınarhisar. However, the residents of the township were desperately poor and stated that they could not respond to these demands. When sending this request for leniency on their behalf, the ayan of Pınarhisar stated that Yapağica village, administered by the township of Silivri, was also extremely poor and unable to meet these demands (BOA, C. AS: 445/18536).

Following the Rebellion of Kabakçı Mustafa in İstanbul in May 1807, Selim III was succeeded by Mustafa IV. Meanwhile, the war with the Russians continued to the disadvantage of the Ottoman Empire. The Rumelian army had no capacity to resist the enemy, which made the situation even worse (Sertoğlu, 2011: 2822). When the incidents in İstanbul were heard of, Alemdâr Mustafa Paşa (the ayan of Rusçuk district) went to stay in Edirne during the winter as serasker (head of the armed forces). His main purpose was to return Selim III to power and he began to collect groups of soldiers from cities and villages, together with their commanders. He sent the permanent soldiers in the army to İstanbul, and continued preparations to follow them with his fellows (Arapyan, 1943: 7-8).

2. The Execution of Kabakçı Mustafa

After Selim III succeeded to the throne, he initiated the Nizam-i Djedid movement with the aim of renovating public agencies, particularly the army, based on European methods. However, this movement was opposed jointly by the janissary (elite infantry units) and the ulema (scholars) and the Nizam-i Djedid activities planned for Rumelia ended in failure.

When Mustafa IV came to power, the lack of security increased. There was chaos, resolution of the state structure, and struggle between anti-reformists. He also granted different bonuses to the janissary due to the change of the rule. On his request, Kabakçı Mustafa (one of the rebellion leaders) was granted the title of turnacıbaşı (a higher degree of squadron leader), as well as the ministry and landlordship of the castles located in the Rumelian area of the Black Sea Strait (İnce, 2008: 283). In this situation, the

supporters of Selim III turned to Alemdâr Mustafa Paşa and it was decided that the army would be allowed to proceed to İstanbul from Rumeli (Keleş and Ercoşkun, 2014: 289).

Two days before the army was to leave Edirne for İstanbul, Alemdâr Mustafa Paşa sent Uzun Hacı Ali Ağa, the ayan of Pınarhisar and one of his closest officers, to İstanbul on July 8, Friday, together with about 50 mounted soldiers. Only Paşa himself and Hacı Ali Ağa knew where they were going. Hacı Ali Ağa was sent to Rumeli Feneri Castle on the shore of Black Sea Strait. The secret mission of Pınarhisar's ayan was to catch and execute Kabakçı Mustafa, the Bosphorus Minister, who was the main leader of the 1807 revolution (Koçu, 1968: 89). Following orders, Uzun Hacı Ali Ağa found a way to kill Kabakçı Mustafa, along with some of his soldiers. After this incident, the soldiers in his troop gathered and began to ask who the murderer was and why Kabakçı Mustafa had been killed. The palace was notified about this issue (Asım Efendi, 2015: 1180-1181). It was revealed later that there had been a secret army order to the Pınarhisar ayan to "execute Mustafa, also known as Bosphorus Minister Kabakçı Mustafa, for occupying Midye and its vicinity, being cruel to the poor, living extravagantly, and acting separately from the army" (Uzunçarşılı, 2010: 116-117).

The document of July 10, 1808, indicates that Bosphorus Minister Mustafa Ağa, who led the Kabakçı Mustafa Rebellion against Sultan Selim III, was in the neighborhood of Rumeli Feneri Castle in opposition to Alemdâr Mustafa Paşa. So in Edirne, Alemdâr Mustafa Paşa sent Pınarhisar's ayan Uzun Hacı Ali Ağa to Rumeli Feneri Castle where he destroyed some houses and the castle, and executed Kabakçı Mustafa and sent his head to Ordu-yu Hümâyun (Ottoman Army) that was located in Çorlu mansion (Koçu, 1968: 95).

The execution of Kabakçı Mustafa was a great concern to the Strait assistants, İstanbul janissaries, and even palace dignitaries. Afterwards, the arrival of Alemdâr in İstanbul with an army of 15.000 in the morning of July 28, 1808, led Mustafa IV to order the immediate execution of Selim III and Prince Mahmud. Selim III was martyred, but Mahmud II became sultan thanks to the endeavors of Alemdâr Mustafa Paşa (Öztürk, 2015: 107-108).

3.The Bosphorus Ministry of Hacı Ali Ağa

When they were leaving Edirne, together with Ordu-yu Hümâyun, Hacı Ali Ağa, Pınarhisar's ayan, was ordered to decapitate Bosphorus Minister Kabakçı Mustafa. They attacked Kabakçı Mustafa's house and killed him, as well as some of his men, and the soldiers in the castles of the Straits were scattered.

After Kabakçı Mustafa was killed, the government decided to make some appointments and rearrangements within the command of the Straits. Initially, they located soldiers in Anatolia and Rumelia customs houses, which were established during the rule of Sultan Abdulhamid, as well as the Cape Yuşa and Telli Dalyan bastions. Then, a number of soldiers were settled in the bastion of Cape Kireç, which was renovated for this purpose, and appointed Bostancıbaşı Ağa as its head. Hacı Ali Ağa came to be regarded as a crafty person, which helped him to be nominated as the Minister of Bosphorus and the commander of the military units for the castles of the Straits. It was also stated that there was a need for artillery units for these castles. The following correspondence concluded that Hacı Ali Ağa would be appointed as the Minister of Bosphorus, and the required artillery units would be organized especially for the castles (BOA, HAT: 473/23134). In addition to the appointment of Hacı Ali Ağa as Minister of Bosphorus, a number of officers were appointed to these Strait castles, and the order that was implemented and appreciated during the time of Cezayirli Hasan Paşa (previous naval commander [Kaptan-ı Derya]) was reinstated. There were voyages to the Anatolian and Rumelian shores of the Strait. Thus, there were guards for each shore appointed by Beylerbeyi administration, which showed the importance attributed to the qualifications of the soldiers. The order required that even the pashas would not be able to intervene in the castles (BOA, HAT: 1357/53190).

On August 25, 1808, Uzun Hacı Ali Ağa was appointed as the Minister and guard of the Strait castles under the grand viziership of Mustafa Paşa. Then, the assistants who were working on their own escaped and some of them were killed, and sekbans (a specific group of members within the janissary) were appointed to replace the leaders of the Selim incident (Cabi Ömer Efendi, 2003: 183-191).

On August 2, 1808, Hacı Ali Ağa, Guard of the Black Sea Strait and ayan of Pınarhisar, was provided with a number of soldiers. The Laz and Çepni bandits, under the control of Kabakçı Mustafa who had

been killed by Hacı Ali Ağa, were dismissed. Some of the bandits were killed. Those who escaped had to leave the fields, arable fields, houses and farms that they had taken by force. As Minister of Bosphorus, Hacı Ali Ağa appointed bostancı soldiers (the soldiers that were working in the gardens and boats of the palace) to the castles of Fener, Selvi Burnu, and Macar Bastion. He exiled to the Mediterranean Strait the soldiers from all groups including the Laz, Çepni (the Turkmens in Eastern Black Sea Region), and Kurds (Cabi Ömer Efendi, 2003: 196).

The following incident is reported when Hacı Ali Ağa was the Minister of the Bosphorus. Cabi Tarihi (The History by Cabi) states that two village guards working in İstiranca, Çatalca were kidnapped and a ransom was demanded for them. When their demands were rejected, they killed one of the guards, and tortured the other, cutting off one foot. Thus, the Grand Vizier was notified about the event with a letter. He sent an imperial order to Hacı Ali Ağa, the Minister of Bosphorus, stipulating that the İstiranca Mountains be surrounded by the company leaders, and the three muggers as well as the old villager with his foot cut were found at once and sent to Bâb-ı Ali (the Sublime Porte). The soldiers set off at once, and determined the location of the muggers in a short while. One of the bandits was shot when trying to escape, and the others were taken to the fish market to be executed (Cabi Ömer Efendi, 2003: 222).

4. The State of Hacı Ali Ağa, the Minister of Bosphorus, After 1808 Bab-ı Âli Interruption

The fire which started during the Janissary Rebellion in 1808 was so expansive that it continued for three days. For this reason, the members of the janissary thought that Alemdâr Mustafa Paşa had escaped from the ammunition store in the cellar as his dead body was not found. They were concerned about his escape and about where his inevitable attack would come from. They were also worried that the soldiers from Üsküdar would also attack, as they had a large army (6000 or 7000 soldiers). If Hacı Ali Ağa, the Minister of Black Sea and Marmara Straits, cooperated with the artillery units, the soldiers on cart, and the soldiers in Levend Farm, this would put the Naval Commander in a very difficult position on the seas. Thus, they began to initiate first, even in the mansions located at the shore of the strait (Cabi Ömer Efendi, 2003: 281).

On the same day, the janissaries in Galata attacked Levend Farm. The two sides battled here for a while, and Süleyman Ağa, the Leader of the Military Place, called his squadron leader and other top soldiers to the battlefield. Some of the soldiers that arrived were executed. The leaders at Levend Farm escaped to join Uzun Hacı Ali Ağa, the Minister of Bosphorus. When Levend Farm was abandoned, the houses and stores in the neighborhood were plundered. Üsküdar Military Place was also plundered, and 200 of the mounted soldiers there escaped to the villages. However, the local villagers were very frightened and they alarmed the public saying that Çengelköy and Beylerbeyi had been raided and set on fire by the sekban. The local people began to attack from the land and the sea using the arms they had at their homes. They created chaos spreading misinformation that Uzun Hacı Ali Ağa, the Minister of Bosphorus, who had executed Kabakçı Mustafa, also came and raided Beylerbeyi. Once the dead body of Alemdâr Mustafa Paşa was found on the third day of the rebellion, Hacı Ali Ağa arranged four boats and sent his property and belongings to Pınarhisar, using his power as the Minister of Bosphorus. He gathered his soldiers and all of the arms owned by the local community of Kavak, proceeded to the interior of the local mosque, and locked the door from inside. He placed the residents inside the castle, and left for Pınarhisar, where he served as the ayan, taking the keys of the castle and the mosque (Cabi Ömer Efendi, 2003: 290, 297, 311).

When the rebellion was still underway, the janissaries wanted to find the politicians who had escaped from Sultan Mahmud II, and Hacı Ali Ağa, the ayan of Pınarhisar. It was reported that it would be easier to find these individuals thanks to the power of the Sultan. They demanded that they were provided with cannons otherwise and that the janissaries would deal with this issue personally (Cabi Ömer Efendi, 2003: 313).

Kandıralı Mehmet Çavuş, who was the servant of Naval Commander Seydi Ali Paşa, was sent to fight with Hacı Ali Ağa, and was granted the title of the Master of Masters. When Uzun Hacı Ali Ağa arrived in Pınarhisar together with the servant of Kul, one of his attendants, he prepared to gather his soldiers. Köse, who was the servant of Alemdâr Mustafa Paşa and a fugitive, sent four hundred men to

Hacı Ali Ağa. Thus, Hacı Ali Ağa had seven hundred men in total. He kept four hundred men in Pınarhisar, and sent three hundred to attack Kandıralı Mehmet Paşa and the servant of Kul. Kandıralı and the servant of Kul left their soldiers and cannons, and escaped through Burgaz in a desperate state (Cabi Ömer Efendi, 2003: 384).

It was supposed that Hacı Ali Ağa had passed through Sultan Selim Giray's farm as a fugitive. Thus, some of the janissary soldiers went to see Sultan Selim Giray and questioned him. He said that there were rumors that Hacı Ali Ağa, the Minister of Bosphorus, could arrive in the neighborhood. However, he added that he had no idea whether he was a friend or an enemy. He also promised that he would notify the government if he ever came to the farm. Kadı Abdurrahman Paşa and Ramiz Paşa, two other politicians who were fugitives, stayed in Sultan Selim Giray's farm as well. Then, they went to Pınarhisar to join Hacı Ali Ağa, together with Sultan Selim Giray. They preferred to stay with Uzun Hacı Ali Ağa as the place was set on a hilltop and well defended. Sultan Selim Giray expressed his worry and sorrow about the situation saying, "Show me a solution for this! Save me from these people. Don't you need a solution and a mediator from the state?" Then he left the others there, and went back to his farm (Cabi Ömer Efendi, 2003: 297, 315).

When Selim Giray Khan went back to his farm in Çatalca, Hacı Osman Ağa came to inspect the area as an officer of the palace. He wrote a letter to the palace reporting the conversations they had. In the letter, he said that the fugitive pashas and Hacı Ali Ağa left the ship and came to the Sultan's farm with almost eight hundred soldiers. They stayed there for about three hours, and left with the Sultan's horses and some belongings. He added that the janissaries disturbed Sultan Giray every time. He said that Hacı Ali Ağa went to Pınarhisar through the Strait, and he was with him as well. He also said that Hacı Ali Ağa was eager to make peace with the state, and his sole objective was the maintenance of the state. Meanwhile, a number of individuals who were supposedly Hacı Ali Ağa's men were caught and executed. When their heads were brought to İstanbul, they were not given to the state officials, but hidden (Cabi Ömer Efendi, 2003: 360-369).

Uzun Hacı Ali Ağa, the Minister of the Black Sea Strait, had correspondence with the leader of the janissary from Pınarhisar asking for forgiveness. He stated "Even though I did not follow you and executed Kabakçı Mustafa, I did this on the imperial order of the Grand Vizier who ordered the voyage as the lead commander of the army in Ordu-yu Hümayûn. Then, I had a time alone and did not get involved in the fights of the sekban or the janissary. When leaving the Ministry of Bosphorus, I delivered all the ammunition and armory to Mehmet Ağa, the guard of the castle, along with the properties that could be needed. I also told him that I would want them back just as they were if I was ever to be called back to duty by the state. Then, I became a janissary, that is, a soldier of the state. They came with that many soldiers, arrested Sultan Selim Giray and me, and occupied Pınarhisar. We had no other choice but to shelter in the government" (Cabi Ömer Efendi, 2003: 357). However, the janissaries claimed that this was just another intrigue. They said that Hacı Ali Ağa aimed to offend the janissaries by implying that he did not believe in what they said. For this reason, they prevented his letter from reaching the government.

Hacı Ali Ağa was keeping Pınarhisar under his control, and attacked Midye whenever he found himself in a difficult situation. Thus, Kaymakam Paşa (District Governor) sent a letter saying that Midye and its vicinity should be protected carefully due to the potential damage by Hacı Ali Ağa. It was also deemed necessary that officer Kethüda Paşa (servant) send soldiers to Pınarhisar, and 200 soldiers from the quarter of Strait Castles were to be sent to Midye immediately (100 from the castle that was directed by the Minister of Bosphorus, and 100 from the one directed by Bostancıbaşı Ağa). It was requested that the soldiers were given 10 to 15 kurus (Ottoman and Turkish currency subunit) of pocket money as well as 100 Ottoman rifles and a few chests of cartridges from the ammunition stores that were to be given back when they returned. This request was granted. (BOA, HAT: 410/21331). When the government learned that the ayan of Pınarhisar occupied Midye and its vicinity, they decided to execute him (BOA, HAT: 1363/53788).

Men were sent to pursue Uzun Hacı Ali Ağa and Naval Commander Ramiz Paşa in Pınarhisar (including the head guardians of the gate) and Tefurdağı, Malkara, Keşan, Hayrabolu, Burgaz, Çorlu, Silivri Büyük and Küçük Çekmece, İznik and Sapanca. As required by the relevant provision in the

imperial order, nine Tatars were notified and sent to different neighborhoods (Cabi Ömer Efendi, 2003: 351).

Hacı Ali Ağa, who was under continuous pressure to find Köse Kethüda Ahment Efendi and Ramiz Paşa, sent a letter to the janissary leader with some gifts. In this letter, he said that he was writing to the janissary leader instead of Bab-ı Âli, even though Kandıralı Mehmet Paşa was a top soldier, asking for forgiveness, and repeating that he was only performing the duty given to him by the state. He obtained the conclusion he desired with the help of the janissaries (Cabi Ömer Efendi, 2003: 391-392).

A document dated August 23, 1809, indicated that Hacı Ali Ağa was wounded in Babadağı battle in Ottoman-Russian war (1806-1812) with the titles of Pınarhisar ayan and a soldier of Dergâh-ı Ali. The Russian soldiers approached from Babadağı and attempted to enter İsakçı and Tulca on the Danube by building a bridge in Kartal. The bridge was occupied by Yılıkoğlu after an attack to Babadağı. They established an army in Davutbey Desert near Karaharman, and battled against the Russian army with Dergâh-ı Ali, Hacı Ali Ağa, Velvele Ağa (former leader of the cavalrymen), and some of the ayans. Some of the Russian soldiers in this area escaped to the forest, and others went to the battlefield. When Orduy-ı Hümâyun asked for help, Hacı Ali Ağa and the accompanying ayans went to İstanbul (Cabi Ömer Efendi, 2003: 521-522).

5. Conclusion

The late eighteenth century and early nineteenth century involve the period of administrative and financial restructuring for the Ottoman Empire. During that time, the ongoing battles and revolts against the state resulted in the emergence of certain phenomena. It is observed that even the reformist bureaucrats and the ayans from the country had an influence on politicians regarding changes in policies.

This study has conveyed the incidents occurring after the execution of Kabakçı Mustafa by Hacı Ali Ağa, the ayan of Pınarhisar and one of the reformists that united within Nizâm-ı Djedid, as a requirement of his duty, and his appointment as the Minister of Bosphorus. Hacı Ali Ağa was promoted in a short period of time and became the Bosphorus Minister, which is also important for providing an insight into the administrative and military structure of the state at the time. To conclude, the changes of rule in İstanbul as a result of the role Hacı Ali Ağa played in the calming of Kabakçı Rebellion and his transition to the Bosphorus Ministry from the ayan position are important as they demonstrate the destructive nature of the rebellions occurring in a short period of time. In addition, the janissaries acted on their own will after the rebellion of 1808, and Hacı Ali Ağa tried to make them forgive him during the times when he was a fugitive, both of which demonstrate the administrative deterioration within the state.

6. References

6.1. Archive Reference

Prime Minister's Office, Ottoman Archives (BOA)

Hatt-i Humayun (HAT) File/Cover: 1357/53190; 1363/53788; 473/23134; 410/21331.

Cevdet-i Askeri (C.AS) File/Cover : 445/18536.c

6.2. Books and Articles

Arapyan, K. (1943). *The Life and Heroic Tales of Mustafa Paşa the âyan of Rusçuk*. Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi (Turkish Historical Society Printing House): Ankara.

Cabi Ömer Efendi, (2003). *The History by Cabi (The History of Sultan Selim III and Sultan Mahmud II) The Analyzed and Critized Text*. Prepared by Mehmet Ali Beyhan, I, Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi (Turkish Historical Society Printing House): Ankara.

Develioğlu, F. (1993). *Osmanlıca-Türkçe Lügât (Ottoman Turkish Dictionary)*. Prepared for publishing by Sami Güneşal, Aydın Bookstore Publishing: Ankara.

- Doğan, F. (2014). A Thrace Town in the Period of Tanzimat Based on Income Tax Records: Pınarhisar. *Karadeniz Araştırmaları Dergisi (Black Sea Studies Journal)*, 41, 208-225.
TTK Publishing House: Ankara.
- Gökbilgin, M. T. (2007). *Edirne and the District of Paşa in the Fifteenth and Sixteenth Centuries*. İşaret Publishing House: İstanbul.
- Interpreter Ahmed Asım Efendi, (2015). *The History by Asım Efendi (Ottoman History 1218- 1224/1804-1809)*. (Prepared for publishing by Ziya Yılmaz), 2, Turkey Manuscripts Institution President Office: İstanbul.
- İnce, Y. (2008). Kabakçı Mustafa Revolt from the Perspective of a Witness, *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Türkiyat Araştırmaları Dergisi (Hacettepe University Turkic Studies Journal)*, 9, 281-308.
- Keleş, E. & Ercoşkun, T. (2014). *The State of the Ottoman Empire and Three Rebellions in İstanbul By Stratford Canning (1807-1809)*. Ankara Üniversitesi Tarih Araştırmaları Dergisi (Ankara University History Studies Journal), 33 (56), 265-318.
- Koçu, R. E. (1968). *Kabakçı Mustafa*. Koçu Publishing House: İstanbul.
- Oğulukyan, G. (1972). *Georg Oğulukyan's Agenda: The Rebellions of 1806-1810 (Selim III, Mustafa IV, Mahmud II, and Alemdâr Mustafa Paşa)*, Translation and Notes: Hrand D. Andreasyan, Faculty of Letters Printing House: İstanbul.
- Öztürk, M. (2015). A Brief Overview to Rouse New Alemdar Mustafa Pasha and Confiscation on process. *Iğdır Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi (Iğdır University Social Science Journal)*, 7, 95-129.
- Sertoğlu, M. (2011). A Detailed Ottoman History with Visuals and Maps. 5, Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi (Turkish Historical Society Printing House): Ankara.
- Uzunçarşılı İ.H. (2010). *Tirsinikli İsmail and, Yılıkoğlu Süleyman, Two of the Well-known Ayans of Rumelia and Alemdâr Mustafa Paşa*. Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi (Turkish Historical Society Printing House): Ankara.
- Yarç, G. (2007). Pınarhisar As Explained By Archive Documents. *Yöre Dergisi (Yöre Journal)*, 86-88.

The Existential Concerns Questionnaire (ECQ): A Study of Validity and Reliability*

Durmus Ummet, Halil Eksi, Yakup Ozkapu, Fusun Eksi

1. Introduction

The existential psychotherapy, which may be regarded new in the field of psychotherapy but whose roots date back to older times, has emerged as a product of phenomenology originating from Karl Jaspers, Kierkegaard, Heidegger, Edmund Husserl. Major psychotherapy theorists such as Rollo May, Viktor Frankl, and Irvin Yalom have significantly contributed to the popularity of the movement. Existentialism claims "existence precedes essence", while Rollo May made it more meaningful by stating "man does not grow only with the programming of nature, but with his own contribution to growth" (Corey, 2008; Dökmen, 2000; Geçtan, 1990). The existentialist approach emerged as a reaction to the traditions which addressed man as an object, ignoring his uniqueness and authenticity. Existentialism is based on the principle that man can only exist and change in time which he is living in (now and here), and focuses on existence, meaningfulness, death, anxiety, finiteness and identification. (Bezirci, 1997, Corey, 2008, Yalom, 2001). Among these concepts the existentialist approach focuses on, the anxiety will be the subject which will be particularly emphasized in this research.

Existentialists regard the concept of anxiety as one of the most important situations concerning human nature. At the same time, they distinguish between neurotic anxiety and existential anxiety, which are the anxieties that ordinary people experience in their daily lives. According to existentialists, existential anxiety is a very basic and universal condition in human life and it is experienced in its pure state by very few people (Kıraç, 2007). Tillich (2014) describes the transition between pathological and existential anxiety as follows: Neurotic anxiety is the inability of a person to take responsibility for his or her existence. Pathological anxiety rests on self-esteem and defense on a limited, constant and unrealistic basis. Pathological anxiety displays unrealistic certainty in connection with meaninglessness. According to Yalom and Josselson (2008), existential anxiety is a form of normal anxiety. According to the existentialist perspective, the source of anxiety is the existence of human being itself. Yalom (2001) suggests four fundamental existential anxieties that cause anxiety: anxiety of meaninglessness, death, isolation and freedom. Meaningfulness anxiety arises when people question the meaning of life and why life exists. Death anxiety is experienced when a person is questioning whether he is a finite creature approaching death. Instead of addressing death, existentialists focus on death's making life meaningful. Isolation anxiety is the emotion that emanates from the isolation of man's from his self and others, and it forces the person to be with others. Finally, freedom anxiety is felt when one is responsible for his own life, independent of others. This may sometimes add meaning to one's life while it may also lead to anxiety (Göka, 2010; Karaca, 2000; May, 2013; Yalom, 2001; Yalom & Josselson, 2008).

According to existentialist approach, man is conscious of his own being, his actions, and what happens to him. Man is also a creature that can assume the responsibility of his own life and decisions (Geçtan, 1974). Every human being has the potential to develop and have a satisfying existence. However, people often encounter obstacles in reaching this. Existentialists claim that conflicts and hardships that life brought about, if they are accepted as they are rather than avoided or denied, shall strengthen man. (Yalom, 2001). If such an acceptance does not come into being, it naturally leads to the inevitability of the appearance of an anger towards the existence of one's self and also causes negative situations such as depression and anxiety. (Deniz, 2016; Sayar, 2000). Based on this, it is necessary not to ignore the expressions of the existentialist approach and to examine existential anxiety in this attempt to understand man and the causes of his behavior. When we examine the related literature in our country, we failed to find a scale that directly measures existential anxiety. However, I came across Existential Concern Scale which was developed by Yıkılmaz (2016) and is thought to be displaying similar dynamics. Valid and reliable measurement tools used in quantitative research

patterns are known as tools that help to get to know man. From this point of view, it is thought that the research tool developed in this research fills a void and can be used in the field of psychotherapy and counseling. The aim of the study was to investigate reliability and validity of the Turkish version of the Existential Concerns Questionnaire.

2. Method

Participants

For the Turkish version of the Existential Concerns Scale, a total of 389 volunteers were reached at different ages, as in the original development study. Participants' ages ranged from 19 to 50, with an average age of 27,99. 117 of the participants were male, 272 were females. In addition, 50 different people were reached for the criterion validity of the scale.

Data Collection Tools

The Existential Concerns Questionnaire (ECQ): In this study, the original form of scale on which the Turkish adaptation work was conducted was developed by Bruggen, Klooster, Westerhof, Kleine, Bohlmeijer and Glas (2017). In the scale development process, 465 people aged between 30-50 constituted the sample of the study. These people are at different ages, level of education, and of cultural structure (4% of Turks) and have different religious beliefs. In explanatory factor analysis conducted for validity analysis in the study, a structure consisting of 22 items and 3 sub-dimensions was obtained. When factor loads and structures are examined, it is seen that the scale has 3 sub-dimensions namely *General EA*, (variance explanation ratio=37.2%) *Death Anxiety*, (variance explanation rate=10.2%) and *Avoidance* (variance explanation rate=5.37%). These three sub-dimensions together account for 52.7% of the total variance. Then model fit indices for the 3 sub-dimensions of the scale were examined. The fit index values of the one-dimensional model are: $\chi^2 = 1122.21$, $sd = 209$, $RMSEA = .106$, $NFI = .93$, $CFI = .942$, and $SRMR = .093$. The fit index values of the three-dimensional model: $\chi^2 = 530.97$, $sd = 206$, $RMSEA = .062$, $NFI = .977$, $CFI = .979$, and $SRMR = .077$. The fit index values of Bifactor model are: $\chi^2 = 379.98$, $sd = 187$, $RMSEA = .052$, $NFI = .985$, $CFI = .988$, and $SRMR = .063$. The factor loads of the items changed between .42 and .80. The Cronbach's alpha values calculated for the reliability of the scale were calculated as .92 for the total. Cronbach alpha values of the sub-dimensions were not found in the original study.

The Existential Anxiety Scale (EAS): The scale developed by Yıkılmaz (2016) was used to test the validity of EAS. Exploratory factor analysis showed that the scale had 25 items and 4 factors, and that these factors accounted for 50.58% of the variance change. These factors are called Meaninglessness Anxiety (10 items), Death Anxiety (5 items), Isolation Anxiety (5 items) and Freedom Anxiety (5 items). As a result of the second level confirmatory factor analysis carried out in order to confirm the 4 factorial structure with 25 items, it was determined that the scale has a structure of two level factor. Moreover, when the acceptance cut-off points are taken into consideration, the fit indices of the measurement model is found to be sufficient. In the analyses conducted to test the reliability of the scale, the internal consistency coefficient of the ECS was found to be $\alpha = .85$. Internal consistency coefficient of the subscale of meaninglessness of the scale is $\alpha = .87$, internal consistency coefficient of death subscale $\alpha = .79$, internal consistency coefficient of insolation subscale $\alpha = .70$ and the internal consistency coefficient of freedom subscale $\alpha = .71$.

Process and Statistical Process

In the adaptation process of the scale, the following steps suggested by Brislin, Lonner, and Thorndike (1973) in scale adaptation were followed.

The Existential Concerns Questionnaire (ECQ)

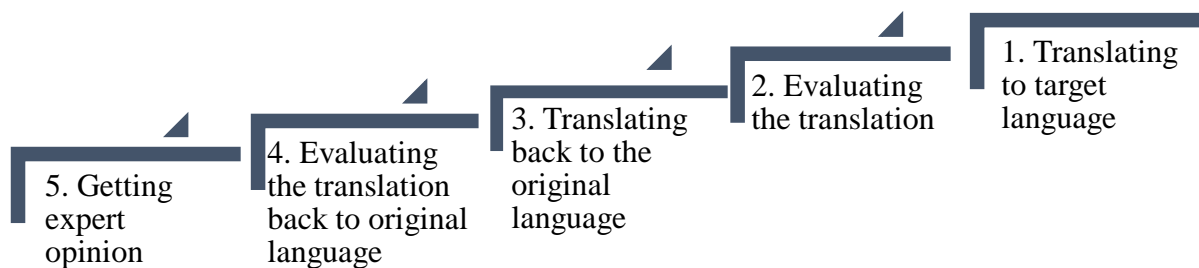


Figure 1. Scale Adaptation Steps

After obtaining the necessary permits from the researchers who conducted the original study of the scale, according to these steps, the scale was first translated into Turkish by the five experts who mastered the English language and whose mother tongues were Turkish. The translations made by five experts were assessed by a team of two, taking into account clarity, word choice, sentence structure and cultural appropriateness. As a result of some changes, the Turkish version of the scale was accepted. The final version of the scale was translated into the original language by two experts whose native languages were Turkish but who did not participate in the initial translation process. The two forms, both translated into Turkish and English, were again evaluated and finalized after a few changes to the translation. In order to determine the suitability of translations and structures of the scale items, as a final step, two experts, holding academic and linguistic proficiency in their fields, were consulted. As a result of the approval by the experts, the scale was finalized and decided to be used for the pilot study. The scale was piloted on 50 university students. In this process, students who filled the scale were asked to examine scale items in terms of their dimensions such as clarity and meaning. Taking the suggestions from the students into consideration, the scale was made ready for the actual application.

SPSS for Windows 22.0 and AMOS 20.0 package programs were used to analyze the statistical data obtained within the scope of the study. Cronbach alpha coefficients were used for internal consistency of scale, Existential Concerns Scale was used for criterion validity, expert opinions were taken into account for the validity of the scope and confirmatory factor analysis was used for construct validity.

3. Findings

Validity Analysis

Construct validity

Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Confirmatory Factor analysis (CFA) was used for Existential Concerns Scale. The use of CFA in adapting the original version of this scale to Turkish is important in terms of verifying that it is original. For this reason, it was not needed to use the Explicit Factor Analysis. The scale items and sub-dimensions were tested with CFA and the results were found as follows. The scale version consisting of 3 sub-dimensions of the scale was tested with CFA and it was understood to be appropriate for Turkish. According to these results; In the scale consisting of 22 items and 3 subscales (general EA, death anxiety, and avoidance), there are 13 items in the general EA subscale, 5 items in the death subscale, and 4 items in the avoidance subscale.

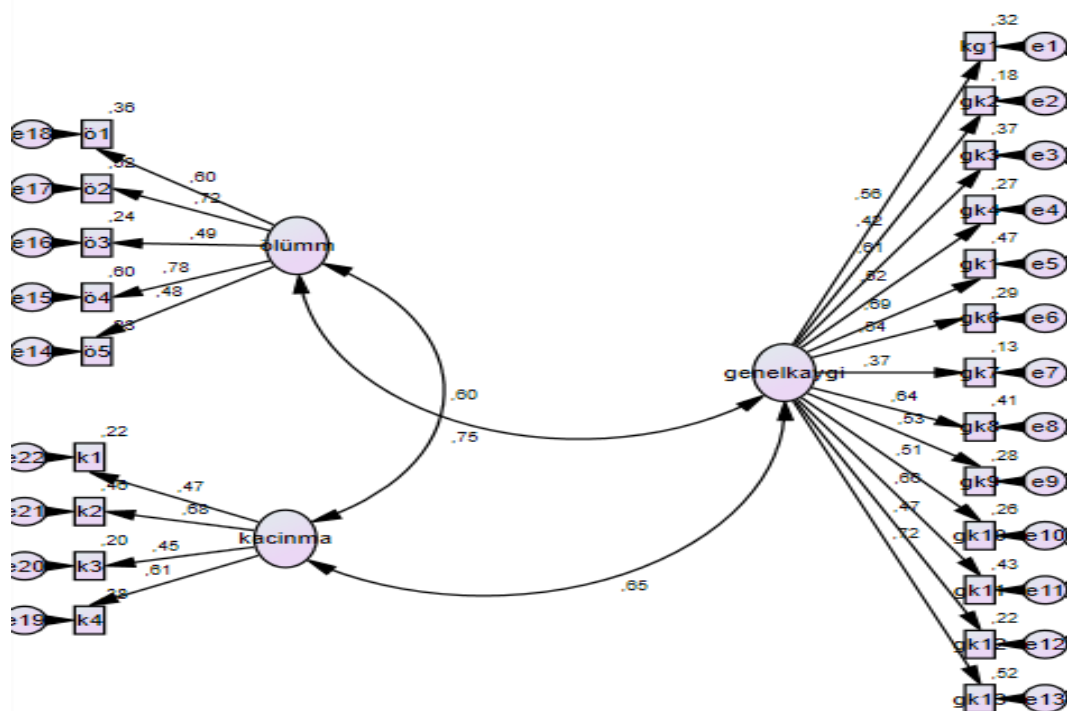


Figure 1. Existential concerns scale path diagram

Existential Concerns Scale was analyzed with CFA in its three sub-dimensions and 22 items; and acceptable fit indices were obtained ($X^2 / sd = 2.495$, $RMSEA = 0.062$, $S-RMR = 0.057$, $NNFI = 0.904$, $CFI = 0.902$, $GFI = 0.909$, $IFI = 0.904$). Values considered suitable by Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger & Müller (2003), and the fit indices of the study are listed in the table below.

Table 1. Comparison of Research Data with Standard Compliance Goodness Criteria

Compliance Measures	Good Compliance	Acceptable Compliance	Compliance Values Obtained in the Study
X^2 / df	$0 \leq c2 \leq 2df$	$2df \leq c2 \leq 3df$	2,495
RMSEA	$0 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.05$	$0.05 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.08$	0062
SRM	$0 \leq SRMR \leq 0.05$	$0.05 \leq SRMR \leq 0.10$	0.057
GFI	$0.90 \leq GFI \leq 1$	$0.95 \leq GFI \leq 1$	0909
NNFI	$0.95 \leq NNFI \leq 1.00$	$0.90 \leq NNFI \leq 0.97$	0904
CFU	$0.95 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$	$0.90 \leq CFI \leq 0.97$	0902
IFI	$0.90 < RFI < 1:00$	$0.85 < RFI < 0.90$	0904

Criterion Validity

To determine the validity of the scale, the Existential Concern Scale (ECS) was applied to 50 people with the Existential Anxiety Scale (EAS). The reason for the use of the Existential Concern Scale is that this scale also has the ability to measure similar states with existential theory. Relations between the subscales of Existential Anxiety Scale and Existential Concern Scale are given in Table 2 below.

The Existential Concerns Questionnaire (ECQ)

Table 2. Relations between the Subscales of Existential Concern Scale and Existential Anxiety Scale

Factors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. General EA	1						
2. Death Anxiety	,566***	1					
3. Avoidance	,479***	,503**	1				
4. Meaninglessness Anxiety	,512**	,551**	,329***	1			
5. Isolation Anxiety	,308***	,469***	,445***	,487**	1		
6. Death Anxiety	,351***	,806***	,422***	,309***	,386***	1	
7. Freedom Anxiety	,255***	,393***	,224***	,498***	,577***	,448***	1

As you can see in Table 2, *General Anxiety*, *Death Anxiety* and *Avoidance* subscale scores of the Existential Anxiety scale and *meaninglessness anxiety*, *isolation anxiety*, *death anxiety* and *freedom anxiety* scores of General Anxiety scale were found to be significantly related in a positive way.

Reliability

Reliability coefficients of Cronbach Alpha (α) were examined to calculate scale reliability. The results for the scale and each subscales are presented in the table below.

Table 3. Reliability Coefficient Table for Total and Subscales of Existential Concern Scale

Factor	Cronbach's alpha
1. General EA	,650
2. Death Anxiety	,794
3. Avoidance	,838
TOTAL	,811

The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for entire Existential Concern Scale was 811 and the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for general anxiety, death anxiety and avoidance subscales were found to be 650, 794, and 838, respectively. When these are considered, it is seen that all values have a value above the one specified by Büyüköztürk (2007) ($>.60$).

Test-retest reliability

Test-retest method was used to statistically test the temporal stability of the Turkish version of the Existential Concern Scale in terms of the quality it measures. With the test-retest reliability, the measurement tool is tested for stability at a specified time interval (Erkuş, 2005). In order to be able to see the test-retest reliability coefficient of the scale, the measurement tool was applied to 65 persons at intervals of 2 weeks. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to test the stability between the scores each participant obtained from both tests. The findings showed that there was a high level of positive and significant relationship among the total score and subscale scores between the two applications of ECQ (Total $r = 0.87$, General AE $r = 0.81$, Death Anxiety $r = 0.73$, Avoidance $r = 0.69$, $p < .01$].

4. Discussion and Conclusion

This research is an adaptation and psychometric study of the "*Existential Concern Scale*" developed by Bruggen, Klooster, Westerhof, Kleine, Bohlmeijer and Glas (2017), aiming to reveal the level of anxiety

brought about by "existence". In this study, the factor structure of the "Existential Concern Scale" was dealt with DFA and the accuracy of the three factorial structure of the scale was verified as a result of the analysis. It was statistically obtained that this scale also provides the values considered as acceptable fit indices by Schermelleh-Engel et al. (2003) and Tabachnick & Fidell (2007) ($X^2 / sd = 2.495$, $p < .001$, $RMSEA=0.062$, $S-RMR=0.057$, $NNFI=0.904$, $CFI=0.902$, $GFI=0.909$, $NFI=0.91$, $IFI=0.904$).. It was also determined that there were positive and significant correlations between subscales of both scales in the analyzes made to test the scale validity of EAS and ECS. This is accepted as one of the important criteria for the validity of the scale (Thorndike, 1997).

In the context of reliability analysis; the internal consistency coefficient obtained from the overall scale is ,811 and all the subscales is ,65. These values are reported as good acceptable values by Büyüköztürk (2015). The Pearson product moments correlation coefficients calculated by the test-retest reliability method of the Turkish version of Existential Anxiety Scale (BYÖ) applied at an interval of 2 weeks were found to be high and significant in a positive way. This high correlation score indicates that the scale is a stable measurement tool. As a result of these analyzes, EAQ adapted to Turkish is considered to be a valid and reliable measurement tool which can be used in the researches in the field.

It is thought that it is important to use this work in Turkish, which will help to measure existential concern, which is accepted as a requirement for the existence and to examine its relation to other variables. It is important for researchers to carry out various studies on different sampling structures in order to reduce the limitations of this scale adapted to Turkish and increase its usability.

5. References

- Bezirci, A. (1997). *Varoluşçuluk* [Existentialism]. Ankara: Say Dağıtım
- Brislin, R., W., Lonner, W, J. & Thorndike, R., M (1973), *cross cultural research methods*, New York: John Wiley-SonsPub.
- Bruggen, V.,V., Klooster, P., T., Westerhof, G., Vos, J., Kleine, D., Bohlmeijer, E. & Glas, G. (2017). The existential concerns questionnaire (ECQ)-development and initial validation of a new existential anxiety scale in a nonclinical and clinical sample. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 1–12. DOI: 10.1002/jclp.22474
- Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2015). *Veri analizi el kitabı istatistik, araştırma deseni SPSS uygulamaları ve yorum* [Hand book of data analysis. Statistics, research design, SPSS applications and comment]. Ankara: Pegem yayıncılık.
- Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2007). *Veri analizi el kitabı* [The handbook of data analysis]. Ankara: Pegem Yayıncılık.
- Corey, G. (2008). *Theory and practice of counseling and psychoterapy*. Belmont: Brooks/Cole-Thomson Learning.
- Deniz, B., N. (2016). *Varoluşsal öfke ölçeği geliştirme çalışması* [Existential anger: A scale development study]. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İstanbul Arel Üniversitesi, İstanbul.
- Dökmen, Ü. (2000). *Varolmak, gelişmek uzlaşmak* [Existence, development, compromise]. Ankara: Sistem Yayıncılık.
- Erkuş, A. (2005). *Bilimsel araştırma sarmalı* [Scientific research spiral]. Ankara: Seçkin Yayınları
- Geçtan, E. (1974). Varoluşçu psikolojinin temel ilkeleri [Basic principles of existential psychology]. *Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi Dergisi* [Journal of Ankara University Education Sciences Faculty] 7(1), 14-17.
- Geçtan, E. (1990). *Varoluş ve psikiyatri* [Existence and psychiatry]. İstanbul: Remzi Kitabevi.
- Göka, E. (2010). *Ölme: Ölümün ve geride kalanların psikolojisi* [Death: The psychology of death and the survivors]. İstanbul: Timaş Yayınları.
- Karaca F. (2000). *Ölüm Psikolojisi* [Death psychology]. İstanbul: Beyan Yayınları.
- Kıraç, F. (2007). *Dindarlık eğilimi, varoluşsal kaygı ve psikolojik sağlık* [Religious orientation, existential anxiety and psychological health]. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Ankara Üniversitesi, Ankara.
- May, R. (2013). *Kendini arayan insan* [Self-seeking human]. (Çev: K. Işık). İstanbul: Okuyan Us. (Orijinal çalışma basım tarihi, 1953).

The Existential Concerns Questionnaire (ECQ)

- Sayar, K. (2000). Varoluşçu psikoloji açısından anksiyete [Anxiety in terms of existential psychology]. *New Semposium*, 38(2), 43-50.
- Schermelleh-Engel, K., Moosbrugger, H., Müller, H. (2003). Evaluating the fit of structural equation models: tests of significance and descriptive goodness-of-fit measures. *Methods of Psychological Research Online*, 8(2): 23-27.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education.
- Tillich, P. (2014). *Olmak cesareti* [Being courageous]. (1. Baskı). (Çev: F. C. Dansuk). İstanbul: Okuyan Us.
- Thorndike, R., M. (1997). *Measurement and evaluation in psychology and education*. (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Yalom, I.D. (2001). *Varoluşçu psikoterapi* [Existential psychotherapy]. (Çev: Z. İyidoğan Babayigit). İstanbul: Kabalıcı Yayınevi
- Yalom, I.D. and Josselson, R. (2008). *Existential psychotherapy*. In. R. J. Corsini and D. Weddings (Eds.) *Current Psychotherapies*. Australia: Brook.
- Yıkılmaz, M. (2016). *Üniversite öğrencilerinde varoluşsal kaygı: Erken dönem uyum bozucu şemalar, kontrol odağı ve travma sonrası gelişimin yordayıcılığı* [Existential anxiety among university students: Predictiveness of early maladaptive schemas, locus of control and post-traumatic growth]. *Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi, Anadolu Üniversitesi, Eskişehir*.
- *This study was presented as verbal notice at International Conference on XIV. European Conference on Social and Behavioral Science-2017 in Odessa with the support of Marmara University Scientific Research Project Commission (BAPKO Project No: EGT-D-110717-0460).*

Yorubic Osmosis: A primal African Civilisation in Osmotic Flow: The Yorubic Example

Augustine Oghanrandukun

Introduction

It is imperative at this moment to show the dynamics of internal colonisation, internal flow of culture, internal religio-cultural diffusion (in pre-colonial Africa) – especially in Nigeria – by the Yorubic Osmosis. The Yoruboid group of languages – Yoruba proper, Isekiri, Igala (including Ebu and Olukumi) – started separating from one another some 2000 years ago (Greenberg, 1963). The linguistic congruence among these groups averages about 70% (Omamor, 1976; Greenberg, 1963). By gradual movement a trans-African migration occurred about 40,000 years ago. Bushmanoids and Bantus from East and South Africa emerged in the Middle Belt Zone of Nigeria (Omolewa, 1986; Olubumi, 2007). About 10 – 15 thousand years ago, proto-Yoruboid (ancestral to Yoruba, Isekiri, Igala, Ebu, Olukumi) broke out of the Bush Men of the Middle Belt. The oldest civilisation of the Yoruba in Nigeria is at Iwo-Ileru (near Akure, in the South East flank of Yoruba Land).

Around 1000B.C. the Nok culture, which experts agree is genetically ancestral to that of Ife, appeared (Olubunmi, 2007). The Nok culture was a uniformity, and could not be the works of the over 200 ethnic groups in the area today (Isichei, 1982).

About 500B.C. the civilisation of Ife appeared (Olubunmi, 2007). It was the most significant of Yoruban civilisations (Ademakinwa, 1953).

Definition of key words

The key words – Osmosis, Colony, Deity, Yorubic, Yoruboid, Yoruban, and Yorubicity are to be defined:

1. Osmosis – It can be defined “as the diffusion of water molecules across a semi-permeable membrane” (Umeh, 2010:72).
2. Deity: Any supernatural being, worshipped or venerated.
3. Colony: this can be seen in the following: actual occupation, control, cultural influence and religious influences.
4. Yorubic – Adjective for the culture of the group.
5. Yoruboid – Adjective for the languages in the group.
6. Yoruban – Adjective for the peoples in the group.
7. Yorubicity – an interplay of Yorubic, Yoruban, Yoruboid

Methodology: the use of osmotic flow of power

Unveiling the osmotic flow of power

It is a new theory emanating from the concept of “Osmosis”. The theory of Osmotic flow of power has the following features.

- a. There is always a circle of power which comprise one dominant power and one or more subordinate powers in a power relationship. The dominant power is called the *supra* – at the centre of the circle. The subordinate power is called the *infra*, always at the periphery of the circle. The atom, the solar system; are inspirations and guides to the theory.
- b. Power flows from an area of higher concentration to an area of lower concentration in the circle of power. Allegiance flow from an area of lower concentration to an area of higher concentration. Thus, power and authority flow from the *supra* to the *infra*, while allegiance flow from the *infras* to the *supra*. E.g.

Insert Figure 1

Source Inspiration – Obayemi (1977)

- c. A circle of power is a political or power relationship. One political entity occupies the centre, called the *supra*; others occupy the periphery and are called *infras*. This theory functions best when

it is anchored on the factors of power – sex (aesthetic beauty and gender politics); politics (allocation of values) and religion (psycho-spiritual satisfaction).

The mind manipulators (religious leaders, mystics, philosophers) determine values that will be pursued in any polity. They, therefore, subtly decide resource allocation.

. The diagram explains:

Insert Figure 2

Sex + religion = political allegiance

If sex is “a” and religion is “b” and politics is “c” it means

$a + b = c$

$\therefore a + b$ must equal c

$a - b \neq c$

$b - a \neq c$

Aims of study

1. To marry History and Political Science with the Natural Sciences.
2. To remove verbosity from historical and political power situations.
3. To make political power relations more picturesque.
4. To reduce the tendency of lying while fabricating myths as History.

Literature Review:

Exposing Yoruban Area as a centre of African Civilisation

Many writers over the centuries have described the Yoruban group of peoples as far more sophisticated than their neighbours. These are the contents of Yoruban civilisation, itemized; backed by authorities:

1. Pyramid building in Warri (Isekiri) Roth (1903); Sagay (n.d); Talbot (1927).
2. Iron mining and smelting (Omolewa, 1986; Olubunmi, 2007).
3. Bead and glass making (Obayemi, 1977; Olubunmi, 2007).
4. Bronze making (Olubunmi, 2007; Obayemi, 1977; Egharevba, 1948).
5. Evolution of great monarchies – the mega states – rather than publics or republics (mini states) (Obayemi, 1977; Horton, 1977; Omolewa, 1986).
6. City builders. They built the biggest cities in sub-Saharan Africa before the advent of the Europeans (Obayemi, 1977; Fajana & Biggs (1964); Olubunmi, 2007); they also built great moats and city walls (Obayemi, 1977).
7. Cloth weavers and fully clothed, Lucas (1948); Fajana & Biggs (1964); Kingsley (1899); Eve (1977).
8. They paved their roads particularly in Ile-Ife, from about 900A.D. (Olubunmi, 2007)
9. They made burnt bricks (Honsbira & St.Ifa, 2015).
10. They had some houses shiny as marble (Roth, 1903)
11. Pioneers of Ifa Mathematical religion/other religions (Olubunmi, 2007; Ademakinwa, 1953).

This is the matrix of the Yoruban, Yorubic and Yoruboid groups, and we shall see how they influenced others.

The spread of Yorubicity

We shall now see how Yorubic culture, Yoruboid languages and Yoruban peoples spread in Nigeria, colonizing others.

Proto Yoruba and the Igbo flank.

Proto Yoruba began separating from each other some 2000 years ago. Before this time they had developed the art of iron mining which spread along the confluence to areas around Nsukka (Opi near Lejja) about 4500 years old (Obatala, 2010). To show that the present inhabitants of Opi are different from the ancient miners, there are two archaeological layers separated by thousands of years. The present inhabitants also have no knowledge or any tradition concerning the ancient mines (Obatala, 2010). The mining industry is a run-on process into Igala, Yoruba of Kabba in the area of the confluence.

In all these places there is indication of strong knowledge, orally transmitted, about the mining complex. To cap it all, there is evidence of the god of the smithies (Ogun) as a major deity, corresponding to the ubiquitous mines in these areas (Obayemi, 1977). This will indicate that the areas of the mines were first inhabited by the proto-Yoruba.

The Igbo civilisation

The civilisation of Nri, the oldest form of Igbo priestly monarchy, evolved from the Igala (Alagoa, 1977). The Igbo-Ukwu Culture and that of Nri are sisters, with same Igala origin. In historical times, Onitsha got Kingdom influences from Benin, Aboh and Isekiri. Egharevba (1948) posits Benin itself was an off-shoot of Ife, while the present dynasties in Isekiri and Aboh are offshoot of Benin. Nsukka had religious and political influences from Igala. Both Onitsha and Aboh had religious influences from Isekiri. The deities: Orise (Olise), Olisha, Olokun, rampant in the Onitsha-Aboh periphery speaks volume of the Isekiri influence in that area (Honsbira & St. Ifa, 2015). Cloth weaving moved from Isekiri to Nembe; and from Nembe; to Igbo – the popular Akwete cloth of Igbo fame (Atikpekpe, Moses, Dec 25th, 2015 oral interview; and field work at Nembe, Dec 27th 2015).

The diagram speaks

Insert Figure 3

To show the veracity of this position, all the areas where there were signs of civilisation among the Igbo lay in the boundary areas of the North, where they could be influenced by Igala, or in the western hemisphere, where they could be influenced by Benin or Isekiri. These are the areas with monarchy, known mining, bronze making and tribal marks, among the Igbo

Yorubic civilisation among the Edos

The Edo group got double dosage of the Yorubic civilisation: one from Ife; the second from Warri (Isekiri). Omolewa (1986), Olubunmi (2007), Obayemi (1977), Alagoa (1977), Egharevba (1948) etc, contend that the Benin monarchy and bronze work were off-shoots of Ife civilisation. Linguistically, the word “Oba” the title of the Benin ruler is a pure Yoruba word. No other Edo group uses such a word. No other Edo group developed a kingdom. Hence, Fajana & Biggs (1964) contend that it was only the ruling class of Benin that came from Ife. The Urhobo had mini states in those days (Ekeh, 2005). Urhobo-Isoko of the Edoid groups had politico-religio-aesthetic symbols from the Isekiri. Ebelle – founder of Agbarhaotor mini state – was from Isekiri (Onigu, 2005). He was son of Olu Irame (Honsbira & St. Ifa, 2015). Ebelle established Ebelle in Ishan, where he died (Godwin Okoh Etuewewe, 2014, oral interview). Isekiri raised many Urhobo to stardom by panned labour – Mukoro Mowoe, Ogoru, etc (Danladi, 2013). Religious influences include the rise of Omotekpokpo in Alaja-Igun, use of Isekiri masquerade; and Igbe religious cult, as copy from Isekiri. Confirm this by considering the key words of the religious discourse of Urhobo Igbe Religion.

Insert Table 1

Sources – Erhiurhoro Young (October 28th, 2013); Nabofa M.Y., 2003)

The biggest shrine in Urhobo was Unurhie, established by Ofoluwa, a son of Ogoni, son of Atogbuwa, 14th Olu of Warri, who reigned about 1730 (Sagay, n.d). Isekiri traders, nobility and religious pioneers established settlements in Urhoboid areas: Abraka, Mogba, Okan etc (Otite, 2003). Until Recently, Isekiri was Western Urhobo lingua franca, their towns had Isekiri names. Now, they worship Isekirian deities - Umalokun (King or owner of the sea); and Sapele juju, brought by Olomu's slaves (Roth, 1903; Honsbira & St. Ifa, 2013; Sc/34/96)

Insert Figure 4

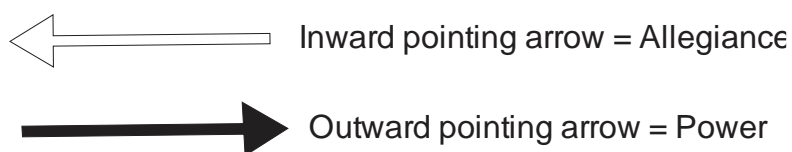
The Yorubic civilisation among the Ijaw and their neighbours

Alagoa (1977) describe Isekiri as “pioneers of religion” in several places among the Ijaw. The Isekiri religion had spread to Kalabari-Ijaw (Alagoa, 1972). In Kalabari, Adumu bears the same name with the Isekiri counterpart. Isekiri religion filtered into the Gulani and Iduwini Ijaw (Alagoa, 1972). Their principal deity was Olukumieyin. The worshippers of the deity left Ode-Isekiri during the reign of Olu Igbon about 900 A.D. (Pessu, 2013). Isekiri religion also filtered into Bonny, although indirectly. It came through Nembe, who copied from Isekiri (Leonard, 1968: 22). The non-Ijaw (Ogbia and Epie) also got doses of Isekiri religion. The founder of Oloibiri (Chief town of the Ogbia) was a pre-Ginuwa Warri prince. The man, Olei, an Isekiri, founded Oloibiri. He settled in Iduwini before the founding of the settlement. Isekiri tapioca and pots were rampant in the area (Alagoa, 1972).

The diagram explains

Insert Figure 5

Key



Summary and Findings

The data studied show some general characteristics:

1. The more the Yorubic osmosis in a place, the more the civilisation of the people. The Bini people among the Edoid group have the highest dose of civilisation, because they were more influenced by the Yoruba and Isekiri. The Okpe show more sophistication than the other Urhoboid because they have more Isekiri trait (Otite, 2005). The Aboh, Onitsha, the Nri were the only Igbo that developed kingdoms and mega states because of Isekiri-Igala-Bini(Ife satellite) influences.
2. The less the Yorubic touch, the less the civilisation. Ijaw like Okrika that have the least Isekiri touch, display less civility than Nembe(especially Bassambri) with a sophisticated religion. Okpe is more sophisticated than Isoko and Orogun, with less Yorubicity
3. Yoruban morphemes can easily be seen in areas with Yorubic civilisation. For example the mining Igbo area, Nsukka, called the anvil Ogadazu. Agada is the anvil in Yoruba, Isekiri, Ebu (Iyeghenle) and Igala. Ogada and agada being cognates; zu is just a suffix.
4. The areas with more Yoruban inking, also have more oral traditions to show their affiliation. For instance, the Nembe have a lot of oral tradition of Isekiri presence (Alagoa, 1972).
5. Yoruban, Yorubic, Yoruboid art forms, in fact, Yorubicity, can be seen in the areas where the civilisation of the group permeates. Bini art forms show Ife pedigree, Okpe masks are copy of Isekiri art forms, etc.

Osmotic flow of power has made Yorubicity visible among the people, where the diffusion took place.

Recommendations

1. Scientific precision should be pursued in the humanities.
2. Scientific presentation will remove inaccuracies and falsehood in presentation.
3. Data and graph will enhance picturesqueness in presentation.

Conclusion

The theory of Osmotic flow of power is a power relationship. It has now been used to show the power relationship between the Yoruboid groups and their neighbours in Nigeria. It has made the power relations easy to explain. This theory can be used to show power equation between any two groups of

people in a power relationship, be it in sex, religion or politics which are all aspects of power relations. Yes! Sex, politics and religion are one and the same thing!

References

- Ade, Obayemi. (1977). The Yoruba and the Edo speaking peoples and their neighbours before 1600. In, J.F.A Ajayi. & Crowder, Michael.(Eds.), *History of West Africa*. New York: Longman .
- Ademakinwa, J. A. (1953). Ife, cradle of the Yoruba. Lagos: Longman.
- Agharowu , E .E .(Honsbira)., Olomu , A. O . O. (St.Ifa). (2008). History of Warri c 3400B.C-1480 A.D.: in Cultural Perspective. Lagos: Canal Publishers.
- Agharowu , E .E .(Honsbira)., Olomu , A. O . O. (St.Ifa). (2011). History of Sapele: 700A.D. to 1943(In Scientific Perspective). Sapele: Comforter Press.
- Agharowu , E .E .(Honsbira) ., Olomu , A. O . O. (St.Ifa). (2015). Isekirian Pride: Is Isekiri Arrogant or Unique? .Warri: J.O. Printing World.
- Akinjogbin, I. A. (1977). The Expansion of Oyo and the Rise of Dahomey (1600 – 1800). In J. F. A. Ajayi , & Crowder, Michael (Eds.), *History of West Africa (2nd Ed.)*. New York: Longman
- Alagoa, E.J. (1977). The Niger Delta States and Their Neighbours to 1800. In J.F.A. Ajayi, & M,Crowther.(Eds.), *History of West Africa (2nd Ed.)*. Ibadan: Heinemann.
- Alagoa, E. J. (1972). A History of the Niger Delta: an historical interpretation of Ijo oral tradition. Ibadan: Ibadan University Press.
- Bosman,W. (1705). A New and accurate description of the Coast of Guinea. London: Longman.
- Buah, F.K. (1974). History Notes: West Africa since A.D 1000: Book one: The peoples. London: Macmillan.
- Conton, W.A. (1979). West Africa in History. London: Longman
- Danladi, Anthony, Ali. (Dr) KSM (2013).The Colonial Economy in the Lower Niger Region: *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review (OMAN Chapter) Vol. 2, No.7, Feb. 2013*
- Ekeh , P. (2005,Sunday May 28th). Clans, Kingdoms in Urhobo History and Culture. Retrieved from. <http://thepointernewsline.com/?p=38031>
- Egharevba, Jacob. (1960). *A Short History of Benin*. Ibadan: Ibadan University Press.
- Erhiurhoro Young. (October 28th, 2013). The Urhobo Voice.
- Fage, J.D. (1969). A History of West Africa: An Introductory Survey. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Fajana, A., Biggs, B. J. (1964). Nigeria in History. Ibadan: Longman
- Greenberg, J.H. (1963). The languages of Africa. Bloomington: Indiana University.
- Horton, Robin. (1977). Stateless Societies in the History of West Africa. In J. F. A .Ajayi., & Crowder Michael. (Eds.) *History of West Africa*. New York: Longman.
- Isichei, Elizabeth. (1982). Studies in the History of Plateau State of Nigeria. London: Macmillan.
- Johnson, S. (1921). History of the Yoruba from the earliest times to the beginning of the British protectorate. Lagos: C.M.S. Press
- Kenny, Joseph. (1983). The Catholic Church in Tropical Africa (1445 – 1850). Ibadan: Ibadan University Press.
- Kingsley, M. H. (1899). West African Studies. London: Macmillan.
- Leonard, A .G. (1906). The Lower Niger and Its Tribes. London : Macmillan
- Lucas, Jonathan, Olumide. (1948). The Religion of the Yorubas . Lagos: C.M.S Press
- Nabofa, M.Y. (2003). Igbe Religious Movements. In Onigu , Otite (Ed.). *The Urhobo people (2nd Edition)*. Ibadan: Shaneson, C.I. Limited
- Negri, Eve De. (1977). Nigerian Body Adornment. Editorial: Nigeria Magazine
- Obatala J. K. (2010, January 24). Excavation Africa's Golden Era. The Guardian Nigeria Newspaper.
- Ogbobine, R.A.I. (1986). The Urhobo-Isoko Ivie and Their Traditional Councils. Benin: Mayomi Printing Press
- Ogilby J.(1670). Africa: Being an Accurate Description of the Regions of AEgypt, Barbary, Lybia, and Billedulgerid ... Collected and Translated from the Most Authentick Authors, and Augmented with Later Observations. London: Longman.

- Olubunmi, A. O. (2007). *The Rise and fall of the Yoruba Race :10,000 B.C – 1960*. Ibadan: 199 publishing place
- Omamor, Augusta .P. (1976). *The Place of Itsekiri in Relation to Yoruba*. Research Notes from the Department of Linguistics and Nigerian Languages 7 (1-2): 1-56. Ibadan.
- Omolewa, M. (1986). *Certificate History of Nigeria*. Lagos: Longman
- Otite Onigu.(2005) .*The Urhobo People*. Ibadan: Heinemann
- Pessu , D. S .T. O. (2011). *The Okotomu-Irigbo People of Warri* .Warri: Bestly Int. Ventures.
- Roth, H. Ling. (1903). *Great Benin*. London: Longman
- Sagay, J. O. E. (n.d). *The Warri Kingdom*. Benin City: Mayomi Publishers Sc/34/96
- Talbot , P. A .(1927). *The peoples of Southern Nigeria: A sketch of their History, Ethnology and Languages with an Abstract of the 1921 Census*. London: F. Cass.
- The Rapid Rescues College (n.d). *History of West Africa 1000 – 1700 A.D*.
- Umeh , Idodo.(2010). *College Biology* .Benin City: Idodo Umeh Publishers Ltd

Older Workers in Working Life: An Assessment of the Factors Affecting Their Performances, Employment Situations and Attitude Towards Them

Mehtap Araci Kazici

1. Introduction

The World Health Organization refers to the age of 65 and over as the age of aging. However, in terms of working life, old age requires a different definition than age 65. Because of the retirement age is 65 in many countries, the age limit for the definition of "older worker" in the working life is often over 45-50 years old.

It is known that around one-third of the total workforce in the world is composed of persons aged 45 years or older. Those who live the same health problems that an older individual lives in are experiencing a decline in their work performances, which can easily be recognized by employers and managers, or colleagues. While the attitude shown in the working life to older employees seems to be positive from time to time due to the experience and private business information they have, because of the low productivity, the attitude usually reveals as "negative discrimination in employment". The 65-year-old retirement system, defined as a retirement in a graveyard by a working party, is applied to many countries, including developed countries, and the older over the age of 45-50 are legally eligible to work. On the other hand these employees are subject to negative discrimination directly or indirectly. This distinction appears in recruitment, in lay off, to be evident in the distribution of tasks, in-work social and psychological attitudes. In terms of employers, older workers are assessed on the basis of the profitability of their employment or the decision to continue to work or lay off.

This study focuses on the employability and employment patterns of the working group, which is generally regarded as the older. It was deemed appropriate to make an assessment of the older unemployed, factors affecting the productivity of older workers working in a job, costs of older employment and attitudes of employers / managers and colleagues to themselves. Despite being an important human resource due to the fact that older workers constitute a large number of people in working life, the fact that there is no evaluation in the frame drawn in the literature is the reason for this study.

2. The Literature Review

In the past few decades, some researchers and theorists have focused on the study of older workers. Their topics of study comprise, among others, old age and older workers in general (Vatandaş, 2013; Republic of Turkey Ministry of European Union, 2012; Biçer & Bilir, 2012; Alp, 2014; Danson, 2007), job security for older workers (Çağlayan, 2013; Camkurt, 2013; Güler, 2015), older worker performances, retirement (Flynn, 2010; Fisher, Truxillo, Finkelstein & Wallace, 2017; Akı, 2007; Coile & Levine, 2010; McDonald, 2013; Hofäcker, 2010; Turner, 2011), older workers talents (Harper, 2009; Taylor, 2009; Turner, 2011), cost of older workers (Kolçak & Arpa, 2015) and so forth.

Negative discrimination in working life against older workers is widely held in the literature (Baybora, 2010; Jackson, 2013; Lassus, L.A.P., Lopez, S., & Roscigno, V. J., 2015; Loretta, W. & White, P., 2006 and so forth). Further, the literature is largely unanimous in recognizing the importance of older workers and improve their performances. Therefore, these researchers have studied on common adaptation and productivity problems encountered by older workers.

3. Old Age / Older Worker Concepts and Employment Situations of Older Workers

In recent years, one of the important changes in the world population is the substantial increase in the ration of the elderly in the population. It is so that the data on the demographic changes indicate a global aging crisis. While the ration of the population over 65 years of age to the total population in 1850 was nearly 5 percent, now this ration is over 15 percent (Özden & Özbek, 2017). The country with

fastest aging rate among the world population is Japan and the second place is for the European Union (Vatandaş, 2013). The increase in the number of old leads to the increase of old worker numbers, meaning 'the population as the workforce to age' causes the decrease of the efficiency and production as well as the increase of the social security expenses. For example today, in EU countries there is 1 retired per 4 insured, in OECD countries 1 per 6 and in Turkey 1 per 2. So that due to the large number of retired people, the insured need to finance more retired compared to EU countries (Kolçak & Arpa, 2015).

World Health Organization specifies the old age as 65 and above. However regarding the work life the old age needs some definition other than 65 years of age. In many countries, as the retirement age is 65, the age range used for the "old worker" definition is 40-50 years and above.

In the literature review performed it is seen that there are different age definitions are present for a worker to be described as an old worker. For example: Kocaman (2002), in one of his works, assessed the mentioned age range for the "old worker" regarding the retirement age and defined as 45-50 and above. (p.161). Lacy, W.B., Bokemeier, J.L., & Shepard, J.M. (1983) and Ng and Feldman (2008) accepted the workers above 40 years of age, Çağlayan (2013); Özen and Özbek (2015) and Roland and Kidwell (2002) workers 45 years of age and above, Güler (2015); Stamo-rov-Robnagel and Hertel (2010), Ford, N.M. Jr, Walker, O.C. Jr., & Churchill, G.A. (1985), Greller (2006), Rhodes (1983); Smyer and Pitt-Catsoupes, (2007) workers 50 years of age and above as old. When looked at in regard to employment and labor, the sector the worker is employed in, occupation and gender are also effective in the definition of old age. For example in the media sector where the youth and physical appearance are on the forefront, it becomes harder for the women over a specific age to find a position. No doubt, this condition is valid for many sectors (Özen & Özbek, 2017). Due to these different definitions in the literature, it should be indicated that the old worker term within this study indicates the ones in between 45 years of age and the official retirement of the country worker is in.

It can also be seen that there is a conflicting approach in the work life against the old workers above 45 years of age regarding their employment. On one hand the system of retirement at 65 years of age is implemented and the active aging policies are supported in many countries including the developed countries thus the old workers above 45-50 years of age to be in the work life is legally provided; on the other hand these workers being subject directly or indirectly to negative discrimination due to age comes forth as a problem. This discrimination is seen to be more evident in employment, dismissing, social and psychological behaviors in the workplaces, duty assignment. Whereas in the perspective of the employers the old workers are assessed in the frame of profitability of them being employed or not or decision to dismiss/continue to employ.

Some Old Age/ Old Worker Statistics: Status in European Union and Turkey: Aging population of EU affects negatively the future of the Union. According to the report the European Commission issued in 1995 on the demographic status of the Union, the population over sixty years of age in EU countries in 2025 shall exceed the population under twenty years of age (Vatandaş, 2013).

The age average of the European Union today is 40.9 and it is expected that the Union shall lose 32 million people from the population in working range. It is estimated that the elderly dependence ration, which is the ratio of population over 65 years of age to the population in the working range, shall be 34.5% in 2025. Whereas in Turkey, the age average is 29.2 and the dependence ration is 14.4%. Even though Turkey presents a more young and dynamic picture, it is seen that the current old population's active participation in economic, cultural and social fields is also not sufficient. (2012 European Annotation on Active Aging and Intergeneration Solidarity, 2011, 7). Some other ratios are as follows:

- The ration of retired and working is 33% (TÜİK, 2013).
- The ratio of population 65 years of age and above to the total population in Turkey in year 2000 was 6.7, in 2015 same ration has risen to 8.2. It is stipulated that it shall be 10.2% in 2023 (TÜİK, 2016).
- In between years 1979-2002, the participation of age category of 45-54 years to the work force increased from 70.9 to 80.9%, and the same of age category of 55-64 years increased from 43.1% to 50.8%. Still 1/3 of the work force consists of age category of 45-64 years (Kocaman, 2011).

In 1999 while the health spending was for the state 4.985 million TL and for private sector 1.937 million TL, in 2015 it increased to 104.568 million TL for the state and 22.446 million TL for the private sector. This picture shows that in the last 16 years both the population has aged rapidly and thus the health expenses of the retired group increased rapidly (Özen & Özbek, 2017).

4. The Factors Affecting Performances of Older Workers, Costs of Old Worker Employment and Attitude Towards Them

4.1. The Factors Affecting Performances of Older Workers

With aging some physical and cognitive changes occur and this condition affects the work of the people. For example: restriction in the joint movement, slowness in reflexes, lack of attention and loss of balance, changes in sleeping pattern (complicates night works and jobs with shifts), decrease in sensory functions (seeing, hearing), changes in learning speed, cognitive functions and development of chronic illnesses can be counted among them (Güler, 2015). Sterns and colleagues provided examples of college professors and firefighters, where the age difference in performance between a 40-year old and 60-year old professor may not be practically meaningful, but the difference between a 40-year old and 60-year old firefighter may be (Fisher et al., 2017).

These changes that occur dependent on the age, especially constrain the old workers in the jobs that require continuous dense effort and concentration (long periods of bending, stretching, twisting or lifting heavy weights and similar movements) and noise, vibration and other bad the physical conditions may not be tolerated by the old workers.

The result acquired from the researches conducted towards the determination of the relationship in between the age of the workers and the work accidents, showed that generally young workers have more accidents than the old workers. Even though this can be explained by the old workers being more experienced in the work they perform, it is a known fact that in the studies against time the old workers have more accidents than the young workers in the works that require handicrafts (Camkurt, 2013). In addition, the absence in old workers is rarer but it takes longer time when it happens. The studies show that the old workers are working slower and cannot make quick decisions. However, this change is balanced by the old workers making less mistakes and taking correct decisions instead of fast ones (Güler, 2015; Çağlayan, 2013).

4.2. Costs of Old Worker Employment

Old workers, as a result of them being in the work life for long years, request higher wages and additional benefits thus are more costly for the employers. So when the employers change the more experienced old workers with the less experienced young workers, they may think that they can lower the costs. The costs of the old workers are not limited to these. For example;

- As the chronic illnesses of the old workers increase, the health expenses also increase,
- Increase in the short term incapacity payment,
- Increase in occurrence of occupational diseases,
- Efficiency losses due to slowness of work caused by physical or cognitive inadequacies,
- Indirect costs incurring due to decreased production amount and faulty productions (delay in production and loss of customers etc.) and similar reasons make the old workers high cost employees for the employers.

In the work life, the groups that are prone to face various risks due to the physiological, spiritual, socio-economic reasons, need to be shown special care, are defined as risk groups and old workers are considered in the risk group - Children, Women, Handicapped, Old - (Çağlayan, 2013). As the risk these workers shall face in the work life should be determined with special studies and the workplaces should be transformed to be proper for removing these risks, it is apparent that old workers shall increase the costs due to the additional measures to be taken.

4.3. Attitude of Managers and Workmates Towards the Old Workers

Even though the attitude towards the old workers in the work life can be positive from time to time due to the experience and special work knowledge they have, the efficiency decrease realized generally shapes the attitude as "negative discrimination in employment". Thus the attitude towards the old workers should be assessed from both angles.

4.3.1. Negative Attitude

Age Discrimination Structuring: It can be defined as the 'cases where the usage of age for discrimination is unjust and there are unjust treatment against old workers (Baybora, 2010).

Even though it is possible to come by age discrimination towards young workers, this is seen to be more usually applied against old workers. In the researches conducted in England, results like the age discrimination affects the persons at the end of working age, 2.7 million people between 50 and retirement age do not work, it is estimated that more than 1 million of these want to work, it is believed that there is discrimination against old workers are gathered (Macnicol, 2006).

In the work life, while the age discrimination can happen when the person is hired, working or dismissed, it may also happen in all fields of employment. Some of these titles are given below:

- **Discrimination in hiring:** It is observed that today the age discrimination starts with age of 40. In the job postings the statement implying "No need for the ones over 35 years of age to apply" is an explicit example for age discrimination (Baybora, 2010). In the research of "Discrimination in Job Applications Global Workforce Index 2007" conducted by Kelly Services, according to the survey 70 thousand people from 28 countries participated, 19 percent of the participants from Turkey say that they face age discrimination in job applications, 32 percent of the workers of 45 years of age and above say that they have not been hired because of their age (Özen & Özbek, 2017).
- **Discrimination in Participation-Education and Career:** Another study have shown that when the workers reach the age of 50, they face substantial hardship in taking their work suggestions into consideration, provision of additional training and advancing in the job (Baybora, 2010). The reason why the old workers are included in the training programs less than the young is that there is a shorter work life expectancy for the old workers. This condition decreases the expected return of the investment in the training (Özen & Özbek, 2017). In a research conducted among the American employers, the perception towards the old people in a large portion of the society is that "they are physically weak, cognitively limited, unable to cope with change and focused on retirement". In fact, it is emphasized that they do not need to be trained and quips like "old dog cannot learn new tricks" reflect the view of the old workers in the workplaces (McCann & Giles, 2002).
- **Discrimination in Dismissal:** It is a seen occasion that the aging people are dismissed with this reason. General Electric was a pioneer in this matter and similar applications were seen in other firms. The workers are separated into three groups in this understanding system. Where the most bright, dynamic 20s group is called A class, the consistent by not extraordinary 70% among the rest are called B class and the rest 10% consists the C class. Cs are the ones to be dismissed. This system of General Electric is applied by many firms (Baybora, 2010).

Socio-Psychological Attitudes: The attitudes that can be considered within this scope can also be evaluated as age discrimination. However there are not always a clearly seen by everyone, solid proof for these attitudes and they create indirect results. The employer's assignment of the jobs that require minimum follow up or energy to the old workers even though it is not clearly indicated in their job definition, effort to keep away the old workers in numerical issues, in some sector or cases- effort to keep them in the background in dialogue with the new customer or due to disadvantages caused by age (loss of hearing, sight, delay in perception, hardness in remembering, desire to keep away from the social life etc.) decrease in trust and communication outside work against the old workers by the workmates are among the examples to be shown.

Prejudices: It is possible to say that the society has a prejudice regarding that the old workers, even if they are more experienced, have lower performance, motivation and physical qualifications in some positions.

4.3.2. Positive Attitudes

Knowledge Accumulation/Experience: The period the old workers spent in the job they are working is longer than the young workers. The value of acquired knowledge, hand/mind skills and experience gained being substantially high can affect the attitude of the employers against the old workers and also impact the continuation of the job contract.

Unifying role in positive worker relations: If the time spent in the same workplace is long, it is seen that the old workers become renown, respected and listened people due to their knowledge accumulation and experience, for example; lead the unofficial groups. This property is in quality to be used in developing positive approaches of the workers in between themselves and of the workers against the managers in the workplaces. The unifying role of these individuals that can contribute to formation of positive properties like feeling of belonging, adoption, minimum reaction the negative applications, acceptance, organizational citizenship, can be detected by the managers and assessed positively.

5. Conclusion

The priority question to be asked at the end of this study shall probably be in line with "whether it is an advantageous situation or a disadvantageous position to employ old workers or to be an old worker in the work life". Because old age on one hand with its positive sides due to life and work experience and on the other hand the negative reflections of the physiological changes due to aging carries importance regarding the work life.

The old population in the work life being increased also increased the importance of the issue. Aging of the workforce means that the businesses shall have hard time in the future to find young workforce with sufficient skill and experience. Thus it is apparent that the old worker to continue working is beneficial both for the active old worker and also for the businesses. So, to increase the "employability" of the old worker shall be possible either via weakening the physical request or via improving the physical capacity of the worker.

In improving the physical capacity of a worker, the health applications of the state shall contribute. However, the business may give weight to the works of creation of an ergonomic working environment. In this process, it is clear that the main contribution needed shall be done by the human resources departments. Giving more detailed place in the applications towards the old workers in human resources policies is seen substantially required in the global world picture.

Prevention of perception of the old workers by the businesses as a burden is possible through increasing their efficiency.. The knowledge accumulation, experience and the communicative roles between the workers of these workers that are like the memories of the institutions should not be forgotten by the work life shareholders.

6. References

- Akı, E. (2007). İş sözleşmesinin feshinde geçerli neden olarak "emeklilik" ["Retirement" as a reason for termination of the employment contract]. *Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesi Dergisi* [Journal of Dokuz Eylül University Faculty of Law], 9 (Special Number), 3-16.
- Alp, L. (2014). *Dezavantajlı grupların istihdama katılmaları: G20 ülkelerindeki başarılı uygulamalar* [Participation of disadvantaged groups in employment: Successful applications in G20 countries] (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Ministry of Labor and Social Security of the Republic of Turkey, General Directorate of External Relations and Overseas Workers Services, Ankara, Turkey.
- Baybora, D. (2010). Çalışma yaşamında yaş ayrımcılığı ve Amerika Birleşik Devletleri'nde yaş ayrımcılığı düzenlemesi üzerine [Age discrimination in working life and the age discrimination regulation in the United States]. *Çalışma ve Toplum* [Labour and Society], 1(1), 33-58.
- Biçer, B. K., & Bilir, N. (2012). Çalışma hayatı ve yaşlılık [Elderly and working life]. *Sağlık ve Toplum*, Eylül-Aralık [Health and community, September-December], 22 (3), 8-15.
- Camkurt, M. Z. (2013). Çalışanların kişisel özelliklerinin işkazalarının meydana gelmesi

- üzerindeki etkisi [The influence of personal characteristics of workers on occurring occupational accidents]. *TÜHİS İş Hukuku ve İktisat Dergisi [Business Law and Economics Journal]*, 24(6), 25(1-2), May, August, November 2013, 70-101.
- Coile, C. C., & Levine, P. B. (2010). *Reconsidering retirement how lossess and layoffs affect older workers*. Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution Press.
- Çağlayan, Ç. (2013). İşyeri hekimliği eğitim günleri [Workplace medical training days]. Eğitim Notları [Training notes], 24-26 of May 2013, Bursa.
- Danson, M. (2007). Older workers in the labour market: The demographic context. In Loretto, W., Vickerstaff, S., & White, P. (Ed.). *The future for older workers* (pp.7-26). Great Britain: MPG Books, Bodmin.
- Fisher, G. G., Truxillo, D. M., Finkelstein, L. M., & Wallace, L. E. (2017). Age discrimination: Potential for adverse impact and differential prediction related to age. *Human Resource Management Review*, 27 (2017), 316-327.
- Flynn, M. (2010). Who would delay retirement? Typologies of older workers. *Personnel Review*, 39 (3), 308-324. doi: 10.1108/00483481011030511
- Ford, N.M. Jr, Walker, O.C. Jr., & Churchill, G.A. (1985). Differences in the attractiveness of alternative rewards among industrial salespeople: Additional evidence. *Journal of Business Research*, 13(1), 123-38.
- Gibson, J. L., & Klein S. M. (1970). Employee attitudes as a function of age and length service: A re-conceptualisation. *Academy Of Management Journal*, 13, 411-425.
- Greller, M. M. (2006). Hours invested in professional development during late career as a function of career motivation and satisfaction. *Career Development International*, 11(1), 544-59.
- Güler, Z. (2015). Özel politika gerektiren grupların iş yaşamındaki sağlık ve güvenlik riskleri ile kontrol tedbirleri [Health and safety risks in business life for groups requiring special policy and control measures]. *Çalışma Dünyası Dergisi [Labour World Journal]*, 2015/2, 117-134, Retrieved at April 25, 2016, from <http://www.calisma.dunyasi.gov.tr/pdf/sayi7/07.pdf>.
- Harper, S. (2009). Working in later life: from yesterday's 'older worker' to tomorrow's 'key talent'. In Anthony, C., & Jill, M. (Ed.), *Older workers in Europe* (pp.8-23). Berkshire, England: Open University Press.
- Hofäcker, D. (2010). *Older workers in a globalizing world*. Northampton, MA, USA: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Jackson, M.A. (2013). Counseling older workers confronting ageist stereotypes and discrimination. In Brownell, P., & Kelly, J.J. (Ed.), *Ageism and mistreatment of older workers*, e-book, (pp.135-144). doi: 10.1007/978-94-007-5521-5. Newyork, London: Springer.
- Kocaman, T. (2011). Bulunulan yaşa göre hayatta kalma ihtimalleri [Survival probabilities by age]. *Planlama Dergisi 42.Kuruluş Yılı Özel Sayısı [Planning Journal 42th Special Year Special Number]*, Retrieved at August 15, 2017, from <http://164ekutup.dpt.gov.tr/planlama/42nciyil/kocamant.pdf>.
- Kolçak, M., & Arpa, A.T. (2017). Türkiye ve OECD Ülkelerinde sosyal güvenlik harcamaları [Social security expenditures in Turkey and OECD countries]. *Muş Alparslan Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi [Journal of Social Sciences of Muş Alparslan University]*, 5(3), Retrieved at August 15, 2017, from <http://dergipark.gov.tr/download/article-file/325124>, ISSN: 2147-7655, e-ISSN: 2149-4622.
- Lacy, W. B., Bokemeier, J.L., & Shepard, J. M. (1983). Job attribute preferences and work commitment of men and women in the United States. *Personnel Psychology*, 36(1), 315-29.
- Lassus, L. A. P., Lopez, S., & Roscigno, V. J. (2015). Aging workers and the experience of job loss. *Research in Social Stratification and Mobility*, 41(2015), 81-91.
- Loretta, W. & White, P. (2006). Employers' attitudes, practices and policies towards older workers. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 16 (3), 313-330.
- Macnicol, J. (2006). *Age discrimination an historical and contemporary analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McCann, R., & Giles, H. (2002). Ageism in the workplace: A communication perspective. In Nelson, T.D. (Ed.), *Ageism: Stereotyping and prejudice against older persons* (pp.163-199). Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press

- McDonald, L. (2013). The evolution of retirement as systematic ageism. In Brownell, P., & Kelly, J.J. (Ed.), *Ageism and mistreatment of older workers*, e-book, (pp.69-92). doi: 10.1007/978-94-007-5521-5. Newyork, London: Springer.
- Ng, T. W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (2008). The relationship of age to ten dimensions of job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(2), 392-423.
- Okpara, J. O., Squillace, M., & Erondy, E. O. (2005). Gender differences and job satisfaction: A study of university teachers in the united states. *Women In Management Review*, 20(3), 178.
- Özen, S., & Özbek, Ç. (2017). Çalışma yaşamında yaşlılık: Yaşlı çalışanlar ve insan kaynakları uygulamaları [Old age in working life: Older workers and human resources applications]. *Çalışma ve Toplum*, 2(53), 547-572.
- Republic of Turkey Ministry of European Union. (2012). *Avrupa aktif yaşlanma ve nesillerarası dayanışma yılı hakkında bilgi notu –Ağustos 2011 [Information note on european active aging and intergenerational solidarity year-August 2011]*.
- Retrieved at August 17, 2017, from http://www.ab.gov.tr/files/SBYPB/Sosyal%20Politika%20ve%20C4%B0stihdam/aktif_yaslanma_bilgi_notu.pdf
- Rhodes, S. R. (1983). Age-related differences in work attitudes and behavior: A review and conceptual analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 93(1), 328-67.
- Roland, E., & Kidwell, Jr. (2003). Helping older workers cope with continuous quality improvement. *Journal of Management Development*, 22(10), 890-905.
- Smyer, M. A., & Pitt-Catsouphes, M. (2007). The meanings of work for older workers. *Generations*, 31(1), 23-30.
- Stamov-Robnagel, C., & Hertel, G. (2010). Older workers' motivation: Against the myth of general decline. *Management Decision*, 48(6), 894-906.
- Taylor, S. (2009). Are European older workers on the verge of a 'golden age' of employment opportunities?. In Anthony, C., & Jill, M. (Ed.), *Older workers in Europe* (pp.38-52). Berkshire, England: Open University Press.
- Turner, J. A. (2011). *Logevity policy, facing up to longevity issues affecting social security, pensions, and older workers*. Michigan,USA: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research.
- TÜİK (Turkish Statistical Institute, Turkey). (2015). *Basın odası haberleri [Press room news]*. 24(1), Retrieved at August 22, 2017, from http://tuik.gov.tr/basinOdasi/haberler/2015_24_20150430.pdf
- TÜİK (Turkish Statistical Institute, Turkey). (2016). *Türkiye istatistik kurumu demografik göstergeler [Turkish statistical institute demographic indicators]*, Retrieved at November 18, 2016, from <http://www.tuik.gov.tr>.
- Vatandaş, S. (2013). *AB nüfusunda yaşlanma sorunu ve çözüm önerileri [Aging problem of European Union and solution suggestions]*. Bilgesam [Bilge Adam Strategic Research Center], Retrieved at August 17, 2017, from <http://www.bilgesam.org/incele/64/-ab-nufusunda-yaslanma-sorunu-ve-cozum-secenekleri/#.WZWPF9JJZ0w>

The Sociological Analysis of the Tomb Visiting: The Case of Mawlana Tomb

Kamil Kaya, Semra Yılmaz Uz

1. Introduction

Tombs are holy places where people who are regarded as saint (veli) and *awliya* (evliya) whose spiritual powers and features are believed to lie down. These places are very important attraction centers and they have been subject to visits with specific ways. The visits of these aforementioned places have an important place in Turkish-Islamic culture.

Tomb visits are aimed at pleading with God by means of the person in the tomb. The sacredness of the person in the tomb is believed and he is thought to be a spiritually-powerful person. People see these places as a refuge in God and a beacon of hope. They particularly believe that visiting these places are effective in hard and troublesome times or when they are in expectation in terms of their future wishes.

Tomb visits is a sociological phenomenon. This phenomenon has always existed in historical context and we do not have any data about its disappearance, either. People are hoping for help from these places the same today as it was yesterday and they visit them. Tomb visits are a reality of the modern world similar to the traditional societies. Even though this phenomenon is criticized from the perspective of orthodox piety, it is particularly common among public piety and it has an important place.

The aim of this study is to make a sociological analysis of tomb visits. The study is not confined to theoretical evaluations while embracing the topic, also the data in the *MA Thesis** prepared in 2011 is also used. In this assertion, considering the socio-cultural and economic aspects of the visitors who visited Konya Mawlana Tomb, the basic aims of the visit, the expectations of the visitors and the issues such as rituals during the visit are handled and analyzed.

2. The Methods and Techniques of the Research

As is known, method is a must-follow way to detect the concrete cause-effect relations with a research way that is separate from the coincidental factors of social events (Kurktan, 1978, p. 3). In another words, method is a systematic configuration of approaches and techniques applied in various phases of a scientific research (Türkdoğan, 1989, p. 154).

This study is a survey research used in studies which are conducted on a sample selected from a scope embracing various social groups. By means of survey researches it is tried to reveal the objects and the existent situation of the events and phenomena happening in the objects as they are. In this such studies, on the one hand a description is done and on the other hand it is aimed to reveal the cause-effect relation connected with the previous events and conditions. More advanced processes are also included such as interpretation with the analysis and explanation of data, assessment and generalizations to be applied in similar studies (Arslantürk, 1998, p. 85). The basic hypothesis of this assertion is that even though visiting tombs is criticized from the perspective of orthodox (acknowledged) piety, the visit of these places which are accepted as sacred in traditional religious perspective will continue as a sociological phenomenon.

Research population is defined by the annual visitor statistics obtained from Konya Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism, Konya Museum Directorate. According to the data in 2010, approximately 1.200.000 people visited Mawlana Museum. The size of the sample representing the population is defined as 385 people with %95 reliability level and +/-%5 negligible error margin. In order to dissipate the negativity and to increase the level of reliability this number is scaled up 400.

* The thesis work was supported by Süleyman Demirel University Scientific Research Projects Coordination Unit.

In the research, a *questionnaire form* which is composed of 80 questions is prepared to be applied to the sample group representing the groundmass. Particular attention is paid to the survey questions to be directly associated with the presuppositions, the meaningful order and the comprehensibility of them. The survey was conducted in March and July by Semra Yılmaz. During the application process, the evaluation and the manner of the visitors about the questions are also tried to be discovered. The obtained data is analyzed with SPSS packet programme which is commonly used by social science researchers in a computer-based environment.

3.The Theoretical Frame of the Research

3.1. Tomb and Tomb Visits

Tomb which is an Arabic origin word is a concept used to refer to a structure whose top is generally covered with a dome and whose roof is dome-formed. Tombs are places which are used by people to express their wishes and look for an ailment for their illnesses. Tombs are mausoleums which are built for people who are religiously and denominationally regarded as great and for sultans or rulers (*emir*) who are prominent figures in state authority (Ölmez-Gökmen, 2005, p. 71-72).

Tomb visits is an inevitable part of traditional religious understanding. Traditional religion is a religion which is sustained among people by means of interaction of beliefs and practices belonging to old religion and culture and beliefs and practices belonging to monotheistic religions with holy books. It states the beliefs, rituals and practices that sustain among monotheistic religions. Traditional religion understanding is composed of synthesis of Islamic and old Turkic beliefs. People adopt these beliefs and practices. For example; visiting graves is sawab (reward) in Islam but tying pieces of cloth to a tree comes from the Old Turkish Religion Shamanism (Arslan, 2004, p. 53).

Awliya and *entombed saints* who are believed to have supernatural powers have a place in Turkish *culture*. The basic features of them are that they are capable of achieving extraordinary things while they are alive and/or after their death. These extraordinary things are called *karamah* (*miracle*). *Awliya* and entombed saints are known with epithets such as *Hacı Bayram Veli*, *Emir Sultan*, *Yunus Emre* and historical figures are known with epithets such as *Kum Baba* and *Çınar Dede*. There are also some which do not have any epithets but known as *Dede* (*Grandfather*) and *Yatır* (*Entombed Saint*). Whether they have an epithet or not, these figures are believed to solve the problems of people who apply to them with the help and wish of God, because they are regarded as *ermiş* (saint) and God's loyal serf. This belief continues even after their death. Therefore, the places they are buried transforms into a tomb or a mausaleum (Çobanoğlu, 2003, p.165-166).

Tomb visits are generally aimed at pleading for God and making mundane wishes by means of the person in the tomb (Mete, 1998, p. 118-119). People generally visit tombs when they are in trouble, when they cannot recover from an illness and when they cannot find a solution to their problems. They expect help from them in order to solve their problems and to make their wishes real. They believe that their wishes will come true at the end of the ceremony which is done as a tradition (Günay, 2001, p. 384). Tombs are visited to find ailment to illnesses, to have children, to receive a marriage proposal, to obtain property like a house and a car, and wealth; to find a job, to revive the relationship between a wife and a husband, to be safe from disasters, to come back from army safe and sound, to be successful in exams, to be protected from natural disasters and to protect the grains (Günay, Güngör & Sayım 2001, p. 86-87).

3.2. Mawlana Tomb

Mawlana Tomb is decided to be built after the death of Mawlana (17th December 1273) a couple of months later and it was built high according to his bequest. The tomb which is also called Yeşil Kubbe (The Green Dome) was constructed with the efforts of Sultan Veled and Aladdin Kayser (Yeniterzi, 1995, p.16). The architect of the tomb is an artist called Bedreddin from Tebrizi Turks. Selimoğlu Abdülvahid also completes the internal ornamentation of the tomb (Önder, 1998, p.153). The exact date of the construction of the tomb is not known. The epitaph of the tomb has not reached to present day. However, it is estimated that the tomb was completed in 1274 (Atasağun, 2004, p. 67).

The tomb which functioned as the center of the Mawlawi Tariqah (road) which was established after the death of Mawlana was closed down in 1924 based on the law that is the closure of dervish lodges (Aytürk-Bayram, 1992, p. 230). However, Atatürk wants this complex not to be closed but to be transformed into a museum and opened to visits. As a result of the studies done upon request of Atatürk, the tomb is opened to visits with the name of *Konya Âsâr-ı Atika Museum* in 2 March 1927 (Önder, 1994, p. 46; Erdoğan, 2004, p. 47). The tomb which gains reputation because of its decoration and the ancient materials around it both in Turkey and in the world is re-designated according to modern museology and its name is changed to Mawlana Museum (Atasağun, 2004, p. 109).

Mawlana Tomb is visited by millions of people (approximately 1, 1.5 million people a year); men, women, children and elderly from all religions and from all across the globe due to his love and tolerance understanding. It is of great importance to visit this museum. The people who visit Mawlana Tomb are believed to be half *hadji* (pilgrim in Islam). Especially the ones who go on pilgrimage visit Mawlana (Aytürk-Bayram, 1992, p. 231). Visitors consider Mawlana is a saint who has *karamah* (miracle). They generally come here to read Quran and make wishes such as having health, wealth and children (Lewis, 2010, p. 476). Mawlana Tomb is seen as a silent environment for exhausted spirits. Therefore, some people stay in the tomb for hours. Today, the tomb became a place to be visited and prayed for different purposes such as marriage, wedding, and *sunnah* (circumcision) ceremonies, to be successful in university exams and to recover from illnesses (Atasağun, 2004, p. 115).

There are various rumors about that if people visit the tomb and pray faithfully and trustfully, their prayers will be answered, their wishes will come true and they will attain their goals and their religious and mundane wishes will come true (Yeniterzi, 1995, p. 13-16). Owing to the effects of these rumors, most of the people who come to the museum visit it to make some wishes and they present their wishes in the presence of Mawlana before Allah. The *Şeb-i Arus* Pool in the tomb nearly turned into a wish pool. It is seen that local and foreign tourists drink the water streaming to the f the pool with the purpose of cure, and they take it to their homes and they throw coins to the pool to make their wishes come true (Atasağun, 2004, p.115).

4. The Assessment of Field Data

4.1. The features of the Interviewed

In the research, the representation of the equal distribution of sex is based. The sample included 400 participants in total; 200 of males and 200 females. Therefore, %50 of the sample is male and % 50 of the sample is female. Nearly %32 of the interviewed are centered upon between 18-22; %20 23-27; and %9 28-32 age group. %88 of the interviewed are cumulatively below 50. Nearly %43 of the interviewed are *married*, %54 are *single* and %3 defined themselves *widow* and *divorced*. %17 of the participants are *primary school graduate*, %8 *secondary school graduate*, %21 *high school and its equivalent graduate*, %15 *vocational school graduate* and %35 *undergraduate*. The ones who did an MA are %3. Nearly %30 of the interviewed are *students*, %15 *housewife*, %6 *teacher*, % 6 *tradespeople*, % 4 *engineers*, %3 *civil servants*. A vast majority of the interviewed stated that they are *retired*. In terms of income nearly %17 of the interviewed consider themselves *higher middle class*; %70 *middle-class* and %7 *lower middle class*. The rate of the ones who consider themselves *ruling class* is quite low. Among the participants who answered the questions about their family' s income, the monthly income of nearly %44 is *below 1.500 TL*, %38 *between 1.500-3.000 TL*, and %17 is *above 3.000 TL*.

Nearly %5 of the interviewed defined themselves *very piteous*, %74 *piteous* and %16 *a little interested in religion*. A vast majority of the visitors said that they are *Sunni* (%86); in terms of belief and *Hanefi* in terms of Islamic sects. Nearly %29 of the interviewed replied 'Yes, I have *satisfactory knowledge*.' and %65 'I have *relatively satisfactory knowledge*.' and %5 'No, I don't have *satisfactory knowledge*' to the question 'Do you have *satisfactory knowledge in religious issues*?'. Nearly %65 of the interviewed stated that they know how to read Quran and %32 stated that they do not know. Nearly %79 of the interviewed stated that they *perform salah*, %20 stated that they *do not perform salah*. Of the interviewed who performed *salah* nearly %50 *perform salah five times a day*; %5 *only perform on Fridays*, % 19 *perform at Eids and Jumma prayer*; %18 *performed all salahs*. Nearly %93 of the sample group stated

that they fast in Ramadan. According to this data, the visitor structure is composed of that a great majority of the interviewed define themselves *Sunni* and *Hanafi*; they believe they have satisfactory knowledge in religious issues, they perform *ibadahs* like salah and fasting.

Nearly %41 of the interviewed stated that they are from *Konya province*, and %59 stated that they come from *out of Konya*. The ones who come out of Konya are mainly from İstanbul and Ankara; and the other visitors come from different provinces of our country like Adana Adana, Aksaray, Kastamonu, İzmir, Bursa, Manisa, Mersin, Trabzon, Afyon, Antalya, Çorum, Erzurum and Kayseri.

4.2. The Reasons of Visiting the Tomb

People visit the tombs with different reasons and expectations. In the study, %9 of the interviewed replied as they are getting their guests looked round; %47 he has a mubarak identity, %12 *I am curious about it*; %11 *because of my belief* and %17 *to pray* to the question “*What is the most important reason of your visit?*” According to the sex, there is not any meaningful differentiation about the reason of the visit of Mawlana Tomb. Half of both males and females visit the tomb as *it has a mubarak identity*.

In the research, “*In your opinion, what is the most important reason of people’s visits to a tomb in modern societies?*” question was asked. Nearly %15 of the interviewed stated that “*in order to fill the gap which happened with modernization*, %45 of the interviewed stated to *fulfill their need of belief* and %33 of the interviewed stated that *here is a historical place*.

There is a meaningful differentiation among the answers given to that question according to the education level. %65 of the primary school graduates stated *in order to fulfill my need of belief*, %25 of them stated that *here is a historical place*; %42 of the secondary school graduates stated *here is a historical place*, %39 of them stated *to fulfill my need of belief*, %19 of them *to fill the gap which happened with modernization*; %43 of the graduates of high school and their equivalents stated that *in order to fulfill my need of belief*, %40 stated that *here is a historical place*, %10 stated that *to fill the gap which happened with modernization*; %49 of the vocational school graduates stated that *in order to fulfill my need of belief*, %36 stated *here is a historical place*, %13 stated *to fill the gap which happened with modernization*; %41 of the undergraduates stated *to fulfill my need of belief*, %34 stated that *here is a historical place*, %21 stated *to fill the gap which happened with modernization*. Thus, while two out of three primary school graduates stated that they visit the tomb in order to fulfill their need of belief; this rate decreases down to %40 who had education after primary school. Except for secondary school graduates, the rate of people who stated that they visit the tomb to fill the gap which happened with modernization increases significantly; also this rate exceeds %20 at the level of undergraduates.

In the research, “*In what cases do you generally visit this tomb?*” question was oriented to the visitors; nearly %26 of the interviewed stated that *when I feel troublesome and depressed*; %17 stated that *when I am happy and peaceful*, %5 stated *when my religious life got weakened*, %4 stated *when my religious life got stronger*, %3 stated *when my wishes about future increased*, %22 stated that *there is no need for a special reason, I always come*.

In the research, the visitors were asked whether they agree with the idea that “*Tombs are mostly visited in order to get rid of a difficulty or trouble*”. Nearly %11 of the interviewed stated *I strongly agree*, %21 stated *I agree*, %18 stated *I am undecided*, %34 stated that *I do not agree*, %13 stated *I completely disagree*. According to this, while nearly %33 of the sample group share the idea that *tombs are mostly visited in order to get rid of a difficulty or trouble*; %47 of them do not agree with this idea. When assessed according to the sex, it is understood that males (%41), females (%27) agree with this idea.

There is a meaningful differentiation according to the education level in terms of agreeing with the statement “*Tombs are mostly visited in order to get rid of a difficulty or trouble*”. Nearly %55 of *primary school graduates*, %48 of *secondary school graduates*, %34 of *high schools and its equivalents graduates*, %25 of *vocational school graduates* and %24 of *undergraduates* stated that they agree with this idea. Whereas %35 of *primary school graduates*, %45 of *secondary school graduates*, %42 of *high schools and its equivalents graduates*, %57 of *vocational school graduates* and %55 of *undergraduates* stated that they do not agree with this idea.

It is a common belief that the person buried in Mawlana Tomb is a holy person and wishes come true here in Konya region. In the research, the visitors were asked whether they agree to the ideas that

The Sociological Analysis of the Tomb Visiting

“The person buried here is a holy person, thus the wishes expressed here come true”. Nearly %15 of the interviewed stated that I strongly agree, %32 stated that I agree, %25 stated that I am undecided, %16 stated that I disagree, %6 stated that I strongly disagree. According to this data, on the one hand nearly half of the visitors believe that Mawlana is a holy person and here their wishes come true; on the other hand it is understood that the ones who disagree with this statement is low.

There is a differentiation according to the sex in agreeing with the statement “The person buried here is a holy person, thus the wishes expressed here come true”. Nearly %55 of the females, %44 of the males stated that they agree with this idea. Nearly % 26 is male and %22 is female among the ones who disagree with this statement. According to this, it can be said that females are more inclined to traditional religious belief.

There is an inverse relationship between agreeing with the idea that “*The person buried here is a holy person, thus the wishes expressed here come true*” and the education level. As the education level increases, the rate in agreeing to this statement decreases. Nearly %72 of *primary school graduates*, %66 of the *secondary school graduates*, %40 of *high school and its equivalents graduates*, %41 of the *vocational school graduates*, %40 of the *undergraduates* stated that they agree with this idea.

It can be said that there is a direct relationship between agreeing with the idea that “*The person buried here is a holy person, thus the wishes expressed here come true*” and piety. Nearly %69 of the ones who define themselves *very piteous*, %55 of the ones who define themselves *piteous*, and %26 of the ones who are *less piteous* agree with this idea. Nearly %13 of the interviewed who define themselves *very piteous*, %22 of the ones who define themselves *piteous* and %34 of the ones who define themselves *less piteous* stated that they disagree with this idea.

4.3. The practices done in the Tomb

There are some practices that the visitors do during their visit. Nearly %86 of the interviewed replied to the question “*What kind of practice do you primarily do when you visit this tomb?*” as they pray. Some practices such as *tying pieces of clothes* and *delivering candies* observed in some tombs are not seen much in Mawlana Tomb. Furthermore, the rate of *making a vow* is quite low. The question “*Have you made a vow in this tomb before?*” was oriented to the visitors and nearly %92 of the interviewed stated *no*, only %5 of them stated *yes*.

Making a wish is a common practice in visiting tombs. The question ‘Have you ever made a wish in this tomb before?’ question was oriented to the visitors in the Mawlana Tomb and nearly %32 of the interviewed replied *yes* and %68 of the interviewed replied *no*. In the face-to-face interviews during the conduct visitors expressed that they did not come to the tomb with an expectation but to visit the tomb and they did not make any wish. Despite this, it is also understood that a significant number of the visitors came to the tomb to make wishes such as in order to get married, have a child, get rid of troubles and pray for their children who will take an exam.

When assessed according to the sex, it can be said that females are more inclined to make wish in the Mawlana Tomb than males. In the research, the question ‘Have you ever made a wish in this tomb?’ question was oriented to the visitors and nearly %37 of the females and %27 of the males replied *yes*. The question ‘*If yes, what was your wish?*’ question was oriented to them and nearly %35 of the interviewed stated that to be successful in the exams or lessons, %16 stated that to find a cure for an illness or a problem, %6 stated that to get married, %4 stated that to have a child, %4 stated that to regulate the marital conflict.

Şeb-i Arus Pool is situated in the Mawlana Tomb. There is a common belief among public that if a coin is thrown into the pool, the wishes come true. In the research, the idea that ‘*If a coin is thrown into the pool in the Mawlana Tomb, the wishes come true.*’ was oriented to the visitors in terms of they agree or they disagree with it; nearly %91 of the interviewed replied *no* and %9 of the interviewed replied *yes*. According to this data, it can be said that the belief that if a coin is thrown into the pool in the Mawlana Tomb is not very strong. Furthermore, this situation can also be associated with the education level of the visitors as well as the security precautions since the tomb is in the state of a museum. However, during the conduct it is also observed by us that there were some visitors who threw a coin into the pool, made a wish and drank the water from the pool.

It is seen that rate of the male visitors are higher than the female visitors in believing in the ideas that if a coin is thrown into the pool, the wishes come true. %11,4 of the male visitors and % 6,7 of the female visitors agreed with this idea. It is a common belief that compared to males, females are more inclined to have traditional religious understanding and the practises which exist in the traditional religion understanding appeal females more than males. Thus, this result is surprising.

It can be said that there is a direct relationship between the belief that if a coin is thrown into the pool, the wishes come true and the advancing age. Nearly %5 of the visitors between 18-32, %10 of the visitors between 33-47, %17 of the visitors between 48-62, % 25 of the visitors between 63 and above agree with the idea that if a coin is thrown into the pool, the wishes come true.

It can be said that there is an inverse relationship between the education level and the belief that if a coin is thrown into the pool, the wishes come true. It is observed that as the education level increases, the agreement with this idea decreases. Nearly %19 of the primary school graduates, %14 of the secondary school graduates, %7 of the high school and its equivalents graduates, %3 of the vocational school graduates and %8 of the undergraduates stated that they agreed with this idea.

The question '*If yes, what is the reason of this?*' oriented to the visitors who believe that the wishes come true, if a coin is thrown into the Şeb-I Arus pool. Nearly %26 of the interviewed stated that a donation is done to a mubarak place, %21 stated that it is done with a good intention, %16 stated that everybody believes it and applies, %16 stated that because it is a part of belief.

In the research, the question whether they agree to the idea that '*If couples who have just married visit the tomb, it will make their family life happy*' oriented to the visitors and nearly %44 of the interviewed replied *yes*, %50 of the interviewed replied *no*. As is seen nearly half of the visitors have a faith that if newly-wed couples visit the Mawlana tomb and pray in here, their family life will be happy. Furthermore, during the interview, a 62-year-old woman stated that she was brought to the tomb before her wedding ceremony and she was happy in her marriage and to pray in the tomb before the wedding is regarded as a tradition.

There is an association between the idea that '*The visit of newly-wed couples here makes their family life happy*' and the age group. It is seen that there is an increase in agreeing with this idea with the advancing age. Nearly %39 of the visitors between 18-32, %55 of the visitors between 33-47, %73 of the visitors between 48-62 and %84 of the visitors between 63 and above believe that if newly-wed couples visit the tomb, their family life will go on with happiness and welfare. This situation is an expected result because of the fact that the tradition of visiting the tomb by elderly is continued and traditional religion understanding is more dominant.

In the research, the visitors were oriented the question whether they agree with the idea that '*It is of great importance to visit here before an exam in order to be successful in the exams*' and nearly %39 of the interviewed replied *yes*, and %61 of them replied *no*. There is an inverse relationship between the education level and in agreeing with the idea that '*It is a must to visit here before an exam in order to be successful*'. The rate of agreeing with this idea decreases as the education level increases. Nearly %64 of the primary school graduates, %53 of the secondary school graduates, %36 of the high school and its equivalents graduates, %28 of the vocational school graduates and % 28 of the undergraduates agree with this idea.

The ones who adopt the idea that '*It is a must to visit here before an exam in order to be successful*' was oriented a question '*In your opinion, what is the reason of this?*'. Nearly %35 of them stated that their wishes come true, %22 stated that it provides a psychological support, %16 stated that they feel peace and calm, %11 stated that first they need to study and then they should pray and %4 stated that it is a part of faith.

One of the main reasons underlying visiting tombs is that it is the common belief that it helps people receive a marriage proposal. In the research, the question was oriented to the visitors whether they agree with the idea that '*It is a must for people to pray in here who are on the shelf*' and nearly %20 of the visitors replied *yes*, %73 of the visitors replied *no*. The ones who replied *yes* was asked '*If yes, what is the reason of this?*' and nearly %56 of the interviewed stated that *their wishes come true*, %12 stated that *they feel calm*, %7 stated that *it will be beneficent in terms of spirituality* and %7 stated that *it is a part of faith*.

Starting from the data given above, the interpretation can be made that female visitors, advanced age group visitors, visitors with lower education level and the visitors who define themselves more pious are more inclined to traditional religion understanding and they are more inclined to render the practices which exist in the traditional religion understanding.

4.4. The Manners and Etiquette of Visiting the Tomb

In traditional religion understanding, people generally believe that it is a must to do some preparations before the visit and visit the tomb in a specific manner and etiquette while performing their visits to the tomb. The visitors who came to the Mawlana Tomb were asked '*What sort of preparations do you do before coming to this tomb?*' and nearly %74 of the interviewed replied *I perform ablution*, %22 replied *I do not do anything* and %1 replied that *I perform a nafl (supererogatory) prayer*. In the face-to-face interviews, the visitors expressed that they are careful about wearing clean clothes and being physically clean. Some visitors stressed that it is vital to be in good intentions and spirituality during the visit.

It can be said that females are more conscientious than males about doing some preparations before coming to the Mawlana Tomb. Nearly %83 of the *female visitors* and %68 of the *male visitors* stated that they perform an ablution before coming to the museum. Nearly %3 of the female visitors stated that they perform a nafl (supererogatory) prayer before coming to the museum and there is not any male visitor who perform a nafl prayer before coming to the museum. Furthermore, the rate of male visitors who come to the tomb without any preparation (%31) is two times more than the female visitors (%14).

It can be said that in terms of doing some preparations before coming to the museum and the level of piety, as the level of piety increases the preparations done before coming to the museum are paid attention, either. Nearly % 94 of the visitors who define themselves *very pious*, %78 of the visitors who define themselves *pious*, %58 of the visitors who define themselves *less pious* stated that they perform an ablution before their visit to the tomb. The visitors who define themselves *uninterested in piety* stated that they have not done any preparation before their visit.

There is an increase in the visit of people on days and at nights which are accepted as sacred in terms of religion. People visit these places more on sacred (Mubarak) days and at sacred nights. Thus, it is thought that these days and nights are assessed more beneficially. Furthermore, it can be said that people have turned visiting tombs into a tradition when they are at crossroads such as before some special occasions like exams, or wedding ceremonies etc.

In the research, the question '*Especially when do you visit / would you like to visit this tomb?*' was oriented to the visitors and nearly %55 stated that time is not important, I always come; %18 stated that on Kandil (sacred nights), %13 stated that in the three holy months, % 6 stated that before exams and % 4 stated that at religious festivals (Eids). It is understood from these data that nearly half of the visitors have a habit of visiting tombs, and the other half make a visit to the tombs especially at times which are regarded as sacred or at times which are special for themselves.

4.5. Thoughts about Visiting Tombs

Mawlana Tomb is one of the most visited tombs. In the research, the question which is about the number of the visits of the tomb oriented to the visitors and nearly %35 stated that *my first visit*, %16 stated that *my second visit*, % 8 stated that *my third visit*, %6 stated that *my fourth visit*, %7 stated that *my fifth visit*, and %28 stated that *my sixth and more than sixth visit*.

It can be said that female visitors are visiting the tomb more than male visitors in terms of sex and the number of visit of the Mawlana Tomb. This was the first visit of nearly %31 of the *female visitors* and %40 of the *male visitors*. Furthermore, nearly %38 of the *female visitors* and %30 of the *male visitors* stated that they visited the tomb *five times and more*.

Nearly %91 of the interviewed expressed that *visiting tombs provided a spiritual relief and for themselves* and %9 of them expressed that *they have not felt any relief in their visits*. Furthermore, in the face-to-face interviews a vast majority of the visitors expressed that *this tomb has a very different atmosphere* and it *exactly provides a spiritual relief and gives calmness to a person*. *Female* (%92) and *male* (%90) visitors share the same opinion that *visits provide a spiritual relief*.

In the research, the question ‘Do you believe in that the tomb has an influence on people?’ was oriented and nearly %88 of the interviewed replied yes and %12 replied no. The ones who replied the question yes was asked ‘If yes, what kind of influence does it have on people?’ and nearly %35 of the interviewed stated that *it draws a lesson and it directs people to goodness* and %63 stated that *it gives peace to people*.

‘The state of believing in the tomb has an influence on people’ is not a defining element in terms of sex. There is a direct relationship between the relevant faith and the level of piety. Nearly %90 of the ones who define themselves as *piteous* and %50 of the ones who define themselves as *uninterested in piety* believe that the tomb has an effect on people.

In the research, the question ‘In your opinion, what is the most appropriate reason among the ones which are about the sacredness of this place?’ was oriented and nearly %49 of the interviewed stated that *a mubarak person is lying here*, %22 stated that *it exists in religious and historical texts*, %17 stated that *they feel a spiritual peace*, %8 stated that *it is accepted sacred by everyone*. According to this, it can be said that although the reasons put forward are different, nearly %96 of the interviewed accept the Mawlana Tomb as *a sacred place*.

As is known, in the frame of orthodox religion understanding, visiting tombs is harshly criticized because of being *bi'dat* (innovation), *hurafah* (superstition), superstition and even *shirkh* (the sin of practising idolatry or polytheism). Nonetheless, it is a sociological reality that people continue visiting tombs. In the research, ‘In your opinion, is it a superstition going to a tomb?’ oriented and nearly %94 of the interviewed replied no and only %6 of the interviewed replied yes. The ones who replied no was oriented the question ‘If no, why?’ and nearly %41 of the interviewed stated that *a visit to a beloved serf of Allah*, %15 stated that *a cemetery visit*, %11 stated that *as long as superstitions are not practiced*, %7 stated that *as a part of faith*, %5 stated that *it provides a spiritual support* and %4 stated that *it directs people to pray and ibadahs (religious practices)*.

5. Conclusion

In the research, in order to do a healthy evaluation, the equal representation of men and women is based. Most of the visitors are composed of young and mid-life group. Half of the interviewed are single. Generally their education level is high and they belong to different jobs. In terms of income, most of the interviewed consider themselves *middle class*.

A clear majority of visitors define themselves *piteous, Sunni and Hanafi*. While one third of the interviewed claimed that they have enough knowledge about religious issues; two third of them claimed that they have relative knowledge about this. It is understood that nearly half of the visitors perform five time *salaat* (prayer) in a day and they fast in Ramadan.

In the research, the reasons that the visitors express about their visit are different. It is understood that nearly half of the interviewed mainly visit the tomb with the thought that Mawlana is a *mubarak* (blessed) person and they pray there. Furthermore, overcoming stressful situations or finding peace take an important place among the reasons of visit. The tomb itself arouses interest which is among the reasons of visit.

In the research, the primary ritual that the visitors perform in the Mawlana Tomb is to *pray*. There are scarcely any rituals such as *tying pieces of cloth* or *delivering candies* in this tomb. A limited number of performances such as *making a vow* or *making a wish*. Of the main wishes are being successful in exams, finding a cure to an illness, and getting married. Furthermore, throwing coins to the *Şeb-i Arus* pool inside the tomb is a ritual visitors perform.

A vast majority of visitors who visit the tomb are careful about being ritually clean (*abdast*). The tomb is densely visited on holy days and at holy nights, in the three holy months, and at religious festivals (eids). When the vast majority of the interviewed had more than one tomb visit taken into account, it can be said that the society perform the tomb visit different from *bid'at* (innovation), *hurafe* (superstition) and superstitions but enriching their visits with religious motifs and sustaining it as a culture in terms of religious belief and ibadah (servitude). However, it is impossible to claim that all beliefs and performances are the same in tomb visits. Nevertheless, visiting tombs is a sociological

phenomenon which has continued despite all criticisms from past to present and which will not disappear.

6. References

- Arslan, M. (2004). Türk Popüler Dindarlığı [Turkish Popular Piety]. İstanbul: Dem Yayınları.
- Arslantürk, Z. (1995). Araştırma Metod ve Teknikleri [Research Methods and Techniques]. İstanbul: Marmara Üniversitesi İlahiyat Fakültesi Vakfı Yayınları.
- Atasağun, G. (2004). Mevlâna ve Türbesi-Ziyaret Fenomeni Açısından Bir Değerlendirme [Mawlana and His Tomb- An Evaluation from the Perspective of Phenomenon of Visit]. Konya: Sebat Ofset Matbaacılık.
- Aytürk, N., & Altan B. (1992). Türkiye' de Dini Ziyaret Yerleri [Religious Visit Places in Turkey]. Ankara: Altanoğlu İlim ve Kültür Hizmetleri.
- Çobanoğlu, Ö. (2003). Türk Halk Kültüründe Memoratlar ve Halk İnançları [Memorials and Folk Beliefs in Turk Folk Culture]. Ankara: Akçağ Yayınları.
- Erdoğan, E. (2004). Mevlana'nın Hayatı Eserleri ve Mevlana Müzesi [The Biography and the Masterpieces of Mawlana and Mawlana Museum]. Konya: Anadolu Manşet Gazetesi Yayıncılık.
- Gölpınarlı, A. (2006). Mevlâna'dan Sonra Mevlevilik [Mevleviyeh after Mawlana]. İstanbul: İnkılap Yayınları.
- Günay, N. (2001). Isparta'daki Halk İnanışlarında Eski Kültürlerin İzleri [The Traces of Old Cultures in the Folk Beliefs in Isparta]. *Isparta'nın Dünü, Bugünü, Yarını Sempozyumu II [The Past, Today and Present of II. Isparta Symposium II]*, Isparta, Türkiye, 16-17 Mayıs 1998 (pp. 283-292). Assetion Book, Volume 3. Isparta: Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- Günay, Ü., Güngör, H., Taştan, V., & Sayım, H. (2001). Ziyaret Fenomeni Üzerine Bir Din Bilim Araştırması: Kayseri Örneği [A Study of Religion Science on Visiting Phenomenon: The Case of Kayseri]. Kayseri: Erciyes Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- Kurktan, A. (1978). Sosyal İlimler Metodolojisi [Methodology of Social Sciences]. İstanbul: İstanbul Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- Lewis, F. (2010). Mevlânâ Geçmiş ve Şimdi, Doğu ve Batı, Mevlânâ Celaleddin Rumi'nin Hayatı, Öğretisi, Şiiri [Rumi- Past and Present, East and West: The Life, Teachings and Poetry of Jalal al-Din Rumi]. (Translated by G. Çağalı Güven, & H. Koyukan). İstanbul: Kabcacı Yayınevi. (Original study was published in 2000).
- Mete, H. S. (1998). Hamza Baba Türbesi Etrafında Oluşmuş Halk İnançları [Folk Beliefs Created around Hamza Baba Tomb]. *Türk Halk Kültürü Araştırmaları 1996 içinde [in Turk Folk Culture Studies]* (pp. 118-136). Ankara: Kültür Bakanlığı Yayınları:267.
- Ölmez, F. N., & Gökmen, Ş. (2005). Isparta İl Merkezinde Bulunan Türbeler [The Tombs Situated in the City Centre of Isparta]. *Bilgi Türk Dünyası Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi [Bilgi Türk Dünyası Social Sciences Journal]*, (35): 71-105.
- Önder, M. (1994). Atatürk ve Mevlâna Sevgisi [The Love of Atatürk and Mawlana]. *İnsan Hakları Hoşgörü ve Mevlâna Sempozyumu [Human Rights Tolerance and Mawlana Symposium]* 26-27 Ekim 1994 (pp. 44-49). TBMM Kültür Sanat ve Yayın Kurulu Yayınları, No:72.
- Önder, M. (1998). Mevlâna ve Mevlevilik [Mawlana and Mevleviyeh]. İstanbul: Aksoy Yayıncılık.
- Pay, S. (2002). Bursa'da Türbe Kültürü [Tomb Culture in Bursa]. *Bursa Halk Kültürü Uludağ Üniversitesi I. Bursa Halk Kültürü Sempozyumu [Bursa Folk Culture Uludağ University I. Bursa Folk Culture Symposium]*, 4-6 Nisan 2002 (pp. 437-451). Assetion Book, Volume 2. Bursa: Uludağ Üniversitesi Rektörlüğü Yayınları.
- Türkdoğan, O. (1989). Bilimsel Değerlendirme ve Araştırma Metodolojisi [Scientific Assessment and Research Methodology]. İstanbul: Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Yayınları.
- Yeniterzi, E. (1995). Mevlâna Celâleddin Rûmi [Mawlana Jalal al-Din al-Rumi]. Ankara: Türkiye Diyanet Vakfı Yayınları.

Gender Inequality in Turkey: A Regional Analysis

Gülcan Güzel, Meral Uzunöz

1. Gender Inequalities

Gender inequality is defined as the inability of an individual to gain equal opportunities in all aspects of social life by being subjected to gender-based inequality, being unable to be represented, and being deprived of participation (Ecevit, 2010).

Gender the ideology of the social state on gender equality and policies, patriarchal structure, religious belief, affect the lives of women and girls that thus shapes gender equality/ inequality (Yumuş, 2011; Markham, 2010; Çakır, 2014 & UNICEF ,2000).In addition intra-family duties and distributions and traditional roles in Turkey, factors such as education level, marital status, number of children, wage structure and migration also prevent women from entering the labour market (WB & DPT, 2009).

It seems that women in society have not achieved the same level of development as men (Deniz & Habikoğlu, 2012).Today, 70% of the world's poor are women. While many women do not have the opportunity to work, working women earn an average of 3/4 of their male earnings (TTB, 2014). As a result of all these inequalities towards women and not being able to show improvements because of that, gender inequality should focus on women and their problems related to these issues (Şener & Demirdirek, 2014). As can be seen here, women are the only victim of sex discrimination (Sivakumar, 2008). The main goal of eliminating gender inequality is to improve the prosperity of society as a whole (Karakaş & Çevik, 2016). Otherwise, gender inequality is a barrier to sustainable development, peace and security (Özyol, 2013). In other words, if we want to achieve democracy and realize the goal of sustainable development, gender equality must be ensured (İşler & Şentürk, 2012).

2. Studies on Gender Inequality in Turkey and Tools Used to Measure Gender Inequality

Since 1946 The United Nations has developed various instruments for the promotion of the status of women, the provision of gender equality and equal and fair development for both women and men (ASPB & İB, 2014). Turkey uses agreements, decisions and recommendations of organizations like CEDAW, European Social Charter , ILO, OECD, OSCE and these top policy documents that are sensitive to social sex like Millennium Development Goals, the Cairo World Population and Development Conference Action Plan, the 4th World Women Conference Action Plan, the Beijing Declaration (Ecevit, 2010). Eleven years after the establishment of the Republic in Turkey, on 05.12.1934, women were given the right to be elected and elected (Çakır, 2014). In 1990, it established the General Directorate of Women's Status as a national mechanism in order to develop women's politics (Gökçimen, 2008).

According to the Constitution, with law no.5170 on 07.05.2004, "Women and men have equal rights and the state is obliged to ensure that this equality is implemented" was added. In 2010, on 12.09.2010 and with law no.5982, "Measures to be taken with this purpose cannot be interpreted as contrary to the principle of equality" was added. The Constitution thus explicitly imposes the state responsibilities on Gender Equality. Individuals who are inequality due to their gender can seek their rights based on this provision (OKA, 2013). In article 192 of the Turkish Civilian Law, the wives did not have to obtain permission from each other for the choice of profession and work, but added that the peace and benefit of the marriage union should be taken into consideration when choosing a profession (TMK, 2001).

In 2001-2004, the concept of the family head was abolished, before the law the statues of husband and wife were equalized, in case of a divorce situation, it is accepted by the reforms that women are a worthy of free labour within the household, emphasizing the equitable distribution of earned wealth during marriage (Dedeoğlu & Elveren, 2012). In 2005, "Project on the Promotion of Gender Equality" and "National Action Plan on Gender Equality" were prepared. The action plan covers the years 2008-2013 and is considered to be a major instrument in closing gender inequality (KSGM, 2008). In 2014, Turkey has begun to prepare a report to measure gender equality at the provincial level with "Gender

Equality Carnets for 81 Provincials” (Kavas Urul, 2016). As can be understood from this, Turkey has signed many international treaties in order to provide gender equality. At the same time, the constitution for this purpose also put a variety of materials, went to a number of changes, and prepared projects and establishment various institutions.

There are 5 common indices used to measure gender inequality. These are GDI (Gender- Based Development Index), GEM (The Gender Empowerment Measure), GEI (Gender Equity Index), GGI (Global Gender Gap), SIGI (Social Institutions and Gender Index) (Karakaş & Çevik, 2016, as cited in Jütting et al, 2008). However, we will only analyze the situation of Turkey according to GGI.

3.The Global Gender Gap Index and Gender Equality in terms of Chamber for 81 Provinces

We will examine the situation of Turkey according to the report of gender inequality by the World Economic Forum. We will compare Turkey's provinces and regions according to NUTS1 and NUTS3 according to the gender equality chapter for 81 provinces.

Table1: The Situation of Turkey According to the Gender Gap Index (GGI)

	Turkey's GGI Index	Economic Participation and Opportunity Index	Trainee Participation Index	Health and Life Expectancy Index	Political Life Span Index	Number of Countries Participating
2006	105	106	92	85	96	115
2007	121	118	110	87	108	128
2008	123	124	108	88	106	130
2009	129	130	110	93	107	134
2010	126	131	109	61	99	134
2011	122	132	106	62	89	135
2012	124	129	108	62	98	135
2013	120	127	104	59	103	136
2014	125	132	105	1	113	142
2015	130	131	105	1	105	145
2016	130	129	109	1	113	144

Source: World Economic Forum, The Global Gender Gap Report.2013-2016.

Compared with other countries and from past today in order to analyze the place where Turkey's gender equality or inequality has also been form above Table: 1 by the Global Gender Inequality Report. According to the table 1, in economic participation and opportunity index Turkey ranked as 106th among 115 countries in 2006 and 129th among 144 countries in 2016. While in the trainee participation index Turkey was 92th among 115 countries in 2006, it was the 109th among 144th countries in 2016. Even though participation in primary education in Turkey is compulsory, there is still no equality in this area. When we look at the political strength index, it is seen that Turkey ranks as 96th among 115 countries in 2006 and 113th among 144 countries in 2016. It is possible to say that this ratio is far behind the world average despite the fact that there has been a big increase in the rate of female deputies. The best healing in this area is seen in the health and life expectancy index .It is observed in this area While Turkey was ranked as 86th among 115 countries in 2006, it was ranks as 1st palace in 2016. It has also been observed that this area has maintained its first place for the last three years. When we look at the general indices of these four indices, it is observed that Turkey ranked as 105th among 115 countries in 2006. However it ranked as 130th among 144 countries in 2016 and in the last two years it is seen to share same order.

When the values of the four basic indicators for gender equality in Turkey are examined, in the 2005-2006 period, the tertiary education participation of men was 20.2 while that of women was 17.4. When the period of 2015-2016 came, the tertiary education participation rate of men was percent 39.2 and the rate of women was percent 42.6. Over time, there has been an increase in the tertiary education participation of men and women, as well as the educational participation of women has surpassed men

Gender Inequality in Turkey

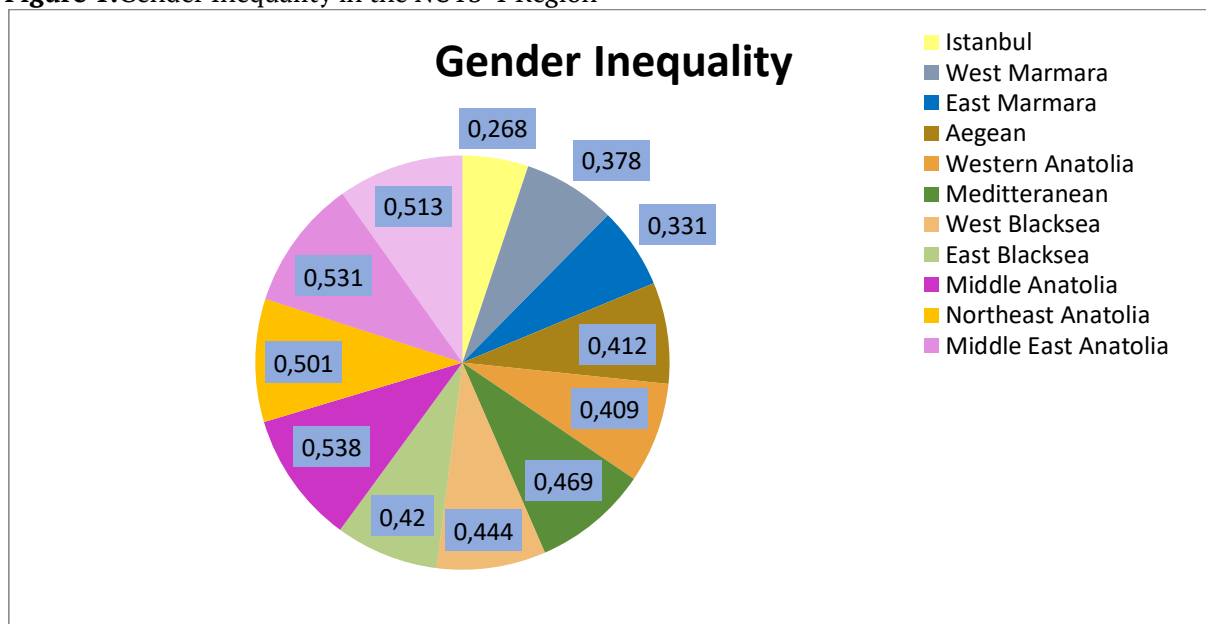
(TSI, 17.03.2017).Life expectancy at birth in 2013 was 75.7 for males and 80.7 for females (TSI, 09.04.2017).The labor force participation rate in 2005 was 23.3 for women and 70.6 for men, while It is percent 32.5 for women and percent 72 for men in 2016 (TSI, 18.03.2017). In view of women's political participation, in 1935, when women were represented in the parliament, the rate of female parliamentarians was percent 4.5. In 2016, the highest rate was achieved with percent 14.7(TSI transferred from TBMM, 17.03.2017).Turkey has created a gender equality carnet at the local level based on the Gender Inequality Index (GII) used by the UN and compared 81 provinces according to this index (Demirdirek & Şener, 2014). It ranges from 0 to 1. While 0 indicates equality between women and men, 1 indicates total inequality between them (UNDP, 2010).

Table 2: With 2015 Data Most Equalist First and Last Province

Gender Inequality Index Ranking (2015)		Point	Gender Inequality Index Ranking(2015)		Point
1	İstanbul	0,268	81	Bitlis	0,617
2	Bursa	0,275	80	Muş	0,615
3	Eskişehir	0,308	79	Yozgat	0,593
4	Ankara	0,311	78	Niğde	0,580
5	Muğla	0,321	77	Afyon	0,574
6	İzmir	0,323	76	Siirt	0,572
7	Yalova	0,323	75	Adıyaman	0,559
8	Bolu	0,327	74	Elazığ	0,558
9	Düzce	0,329	73	Aksaray	0,555
10	Kocaeli	0,329	72	Sivas	0,554

Source: Kavas Urul.(2016). 81 İl İçin Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliği Karnesi 2016.

According to the Gender Equality Carnet for 81 Provinces, the first ten and last ten provision is shown in table 2 above. As it can be seen in table 2, which was created by using data for for 2014-2015, was the most egalitarian province in Istanbul and followed it respectively by Bursa, Eskişehir, Ankara, Muğla, İzmir, Yalova, Bolu, Düzce ve Kocaeli. **Bitlis, Muş, Yozgat, Niğde, Afyon, Siirt, Adıyaman, Elazığ, Aksaray, Sivas is the most unequal top provinces according to new report which obtained by moving from the year 2015.**

Figure 1: Gender Inequality in the NUTS-1 Region

Source : Prepared from (Kavas Urul, 2016).

We calculated the mean values for NUTS-1 region of Turkey with the movement of Gender Inequality Index values (2015) that Kavas Urul (2016) has prepared. According to the value I obtained, Istanbul is the region with the lowest gender inequality with 0,268. Istanbul is followed by East Marmara with 0,331 and West Marmara with 0,378. These three regions have less inequality and are included in the low unequal group. Western Anatolia 0,409, Aegean 0,412, Eastern Black Sea region 0,420, Western Black Sea 0,444, Mediterranean 0,469 are in the middle unequal part. Northeast Anatolia 0,501, Southeastern Anatolia 0,513, Middle East Anatolia 0,531 and Middle Anatolia 0,538 are in the highest inequality.

4. Conclusion

The study deals with gender inequality in terms of regional analysis (NUTS 1 Level). Hence, the solution to the research results and problems can be considered as follows.

Istanbul has become the best province between cities and regions according to the gender parity of 81 provinces. But Netspick made a survey with 16 criteria and 100 cities. According to this research, Istanbul was the last province on gender equality (It is still far behind the world). Although the constitution has many articles on gender equality, gender equality has been a priority in many institutions and organizations, but inequality in Turkey remains a serious problem. Similarly, although women's education rates have increased, and even women have passed through at the level of men's education, we see that this success does not reflect equal in size in the economic and political arena.

Same way men and women respectively spend 116,4 and 376,7 time in terms of minutes per day on unpaid work in Turkey, whereas they spend time of 360,3 and 123,7 in turn on paid work. When all kind of works is taken into consideration, men and women respectively allocate 476,7 and 500.3 time in terms of minutes per day for total works. What stands out from this, in other words, is that women are more likely to have devoted to total work than men (OECD, 23.03.2017). Because women spend more time on unpaid work, their value is not seen, and all of this increases the dimension of gender inequality.

The essential requirement of gender equality and the creation of state policies in this respect remains an indisputable issue. The elimination of this requirement can be achieved primarily through the establishment of legislation and institutional structures that will make the equality mechanism of the state operative. In particular, all inequalities in the field such as education, working conditions, wage gap, participation in the political arena, glass ceiling syndrome, etc., need to be resolved

separately. In addition, it is clear that the problem is waiting for a solution in terms of regional inequalities. It can be emphasized that in the scope of integration studies of the European Union in particular, it is necessary to prevent gender inequality in Turkey and to establish effective policies for resolving existing problems. The Ministry of Women's Affairs and General Directorate of Women Statute should take a more effective responsibility for EU women's politics. In addition, civil society dialogue needs to be strengthened in order to ensure full implementation and enforcement of gender equality policies.

References

- ASPB & İB (Turkish Republic of Ministry of Family and Social Policy, British Embassy). (2014). Kadına Karşı Şiddetle Mücadele Alanında Çalışan Personele Yönelik El Kitabı. [Handbook Against Employed Person in the Field of Combating Violence Against Women] Ankara. Retrieved from: <http://www.kadininstatusu.gov.tr/data/542a8e0b369dc31550b3ac30/Kadına%20Yönelik%20Siddetle%20Mucadele%20Kitap%201.pdf>.
- Çakır, S. (2014). Feminizm: Ataerkil İktisadın Eleştirisi.19.Yüzyıldan 20.Yüzyıla Modern Siyasal İdeolojiler [Feminism: Criticism of Patriarchal Economics. Modern Political Ideologies from the 19th Century to the 20th].Gleaner: H.Birsen Örs. İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi Yayınları/ İstanbul Bilgi University Publications J.(7th edit).
- Dedeoğlu, S., & Elveren, A.Y. (2012). Türkiye’de Toplumsal Cinsiyet, Toplum ve Refah Devleti.In T.Bora(Eds.).Türkiye’de Refah Devleti ve Kadın[Gender, Society and Welfare State in Turkey. Welfare State and Woman in Turkey] İstanbul: İletişim Yayıncılık [İletişim Publications] 1816,29-45.
- Deniz, M.H., & Habikoğlu, E.H. (2012). Economic Evaluation of Women Employment in the Context of Development Index According to Gender : Case of Turkey.International Conference On Eurasian Economies 2012.Session IB: Büyüme ve Gelişme,123-130.Retrieved from <http://avekon.org/papers/546.pdf>
- Demirdirek, H., & Şener,Ü. (2014). 81 İl İçin Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliği Karnesi [Gender Equality Chamber for 81 Provinces]. Tepav.
- Ecevit, Y. (2010). İşgücü Piyasasında Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliği El Kitabı [Handbook on Gender Equality in the Labor Market]. First Edition.
- Gökçimen, S. (2008). Ülkemizde Kadınların Siyasal Hayata Katılım Mücadelesi [The Right Of Women to Participate in Politics in Our Country]. YASAMA Dergisi.s.10.Eylül-Ekim-Kasım-Aralık 2008. Retrieved From:http://yasader.org.tr/web/yasama_dergisi/2008/sayi10/Ukemizde_Kadinlarin_Siyasi_Hayata.pdf
- İşler, R., & Şentürk, C. (2012). Women’s Role in Economic Development: From Classical Approach to the Present.3 rd International Symposium on Sustainable Development.
- Karakaş, B., & Çevik, Ö. (2016).Cinsiyet Eşitsizliğinin Ölçülmesi: Küresel Cinsiyet Uçurumu Endeksine Eleştirel Bir Yakalaşım [Measurement of Gender Inequality : A Critical Approach to The Global Gender Gap].Hak-İş Uluslar Arası Emek ve Toplum Dergisi [HAK-İŞ International Journal Of Labour and Society] ,5(13).y.5.(2016/3)ISSN:2147-3668. 5(13)
- Kavas, U.A. (2016). 81 İl İçin Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliği Karnesi. [Gender Equality Chamber for 81 Provinces], Tepav.
- KSGM (Turkish Republic of Prime Ministry Directorate General on The Status of Women). (2008). Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliği Ulusal Eylem Planı 2008-2013 [National Action Plan for Gender Equality 2008-2013]. Ankara. Retrieved from<http://www.huksam.hacettepe.edu.tr/Turkce/SayfaDosya/TCEUlusaleylemplani.pdf>.
- Markham, S.F.(2010). Kadın İstidamı Politikaları Etkili Mi,Değil mi? [Women Employment Policies Are Effective Or Not?]. Çalışma ve Sosyal Güvenlik Bakanlığı AB Koordinasyon Dairesi Başkanlığı Bülteni.n:53.AvrupaBirliği’ndenHaberler.Retrieved from <http://www3.csgb.gov.tr/csgbPortal/ShowProperty/WLP%20Repository/abk/bultenler/sayi53>.

- OECD.Stat.(2017). Employment: Time Spent in paid and unpaid work, by sex. Retrieved at March, 23, 2017 from <http://stats.oecd.org/index.aspx?queryid=54757#> .
- OKA (Middle Black Sea Development Agency,Turkey). (2013). Türkiye ve TR83 Bölgesi'nde Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliği ve Kalkınma [Gender Equality and Development in Turkey and TR83 Region]. Retrieved from : http://www.oka.org.tr/Documents/TURKIYE_VE_TR83_BOLGESI_OKA.pdf.
- Özyol, İ.A. (2013). Sürdürülebilir Yeşil Kalkınma ve Kadın[Sustainable Green Development and Women]. Fe Dergi[Fe Juornal] 5(2):134-138.s.134 Ankara Üniversitesi KASAUM. Retrieved from: http://cins.ankara.edu.tr/10_15.html.
- Sivakumar, M. (2008). Gender Discriminationand Women's Development in India.MRPA paper no.10901posted 11.October 2008. Retrieved from:<https://mpr.ub.uni-muenchen.de/10901/>.
- TBMM (Turkish Grand National Assembly), TÜİK(Turkish Statistical Institue) which transferred from 1935-2016. Retrieved at March, 17, 2017,from http://www.tuik.gov.tr/PreTablo.do?alt_id=1068.
- TMK (Turkish Civilian Law).(2001).tertip.5,cilt.41.sayı:24607.Retrieved May,1,2017,from <http://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/MevzuatMetin/1.5.4721.pdf>
- TTB.(Türk Tabipleri Birliği).(2014).Türkiye'de Toplumsal Cinsiyet, Kadın ve Sağlık [Gender, Women and Health in Turkey] .Retrieved from <https://aysefeyzayilmaz90.wordpress.com/tag/kadin-erkek-esitsizligi/>.
- TSI (Turkish Statistical Institue). National Education Statistics, Formal Education.2005-2016.Retrieved at March,17,2017.
- TSI (Turkish Statistical Institue) Retrieved at April,9,2017 from <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/bolgeselistatistik/degiskenlerUzerindenSorgula.do>.
- TSI (Turkish Statistical Institue). İşgücüne Katılım Anketi. Retrieved at March,18,2017.
- UNICEF. (2000). Domestic Vिलence Against Women and Gırls. Italy: UNICEF.
- UNDP. (2010). Human Development Report 2010 Summary. 20th Anniversary Edition .The Real Wealth of Nations : Path ways to Human Development .
- Yumuş, A. (2011). Kalkınma Planları Çerçevesinde Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliği Anlayışının Ekonomik, Toplumsal ve Siyasal Boyutları [Economic, Social and Political Dimensions of the Concept of Gender Equality in the Framework of Development Plans], Expertise Thesis, TC.Başbakanlık Kadının Statüsü Genel Müdürlüğü[T.R. Prime Ministry Directorate General On The Status of Women].
- WB & DPT (World Bank, Republic of Turkey Prime Ministry State Planning Organization. (2009).Türkiye'de Kadınların İşgücüne Katılımı: Eğilimler, Belirleyici Faktörler ve Politika [Women's Labor Force Participation in Turkey: Trends, Determinants and Policy],report no:48508-TR, Beşeri Kalkınma Sektörü Avrupa ve Orta Asya Bölgesi [Human Development Sector Europe andCentral Asia Region].Retreieved from http://www3.kalkinma.gov.tr/DocObjects/View/12884/DPT_DB_Kadınların_İşgücü_Piyasasına_Katılımı.pdf.
- WEF (World Economic Forum). (2016). The Global Gender Gap Report 2016.
- WEF (World Economic Forum). (2015). The Global Gender Gap Report 2015.
- WEF (World Economic Forum). (2014). The Global Gender Gap Report 2014.
- WEF (World Economic Forum). (2013). The Global Gender Gap Report 2013.