Social Sciences Researches in the Globalizing World
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Preface

This book, “Social Sciences Researches in the Globalizing World” has eight sections and 71 Chapters written by different authors who are experts in their field. A brief description of each of the sections follows:

Section one identifies and discusses the public administration issues including policy learning issues of participatory performance and sustainability, the presidential government system, theoretical analysis of the concept of class, the relationship between general elections and law of paid military service in Turkey, foreign trade between Turkey and Russia, aspect of social media in administrative sciences, the significance of human capital in economic growth and poverty, spatial organization of governance, smart technologies and reflections on local public issues, meltdown in the center right politics, Turkish economy during election periods, a brief history of administrative reform in Turkey, strategies in the power struggle, Turkish-Armenian relations, intellectual foundations of Marxist revolutionary movements and the social dimension of urban renewal.

Section two examines some challenges on geography. The section has nine chapters including, geographical indication, state of sericulture production, rural settlements in Japan, mining and environmental problems, Moscow: journey from past to present, distribution of tourism activities in Portugal, the evaluation of site selection in Kanal Istanbul and national parks and environmental awareness.

Section three has twenty-eight chapters on tourism including, mega events and tourism industry, slum tourism, wandering around poverty, inequalities and social exclusion, cultural shock and acculturation, destination marketing and gastronomy tourism, common point of dark and gastronomy tourism, tourism education in Turkey, destination attractiveness elements: Plovdiv case, the quality of culinary education in tourism, an alternative accommodation unit in Kyrgyzstan, festival tourism, online reputation management, transformational leadership at hospitality industry and job embeddedness, assessment of recreational leader in the tourism industry.

Section four contains chapters on economy and marketing. Some of the topics included here are; digital transformation in human resources, assessment of financial performance, virtual marketing strategies of elderly care service providers, product life cycle costing method, applications of data mining in e-commerce, women’s employment and gender discrimination: case of Turkey and Bulgaria, developments in Turkey’s housing market.

The other four sections include the studies on psychology, sociology, organizational behavior and physical education and sports.

Contributions in each chapter are prepared by experts in the respective fields and mirror the advancement in the approach. This book contains important future tasks of the particular fields and supplies extensive bibliographies at the end of each chapter, as well as tables and figures that illustrate the research findings. All these make this book highly useful and a must read for students, researchers and professionals in social sciences.

We particularly wish to express our thanks to the team at Sofia St. Kliment Ohridski University Press for preparing the book for publication.

The Editors
POLITICAL SCIENCE AND
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
Chapter 1

Participatory Irrigation Management in Turkey Revisited: Policy Learning Issues of Participatory Performance and Sustainability

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INTRODUCTION

From the 1990s, Turkish state irrigation services were increasingly transferred to local water users under the “participatory irrigation management” (PIM) program. Responsibility for the organisation and management of irrigation systems was transferred to local water user associations (WUAs) or organisations (WUOs), irrigation management organisations, or irrigation associations.¹ In this paper we refer mainly to the term “irrigation associations” (IAs), as all Turkish laws about irrigation commonly use this term in relation to local irrigation management.² Typically, IAs, comprised of local farmer, traverse more than one village in a municipality (Kibaroglu et al., 2009: 295). On the participatory aspect of PIM and IAs, Yercan (2003: 205) described it ideally as “a process in which stakeholder’s influence policy formulation, investment choices and management decisions affecting their communities and establish the necessary sense of ownership”.

However, such participatory process has not matched the experience of PIM in Turkey, and many other countries adopting PIM, which include India (Reddy & Reddy, 2005), Morocco (Van der Brugge et al., 2005), Sri Lanka (Samad & Vermillion, 1999), Phillipines (Peter, 2004), and Thailand (Ricks, 2015); as well as Mexico, Egypt, Jordan, Israel and Syria (Yercan, 2003). Turkey appears as another representation of inadequate (IA member) participatory performance. Interrelated participatory and operational performance problems soon emerged during and after the transfer processes began and seemingly have endured (Kudat & Bayram, 2000; Soylu et al., 2006; Uysal, 2006). These problems, in turn, have been associated with exacerbated environmental sustainability issues of water quality, pollution, salinization, and water scarcity (e.g., Cakmak et al., 2007: 875-877; Özerol et al., 2013).

The problem this paper addresses is how might the participatory performance of IAs be enhanced in relation to local member participatory and associated environmental sustainability issues? However, it is difficult to satisfactorily assess Turkey’s participatory performance of PIM as prior Turkish studies of PIM inadequately explain the nature and scope of participation, and the association to environmental problems. Resulting is an opaque and rather limited assessment of participation in PIM practices and decision-making; which is of further concern when Turkey’s 81 provinces feature farming.
The situation may then reflect a sizeable but rather “hidden” policy problem across Turkey. For example, the participatory and environmental problems of PIM found in Urfa in southeast Turkey may indicate a worsening participatory policy failure of PIM across Turkey given the current lack of data on this topic, as indeed a significant national issue. This is because agriculture plays a “key role in the social and economic development of Turkey” (Kibaroglu et al., 2009: 294), in which “irrigation is often the dominant contributor to value added, employment and exports” (Topcu, 2011: 97). At the same time, studies of Aydin and Bursa in the west suggest a more positive picture even though a participatory deficit (again, of an opaque nature) is indicated, as also found by Yercan (2003) regarding water user associations of the Gediz river basin, which lies roughly between Bursa and Aydin.

These evidences give the impression that (i) some provinces (in the west) experience higher participatory performance and, by association, less sustainability problems; and (ii) others (in the east) experience lower IA participatory performance and higher sustainability problems. However, given the paucity of these evidences, more investigation is suggested to determine to what degree such problems exist across Turkey, and of what significance they are, given the importance of the area to national development and sustainability. Such review lends itself to policy learning at the local IA level. Indeed, participation was highlighted in Turkey’s 2006 national development plan, as important for “enhancing local decision-making capacity as well as knowledge sharing and partnerships between the public and private sector and non-governmental organizations”; and as a key element for environmental decision-making (Özerol et al., 2013: 132).

The research aim of this article is thus to contribute to knowledge and policy learning on the participatory performance of IAs in relation to a more effective operation of PIM, and by association, improved environmental sustainability, as particularly informed by the notion of “inclusive participation”. In this study, inclusive participation equates most to the collaborate level of the International Public Participation Association’s public participation spectrum (IAP2, 2007). Internationally, the collaborate level has been found the most useful level to improve water and environmental management with stakeholder dialogue the key participatory process to improve decision-making (Plumlee et al., 1985; Beierle & Konisky, 2001; Borri et al., 2005; Imperial, 2005; Marshall et al., 2010; Hindmarsh, 2010).

“Effective”, in turn, refers to securing internal common objectives consistent with external standards of appropriate and improved policy outcomes (Skogstad, 2003: 322) which, according to Connelly and Richardson (2009), pose three interlinked dimensions – defining the issue, capacity to act, and legitimacy, which can be “defined in terms of whether individuals perceive the result of a decision to be equitable, equal or needed” (Besley 2010: 258). Such dimensions appear important for local stakeholders and communities of interest, especially when the “bottom-up” or community level has been precluded in decision-making, or referred to tokenistically (e.g. Smith, 2008; Newig & Fritsch, 2009; Spink et al., 2010; Hindmarsh, 2010; Eversole, 2015).

Accordingly, to explore the problem and address our aim, we adopted a policy analysis approach. We first map out a historical and policy background of Turkey’s adoption of the participatory irrigation management program, then, in more detail, the problematic context of participation in relation to PIM, followed by our fieldwork research methods and analytical framework, and the results and their discussion.
PARTICIPATORY IRRIGATION MANAGEMENT AND TURKEY’S ADOPTION OF PIM

According to the World Bank (1998), participatory irrigation management transferred to local irrigation users involved users in all aspects and levels of IA management. Benefit claims portrayed better development and protection of irrigation infrastructure; with the result being more effective irrigation services. In addition, reduced government financial burdens for irrigation operation meant savings could be instead allocated to enhanced social and economic development and environmental protection (e.g., Yercan et al., 2004). Benefits of local ownership and self-development were as improvements on past or existing culture (Van Vuren et al., 2005: 4).

Questionable, however, were intrusive issues of local context and distribution of power which saw meaningful participatory processes pre-empted by local elites assuming primary control of irrigation management transfer (Doraiswamy et al., 2005; Groenfeldt, 2007). For example, in the case of Andhra Pradesh, India, Reddy and Reddy (2005: 5594) found that “elite capture” of water user associations led inequitably to “forward castes and large farmers [occupying] the position of president disproportionate to their actual strength”. Such management regimes facilitated interrelated operational inefficiencies and loss of bottom-up support (Kadirbeyoğlu & Kurtiç, 2014: 206), which, in turn, was associated with downstream environmental problems (also Kloezen, 2002; Van Vuren et al, 2005; Ricks, 2015).

Adoption of PIM in Turkey

Of Turkey’s 78 million hectares, about 26 million were considered suitable for irrigation in the early 2000s (Yildirim & Cakmak, 2004), with 30% projected as economically viable. By 2013, 20% of the latter had been opened to irrigation (Devlet Su İşleri, 2013: 31). By 2023, another 8.5 million hectares is planned for irrigation (Devlet Su İşleri, 2013b: 75), even though water is a limiting factor for agriculture throughout much of Turkey (Kibaroglu et al. (2009: 295). This situation further endorses the significance of investigating the (participatory) performance of IAs that such expansion is based upon.

Turkey’s status as an agricultural production centre dates to the 1st millennium BC (Tan 1996). The first notable irrigation scheme – the Cumra Irrigation and Drainage Project – however, was built in 1908-1914 (Topcu, 2011: 98).Regional governmental water directorates were established from 1925. Such development paralleled Turkey’s modernisation strategy in the 1920s – a period that Kadirbeyoğlu and Kurtiç (2014: 200) commented “aimed at creating a modern society within an authoritarian and centralized political framework”, which “often left out the possibility of participation of a majority of the population”. Institutional embeddment of a largely non-participatory culture resulted (e.g., Saurugger, 2010).

Post-1954, the State Hydraulic Works (DSI) was established with responsibility for planning and maintaining irrigation and drainage systems (Yildirim &Çakmak, 2004). As such, it followed a centralist-bureaucratic and public service-oriented culture. Concomitantly, irrigated agriculture became an essential component for development by the State Planning Organization (Devlet Planlama Teşkilati, 1979). However, soon after its establishment, the DSI began partially transferring the maintenance and operation of irrigation schemes to farmers in far-off and remote places that were considered unviable to operate (Tekinel & Aksu, 1997; Yildirim & Çakmak, 2004).
In 1985 and 1993, such transfers were furthered by major policy changes that reflected Turkey’s adoption of a revised public administration style (Svendsen & Nott 2000) – a style influenced in part by Turkey’s repeated applications for full membership of the European Union. In addition, the “new public management” (NPM) approach emerged as a response to a range of social, economic and financial problems in the 1970s. The EU argued that Turkey needed to “put greater emphasis on reducing waste, and improving the management, efficiency and effectiveness of public resources”, and to curb “an extremely high spending deficit” (Sozen & Shaw, 2002: 478).

A key component of NPM involved disaggregation: the breakup of large government organisations into corporatised units, franchise arrangements and contract agreements, privatisation, and devolution to non-profit organisations (Hood, 1991; Kettl, 1997). The first major devolution of Turkey’s irrigation services occurred in 1985 when the DSI and the General Directorate of Rural Services (GDRS) – with responsibility for on-farm land development (Yildirim & Çakmak, 2004), began informal transfers of small surface irrigation schemes to village organisations and irrigation cooperatives (Burak & Erdogan, 1999). The second major devolution in 1993 enabled large-scale transfers of water irrigation management to farmers (Yildirim & Çakmak, 2004). These transfers were stimulated by escalating union-driven labour costs and a subsequent hiring freeze by government agencies; as well as increasing governmental concern over its capacity to operate irrigation management systems and serve expanding irrigated areas (Svendsen & Nott, 2000).

International finance institutions supported disaggregation processes through economic measures. A major World Bank loan to Turkey was made conditional on the transfer of all operational and management responsibilities of irrigation facilities to water user groups, as the main “cure” for costly irrigation problems (Kibaroglu et al. 2009). Subsequently, the DSI’s accelerated transfer program saw about 90% of irrigation schemes transferred (also Kadirbeyoğlu & Kurtiç, 2014). Concomitantly, progressive deterioration of the irrigation infrastructure occurred (Svendsen & Nott, 2000).

The transfers involved about 90% of irrigated land and were made largely to irrigation associations. Their numbers jumped from 13 in the early 1990s to over 400 in 2010. They were managed or regulated under the Municipalities Law until 2005, when legislative reforms saw them become “local service administrations”.iii In 2011, the Irrigation Associations Law (Act No. 6172) changed the status of IAs from quasi-public entities to private ones as local civil society organisations, a status that included the pursuit of “democratic participation” (TBMM, 2010). This policy development followed Turkey’s 2006 national development plan, which highlighted “the importance of enhancing local decision-making capacity” and public participation (Özerol et al., 2013: 132).

Early benefits for the State from irrigation management transfers included falling irrigation management costs and stronger service performance through increased fee collection rates and energy savings (Tekinel & Aksu, 1997; Burak & Erdogan, 1999). Özlü (2006) also claimed an improved sense of local ownership through water users participating in management, despite little explanation by Özlü about what was meant by participation and how it was done. Nevertheless, over the long term, Yıldız & Özbay (2009) found that post-transfer most irrigation operations experienced management and maintenance deficits. The World Bank (2006) attributed these deficits to irrigation
management transfer being too fast, with irrigation associations having insufficient financial, governance, and technical competencies for effective operation. In the next section, we look member participation and environmental sustainability deficits.

The Problematic Participatory Context of Pim in Turkey

Studies on PIM in Turkey regarding IA water irrigation performance and participation have found water use efficiency stymied by failure to include adequate (or meaningful) local participatory decision-making for small and low-income farmers; with environmental sustainability problems found resulting (Kudat & Bayram, 2000). These farmers comprise most water users in relation to irrigation practices and crop fee rates (Doraiswamy et al., 2005; Cakmak et al., 2007; Özerol et al., 2013). Consequently, as Hoering (2011) expressed, irrigation management transfer has seen contradictory outcomes.

In an early 2000s study on the economic performance of PIM involving 18 WUAs in the Gediz river basin, an important agricultural area in west Turkey, Yercan et al. (2004: 261) noted “sustainability in irrigated land decreased according to the situation of before and after management transfer” (although also without specifying how or why). In an earlier study by on much the same topic, Yercan (2003: 213) placed emphasis on inadequate small farmer participation: “The system of WUAs works undemocratically … Users do not have any membership identity. And, also, they do not have any ownership responsibilities”.

In contrast, Kadirbeyoğlu (2008: 3) posited that the southwestern province of Aydın (south of the Gediz river basin) reflected a “successful decentralization in irrigation management involving democratic engagement of the users”; with Aydın associations operating smoothly, “on track financially … and showing satisfactory overall performance”. Concomitantly, “a certain apathy” was found among farmers regarding the IA’s management processes, even though they were found to be aware of their rights and “would uphold them if necessary” (Kadirbeyoğlu, 2008: 200). Whatever that meant regarding IA participatory performance, however, was not explained. Similarly, in the northwest, in Bursa province regarding the Kestel WUA, Uysal & Atis (2010: 1018) found that performance satisfied indicators of utility, productivity, sustainability, and financial efficiency but that farmer participation was lacking to provide input to system management. Again, however, there was little explanation of the nature and scope of what lack of participation meant.

Sustainability issues related to water quality, for example, from agrichemical pollution and excessive groundwater withdrawal that induced salinization and water scarcity in some areas (Cakmak et al., 2007: 875-877; Özerol et al., 2013). More broadly, such problems found across Turkey in river basin management (Haramcioglu et al., 2008), and overall, in national water resource management (e.g. Kibaroglu et al., 2009).

In addition, Kadirbeyoğlu (2008: 6) asserted that participatory deficits and such outcomes in eastern Turkey were more evident than in the west because of “diverging social, economic and political contextual variables”, as particularly tempered by a historical regional absence of civic activism in the east. In some alignment, Kibaroglu et al. (2009: 297) argued that enhanced participation, and a more effective operation of PIM, was less likely to be achieved in the east due to “a tribal social structure dominating social and economic life” (also Harris, 2008; Özerol, 2013).
As such, the suggestion was made by Kibaroglu et al. (2009: 297) that in relation to regional disparities in economic development “public agencies like the DSI [State Hydraulic Works] should develop support programmes to strengthen the democratic, administrative and technical formation of the IAs” (Kibaroglu et al., 2009: 297). To some extent, this suggestion was addressed in 2011 under the Irrigation Associations Law (Act No. 6172). The Law changed the status of IAs from quasi-public entities to private ones as local “civil society organisations that provide democratic participation” (TBMM, 2010: 3), but the problems of low participation continued.

Accordingly, we turn to investigating more the contemporary nature of the participatory context of IAs through the lens of IAs in Antalya. First, the fieldwork investigative method is explained, and then the results and their discussion.

METHODS

Fieldwork Investigative Method

Our scope of investigation focused on four irrigation associations, from a total of 24, in Antalya – a southwestern province on the Mediterranean coast that spreads over 20 million hectares or roughly 1417 km² with 20% dedicated to agriculture. Antalya was selected because: (a) it is considered to be the most important Turkish province for agri-food production; (b) it provided another case study from western Turkey, as less focused upon than eastern Turkey; (c) it has six of the first 11 irrigation associations in Turkey; (d) it was the first local jurisdiction in Turkey to implement the Participatory Privatization Project in Water Management and Investments (İkraz Anlaşması 1997); (e) it piloted the Accelerated Transfer Program of PIM (Svendsen & Nott, 1997), (f) funding only enabled this scale of research but was seen as both suitable and illustrative enough to contribute to the argument for more expansive and representative research into important participatory aspects of IAs and PIM in Turkey.

This was because the four-selected demonstrated a high comparative relevance in longitudinal development and diversity. Kirkgöz Irrigation Association – with 1970 members and 1000 hectares of 870 irrigated land parcels (or individual lots of land) – was established in 1959 as Turkey’s first IA. It was the pioneer for others to follow. Boğaçayı Irrigation Association – with 1205 members and 1100 hectares of 2474 parcels – was established in 1975. Karaman-Duraliler Irrigation Association – with 850 members and 600 hectares of 1300 parcels. Lastly, Aksu-Perge Irrigation Association – with 5505 members and 7000 hectares of 13,257 parcels – became established after the World Bank’s funded accelerated transfer program for PIM. These associations also displayed differing budgetary strengths, memberships, and service areas, also useful for comparative investigation.

Field data was gathered from May 2010 to May 2011 as part of a study on a range of problems of PIM in Turkey in relation to the physical, economic and organizational efficiency and effectiveness of the associations regarding “irrigation rate”, “irrigation fee collection rate”, “personnel density”, and “member participation” in decision-making (Akilli, 2012). In probing member participation; the data collection occurred when the change in legal status of IAs was occurring from quasi-public entities to private ones as local civil society organisations, catalyzed by the Government’s mandated pursuit of enhanced participation. In collecting the data, the second author of this paper conducted field observations at our selected four IAs, in 2010, and a series of semi-structured face-to-face interviews in 2011 with primary stakeholders of these IAs.
Our research questions for policy were, to what extent did the IAs’ participatory cultures reflect enhanced participation? What sort of participation was conducted? and; What policy learning implications of such participation might be posed for enhanced participation?

Field Observations

In using field observation for its utility to reveal participatory insights (e.g. Orton et al. 2000: 208), we undertook note taking and voice recordings at annual general assembly meetings: a key IA governance function. Such meetings varied in attendance from 10 to 100, also depending on the size of an IA’s irrigated area. In 2011, the Kirkgöz IA assembly had 30 members, Boğaçayı 45, Karaman-Duraliler 25, and Aksu-Perge 56. The assemblies comprised elected IA members who voted on irrigation policy proposals prepared by the IA councils for the coming season. The proposals particularly voted on were irrigation fee rates for different crops and irrigation practices (both operational and maintenance ones). Individual farmers (as non-assembly IA members) could attend the meetings, but could not vote, only observe. Instead, they could participate only through the general electoral process for assembly members, or if they themselves were elected to the IA assemblies or councils. However, we noted that no non-assembly members attended the annual meetings, which signalled significant farmer participatory deficits.

Interviews

Primary stakeholders represented (i) association administrations and governing bodies (councils) responsible for managing and implementing IA operations; (ii) the farming community providing the water irrigation infrastructure and membership of IAs (with the largest stakeholder population being non-assembly farmers) and (iii) regional PIM governance, with responsibility for monitoring and evaluating local IA performance in an advisory capacity. The interviews were thus conducted with “non-assembly” farmers (24); “assembly member” farmers (10); IA chairpersons (4); IA administrative staff (7); and, the DSI Regional Directorate (4); altogether, 49 interviews occurred.

The Analytical Framework

In our prestructured analytical framework, our orientating meta-theme was “enhanced participation” as informed by two broad themes identified from the environmental and water management literatures on participation that had most policy learning relevance per our research aim: (i) representation, inclusion, and fairness; and (ii) open information, transparency, two-way communication, and sense of ownership. We thematically organised the data to these two themes (Owen 1984).

“Representation, inclusion, and fairness” comprised three interrelated participatory aspects that reflect adequate representativeness and inclusion; here of farmer members (especially, of non-assembly farmers – the majority) in IA decision-making; through fair and equitable access to decision making, input into agenda shaping, and contribution to discussion and in deciding policy outputs (Besley, 2010; Quick and Feldman, 2011). These aspects measure how diverse and representative the range of farmer views is in decision-making, which is a mark of output effectiveness.

In turn, “open information, transparency, two-way communication, and sense of ownership” comprised four interrelated participatory aspects that provide a measure of
the provision of these aspects by key decision-makers to IA members, to best enable collaborative and effective decision-making. On “sense of ownership”, it is a key component of inclusion as being significant to democratic participation (Sharp et al., 2005: 1007).

The analysis of these themes was coupled to documentary research, especially policy analysis as a “creative synthesis” involving a range of sources informing the social world of the participants under investigation (also Carter & Little, 2007). Such synthesis is very relevant to inform, contextualise, and map the so-called “participatory landscape” of the IAs and the “embedded” participants (Patton, 2002: 55).

RESULTS: ON THEMES OF PARTICIPATION

Representation, Inclusion and Fairness

A key problem of representation in the IAs we investigated, as is also found in other case studies on PIM, was electoral representation in the IA governing and key decision-making bodies (councils and assemblies), which typically have responsibility for operating PIM. Electoral representation demonstrated very low levels of participation of IA non-assembly members. Subsequently, the elections most often appeared to be set up to ensure “elite capture”, through a largely tokenistic participatory process that also featured key council members elected who are not even irrigation water users. When this occurred, as Özerol (2013: 78; also Kudat & Bayram, 2000) commented upon, those weaker in social power – typically the majority of water users – become alienated and distrustful of management decisions and, in turn, less supportive, and thus the management and operation of PIM is rendered weaker or less efficient in its day-to-day operations, which then invites environmental sustainability problems.

Compounding this situation is where mayors and village administrators are often widely regarded culturally and politically as being “natural” members of local association assemblies. They are seen by other elites to represent more efficient leadership than “electing all the representatives among water users” (Kadirbeyoğlu & Kurtiç, 2014: 15). Indeed, in measuring the effect of such non-representational electoral practices, Baran (1996: 150) found that 54% of the chairmen of Turkish water user associations were mayors or village administrators. These electoral practices were implemented through a local commission that included chairmen of municipal assemblies and local political party representatives. Critics argue that this process has enabled municipal mayors and village heads to elect those close to them as IA assembly members for personal or political reasons (Cevikbas, 2001; Koseoglu, 2010).

However, such opportunities for elite capture in Turkey became narrower after the (March) 2011 Irrigation Associations Law No. 6172, which stated that only water users could be assembly members. The Law’s preamble stated that “natural” memberships only created problems around IA transactions and audits, and that this membership status was incompatible (or misrepresentational) with irrigation management and its economic functions. As one of our Antalyan respondents commented post-March 2011:

“How can a municipality mayor be effective in an irrigation association? (...) The municipality mayor has no land. How could someone who does not understand the problems of the producers, who is not a producer, be the chairman of the association? The mayors and muhtar[s] [village heads] should be removed from delegation, and then politics will disappear” (Respondent V: association administrator).

Compliance with the Law was then under question with the continuation of these
practices, as signaled by our respondents and other studies (Kadirbeyoğlu & Kurtiç, 2014; Özerol, 2013). Two respondents commented:

“The election is not in the control of the farmers. It is one month after the municipality election. The association is seen as a unit of the municipality (...). If there were some time between the elections for the association assembly and the municipality elections, the farmers would have more voice. The ballot box commission is also appointed by the municipality. Who the chairman of the association will be is known before the election. 80% of the assembly members are those close to the mayor of the municipality” (Respondent S: association administrator).

“(T)he election for assembly membership is held under the supervision of the newly elected mayors and village muhtars. They have psychological influence on the outcome of the elections, although they have no official influence” (Respondent C: association chairman).

Kadirbeyoğlu & Kurtiç (2014: 15) argued that such process clearly did not challenge existing power structures. Instead, IAs often became or continued to be “non-representative organisations benefiting the powerful few”. Historically, in the east, Özerol (2013: 79) linked such privilege to a centuries-old legacy of nomadic tribes characterised by hierarchy and heterogeneity. Such characteristics reinforced “inequality related to land size and participation in decision-making processes” (see also Kudat & Bayram, 2000). We found that such practice also clearly existed in Antalya.

Perhaps contradictorily, Article 6 of the Irrigation Associations Law No. 6172 also appeared to facilitate elite over-representation as it stated that “each association member has a number of votes according to the proportion of his land in the irrigation area. However, the number of votes cannot exceed 5 votes”. Turkish farms are typically family-owned, small and fragmented. The average holding size is about six hectares, with 95% of holdings covering 63% of the land and being of less than 20 hectares (Svendsen & Nott, 2000: 31). In Antalya, the holding sizes are much smaller, ranging from 0.44 hectares for the Boğaçayı Irrigation Association to 0.87 hectares for the Kirkgöz Irrigation Association. Thus, the voting rules appeared to favour large farmer representation for IA assemblies.

Another voting rule states that the distribution of assembly members should include at least two representatives from each settlement involved in any IA per an irrigated land ratio. Our respondents demonstrated contradictory views about the effectiveness of this policy regarding inclusion and fairness. For example, one respondent stated:

“In our association, even those who have 100m² of land can vote. If it had not been the case, we would have the association management elected by 40% [of the members]. We would have overlooked the people (...) everybody votes” (Respondent Y: association administrator).

In contrast, an IA council member stated:

“Our assembly consists of 43 elected members with 26 representatives from Bahtılı Municipality and 17 representatives from Konyaaltı Municipality and two natural members. Although the number of producers in Konyaaltı is greater than those in Bahtılı, Bahtılı’s numbers of votes are higher due to land sizes (...). Since Konyaaltı has more members and less land, it has less representatives at the assembly. Our [Konyaaltı] proposals are refused since we have less votes (...) Three of the members
of the Council of the association are elected from Bahtılı. The chairman is also from Bahtılı. We do not have the chance to elect the chairmen as we wished, only if they voluntarily wish to elect the chairman from us (…) since we have less representatives we cannot influence the decisions (…) It should be calculated per number of producers rather than the land size so that we could have a voice at the assembly” (Respondent N).

While the argument of respondent Y appears to reflect representative fairness in voting, the argument of respondent N aligned with the findings of Özerol (2013) that inequitable representation and inclusion are continuing problems for small scale farmers in the east. The reform of voting rules thus appeared to have made little impact in the east or in Antalya.

During farmer interviews from Boğaçayı IA (Antalya), another local participatory problem concerned cleaning and maintenance activities. One farmer (respondent M) stated: “We clean the channels. We work together all the time. But there is injustice about channel cleaning, too. We [the small land owners] are being used as the slaves of the [big] land owners”.

Women farmers also lacked inclusion and representation in Antalya. This finding reflected the observations of Svendsen and Nott (2000). In the three eastern regions, these authors visited, in only one instance did a general assembly include a female member, and only one association of the 20 visited employed a female general secretary. In our study, we found only two women held administrative roles. Although women farmers account for approximately 45% of the country’s agricultural workforce (Brumfield 2011), in the rural culture of Turkey, participation in IAs for women is as difficult as it is in forest management (e.g. Atmiş et al., 2007), and presumably in other sectors. Indeed, Kutlar et al., (2013: 45-46) found that almost 72% of rural women (across Turkey) were not members of an agricultural cooperative or association.

Such statistic highlight that Turkish women are frequently excluded from decision-making and from giving opinions because of their traditional “backward status” in society, and fewer education opportunities compared to those available for men (Atmiş et al., 2007: 788; also Memmasi and Prorok, 2002; Kutlar et al., 2013; Harris, 2008). It thus appears that women farmers, like small farmers generally, experienced little participatory consideration regarding decentralisation of irrigation services in terms of representation, inclusion and fairness.

**Open Information, Transparency, Two-Way Communication and Sense of Ownership**

Farmer participation is mentioned as being important nationally in legal and other official documents and at scientific events regarding water management (e.g. Devlet Planlama Teşkilatı, 2006; Devlet Su İşleri, 2013b). In the IAs sampled, however, no information documents, widespread programs or guidebooks were detected that dealt with enabling member participation.

It general, it seemed little had changed since the 2009 audit of the Interior Affairs Ministry of Aksu-Perge Irrigation Association (Aksu Perge Sulama Birliği, 2009), which found that the decisions of the IA’s assembly were not declared to the public although the law required summaries of IA decisions to be publicly announced on billboards, local newspapers, and IA websites of the association or speakers of the municipalities within seven days of decisions.

During our interviews, many respondents reported that the associations
communicated with producers by telephones and SMS text, and that although the meetings of the assembly were announced on billboards or from the speakers of the municipality, these were inadequate forms of communication as announcements on the billboards were typically not read. Subsequently, several respondents expressed there was a need to inform farmers orally. In addition, that financial documents should be disseminated to IA members prior to meetings, so that producers could effectively examine financial transactions and discuss them and raise issues if they so wished or through their representatives.

As one farmer (respondent K) opined: “The farmers are not informed (...). They blindly do what they are told and pay when they are asked to pay. They know no service or their rights”. In other words, such limited information flows also induced a passiveness and disempowerment for most farmers who subsequently did not even seek information, as respondent P (an association administrator) outlined: “The farmers have a belief that the association [management] uses the money for its own sake, they rumour about it, but they do not come and ask us where the money is spent or who receives the service”. Similarly, another association administrator (respondent S) stated: “Apart from the members of the assembly, farmers do not come and ask”.

However, we also observed that many assembly members were passive as well at the Antalyan IA annual meetings. They appeared to have limited understanding of managerial and legal aspects of their IAs and were ill-prepared to question the managers. Non-engagement and disinterest were highly evident. One farmer assembly member (respondent V) opined “our ancestors have said: ‘villagers are the masters of the nation’, but now we are at the mercy of leers [association managers], we do not ask anything”. Overall, open information, transparency and two-way communication appeared largely absent in the Antalyan IAs. Power differentials between the managerial elite and others were highly visible. Such aspects of weak participation are intimately related to a lack of sense of ownership.

Notably, “sense of ownership” was mentioned in the preamble of the Irrigation Associations Law 6172 as a key rationale behind the transfer program. But in some ways, the transfer of irrigation management functions to irrigation associations led to a loss of a sense of ownership, as Grand National Assembly Member of Parliament Mevlut Aslanoğlu argued in parliamentary discussions about the Irrigation Associations Law: “The one who gave birth to irrigation associations is the DSI. However, DSI threw them out of home, it left them unattended, those children are now orphans, and they have been tattered all these years” (TBMM, 2011).

Indeed, rather than increased willingness to make payments and participate in common efforts such as channel cleaning or fixing activities, we observed that traditional participation and solidarity [such as imece, which is voluntary work at the villages] has been eroded and the producers have developed an idea of “I paid for it, let them [the IAs] do it”. Further eroding sense of ownership, Özerol et al. (2013: 137) found in the east that it appeared to be somewhat limited to economic considerations involving “the need to (...) increase the collection rate of irrigation fees through creating the sense of ownership of farmers regarding the irrigation facilities”.

In Antalya, several non-assembly farmer respondents also raised issues of paying fees to IAs for cleaning and maintenance services, which they argued were either not forthcoming or inadequate. These left farmers feeling dissociated with, or alienated from, the IAs. They felt socially excluded, as the following farmer respondent’s
viewpoint illustrates:

“What happens to the money we pay? There is no return. The canals are cracked for years. Ok, the citizens pollute the canals, they dismantle the spikes to wash their carpets, and they throw piles of tomato leaves into the canals. They break valves to bring water to their fields (…). But what does the association do?” (Respondent B: individual farmer)

Such views also aligned with ones in the east that smallholders and landless farmers had little faith in the capacity or willingness of IAs to undertake canal maintenance; or to engender an equal distribution of water between IA members, particularly between farmers more and less well off (Özerol et al., 2013). Subsequently, many farmers continued to see the State as the authoritative decision-maker and problem solver, in highlighting issues of member exclusion from local IAs. As another farmer (respondent D) opined: “The channels are a mess, there is no service, and they take money for nothing (…). My field is covered in mud. In the past, DSI was much better”.

These views also tended to reflect the findings of Quick and Feldman (2011: 274-275) that the “absence of inclusion tends to reinforce divisions”, which creates communities in which people feel “disconnected from the decision making because their input does not seem to be valued” (Quick & Feldman, 2011: 282). Such weak to non-existent participatory aspects thus tend to undermine sense of ownership and good practice.

Sense of ownership also seemed missing for most assembly members, as reflected in their passive and disinterested behaviour and non-engagement at the important May annual meetings. An association chairman (respondent D) commented: “Nobody (regular members other than the assembly members) comes. We force the assembly members to attend the meetings after numerous phone calls”. Forcing even assembly members to attend further demonstrated a lack of sense of ownership. We observed one reason for this during the annual meetings, when “rubber stamp” participatory processes were observed when IA Chairmen presented predetermined solutions, and assembly members were most often seen to passively agree. Overall, sense of ownership seemed almost totally absent for IA participants, whether assembly or non-assembly members.

**DISCUSSION**

As previously explained, the aim of this article was to contribute to knowledge and policy learning on the participatory performance of IAs in relation to better operation of PIM, and by association, enhanced environmental sustainability outcomes, as particularly informed by the notion of “enhanced participation”. To contribute to knowledge and policy learning through the notion of enhanced participation we sought to address the existing and interrelated participatory and sustainability problems of PIM, and any further examples revealed by our research. Of relevance, also to our investigation was the claimed culturally-driven participatory differential explanation between eastern and western Turkey.

On this latter aspect, we found that Antalya’s situation – apparently different from the IA case studies of Aydin and Bursa (again, also in the west of Turkey) – reflected more the Urfa case study in south-eastern Turkey, and the ineffective experiences of PIM overseas. Perhaps the most notable overseas example of ineffective PIM like our Antalyan IAs were those of India, which evidenced strong (large landowner) elite
capture of water user and irrigation associations. In Antalya, elite capture appeared to the prime reason why irrigation management eroded over the long-term after DSI transferred the irrigation function. This also explains why dissatisfaction among local member stakeholders emerged and grew, as in south-eastern Turkey (cf. Kudat & Bayram, 2000). Like the findings of other literature on problematic irrigation management, our results clearly evidence lack of a supportive organisational and political will to address the deficiencies. In addition, premature transfer without first conducting capacity-building activities to develop and implement PIM, as facilitated through meaningful participatory structures and processes.

Overall, we found user participation in the sampled Antalya IAs reflected the lower or weaker end of the participatory spectrum of the International Association for Public Participation (2007); that is, mainly regarding information giving and consultation. However, this participatory deficit was weaker than outlined in the IAP2 spectrum, which, at these levels, subscribes that transparency of information implies balanced and objective information to assist stakeholders to understand problems, alternatives, opportunities, and/or solutions. A consistent finding of our research was that IA members were uninformed and passive, and that many elected assembly members were disengaged and passive. The annual meetings were clearly dominated by assembly executives who most often issued predetermined policy solutions for readymade problem frames. Such actions, per Arnstein’s (1969: 217) ladder of citizen participation, can be seen to enable “elite control to flourish”, particularly with the participation of most IA farmer members tokenistic.

In sum, for the broad majority of farmer members, the management of these irrigation associations was shaped and conducted under the influence of deficits in representation, inclusion and fairness; and open information, transparency, two-way communication, and sense of ownership. This rather elite, top-down “closed” policy style thus acted to marginalise and dissipate the concerns of most members and, by proxy, also those of women who contribute some 45% of agricultural activity.

Our results we believe further enhance the understanding of IA participatory deficits in Turkey; from strong ones in Antalya and Urfa to some (though poorly defined) participatory deficits in Aydin, Bursa, and Gediz in the west, alongside Antalya. Such problems, although only illustrative in relation to the whole of Turkey, indicate more that such problems may be endemic across Turkey because of their depth and apparent mirroring across Turkey from east to west (including the northwest and southwest), and because of similar findings found in water management in Turkey.

What is then suggested for policy learning given the importance of sustainable agriculture and water usage for Turkey, is a representative whole-of-Turkey study on (i) the participatory performance of irrigation associations in relation to PIM, (ii) associated social, political and environmental issues, and (iii) how best to address (i) and (ii) for effective and sustainable irrigation management.

On the latter, we provide some policy learning suggestions, which emanate from a mixture of prior Turkish studies and the international literature. We conclude that given the unequal power differentials between large and small famers, that mandatory compliance is most likely needed to ensure enhanced (member) participation for the most effective participatory performance of irrigation associations for PIM to best succeed (following e.g. Hindmarsh, 2014).
Policy Learning Suggestions for More Effective IA Participatory Performance

First, some key ideas that emerge from the findings of prior studies of PIM in Turkey over the past decade include: (i) a participatory strengthening of water user associations “from within” (Kudat & Bayram, 2000: 187); (ii) early involvement of irrigation users in the design and development processes of PIM to improve economic and technical efficiency by better developing a sense of ownership of IAs through co-management (Yildirim & Çakmak, 2004: 225; also Yercan, 2003); (iii) education and extension activities to encourage farmers “to use water more efficiently and to further participate in the irrigation management” (Uysal & Atis (2010: 1024); and (iv) ensuring the involvement of disadvantaged farmers. However, there remains little in these ideas of how to achieve such participation; for that we turn more to international participatory trends.

Internationally, in both environmental and water management, collaborative approaches are being adopted as proven pathways for policy and institutional learning and application, especially at the local level. In Turkey, a prime example is the (EU) Water Framework Directive aiming to achieve more successful river basin management (e.g., Demetropoulou et al., 2010; Sümer, 2011). Another relatively new and useful approach to harness is the “place-change planning” approach (Hindmarsh, 2012; also Adger et al., 2011; Jones & Eiser, 2010; Untaru, 2002). This approach builds on a new innovative trend in policy learning involving place attachment to better understand community perspectives underpinned by place rationalities (beliefs, values and attitudes) (Hindmarsh, 2012); and to better navigate place politics (e.g. Agnew, 2014). It well aligns to the harnessing of local knowledge in building effective local water governance (e.g. O’Toole et al., 2009; Spink et al., 2010).

A variation is the “knowledge partnering” approach of bringing together multiple local knowledges into dialogue to inform solutions to development issues (Eversole, 2015; also Llano-Arias, 2015; Ricks, 2015). Yet another variation is the well-known collaborative watershed partnership approach (e.g., Imperial, 2005; Koehler and Koontz, 2007); with diverse stakeholders working together to develop and advance water quality goals and enhance system functionality, both technically and socially (also Pahl-Wostl, 2002; Hophmayer-Tokich & Krozer, 2008; O’Toole et al., 2006; Spink et al., 2010).

However, it is also important to recognise the complexities inherent in efforts to enhance participation. A key one, apart from lack of transparency and institutional inabilities to develop inclusive processes is insufficient internal support at the institutional policy level. In other words, embedded top-down organisational policy cultures that privilege expert and bureaucratic knowledges constrain stronger community or grass roots involvement in decision-making, despite growing support within the broader policy community for such involvement (e.g. Hindmarsh, 2012, Conrad et al. 2011).

In Turkey, lack of support for such change does not facilitate a “necessary change in mentality” to contemporary integrated management approaches concerning water use according to Divrak & Demirayak (2011: 163). The solution for these authors is “to design and establish a collaborative framework to bring together major groups that should be involved, to agree on transparent procedures that facilitate mutual trust – a key ingredient for cooperation” (Divrak & Demirayak 2011: 162). Indeed, since the 1990s, many Turkish environmental organisations have pushed this agenda in the
interests of protecting the environment for sustainability vis-à-vis the dominant policy imperative of development, which more broadly is an ongoing global issue.

Such problematic factors obviously need to be built into developing suitable local policy approaches or frameworks for enabling enhanced member participation in IA decision-making. It is apparent that “double loop” policy learning is needed, which involves changes in perspective, theory, and practice (Kemp & Weehuizen, 2005). A key component of such change is to address the power differentials that exist between IA elite interests and most IA memberships – the small and poor farmers, who are clearly disempowered in IA management and operations.

As Mouffe (1999) would contend the collaborative approach, typically based on more bottom-up inclusion through dialogue (c.f., Kapoor, 2002), may just be too ambitious and thus limited in its view of being able to contain or “erase” “the political” – “the dimension of the antagonism that is inherent in all human society” and thus social relations – to affect transformational cultural change between adversaries to the “common good”; in this case, effective IA (member) participatory and sustainability performances. To thus give all IA member farmers the opportunity of meaningful inclusion and influence in IA decision-making, it would seem further institutional and legal (not just voluntary state-level or local level “best practice”) conditions of enhanced participation are needed for IA administration and operation. Of course, this would pose as a substantial challenge to effect but one we believe is well worth the effort in also aligning with participatory governance trends worldwide, especially in the European Union, which is of much relevance to Turkey.

CONCLUSION

The participatory problems of irrigation management in Antalya, and more broadly in Turkey, are like many problems of water management globally. The burgeoning literature that evidences and supports the benefits of new participatory governance and collaborative approaches for environmental and water management attest to this. Such experiences highlight the ongoing failure of the limited public involvement or participatory approaches of the technocratic, closed, or top-down, policy style. This policy style appears a key problem of participatory irrigation management in Antalya in the case studies we sampled, and in other case studies in Turkey, and more broadly, water management in Turkey.

A stronger picture is thus now emerging that appears illustrative or indicative of weak participatory cultures in the operation of participatory irrigation management across Turkey. For policy learning to address this problem, we have suggested first – given the importance of sustainable agriculture and water usage for Turkey – a whole-of-Turkey study on the participatory nature and performance of irrigation associations (and their equivalents, that is, other relevant water user organisations), and any associated environmental sustainability issues, which, of course, relate to long-term agricultural productivity.

Secondly, we have suggested a revised participatory approach that represents enhanced democratic participation to achieve effective and sustainable irrigation management. A key conduit, we argue, is through the enhanced (representative, inclusive and fair) participation of all farmer members of irrigation associations (and their equivalents) to better achieve more effective management of irrigation systems, in reflecting shared knowledge and collaborative pathways of management and operation.
As such, institutional and legal compliances are also needed to facilitate policy that traverses significant boundary issues of elite/non-elite power differentials pertinent to better ensuring enhanced participation policy approaches at the local level.

Notes

i Although we refer broadly to the responsibilities of Responsibility for the organisation and management of irrigation systems, for more detail see, e.g. Burak and Erdogan (1999), Facon (2002), and Svendsen and Nott (2000).

ii While the term “Water Users Associations” is referred to in World Bank Projects, and some of Turkey’s State Hydraulic Works (DSI or Devlet Su İşleri) reports, the term “Water Users Organisations (WUOs) is used also in DSI documents to include all units that irrigation facilities have been transferred to: municipalities, village entities, cooperatives, and irrigation associations. However, 88.5% of transfers [have been] made to Irrigation Associations” (Devlet Su İşleri, 2014: 85).

iii For Turkey’s legislative reforms on local government pre- and post-2005, see http://goo.gl/hEoJmo (accessed: 1 April 2015).

iv The data used in the methodology section is taken from the PhD thesis of the second author.

v At the time of the study, IA councils comprised a chairman and members elected by association assembly members. The number of councils could not exceed seven members according to the Local Government Associations Law No. 5355 (TBMM, 2005). Post-2011, according to Irrigation Associations Law (Act No. 6172, Article 7/1), the IA council has a chairman and four elected members from assembly members.

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Chapter 2

The Presidential Government System: New Model of Government in Turkey

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1. Introduction

A political system emerges based on the continuity or dissolution of any historical process. Different political systems are the end results of various historical processes. A thorough analysis of the nation-states on earth demonstrates that each country has come up with the system that suits it best as a consequence of its historical and political evolution. As such, all political and intellectual debates centered on the Presidential Government System, which have come to the fore with the constitutional amendment in Turkey, are rooted in and sparked by the infusion of the Ottoman era legal and political transformations to the current political landscape of the country. Demands to strip the sultan of his political, economic, and cultural powers in the last decades of the empire - during the Constitutional Period - led the country to the parliamentary system.

Government systems are a matter of how state power emerges, who wields it, and where it is concentrated. However, the topic of government systems brings with it the principle of separation of powers that goes way back in time (Akad et al., 2014: 131; Gözler, 2017:217-223;Turhan, 2005: 87). This is because the ways governments make use of their sovereignty and ruling powers vary based on the manner they implement their legislative and executive powers, which also determines the government system in a political sphere. The kind of government in a state can be explained by the way the legislative, executive, and judiciary branches are organized. Named according to the essence and distribution of those three main powers, government systems represent the structure of governance (Akad et al., 2014: 139; Gözler, 2017:220). The ruling ideology, monetary power, political actors, and historical, social, and political conditions are all key in determining the loci and wielders of the legislative, executive, and judiciary powers. The presence of a certain government systems is usually not the choice of a state but a consequence of the conditions in place.

When Turkey's historical timeline is analyzed, it is concluded that social change and political conditions were the driving forces behind the transition from absolute monarchy to a parliament structure in 1876, the increasing role of the General Assembly of the Ottoman Empire consisting of the elected representatives, and the adoption of the parliamentary system in 1909. The Constitution of 1921 which spearheaded the foundation of a new state, on the other hand, led to the adoption of the assembly government (conventional) system due to the extraordinary conditions the country was under. The alteration of the form of governance in 1923 and the resulting necessity to crown this with a constitutional system culminated in the Constitution of 1924. This system centering around the "political leader" of the time stood somewhere between the assembly government (conventional) system and the parliamentary system (Aldıkaçtı, 1978; 109). The system turned into a parliamentary government system after
the Constitution of 1961 had taken effect (Erdoğan, 2004; 179); Soysal, 1986; 90); this status was preserved with the Constitution of 1982 (Atar, 202; 36) and lasted until 2007. However, the constitutional amendment in 2007 paved the way for the president to be elected by the people, initiating a new phase in politics. At that time, a debate that would take 10 years began, and the decision as to which government system was to be chosen became a critical issue (Hekimoğlu, 2012.3). In the end, the Presidential Government System, explained below in detail, was adopted in the 2017 referendum as the new system of government.


From a holistic point of view that considers universal political systems, all but one Turkish government systems bear the characteristics of the parliamentary government system. Indeed, Turkey's first constitution (Ottoman constitution of 1876) contained regulations that allowed a parliamentary (constitutional) monarchy. The Grand National Assembly of Turkey (TBMM), which led the National Independence War, based its legal framework on the Constitution of 1921 which recognized TBMM as the only authority to exercise sovereignty. There is no doubt that this system called the assembly government was embraced both because of the dire conditions at the time of the Independence War and J.J.Rousseau's principle of indivisibility of sovereignty, ultimately resulting in the concentration of all the power in TBMM (Özbudun; 1992).

Following the proclamation of the Republic, the Constitution of 1924 adopted by TBMM underwent several amendments and remained in effect for 36 years. Like the Constitution of 1921, the Constitution of 1924 recognized the parliament as the competent authority to exercise sovereignty. The Republic of Turkey was founded, and a transition from an empire to a nation-state took place, which is why the will of the parliament that was equal to the popular will could not be restricted by any means (Kapani, 2004; 66). For this reason, the Constitution of 1924 established a system that was a mix of the assembly government and the parliamentary system. This government system is described in the literature as "unity of power and segregation of duties" (Savcı, 1963: 319 et al.).

Legitimized by the 1960 coup d'état and its constituent power, the Constitution of 1961 embraced relative separation of powers and switched to a distinct political system by adopting the "pure parliamentary system". Both the establishment of the legislative branch and the structure of the executive branch were based on the separation of powers systematized by Montesquieu (Gözler, 2017:219). However, the constitutional order failed to function the way it had been intended, which resulted in a deadlock among numerous state bodies and triggered a social conflict. The failure of the state bodies created with the Constitution of 1961 gave rise to grave political, economic, and security issues and set the ground for terrorism, disrupting the peace environment in the society. In light of these developments, the Turkish Armed Forces (TSK) put an end to the political order established with the Constitution of 1961 by staging a coup d'état on September 12, 1980. The Constitution of 1982, then, was a by-product of the military coup. The Constitution of 1982 maintained the parliamentary system tradition that had been embraced with the previous constitution. The framers of the Constitution of 1982 foresaw a parliamentary system, yet it should be emphasized that this system and the constitution itself became an issue of debate and criticism right in the beginning. Most of the criticisms focused on the fact that the President, who was supposed to have
symbolic powers and not to have responsibilities, had real powers but had no obligation to answer for his or her actions (Gönenç, 2008, 488-523).

Created by the Constitution of 1982 and conflicting with the nature of the parliamentary system, this status went on to ignite problems between the Council of Ministers and the President. In order to avoid such conflicts and fierce debates, the party in power wished to choose the 11th President internally in the 2007 Presidential Election. Even though the election resulted against the ruling party's candidate, legal action was taken in the Constitutional Court to annul the election, and the Supreme Court deemed the votes null and void. Following the annulment decision, TBMM regulated the form of elections by exercising its legislative powers; the constitutional rule pertaining to the election of the President was amended, and a path to an utterly different system was opened.

Though the manner of the presidential elections was altered in 2007, the problems still persisted; they even brought about a string of issues regarding the formation of the executive branch. First and foremost, the system that was the end product of the changes did not conform to any government systems. The existing system turned into a combination of elements from the parliamentary system and the semi-presidential system. The parliament lost its status as the "single legitimate body" as the President and legislative branch began to be elected by the public, and "double legitimacy" surfaced among the state bodies because possible differences of opinion between the President and the legislative branch could bring the entire system to a quagmire judging by the provisions of the Constitution of 1982. Some referred to this system as the "parliamentary system with the president" (Gönenç, 2002; 327-329; Gönenç, 2007; 39-43).

The democratic government system in Turkey lasted until 2017 with the transition from the assembly government system to the parliamentary system. Until the constitutional amendment in 2017, both political and academic circles came up with suggestions as to how the system in Turkey should be reformed. The first leader to express the need for a governmental system change in Turkey was Turgut Özal. Turkey's PM between 1983 and 1989, Özal made one of his key comments on this issue during an interview with the Görüş magazine in 1992, when he was the President (Görüş, 1992; 12-24).

The discussions on the government system were kept alive by Süleyman Demirel who took over Presidency after Özal's death in 1993. For instance, during his opening speech in TBMM's 21st Legislative Year, Demirel offered a range of suggestions to overcome the "political gridlock" in Turkey, which included a proposition for the public to elect the President in a two-round system. The debates on the government system was kept up by the Justice and Development Party (AK Parti) that came to power in the 2002 elections. Speeches made by the leadership of the Justice and Development Party opened the possibility of a presidential system to discussion, and this firmly remained on the political agenda of the country (Gönenç, 2005;1-2). The debates on the presidential system never died down though continuing in a mild fashion until 2010 when those debates rekindled. In November 2012, the Justice and Development Party officially handed in its Presidential System propositions to the Constitution Conciliation Commission, which was tasked with hammering out a new constitution (AK Partinin Başkanlık Sistemi Önerisi, 2012). However, the other parties rejected those propositions. The incident that paved the way for the transition to the presidential
The system was the nefarious and insidious attempted coup d'état that took place on July 15, 2016. Although the Nationalist Movement Party (MHP) opposed the presidential system in the first place, it altered its negative outlook on the system after that despicable attempt to overthrow the government. MHP's leader stated that "the proposition on the Presidential System should be discussed in the Parliament" and this laid the groundwork for a constitutional amendment (URL 1).

The Justice and Development Party welcomed MHP's attitude and enabled the passage of the 2017 constitutional amendment law no. 6771 with over 330 votes in TBMM, making it possible for a referendum to be held for that matter. The law passed after the referendum held on April 16, 2017 (Law No. 6771 dated 2017, Official Gazette: 27.042017 30050 Duplicate Number), and it will go into effect for the first time in the presidential elections on June 24, 2018. Opposing views on the importance of the government systems abound; some truly care about them, whereas others deem them totally trivial matters. Regardless, the government systems give rise to debates in many countries across the world, and the existence of such discussions indicates those systems are indeed crucial (İyimaya, 2017; 71-90; Turhan, 2012; 57-75; Gözler, 2014:62-70; Gözler, 2016; 17-24). I argue that the significance of the government systems can never be denied, which is why they are to be looked into. This study mainly aims to explicate Turkey's new government model called the Presidential Government System (Şentop, 2017; 10-16; Yayman, 2017; 25-35; Karatepe et al., 2017; 60-109) and bring its details to light.

3. Presidential Government System

Article 8 of the Constitution of 1982 regulates the executive power and duties. In its previous form, this article expressed that executive power and duties were vested in the President and the Council of Ministers, who were obligated to execute them in line with the Constitution and laws. With Clause 6771/16, the phrase "Council of Ministers" was omitted, and, the provision that "the President is the head of the state and possesses the executive power" was added with the amendment of Article 104 with Clause 6771/8. This regulation gives the entire executive power and authority solely to the President, and this mandate to run the country will be issued by the people. The single-person executive branch, the key aspect of all presidential systems, is also adopted in the Presidential Government System.

3.1. Candidacy and Election

The President shall be elected directly by the public from among Turkish citizens who are over 40 years of age, have completed higher education, and fulfil are eligible to be members of the parliament. The President's term of office shall be five years. The President of the Republic can be elected to two terms at most. Political party groups, political parties which received - alone or in alliance with others - at least 5% of the valid votes can nominate a candidate to the Presidency.

At the election to be held by general ballot, the candidate who receives the majority of the votes is elected the President. If this majority is not reached in the first phase, a second vote is held on the second Sunday after the first phase. The candidates with the highest number of votes in the first stage shall qualify for the second phase, and the one receiving the majority of the votes in the second phase shall be declared the President.

There is no such cabinet as the Council of Ministers as the executive power is
vested only in the President. The Vice Presidents and the ministers are appointed and relieved of duty by the President. The Vice Presidents and the ministers report to the President because they do not have a presence, agenda or individual/collective political accountability to TBMM that is independent of the President. They only answer to the President. However, the Presidential Government System features an aspect that is missing in other presidential systems. Accordingly, the Vice Presidents and ministers can be referred to the Supreme Court by TBMM on charges of misconduct and abuse of authority. Any Vice President or minister convicted by the Supreme Court of a crime that disqualifies them for election is removed from duty.

The Vice Presidents' duties and powers are regulated in presidential decrees. In the event that the President is temporarily unavailable due to illness or a trip abroad, the Vice President shall substitute him or her and exercise the President's duties. In the case that the office of Presidency is vacated for any reason, the Vice President shall govern the country until the elections to be held within 45 days. This rule is also non-existent in other presidential systems and specific to the Presidential Government System. In this sense, rule by a non-elected person is prevented, and democratic legitimacy is ensured.

3.2. Responsibility of the President

The President's responsibilities are also the prerogatives vested in him or her. As the possessor of the executive power and duties, the President represents the Republic of Turkey and the unity of the Turkish nation. The President ensures the execution of the Constitution and orderly and coordinated functioning of the state bodies. The President sets national security policies, takes necessary precautions, and represents the Supreme Military Command of the Turkish Armed Forces. Despite being similar to other presidential systems in terms of the areas of responsibilities, the Presidential Government System also regulates the criminal liabilities of the President. Accordingly, TBMM can launch an investigation about the President with a motion issued by the absolute majority on the grounds that he or she has committed a crime. This prerogative bears resemblance to the impeachment process employed in other presidential systems. It is configured in such a way as to hold the President accountable to any crimes committed and to allow TBMM to pass judgment on him or her.

The Assembly discusses the motion in a maximum of thirty days; then, an investigation can be launched with the secret vote of the three fifths of the total number of members. If an investigation is deemed necessary, a 15-strong commission in TBMM runs it. The commission issues a report to the Speaker's Office, which is then discussed in the Parliamentary Council. The President can be referred to the Supreme Court with the secret votes of the two thirds of the total number of members. A President under investigation cannot declare elections, and a President deemed non-eligible by the Supreme Court is removed from power. Another crucial aspect is the regulation that allows TBMM to claim criminal liability for the President even after his or her term is over.

3.3. Duties and Powers of the President

3.3.1. General Information

The President is the head of the state and possesses the executive power. In the capacity of the head of the state, the President represents the Republic of Turkey and the unity of the Turkish nation and ensures the execution of the constitution and orderly and coordinated functioning of the state bodies.
If the President deems necessary, he or she delivers the opening speech in the first session of a legislative year and conveys messages about the foreign and domestic policies to the Assembly.

The President issues laws and sends certain ones back to TBMM so they can be discussed again.

The President can file annulment action on the grounds that a law or a certain provision or the whole of the TBMM internal regulations violates the Constitution.

The Vice Presidents and the ministers are appointed and relieved of duty by the President.

The President also appoints government executives, removes them from duty, and regulates the principles concerning their appointment through presidential decrees.

The President sends representatives of the Republic of Turkey to foreign countries and accepts those countries' representatives in return.

International agreements are approved and announced by the President.

When necessary, he or she holds referendums on the laws regarding constitutional amendments.

The President sets national security policies and takes necessary measures.

On behalf of the Grand National Assembly of Turkey, he or she represents the Supreme Military Command of the Turkish Armed Forces.

The President decides when to use the Turkish Armed Forces.

He or she can commute or revoke the sentence of people with chronic diseases, injury, and old age.

The establishment, removal, duties, powers, and structure of central and provincial organizations are regulated with presidential decrees.

The President also exercises his or her election and appointment duties among others incumbent upon him or her as per the Constitution and laws.

3.3.2. Rulemaking Power

In Turkey, the executive function is not simply about special, concrete, and individual operations. The executive branch can perform general, abstract, objective, and impersonal legal operations as well. The executive organ's operations of this kind are called "the rulemaking acts of the executive". According to the Constitution of 1982, the executive's rulemaking acts include presidential decrees and regulations.

3.3.2.1. Presidential Decree

Whereas the power to issue decrees is vested in the Council of Ministers in parliamentary systems, it is exercised by the President in the Presidential Government System. This natural power is the authority of the single-person executive who is democratically legitimate, and it ensures the administration's effectiveness and accountability. Through this power, the President is given the opportunity to determine and implement all the executive policies (Gülener & Miş, 2017; 12-13). The President can use this power during ordinary or extraordinary periods. The Constitution defines such situations.

3.3.2.1.1. Presidential Decrees in Ordinary Periods

The term "decrees" entered the Turkish legal legislation with the 1971 amendments of the Constitution of 1961. According to the new regulation of the Constitution of 1982 which was accepted in a referendum, decrees are issued by the President. As such, the
President has the power of hammering out a presidential decree. However, decrees are subject to a bilateral restriction; the first is the constitutional provisions which are as follows:

The fundamental rights, individual rights and duties, and political rights and duties cannot be regulated with a presidential decree. The President cannot issue a decree on issues that are to be regulated exclusively by the laws according to the Constitution. A decree cannot be passed on issues explicitly regulated by the laws. If a presidential decree is in conflict with the laws, then the existing laws are applicable. If TBMM issues laws on the very same issues, the presidential decree becomes null and void.

The second restriction stems from the six main executive powers that are rooted in the Constitution. These are the rights to issue decrees on the appointment and removal of Vice Presidents, Ministers, and high-ranking Government Executives (Article 104), establishment of ministry organizations and structural change of existing ministries (Article 106), organization and duties of the National Security Council's secretariat (Article 108), creation of a public legal entity in the executive domain (Article 123), appointment of the Chief of the General Staff (Article 107), and the State Supervisory Council (Article 108).

As well as being subject to constitutional restriction, presidential decrees are within the scope of judicial review. Presidential decrees are subject to abstract review of the norms by the Constitutional Court (Article 108).

3.3.2.1.2. Presidential Decrees in Extraordinary Periods

Prior to the amendment of the Constitution, there was the "executive order" in the Constitution that was an element of the state of emergency (Article 122). The new system, however, changes the legal framework; accordingly, the President can declare a state of emergency with a limit of six months and shall no longer have to consider the National Security Council's opinion.

The President can declare a state of emergency for a maximum of six months in a certain area or the entirety of the country if "a war breaks out or a situation entailing a war emerges; there is a need for mobilization, a violent riot against the nation and the Republic, or widespread violence movements that endanger the indivisibility of the country and the nation internally or externally; there are movements of violence aimed at disrupting the constitutional order or fundamental rights and liberties; the public order is significantly disrupted by acts of aggression; natural disasters, epidemics, or great economic depressions afflict the country" (Article 119).

When a decision is made to declare a state of emergency, it is published in the Official Gazette on that day and is submitted to TBMM for approval. If TBMM is in recess, members are immediately summoned for a meeting. If the Assembly deems fit, the length of the state of emergency can be shortened, extended, or ended. Upon the President's request, TBMM can extend the length for a maximum of four months each time. In a state of war, however, this four-month limit is not binding.

In states of emergency, the President may issue a presidential decree, regardless of the limitations set forth in the second sentence of the seventeenth paragraph of Article 104 of the Constitution, on matters which the state of emergency requires. Such decrees are considered executive orders, published in the Official Gazette, and submitted for the Assembly's approval on the same day. Except when TBMM fails to convene due to a war or force majeure, presidential decrees issued during the state of emergency are
discussed and settled in TBMM within three months. Otherwise, any presidential decree issued during a state of emergency automatically ceases to have effect. The power to issue a presidential decree during a state of emergency is subject to effective legislative review as the decree in question is automatically deemed invalid unless it is approved by the Assembly within three months.

In states of emergency, all acts of administrative authorities are open to judicial review. As decrees issued during a state of emergency are not subject to judicial review, they cannot be reviewed by the Constitutional Court.

3.3.2.2. Regulations
The President, ministries and public entities may issue regulations to ensure the enforcement of laws and presidential decrees that concern their respective fields of duty on condition that these regulations do not violate the laws and decrees in question. The laws establish which regulations are to be published in the Official Gazette. The lawfulness of regulations is reviewed by administrative justice.

3.4. Bodies under the Presidency
3.4.1. State Supervisory Council:
Established under the Presidency with a view to ensuring the administration operates and develops lawfully, orderly, and effectively, the State Supervisory Council can conduct all kinds of administrative investigations, supervisions, and inspections in all public institutions and organizations, other institutions half of the capital of which is provided by the organizations under investigation, the Turkish Armed Forces, professional organizations with public institution status, workers' or employers' groups, and public associations. Judicial bodies are outside the scope of the State Supervisory Council.

The chairman and members of the State Supervisory Council are appointed by the President. The functioning, term of office of the members, and other personnel affairs of the Council are regulated with presidential decrees.

3.4.2. National Security Council
The President is responsible before TBMM for ensuring national security and the preparation of the armed forces for national defense. Appointed by the President, the Chief of the General Staff is the commander of the armed forces and executes the duty of the Commander in Chief on behalf of the President in times of war.

Under the leadership of the President, the National Security Council is composed of the Vice Presidents, ministers of Justice, National Defense, Interior, Foreign Affairs, Chief of the General Staff, and commanders of the Turkish land, naval, and air forces. The National Security Council informs the President of its opinions and recommendations on the national security policies and their execution. The President assesses the Council's precautionary decisions that it deems essential to protect the unity and indivisibility of the country and welfare and safety of the nation. The agenda of the National Security Council is arranged by the President in light of the Vice Presidents' and the Chief of the General Staff's suggestions.

4. Legislative - Executive Relations in the Presidential Government System
The Presidential Government System is a sort of presidential system based on the principle of "absolute separation of powers". It is nevertheless different from other
presidential systems in that it has distinctive characteristics (Gülener & Miş, 2017; 10). The legislative and executive branches are sharply separated from one another in the Presidential Government System. However, cooperation between the two are considered essential for harmony among the state bodies. When these bodies fall out over a matter and/or reach a deadlock, large-scale crises that pose threats to the state may arise. In order to prevent this from happening, a number of tools have been created to break the deadlock by means of interaction, which are the followings:

4.1. Appointments
The Presidential Government System gives the President the authority to make appointments just like in other presidential systems (Gülener, 2016; 12-17). The President single-handedly appoints the Vice Presidents, ministers, high-ranking government executives, and ambassadors without the need for approval from any authority. Unlike in the presidential systems, the Assembly's approval is unnecessary. This particular power of the President is not limited in any way, and it is not against the nature of the system when the unitary structure and the presence of a single-parliament of the state are taken into account. Furthermore, appointments are decided in decrees, which are under judicial review by the Constitutional Court.

4.2. Enactment of Laws
TBMM does not answer to the executive in terms of lawmaking and operates in line with the principle of separation of powers. Accordingly, only the "members of the parliament" have the authority to propose motions. Having the lawmaking and budget approval powers which are vital, the Assembly also possesses the President's executive prerogatives. These two powers of TBMM compel the President to be on good terms with the parliament. The Assembly has the authority to approve or reject the budget prepared by the executive branch. Considering the President needs a budget to perform his or her executive duties, the budget approval power is a key leverage for the legislative branch.

4.3. Veto
Laws passed by TBMM are published by the President within 15 days. Whereas the Assembly has the lawmaking power, the President has the right to approve and publish laws, which is an attempt to facilitate legal consensus between TBMM and the President.

If the President finds a law partially or totally unsuitable, he or she may refer it back to TBMM for rediscussion by stating a reason within the same time period. By doing this, the President can veto laws. In the case that the President finds a law partially unsuitable, TBMM can discuss only the unwarrantable articles in that law, yet the laws concerning the budget are out of the scope of this provision. TBMM draws on the rule of the absolute majority of the total number of members for the reapproval of a law that has been sent back, which is a form of veto that has been made more difficult. This way, the President and the Assembly are obliged to find the middle ground.

4.4. Budget
In the parliamentary system, the draft of a budget law is crafted by the government and is submitted to the Assembly's approval based on the majority in the parliament. The Presidential Government System, however, gives this authority to prepare the budget law draft to the President. However, TBMM's approval is still a must for the
budget to take effect. The Assembly also has the power to reject the budget and the responsibility of supervising the expenditures from an approved budget. If the Assembly does not approve the new budget proposed by the President or fails to come up with a temporary budget, the budget of the previous year is increased at a certain rate and goes into effect, which removes the possibility of a bottleneck in the system. This also preserves the Assembly's legislative superiority. As the budget is reassessed and readjusted, the President gets no additional financial sources. The President would not want to be in such a difficult situation, so he or she would prefer to compromise with the Assembly by proposing an acceptable budget. In other words, the system contains a mechanism that forces both the executive and legislative branches to come to an agreement on the preparation and approval of a budget and also makes the legislative more effective.

4.5. International Treaties

Although the power to sign international treaties is vested in the President, they go into effect only if TBMM approves them by passing a law.

4.6. Impeachment

TBMM has the power to impeach the President by claiming criminal liability. This also gives the Assembly to put an end to the President's term in office. TBMM acts as a supervisor of the executive in the Presidential Government System. However, the Assembly cannot replace the executive. To ensure this will not happen, there is a provision that no member of the parliament can engage in any executive activity. If a member is appointed by the President as a Vice President or minister, his or her membership of the parliament comes to an end because one person cannot be part of two different bodies at the same time. This is why the parliaments in the presidential systems are effective; this way, the members of the parliament feel more independent and work freely.

4.7. Presidential Decrees

Presidential decrees have two aspects. First, the President has the power to issue decrees in the executive domain. The fact that this power is vested in the President is a natural consequence of the logic behind the Presidential Government System. In all presidential government systems, the head of the state has the authority to regulate the executive sphere. Hence, it is inevitable that the President possesses the powers of regulation, appointment, and removal from duty; the purpose here is to ensure the proper functioning of the administration. Moreover, as the President has to answer to the people for his or her policies, he or she needs to have such powers so he or she can fulfil electoral promises.

The second aspect is that the President has the power to issue statutory decrees. Presidential decrees do not violate the legislative function but have to do with the responsibilities of the President. Statutory decrees hierarchically rank below the Constitution and laws, and the President is not allowed to pass decrees in fields regulated by laws. In addition, the President's power to issue decrees is restricted in several ways by the Constitution.

4.8. TBMM's Access to Information and Supervision

Another key tool of interaction between the legislative and executive branches is that the Presidential Government System provides access to information and
supervision methods that are specific to parliamentary systems. The ways of access to information and supervision regulated by Articles 98 and 106 of the Constitution are "parliamentary inquiry", "general debate", "parliamentary investigation", and "written question".

The parliamentary inquiry may be requested in line with certain methods by political party groups or through a motion submitted to the Presidency of the parliament by at least 20 MPs. This way, the Assembly supervises the Vice Presidents’ and ministers’ activities through its commissions.

A written question is delivered by MPs to the Vice Presidents and ministers. The question is to be answered no later than 15 days after submission.

A general debate is the discussion of any issue concerning the society or state activities at the Parliamentary Council of TBMM (Article 98/4). In a general debate, the issue regarding the administration's activities is discussed in the parliamentary counsel; however, no vote is held. The style of submission, content, and scope of a parliamentary inquiry, general debate, and written question are regulated by the Internal Regulations of the Assembly. In contrast, a parliamentary investigation is regulated directly by the Constitution.

A parliamentary investigation is conducted about the Vice President and ministers as per the 5th, 6th, and 7th paragraphs of Article 106. Accordingly, TBMM can be asked to launch an investigation on the Vice President and ministers for allegedly having committed crimes while fulfilling their duties with a motion submitted by the absolute majority of the total number of representatives. The Parliament discusses the motion within one month at the latest; an investigation can be launched with the secret vote of three-fifths of the total number of members, and the aforementioned persons may be sent over to the Supreme Court with the secret vote of two-thirds of the total number of members. Non-existent in other presidential systems, this instrument of supervision is a crucial component specific to the Presidential Government System. The style of submission, content, and scope of a parliamentary inquiry, general debate, and written question and the kinds of investigative methods are regulated by the Internal Regulations of the Assembly.

4.9. Message

In the Presidential Government System, the President has no power to propose any motions or bills except budget except for budget laws. However, the President has the right to "give messages" to the Assembly as part of the constitutional system. The head of the state's right to give messages is not specific to presidential systems and is exercised in countries such as France, Italy, Norway, Portugal, Greece, and the Netherlands which are not run with a presidential system (Gözler, 2016; 143-145). Sending messages to the legislative branch is a method that should be considered together with the authority of the presidents to propose laws. The effectiveness of this method is that it affects the legislative branch in systems where the presidents cannot propose laws. The President reads this right in the plenary session that is held in the beginning of each legislative year (October). By doing this, the President lets the Assembly know which laws are needed and essential.

4.10. Holding Elections Together

One of the fundamental differences between the parliamentary system and the presidential systems is that the legislative and executive branches are independent of
one another. In other words, the Assembly cannot oust the President from office, and the President cannot terminate the Assembly. In the parliamentary system, however, the Assembly can overthrow the government with a "motion of no confidence". The government, in turn, may decide to rehold elections for the Assembly. As there is a strict separation in the presidential system the President and the Assembly cannot relieve each other of duty and there is no means sort out possible conflicts until after elections are held. In order to avoid such situations, the Presidential Government System offers both sides the power to rehold elections. Thus, the President can decide to rehold elections on his or her own, and the Assembly can do the same if three-fifths of the total number of members wish so.

By way of elections held on the same day, it is intended to form a workable majority and to prevent a system failure if the legislative and executive branches fall out over a matter. The same-day election model can minimize the conflict between the legislative and executive branches and eliminate the possibility of a crisis. In addition, such a system deadlock would cause numerous socio-economic problems as Turkey is a unitary state. In this sense, the synchronized election model that aims to minimize the friction between the legislative and executive branches is a genuine and valuable contribution of the Presidential Government System and is a good sign for democratic governance of Turkey.

5. Executive-Judiciary Relations in the Presidential Government System

Although the amendment of the Constitution is based on the provisions on the government system, there have been certain changes that concern the judiciary organs as well. The statement that "jurisdiction is exercised by independent courts on behalf of the Turkish Nation" in Article 9 of the Constitution of 1982 is revised as "independent and impartial". This amendment is crucial in that it puts a constitutional emphasis on impartiality, which is key for jurisdiction. Furthermore, there are other reforms such as the removal of military jurisdiction, eradication of the military coup tradition, and the total introduction of a democratic constitutional state. In addition, the removal of high courts such as the Military Court of Cassation and the Supreme Military Administrative Court from the Constitution and the termination of their existence are important steps in ensuring unity in the judiciary.

The basic principles for the independence and impartiality of the judiciary are given in Articles 138 and 139 of the Constitution. Judges and prosecutors are banned from taking on any official or special role - other than the tasks specified in the law - for the purpose of ensuring their independence and impartiality. Appointment, assignment and all kinds of acts of judges are handled by the Council of Judges and Prosecutors (Article 159).

With the amendment of the Constitution, the independent identity of the judiciary is reinforced with the concept of impartiality. Two legitimate powers, elected directly by the nation and deciding on the nation's behalf, the President and TBMM create the judiciary body by making due choices and appointments.

Essential for the legal guarantee and independence of judges, the Council of Judges and Prosecutors is responsible for the appointment of judges and other personnel affairs. Made up of 13 members, four members of the Council of Judges and Prosecutors are appointed by the President while seven are assigned by TBMM. The chairman of the Council is the Minister of Justice as in the previous system. The
Undersecretary of the Ministry of Justice is also a member of the Council.

Three members of the Council are selected by TBMM from among members of the court of Cassation, one from the Council of State, three from legal academics and lawyers teaching at universities whose qualities are given in the law. The way those members are selected to the Council by the Assembly has a reconciliatory and democratic aspect as explained here. In the case that a qualified majority is not formed in the first two rounds, lots are drawn in the third round between the candidates who received the highest number of votes in the second round. This practice blocks the majority with the dominant political tendencies to choose whomever they like.

Three members of the Council are first class; they are chosen by the President from among civil and criminal judges and prosecutors who still have the qualifications to be first class. There is another first class member selected by the President from among administrative judges and prosecutors who still possess the qualifications to be first class. As seen here, some members are picked by the elected President while others are selected by TBMM, which is intended to increase the Council's democratic legitimacy.

The Constitutional Court, which is a high court responsible for the execution and supervision of the Constitution, consists of 15 members. Three members of the Constitutional Court are appointed by TBMM, and the remaining 12 are assigned by the President. The President chooses members from among the candidates who are presented to him or her in a number of ways. In addition, the Constitutional Court has the authority of constitutional supervision based on the binding force and supremacy of the Constitution. Therefore, the Constitutional Court supervises the constitutionality of laws, presidential decrees, and TBMM's Internal Regulations and delivers verdicts on individual applications.

Under the title "Supreme Court", the Constitutional Court can also try the President, TBMM speaker, Vice Presidents, ministers, members of the Constitutional Court, Court of Cassation, and Council of State, chief prosecutors, Deputy Chief Public Prosecutor, chairmen and members of the Council of Judges and Prosecutors and Chamber of Accounts, Chief of the General Staff, and commanders of the Turkish Land, Naval, and Air Forces.

In the Presidential Government System, all acts and operations of the administration are subject to judicial review. The jurisdiction is limited to the supervision of the lawfulness of administrative acts and operations and is by no means employed to supervise their expediency. If an administrative action both leads to grave or irreparable damage and flagrantly violates the law, execution can be suspended by giving due justification. However, the law limits the decisions to suspend execution in a state of emergency, mobilization, war, and for reasons such as national security, public order, and general health issues.

6. Conclusion

The position of the head of the state has been a key item on the nation's agenda since the foundation of the Republic of Turkey. The constitutions of 1924, which regulates the Founding Father Atatürk's powers and duties, 1961, and 1982 touch upon the government systems in one way or another, yet all three of them put aside the ideas and suggestions about the presidential system (Danışma Meclisi Tutanak Dergisi, 1982; C.9; s.387). Debates on the government system lasted well after the Constitution of
1982 went into effect and, in fact, gained momentum after the 1990s. None of them, however, produced a concrete output such as the Presidential Government System, which was adopted by TBMM as part of Law No. 6771 and accepted in the referendum held on April 16, 2017.

The Constitution of 1982 allocated the powers of legislation, execution, and judiciary to different spots, thereby adopting the principle of separation of powers. However, the Constitution emphasizes at the beginning that "separation of powers" is not a ranking of superiority among the state bodies but is rather about the exercise of certain state powers and signifies a civilized division of labor and cooperation. Accordingly, superiority is only vested in the Constitution and laws. In both the parliamentary system and the Presidential Government System, the legislative branch can supervise the executive, and the executive and legislative branches can decide to hold elections, which points at a civilized link between these two powers.

In the first section of the Constitution of 1982 where the general principles are given, the legislative is explained in Article 7, the executive in Article 8, and the judiciary in Article 9. The Constitution regarded the executive branch as "both an authority and a duty" and considered the judiciary independent and impartial. In the Presidential Government System, the executive is reduced to one single person, but that comes with political responsibilities and criminal liabilities for the President.

The executive and legislative branches are constituted with different elections, and their boundaries are drawn according to a political system that features a "President". Both powers are assigned based on legitimate elections; the manner of elections and the conditions for a revote are arranged as mechanism to ensure the powers are concentrated in different hands and to prevent crises from happening. The legislative branch can check the President's actions, supervise lawmaking, approve or reject his or her budget proposal, and can launch parliamentary inquiries on the executive. The legislative also has the authority to conduct parliamentary investigations on the Vice Presidents and ministers and refer them to the Supreme Court if necessary. All in all, the relations between the legislative and executive branches are evidently not devoid of balance and supervision. If the system in question is analyzed thoroughly, it is understood that the allegations of the system being biased and rigged are not grounded in fact.

Though the Presidential Government System harbors many of features that belong to other presidential systems, it is commonly referred to as the "Turkish style of presidency" because of its country-specific aspects. The underlying reasons are that TBMM, the only holder of the legislative power, consists of just one parliament and that the state is of a unitary structure.

The obligation for the President to be elected by 50+1% of the votes will pave the way for a political culture wherein the center of politics expands and is reinforced. In this sense, the amendments in the electoral law cleared the path to political alliances, and compromise and solidarity became almost essential for political parties to receive popular support. Harmony between the legislative and executive branches is key for the system to function effectively. Striking harmonious alliances and establishing and announcing policies prior to elections will increase the success of the system. As the legislative and executive branches will operate in harmony, they will make up a robust structure. Consequently, the likelihood of government crises because of an intertwined, ambiguous, and two-headed mishmash of the legislative and executive shrinks. In the
end, all these advantages and political stability bring along economic stability, which will offer an arena of profound and continuous democracy.

The President is elected directly by the people for a maximum of two terms (i.e. 5+5 years). Hence, the President is in a position to answer directly to the people as the head of the executive and the state. In this system, the state bodies are each given a fair share of accountability within certain limits set by the Constitution. The most significant principle of accountability is that the executive responsibilities and duties rest squarely on the legitimately elected President, which is why the executive organs are compelled to answer directly to the public. "Foreknowledge" and "accountability" - two crucial benefits of the presidential systems - make the executive into a "political persona" that can be held responsible for their actions. The President's accountability is also binding for his or her Vice Presidents, ministers, and high-ranking government executives in that these positions are filled through the President's decisions.

The Presidential Government System contains more mechanisms of checks and balances compared to the parliamentary system that has been used for years in Turkey. The Presidential Government System clearly defines the principle of separation of powers, so the executive led by the President is supervised more efficiently by the Assembly. The legislative formed straight through elections does not determine the legitimately elected government but supervises it. The budget prepared by the executive can take effect only if the legislative branch approves it. The legislative branch supervises the executive body through its control of the budget.

The link between the executive and legislative bodies is set out within the framework of the constitutional rules in an independent and impartial manner. For the judicial body, it is essential to practice selection and appointment by the public-elected legislative and executive branches. Within the constitutional boundaries, the judicial body can check the President's actions as well as all operations and acts of the executive, which is fundamental for the rule of law. In this new system, the President, Vice Presidents, and ministers accused by the judicial body's Supreme Court will be duly tried. The President's power to issue decrees is in a state of balance through both the Constitutional Court's supervision and the actions of the legislative branch.

If a law is passed in a domain that was previously regulated with a decree, then this decree ceases to have effect. On the other hand, the President, who leads the executive, has the power to approve laws passed by TBMM, send them back, or refer to the Constitutional Court for annulment. The years-long debate in Turkey for a possible alteration of the government system is underpinned by unstable governments and a poor state order. This hypothesis is accurate if the historical records are taken into account. For this reason, a system based on a fixed term of office, stable governance, and absolute separation of powers is preferable. The Presidential Government System is an end product of the observations about the weaknesses of the universal systems. When adopting government systems, countries determine the distribution of duties and powers among bodies based on their respective political, social and economic conditions. The Presidential Government System was adopted based on this philosophy, meaning it is suitable for Turkey and its specific conditions. Ultimately, the success of the system will be determined by the proper application of the rules.
REFERENCES
Chapter 3

Theoretical Analysis of the Concept of Class

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**INTRODUCTION**

Like any other society that existed before it, today's bourgeois capitalist society is not composed of a "single humanity". Instead, it is divided into two camps that live under different conditions and perform distinct functions; these are the Proletariat in the broadest sense of the word and bourgeoisie. The slavery and exploitation of masses of laborers provide the basis on which the modern society rises and without which it fails to survive. This gave rise to a class struggle, which is sometimes characterized by sheer violence and other times resembles an arduous and subtle process that reflects workers' needs and rights. The entire history of humanity represents a continuous chain of struggles put up by laborers to obtain their rights, freedom, and better living conditions. In the history of societies, this class struggle has always been the primary factor determining the type and quality of societies. The social and political regime of each state is first and foremost an end product of class struggles. The structure of any society reveals details about the stage where the class struggle takes place. The tiniest change in the course of the conflict between classes permanently alters the relative positions of the powers and the fabric and structure of the society. These statements constitute the general domain and meaning of the class struggle in class-based societies.

This study mainly aims to tackle the concept of class in a broad sense. Accordingly, Marx's concepts of class, class consciousness, and class struggle are analyzed, and then the contributions Weber and Durkheim made in defining the concept of class are discussed.

This research by no means touches upon every aspect of the concept of class; it rather offers analyses by certain thinkers of the 20th century.

**The Concept of Class in the Marxist School of Thought**

When defining a working class, the definition of the worker and the definition of the working class are not the same and equal. It is impossible to come up with a definition if one sets out on the definition of the worker. The definition of the worker (class in itself) has to do with a person's objective position in the society - regardless of whether they are aware of this or not - and their positioning in the realm of social relations in connection with their relationship with means of production. A class (class for itself), on the other hand, is about the common way of eating, living, traveling, entertaining, dressing, etc. in the social sphere. People in a given class have the same outlook on their position in the realm of social relations and develop a commonly shared attitude.

The term "commodity economy" defines capitalism, but it also describes the worker as a labor commodity traded in the market. If workers can sell their labor as a
commodity, then they are fortunate and, at the same time, actively present in production. If, however, they fail to market their labor as a commodity, they are unemployed. Right at this point, it is apt to underscore the definition of the proletariat given in the Manifesto:

"The proletariat is that class in society which lives entirely from the sale of its labor and does not draw profit from any kind of capital; whose weal and woe, whose life and death, whose sole existence depends on the demand for labor – hence, on the changing state of business, on the vagaries of unbridled competition." (Marx and Engels, 1994: 197).

People who have to sell their labor yet have failed to do so also fall into the scope of Marx's definition of the proletariat. For instance, an unemployed TV technician or a software programmer is a non-working worker and still part of the band of actively working laborers.

In the Manifesto, Marx describes the historical importance of the class as follows: "The history of all hitherto existing society is the history of class struggles. (...) Society as a whole is more and more splitting up into two great hostile camps, into two great classes directly facing each other — Bourgeoisie and Proletariat" (Marx, 1978: 110). Different meanings are attached to the concept of class in various analyses because Marx never systematically tackled the concept although it played a central role in Marxism. The concept of class mentioned in the quote from the Manifesto refers to the social groups in hierarchical order in every society. The contradiction between the classes not only points to the inequality between the oppressor and the oppressed but also shows the class hierarchy. The concept of class refers to the groups in hierarchical order no matter what the social formation is. However, it is necessary to underline the distinctive characteristics of the classes in modern industrial societies.

In light of this, it is appropriate to provide another quote from Marx: "Those who only have labor power depend on wages; capital owners make a living from profits, and property owners live off rents. As such, wage-laborers, capital owners, and will-holders constitute the three main classes of modern societies based on capitalist mode of production" (Aron, 1992a:51). This statement underlines three different levels of income, which are established based on the link between the means of production and those who carry out production. The wage is the income of workers who have nothing to provide other than labor. Profit is obtained when the owners of the means of production buy labor. Property, on the other hand, belongs to landowners who do not engage in direct production (Aron, 1992b: 72). It is thus possible to reduce the characteristics of social classes in industrial societies to the relationship between the means of production and forces of production.

It is wise to quote 18 Brumaire at this point: "... Insofar as millions of families live under conditions of existence that separate their mode of life, their interests, and their culture from those of the other classes, and put them in hostile opposition to the latter, they form a class" (Marx, 1995: 142). Just because a significant number of people live under almost the same conditions and have similar jobs does not necessarily mean they form a social class. These people also need to be in constant contact with each other and make up a unity by realizing their in-group interaction and their struggle against other groups. Accordingly, workers in industrial societies keep on competing against one another unless they unite and realize they actually need to defy other groups. Put in a different way, there are subgroups in the working class that are likely to engage in
conflicts because of the differences of wage. These subgroups may fail to realize their own unity and the true need to stand against other groups. Hence, the condition of living similar lives does not necessarily make up a social class; rather, constant interaction among individuals, realization of their own class, and conflicts with opposing groups are the building blocks of a social class.

Marx's works provide no definitions of class in pre-industrial or industrial societies (Aron, 1992a:54). Marxist analyses identify a group's position or role in production activities as the fundamental criterion for a social class. In fact, the class definition of Marxists can be divided into two categories. Wage laborers play a central role in the production process as long as they do not own means of production and get paid. Their roles are to be described in a legal-social sense; however, the technical denotation of the word can also be applied. Regardless of their property ownership status, industrial workers perform a specific role; put slightly differently, they are manual laborers who operate machines (Aron, 1992b: 83). The legal social description employed in the analysis of classes concerns the private property of the factors of production, whereas the technical description is about the production organization. If the first description is accepted as valid, then a revolution is a must for us to improve the lives of wage laborers. If the second one is adopted, however, no legal system can be expected to alter workers' functions in the production. The fact that the state owns the means of production changes workers' legal relations with these means, yet this has no impact on the technical relations between the worker and the collective organization of the work (Aron, 1992: 55).

Marx concludes that class relations will gradually become simpler once the working class has emerged as the proletariat and that the capitalist society will be broken into the main groups. All social groups will then rally around these two classes, namely the proletariat and bourgeoisie. Marx asserts that capitalist societies cause means of livelihood to be concentrate in the hands of the few. The number of capitalists shrinks every day; however, the wealth becomes more and more confined to a small minority. Poverty and misery grow exponentially on the other side of the society as capital accumulates in the hands of a rather limited portion of the people. The living conditions of the working class become worse and worse with every day that goes by. This negative state of affairs fire up the insurgent soul in the proletariat. The reason for this deterioration in the living conditions of the working class is the inevitable disagreement between the two main social classes on the price of labor and the production system or labor process (Edgell, 1998: 13).

It can be inferred from these statements that the capitalist society can in fact not be divided into merely two camps. Marx posits that each society has an oppressed and oppressor class. In capitalist societies, the state depends on the power of the economically dominant class, which is the bourgeoisie, and the state is a tool of oppression whose purpose of existence is to maintain the bourgeoisie's dominance (Aron, 1992a: 58). If the capitalist state equals the bourgeoisie and if the proletariat confronts the bourgeoisie and understands its own truth and unity, then there will be two camps in the middle. There may be different classes (middle class peasants) between these two camps. Nevertheless, these classes are not in a position to alter the main conflict between the bourgeoisie and the proletariat because these two have diametrically opposed interests. The purpose of the bourgeoisie is to maintain its grip of the means of livelihood, while the proletariat intends to topple the existing property
ownership regime, which is why the proletariat is the only class that seeks to make a radical revolution in a capitalist society (Aron, 1992b: 97).

In his above statement, Marx considers the proletariat to be the working class of the 19th century, but this does not mean that the proletariat or class struggles did not exist in the pre-capitalist era. In fact, class conflicts in the earlier periods of history are clearly mentioned in the Communist Manifesto as Marx compares the proletariat to other classes. Now let us provide some concrete examples with quotes from the Manifesto:

"There have always been poor and working classes; and those who worked were almost always the poor. But there have not always been proletarians, just as competition has not always been free (Marx and Engels, 1994: 198).

Marx's remarks indicate that there have always been the poor throughout the history; however, the proletariat in the capitalist society is unprecedented and can be easily differentiated from the earlier proletarians. The manifesto sheds light on another distinctive characteristic of the proletariat that sets it apart from other classes:

"... The proletarian is recognised as a person, as a member of civil society. The slave may, therefore, have a better subsistence than the proletarian but the latter stands at a higher stage of development. The slave frees himself by becoming a proletarian, abolishing from the totality of property relationships only the relationship of slavery. The proletarian can free himself only by abolishing property in general" (Marx and Engels, 1994: 201).

The above-given quotes emphasize that the proletariat can free itself by eliminating competition, private property, and all kinds of class discrimination. Dispossession as explained in the Communist Manifesto is the main political ground on which the working class stands. It should never escape one's attention that ownership of the means of production or being isolated from these means are the fundamental criteria underlying the concept of class. In terms of the positioning in the production process, profession, culture, gender, status, income, and the like differ within the same class. Accordingly, different worker categories constitute the basis of the parts of the working class.

In light of the explanations given above, the Marxist class paradigm can be described as follows: First, classes make up the basis for social analysis; they position social development on class conflicts. Second, the class is not merely an empirical unit; it is also the driving force (subject) of progress. Third, history is the product of the actions of the masses rather than of the individuals (Öngen, 1999: 50). Now is the time to move on to the discussion of the working class and awareness.

**Class Consciousness**

Let us begin with a quote from Marx's "A Contribution to the Critique of Political Economy":

"It is not the consciousness of men that determines their existence, but their social existence that determines their consciousness" (Marx, 1995: 46).

Marx's definition is misinterpreted by many people. First of all, consciousness never seems like a direct mental reflection of a certain objectivity. It is undoubtedly correct that a certain objectivity determines a certain form of consciousness; however, this is a far more complex process than commonly thought. Social existence shapes consciousness through its extension, namely social mobility. The relationship between
social existence and consciousness is not direct (Çulhaoğlu, 2002: 88). Consciousness is not the perception of objectivity with its outer appearance; it is rather the perception of the essence of objectivity after looking at its manifestations of self-expression. Existence is what ultimately creates consciousness, and there is no consciousness isolated from the material (financial) conditions in place. Objectivity, however, is a complex whole with its movements and contradictions. Manifestation of objectivity always means movement and mobility. Thus, achieving total objectivity first and foremost requires becoming one and only with the movement. In short, when class consciousness relations (the bourgeoisie or proletariat) are in question, the main prerequisite for class consciousness is not being a member of a class but being part of a certain mobility group within that class. Put another way,

"Only if workers understand the way of life and feel a sense of belonging in their own class can they develop similar attitudes and beliefs to form a class consciousness" (Öngen, 1999: 61).

This quote points to the need to realize one's own group and emphasizes that any defiance should be shown in an organized fashion. For instance, the conflict between labor and capital can be made concrete through numerous outlets such as worker-employer and worker-supervisor conflicts and relations. These are in fact not the essence of the conflict but its appearance and expression (Çulhaoğlu, 2002: 89). A worker can join the struggle without even the tiniest kernel of consciousness; the struggle exists despite the lack of consciousness. The shape, duration, repetition frequency of the struggle and opposition against it affect the process of awakening that the worker goes through to reach a stage of consciousness. After all, consciousness is the result not of simply social existence but of collective struggles.

Class consciousness is a far stricter concept than class struggle. The worker who, one way or another, joins a struggle as part of the labor-capital conflict is considered an actor in class struggle. However, not every class struggle is sufficient for true class consciousness (Çulhaoğlu, 2002: 90). The formation of class consciousness hinges on three main components. First, any classes that disrupt the integrity and continuity of the general class structure should be eradicated; second, separations and divisions in the working class should be eliminated; third, the conflict between labor and capital should become deeper (Öngen, 1992: 62). It is also necessary to point out the distinction between class consciousness and revolutionary consciousness:

"... revolutionary consciousness is a collective whole that has the potential to become a political power capable of meeting the conditions for forming a class in certain historical, social, and political processes. Class consciousness, on the other hand, depends on the sense of belonging that surfaces in the production process" (Çulhaoğlu, 2002: 95).

True class consciousness comes into play when the worker understands that the special contradictions discerned by the conscious mind during the struggle are in fact extensions of a rooted contradiction, and this way, the worker takes the first step toward acquiring class consciousness. Çulhaoğlu refers to this phenomenon as the first step because this is ultimately not class consciousness itself; if the first step toward class consciousness initiates a continuum, more information and practice accumulate, and people finally get a better understanding of the history.
Class Struggle

Marx’s argument that classes make the history leads us to ponder the subject. How come it is possible that the contradictions between classes become deeper, eventually giving rise to conflicts and social upheaval? Let us start with a quote from the preface to have a better idea:

"At a certain stage of development, the material productive forces of society come into conflict with the existing relations of production or -- this merely expresses the same thing in legal terms -- with the property relations within the framework of which they have operated hitherto. From forms of development of the productive forces these relations turn into their fetters. Then begins an era of social revolution. The changes in the economic foundation lead sooner or later to the transformation of the whole immense superstructure. In studying such transformations it is always necessary to distinguish between the material transformation of the economic conditions of production, which can be determined with the precision of natural science, and the legal, political, religious, artistic or philosophic -- in short, ideological forms in which men become conscious of this conflict and fight it out." (Marx, 1995: 23).

As the quote demonstrates, Marx and Engels' revolutionary theories are heavily influenced by economic and social determinism. The role of voluntarism remains within the determining framework of material conditions. Let us now shift our attention to social transformations to better discuss the topic at hand. Marx stresses that class relations underpin social differentiation and unequal relations and analyzes the historical process of the society. He mentions ancient, pro-slavery, feudal, capitalist, and socialist formations in his analysis. Class contradictions are inherent in each of these social formations, and contradictions will come to an end when a society with new classes emerges (Öngen, 1992: 51). This process harbors dialectic interactions between the productive forces and relations of production. In other words, this interaction leads to development on both sides. The interaction and development eventually comes to such a point that the relations of production pose an obstacle to productive forces, and this sparks what we call "social transformation". Relations of production are then reorganized in conjunction with the level of productive forces (Öngen, 1999: 52). And, a new system of production is born. The explanations given so far are tremendously straightforward; what matters, however, comes next. How can we establish the extent or percentage of determinism and voluntarism in the historical progress? We can only understand the answer to this question by looking at the explanations Marx offers on the revolutions in his time. In the revolutionary theory, Marx discusses the link and contradiction between the revolutionary initiative and economic and social determinism as follows:

"Men make their own history, but they do not make it as they please; they do not make it under self-selected circumstances, but under circumstances existing already, given and transmitted from the past" (Marx, 1995: 21).

The revolution must be based on a material ground for the revolutionary initiative to achieve success. In other words, it is necessary for the substructure to reach a certain level so that the revolutionary efforts pay off. Marx’s analyses offer three different revolutionary theories, of which we will only focus on the concept of political and social revolution because Marx asserted after the economic crisis of 1847 that social crises give rise to revolutions. After the crisis, the theory of permanent revolution was posited, and it was claimed that capitalism had finally come to an end. However, this
inference proved to be flawed, and many people including Marx emphasized the fallacy of the permanent revolution theory.

Political revolution is an essential stage of social revolution, so it is the end product of a revolutionary move. Suitable historical, economic, and social conditions are of central importance for a political revolution to ensure social transformation. In addition, masses of people must have a significant level of consciousness and be sufficiently organized. In social revolution, the determining role is not played only by the revolutionary initiative. History is not written by heroes, but history makes heroes. History is replete with examples of failed revolutionary initiatives as part of which the government was taken over but the lack of objective conditions still caused the defeat despite courageous efforts. There are a vast number of unsuccessful cases of the revolutionary initiative ranging from Müntzer's movement to the Paris Commune, for which the main reason of failure was incompatibility with the material conditions of the time. When analyzing Müntzer's movement, Engels masterfully expounds the dialectical unity between the revolutionary initiative and historical and social determinism:

"The worst thing that can befall a leader of an extreme party is to be compelled to take over a government in an epoch when the movement is not yet ripe for the domination of the class which he represents and for the realisation of the measures which that domination would imply. What he can do depends not upon his will but upon the sharpness of the clash of interests between the various classes, and upon the degree of development of the material means of existence, the relations of production and means of communication upon which the clash of interests of the classes is based every time” (Engels, 1994: 124).

The matter here is crystal clear. As indicated earlier, the revolution needs a material basis for the revolutionary initiative to be successful. Put another way, the substructure must have a certain level of development so the revolutionary efforts pay off. For this reason, it is obvious that voluntarism and economic determinism do not stand in contrast to one another and should be approached as a whole.

**Social Stratification: Weber, Durkheim, and Parson**

Social stratification is a state of inequality. The upper echelons enjoy more rights and privileges compared to others. This is the chief issue that makes social stratification and class a part of sociology: How and why do people make up different social strata? What are the statuses of these strata compared to each other? Are they based on a legitimate ground? Questions of this kind are about moral and political inquiry. Marxism offered a novel interpretation of the rise of social classes and the inequality among them.

As widely known, Marx thinks that the history of humankind is a history of class struggle. Every society is organized in the form of social classes that arise out of productive forces and relations of production. In fact, the idea of class history and class society was also a familiar concept even before Marx. He claims that class history emerged at a certain stage and that class struggle does not only concern the aristocracy, bourgeoisie, or proletariat; class struggle exists in all segments of the society, and it is the propeller of what is called social transformation. The proletariat was supposed to topple capitalism, take the reins, and ultimately do away with all other classes and groups. The new society dominated by the working class would be reshaped based on the principle of a classless society (Aron, 1992: 8). According to Marx, the word class
signifies a group of people with different roles in the production mechanism. The capitalist class is the one in possession of the means of production. Workers, on the other hand, are employed by the capitalists, perform labor yet own no means of production and simply survive on daily wages.

Weber finds Marx's idea of classical determinism insufficient and suggests that there are more sources of social stratification. According to him, the term class can be used to refer to social strata determined by economic welfare; those who have similar levels of income may be placed in the same class. However, it is not imperative that they have class consciousness and view their own interests as different from those of the other classes. There may be a conflict of interest between two social classes. One group may even be oppressed and taken advantage of by another, yet this does not necessarily mean that the oppressed one is putting up a class struggle.

Weber prefers to focus largely on the status (position) of classes in social stratification. For people, social status matters more than their economic well-being as a person's status shows how he or she is in the eyes of others (Raymond, 1992: 9). Someone without wealth can be tremendously respected by people around them. On the contrary, someone affluent may not be valued by anyone. All in all, people with the same level of reputation can see each other as equals. People's economic status (class) is crucial because it is one of the chief factors, albeit not the only one, determining their position in the society. Weber believes that social status is more important in giving consciousness to people than economic classes as wealth may come and go yet reputation and status are the results of hard work. They are obtained in family and through moral and formal education. Weber makes a distinction between the economic class and social status.

After this distinction, Weber asserts that socialist parties emerge not in places where class consciousness is ripe but where inequality of social status is blatant. For example, the USA lacks a feudal history, so there is no leftist party defending the argument of class struggle. In addition, the US population does not have salient differences of social status compared to Europe although it is the most capitalist country in the world (Aron, 1992:11).

Another approach to the importance of status differences in the society comes from the functionalists (1992: 12) who try to reveal the function of social stratification. According to Kingsley, the society will inevitably break into strata, which is central for its normal and proper functioning. The society should do everything in its power to ensure its members are proportionately allocated to different statuses and remain there. Social statuses are not the same and do not have the same amount of significance for everyone. The duties expected from status holders are also different. Hence, a number of methods can be developed to fill positions. The way differences of status is concretized differs from one society to another, and such variations are quite normal. Even the countries run by communism exhibit differences of status (Edgell, 1998: 7).

One of the most influential people who study the socio-psychological impacts of social stratification is Durkheim who suggests that the true cause of suicides is the lack of norms or the presence of anomy. In primitive and feudal societies, people were able to lead orderly and meaningful lives within the norm and value system of the society. The modern industrial society, however, no longer regarded wealth and power as means but as ends, which is why people chasing wealth and power started living outside the boundaries of the moral (norm) system of the society. The human stopped being a
meaningful part of the society and increasingly went after personal gains and interests (Aron, 1992: 14).

Durkheim opines that the society has lost the old norm and value laden system and people fail to find a satisfactory meaning in their lives. For this reason, suicide cases in the society become more and more frequent. In his opinion, societies with stricter class structures put more psychological pressure on people. The ones at the bottom are more advantageous in that they aim to reach higher echelons so they have a broader horizon ahead. Those at the top, however, have nowhere else to go to satisfy themselves.

The Concept of Class in Laclau's Thought

Laclau accepts that the small new bourgeoisie is a part of the working class. Nonetheless, in terms of relations of production, their objective class conditions are of secondary importance in determining the class status (Wood, 2011: 79). Laclau holds that the contradiction between the small new bourgeoisie and the dominant block is not a class contradiction. The chief contradictions between these groups surface are not on the level of relations of production but on the level of political and ideological relations. To put it more precisely, the small new bourgeoisie's identity as the public comes before its identity as a class. Laclau tries to develop a theory of ideology that has more autonomy and breaks away from the class qualities that make up ideology (Wood, 1998: 80). His theoretical point appears in the distinction between the ideological interpellations, where the public and the dominant block square off as part of the populist democratic struggle, and other ideological interpellations established by the struggle and class contradictions (1998: 81). This means we can talk about two sets of contradictions, which are the ideological interpellations determined by the labor-capital contradiction and class struggle and other ideological interpellations caused by the people/government block contradiction. Cross-class ideologies embodied in the contradiction between the people/government block spring up as they get attached to class ideologies, and, as they are not specific to classes and are autonomous and neutral as a principle, they can be detached from the class ideology to be combined with others. The most striking point of Laclau's theoretical analysis is that these separable populist democratic interpellations which are autonomous and neutral constitute the primary field of ideological class struggle. Thus, although the area of class identification shrinks, the area of class struggles expands significantly.

Laclau signals that subjects may exist unlike Althusser's structuralist interpretation of subjects. Basing the center of class struggles on the integration and disintegration of autonomous ideological interpellations, Laclau reduces the success of class struggles to each class' intellectuals' ability to skilfully combine cross-class ideological elements. Whoever manages to use such elements in their favor and gain popular support by firing up the passion in people can establish hegemony. In other words, if the bourgeoisie excels at this, then they will be the rulers. If the proletariat, however, succeeds in masterfully using those elements, then they will prevail. If the success of bourgeois hegemony depends on taking advantage of populist democratic interpellations, the socialist strategy needs to come up with a counter-hegemony plan and explicitly express the class characteristics of its own ideological elements to make it distinct from bourgeois hegemony (Wood, 2011: 82).

Laclau argues that the ideology which has attained a universal quality should be interpreted as something that has no class-based meaning and holds that hegemony by a
class is in fact predicated on the employment of class-neutral interpellations (Wood, 1998: 83). For instance, the democratic discourses of bourgeois revolutions are adopted by non-government classes and become somewhat universal. The reason for this is not the successful imposition of the class-based bourgeois ideology on other class but the public adoption of democratic interpellations - which have no class basis - in a way that forms the basis for the ruling classes' hegemony (1998:83).

There is no class struggle in Laclau's process of hegemony imposition. The difference between the bourgeois democracy and socialist democracy is effaced; as ideologies are considered outside of class distinctions, the working class is replaced completely with "people" while socialism is supplanted by "radical democracy". As part of this strategic approach, the ideology is saved from social determination, and a people is formed by the discourse (Wood, 2011: 84). Laclau aims to establish a political project as an alliance of people based on the principle of discourse rather than radical democracy as the object and class or social relations as the subject.

The popular-democratic struggle is subject to the class struggle, and democratic ideology only exists as an abstract element attached to a class ideology. At this point, Laclau makes an important distinction that deserves attention: (1) When autogenous mass ideologies are combined, they always culminate in a class-based ideology. (2) However, democratic ideological elements can eventually lead to communism just as the public/government block contradiction results in the total destruction of the state if it develops enough (Laclau, 2011: 185). If an ideological discourse contains a special array of democratic interpellations, then it transforms into a populist discourse. Laclau argues that populism involves the presentation of democratic interpellations to the dominant ideology as an artificial antagonistic complex. The dominant classes' ideologies not only interpellate the dominant subjects but also the oppressed classes, and, in the end, this neutralizes these classes' potential antagonisms. The chief method of this neutralization depends on the reduction of all antagonisms to simple differences of opinion (Wood, 2011: 187).

Populism emerges at the point when popular-democratic elements are present as an antagonistic alternative to the dominant block ideology. It should be noted that this does not mean populism always have a revolutionary aspect. In order for populist experimentation to be possible, it is enough for a class or class faction to feel the need for a transformation in the "ruling block" with a view to establishing its own hegemony (Wood, 2011: 188). At this point, Laclau distinguishes between the ruling class populism and the oppressed class populism. (a) The ruling block is going through a deep crisis because a new faction is trying to impose its own hegemony but is unable to do so within the existing structure of the ruling block. A solution for the faction is to turn to masses for the purpose of firing up their antagonism toward the state (2011: 188). (b) For the oppressed classes, the ideological struggle involves the development of tacit antagonisms in popular democratic interpellations and the combination of these antagonisms with their own class discourses. The struggle of the working class against hegemony is an effort to harmonize the popular democratic ideology and the socialist ideology as best as possible (2011: 189).

**Democracy**

Laclau argues that Marx believed a revolutionary process would be sparked by causing social disintegration in the form of differences of opinion between socialism
and capitalism in modern capitalist societies. As the modern capitalist society developed political antagonisms began to be replaced by compromise. Unlike Marx's predictions, Laclau asserts that the antagonisms bred by the modern capitalist social structure are final and decisive (Wood, 1998:97). According to Laclau, Marx put forth the concept of class struggle that would bring class against each other to defy the plurality and complexity of industrial societies (1998: 97). However, there is no link between social disintegration and political disintegration. Therefore, defining class struggles as the main factor for political disintegration is a grave mistake. According to him, first of all, the idea that there are certain social antagonisms that play a key role in political disintegration must be discarded, and instead, the "plurality and indeterminacy of the society" must be accepted.

He believes making political struggles out of pockets of resistance against imposition of dependence is a topic that is about discursive construction. For this reason, it is essential to focus on "discursive conditions necessary for fighting inequalities and for joint action against relations of dependence" (1998: 98). The new aspect of the democratic revolution is that it paves the way for the "democratic culture" to prosper. The democratic culture has developed as a means that provides "discursive conditions" which transforms "relations of dependence" into "relations of oppression" and thus "areas of antagonism". Until the modern democratic discourse emerged, these relations of dependence were not considered illegitimate and, accordingly, oppressive. These relations could be structured as a ground of struggle only within a specific discourse (1998: 99).

According to Wood, modern ideas of equality are even worse than the Greek understanding of democracy which isolated the women and slaves from democracy. At the same time, not all of the changes in the meaning of democracy have helped make inequality illegitimate. In fact, one of the most important aspects of the "democratic revolution" is the detachment of democracy from its meaning as the "rule by demos". As a consequence, democracy's negative connotations for the ruling classes have been eliminated (Wood, 1998: 100). It should be emphasized that democracy in its original sense has always carried class-based connotations and stood for the people's rule or rule by plebs (1998: 101).

Wood suggests that the new meaning of democracy has effaced the class-based connotations that denote rule by the "poor". This new meaning, which defines democracy in formal terms that are not related to the essence of class power (rule by a class), definitely disguises the connotations of "oppression" the old meaning has. The liberal democratic discourse also functions as a means to make ambiguous and legitimize relations of hegemony and exploitation and to redefine these relations as between free and equal individuals. Wood opines that the liberal democratic discourse serves the class interests of the capital because it denies the relations of dependence that are the basis of the capitalist power and narrows the field of action for popular power (1998: 102).

The formal distinction between the economic and political power determined by capitalist relations of production made it possible for democracy to be defined in purely formal terms and to detach democracy from people's rule, turning it into an ideal acceptable by the ruling classes. As the confiscation power of the capital is not predicated on the direct possession of "non-economic" powers, there is a structurally independent political area where "rule by the demos" - rule by the representatives
elected by the demos, to be more precise - exists without having a direct impact on the relations of exploitation between the capital and labor. For the same reason, capitalism made it possible for the old meaning of democracy to transform. This time, however, the transformation is in favor of labor since the term "rule by the demos" prompted by freely united workers and a self-governance approach that envisions a classless form of social production have arisen out of the conditions set by capitalism (Wood, 1998: 103).

As Laclau claims, class struggles of capitalism are not simple reflections of the "discursive establishment" of the liberal democratic discourse and oppressive and illegitimate class relations.

**Conclusion**

The slavery and exploitation of masses of laborers provide the basis on which the modern society rises and without which it fails to survive. This gave rise to a class struggle, which is sometimes characterized by sheer violence and other times resembles an arduous and subtle process that reflects workers' needs and rights. The entire history of humanity represents a continuous chain of struggles put up by laborers to obtain their rights, freedom, and better living conditions. Discussions on the concept of class still continue today. Some thinkers argue that class is the most important factor in understanding social relations, whereas others suggest it is no longer of a determining quality. In the context of sociology, the concept of class is arguably the centerpiece of the social structure. For Marx, classes are the building blocks of the social structure. Weber, on the other hand, considers classes to be just one aspect of social alienation. One of the most influential people who studied the socio-psychological effects of social stratification is Durkheim who suggests that the actual cause of suicides is the lack of norms or the presence of anomie. Laclau radically detaches himself from Marx's theories about the concept of class. According to Laclau, no link exists between social disintegration and political disintegration. Therefore, defining class struggles as the main factor for political disintegration is a grave mistake.

Even though religious, linguistic, race, and ethnic conflicts are said to overshadow class struggles in today's world, classes are not only the most crucial empirical units of the social structure but are also the subjects of historical movement, which is why any theory disregarding classes is doomed to be inadequate. A good example to this is Saint Simon. Among the functionalists, the most prominent ones are Kinsley, Devis, and Talcott Parsons.

**REFERENCES**

Chapter 4

The Relationship between General Elections and Law of Paid Military Service in Turkey: Post-1987 Period

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INTRODUCTION

Political economics refers to the literature that is founded on common areas in political science and economics, covering a wide scope of research. The elected government, which is the authority that represents the state, utilizes this power during the period of elections. Thus, political economics analyzes the use of power in the political arena from the economic perspective. These analyses include political business cycle theories. These theories scrutinize the influences exerted by politicians on their electorate during elections through economic policies based opportunistic and ideological objectives. In the political arena, voters examine the parties, especially with respect to the economic and social developments. The success or failures of the policies are monitored by the function of reactions. Thus, implementation of popular policies affects the re-election of the government. The political business cycle theories indicate that the political parties would extensively influence the voters through economic policies. However, during the election period, politicians could attract the voters using factors that are not direct economic policy instruments (i.e., employment of civil servants, utility policies). When all the facts mentioned above are considered, voters' assessments about a political party would vary based on the level of economic indicators, non-economic performances and external shocks.

On the other hand, the use of paid military service during the election period can represent the non-economic performance of the government. The method of paid military service is the fulfillment of conscription duty in exchange for a monetary payment during the periods of peace and in cases where the numbers of conscripted soldiers exceed the requirements. Particularly before the elections, the implementation of paid conscription by the government would improve the popularity of the government, while at the same time increasing state revenues. Furthermore, when the government reduces the required monetary payment and covering a younger population through the amendment of legislations, this is a sign that the government aims to increase its popularity. Implementation of paid military service policies after the elections would cause the electorate to forget about it until the next elections due to their myopic character. In other words, the only goal of introducing paid military service after the elections is to increase the financing revenues of the state.

The present study aimed to investigate whether the paid military services policies implemented in Turkey since 1987 were related to the general elections. Since the country witnessed both single party and coalition governments in this period, utilization of paid conscription by both types of government was investigated. The study included five sections. The second section examined the relationship between politics and economics based on political business cycle theories. The third section attempted to
scrutinize the development of paid military service practices in Turkey. The fourth section addressed the relationship between the general elections conducted in Turkey since 1987 and paid conscription laws. In the final section, the conclusions and further assessments are presented.

1. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POLITICS and ECONOMICS

Political economics is a field of study that dates back quite a time and emerged as a result of the convergence of politics and economics. Although political economics is the common denominator of the two above-mentioned disciplines, it actually refers to two different fields. Thus, political science analyzes the change of power between the state and the government to govern a group and its consequences. The state is the real owner of the power strengthened by legislation. However, this power is transferred to the elected government in politics. Therefore, the elected government is directly responsible for the consequences of the implemented policies (Caporaso & Levine, 1992: 5-6). In economics, which is the other branch of political economics, the relations between consumption, production and distribution of limited resources are explored. In addition to the benefit-cost analyses of the decisions made in the political arena, these decisions may also be analyzed with normative and positive studies using the instruments of economics (Drazen, 2000: 20-21). The making of political decisions can be likened to the supply-demand structure in the neoclassical model in economics. However, the liberal market system and the market of politics include different elements. Thus, the decisions made within the economic market system concern the individual. However, in the market of politics where political decisions are made include the aggregate voter preferences. These aggregate preferences are also related to the social well-being. Buchanan stated that political exchange and market exchange were different concepts. In the market exchange, individuals exchange goods and services and prices based on individual decisions. In political exchange, voters act based on collective decisions that provide the maximum benefit and changes in the costs that are tolerated to reach these decisions (Buchanan, 1987: 308).

It is emphasized that the classical liberal market mechanism should be based on non-intervention and limited public sphere policies. Therefore, the market is designed to possess the most efficient mechanism of distribution. However, although the classical approach does not adopt market intervention, neoclassical approach requires state intervention in certain issues (i.e., property rights, transaction costs) that the market mechanism cannot resolve. It is argued that in a way, the state should use its core power to perform regulatory duties, rather than intervention (Przeworski, 2014: 34). In this respect, it is inevitable that the state is an economic actor since it corrects the mistakes in the market and plays the role of “benevolent dictator” (Akçoraoğlu & Yurdakul, 2004: 3; Eryılmaz, 2015: 368). The fact that the state plays a role in the economy demonstrates that it would have an impact on the political market as well. Similar to the economic market approach, the politics also has a supply and demand structure. The electorate constitutes the demand side of the market by observing the economic output of the government, political actions of the government constitute the supply side of the market (Telatar, 2000: 136). In the above-mentioned market, since the supply and demand should be interrelated, the political parties are required to influence the voters through political actions due to their desire to win the elections. Previous studies reported that reporting good economic news by the government party before the
elections is the main factor in their re-election (Price, 1997: 409). Thus, if the interests of the party are not consistent with the interests of the society, the government would act based on their own interests. This would affect the efficiency of the economy due to political actions (Rousseau, 2008: 43-60).

Table 1: Politics-Economics Interaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relevant parties</th>
<th>Supply side of policies</th>
<th>Demand side of policies</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Political parties</td>
<td>Electorate</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>Political Business Cycles Theory</td>
<td>Functions of the ballot</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reaction Functions</td>
<td>Popularity functions</td>
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</table>

Source: Sezgin, 2005: 10. The table was improved by the author.

Table 1 demonstrates the interactions between the actors of the supply and demand sides in politics and economics. Based on the table, the demand side of politics includes the ballot and popularity functions. The ballot function demonstrates the relationship between the votes cast in the elections and the economic performance. The popularity function aims to receive the views of the electorate on party groups through the questionnaires before the elections. The time lag between the ballot function and the popularity function reflects the relationships between the predicted and realized knowledge levels. Relationships between the functions are the basis of economic voting theory (Sezgin, 2007: 23). On the supply side of the policies, there are the reaction functions that concern the political parties. These function structures are examined to determine whether the policies implemented by the parties in order to win the electorate were close to the target. Based on this relationship, Mosley's (1976) “estimation model” could help explain how the political and economic processes affect each other. The model explains the cycle of using macroeconomic factors by the political parties for self-interest in order to be re-elected. Accordingly, the parties assess the economic or non-economic factors that voters take into consideration. Policy implementations differ based on the accuracy of the targets. Later, the feedback provided about the implemented policies and targets are reassessed (Mosley, 1976). The mentioned model also provides a basis for political business cycles in terms of political and economic relations. However, the use of political instruments by the parties in their own interests in this cycle is not consistent with the exogenous state approach in the neoclassical economics. On the contrary, the implementation of policies for the purpose of re-election indicates that the state is in an endogenous actor. Due to the impact of the endogenous status of the state, the use of political instruments favoring the parties during the election period leads to the criticism of the benefactor dictator status of the government (Erdoğan, 2004).

In the political system, voters analyze the parties based on the changes in the economy. Assessment of the parties by the voters are very versatile but form the basis of evaluating changes in the economy that are closely related to the personal wealth (Duch & Stevenson, 2005: 387). The government mobilizes monetary and fiscal policy instruments due to its opportunistic and ideological objectives to influence the electorate. Thus, changes in public expenditures and tax policies are within the government’s authority and can be controlled directly; however changing monetary
policy instruments are more difficult due to the monetary policy authorities. The use of policy instruments leads to fluctuations in macroeconomic indicators. Apart from the economic policy instruments, the ruling party can make changes in utilities and public employment policies to maximize their vote in the elections (Eğilmez & Kumcu, 2004: 43; Eryılmaz, 2016: 135). Therefore, it can be argued that voter preferences are affected by the level of economic variables, non-economic performances and external shocks.

Theoretical analysis of the relationship between politics and economics is possible through political business cycle theories. These theories, one of the main areas of study in the new school of political economics, explain the reasons for the fluctuations in the economy with the impact of the elections as an alternative to the dominant economic approach (Erdoğan, 2004: 1). Furthermore, there are several further analyses on the economic stability in addition to the impact of the policies implemented by politicians on macroeconomic factors (Snowdon & Vane, 1999: 19). While in classical macroeconomic studies, political factors are considered exogenous, the factors mentioned in political business cycle theories are examined endogenously. Ideological-opportunistic behavior of political party groups, opinion structure of the electorate, internal and external nature of the shocks, the management of the economy and the capabilities of political parties demonstrate the endogenous nature of political factors (Nordhaus, 1989: 2). In the political business cycle theories, the active nature of the state in economic administration reflects the frequency of political business cycles. Thus, ruling politicians provide artificial improvements by stimulating the total demand using economic policies to influence the electorate base in the pre-election period (Andrikopoulos et al., 2004: 126). The above-mentioned improvements indicate that the politicians in the party administration and the voters continuously work with the action/reaction rationale. Thus, several areas of study in political business cycle theory are established. In these areas, answers to questions such as voters’ consideration of economic factors, the use of policy instruments in the presence of opportunistic or partisan goals, the primary preferences of political parties in the presence of heterogeneous goals, and the presence of political business cycles under rational expectations are sought (Snowdon & Vane, 2012: 465). Political business cycle theories vary based on the structure of the expectations and the trends in implemented policies. Thus, political business cycle theories are classified as adaptive and rational theories based on the expectation of voters and politicians. Opportunistic and partisan goals reflect the tendencies in the theories.

The studies by Nordhaus (1975) and MacRae (1977) constitute the formal body of the traditional opportunistic theory (Paldam, 1979: 323). These studies are considered separate from the business cycles that occur due to Marxist class conflict approach, because they were based on cycles in democratic systems. The traditional opportunistic model is based on factors such as the homogenous ideologies of the politicians and voters, short-term assessments of the voters, the validity of the Phillips expectations curve, and exogeneity of the time of elections (Nordhaus, 1975: 169-189). It is therefore possible for the political parties to use the economic policy instruments to be re-elected at their convenience. Under these assumptions, politicians make policies that are adopted by the electorate base with the short-term Phillips curve (Alesina & Cukierman, 1990: 829). Thus, the politicians attempt to influence inflation and unemployment levels, which are clearly monitored by voters. During the pre-election period, unemployment is reduced using expansionary policies. The inflation rate, which is the
negative outcome of expansionary policies, increases with a lag due to the impact of expectations. In order to stabilize macroeconomic indicators, politicians implement contractionary policies during the post-election period. As a result, with opportunistic goals, inflation and unemployment affects the economy by creating fluctuations on every election period.

In the traditional partisan model, which is based on work of Hibbs (1977), voter and political party groups have ideological differences. Ideological differences lead to different goals and functions among political parties. The election of political parties depends on the impact of party politics on the ideology of the electorate. Hence, the fact that the political party ideologies are implemented through the voters is the difference between the theory and the traditional opportunist model. The basic assumptions of the traditional partisan model include the heterogeneous ideologies of the voters and politicians, the presence of Phillips expectations curve, the presence of voters’ short-term expectations, and the exogenous nature of the time of elections (Hibbs, 1977: 1467-1487). Furthermore, in his study on traditional partisan model, Hibbs stratified the voters with heterogeneous ideologies adapting the voters to political party ideologies. This demonstrates that the political parties set their targets based on voter expectations. In economy, the left political parties emphasize full employment and reduction of unemployment. Right and central political parties attempt to reduce inflation with price stability. Thus, the use of economic policy instruments by political parties places these parties in different regions on the Phillips curve. Since the left wing political parties aim to lower unemployment, they are located on the upper section of the Phillips curve and since the right wing political parties aim to lower inflation, they are located at the bottom section of the curve (Hibbs, 1994: 2). Therefore, as each political party maximizes its benefits as long as its ideology is implemented, this would lead to fluctuations in macroeconomic factors (Eryılmaz, 2017: 79).

Modern models are based on rational expectations and game theories. The first modern model that emerged on these foundations was the modern opportunistic political business cycle theories developed by Cukierman-Meltzer (1986), Rogoff-Sibert (1988), Rogoff (1990) and Persson-Tabellini (1990). According to this theory, voters have rational expectations. Politicians, who desire to be re-elected, cannot mislead the electorate who do not make systematic mistakes. Thus, it may be considered that there would be no political cycles, however the presence of political business cycles are justified due to the asymmetric information between the politicians and voters, polarization of voter preferences and rational negligence theories (Balerias & Santos, 2000: 121-147). The model assumptions include the presence of the Phillips curve based on the rational expectations theory, the rational expectations of voters, assessment of the political parties based on their economic capacity, and the exogenous nature of election times (Alesina et al., 1993: 5-6). According to these assumptions, voters with rational expectations vote based on policies that lead to economic instability and the future. However, although systematic mistakes are not made due to rational expectations, there is asymmetric information about the capabilities of politicians between the voters and politicians. In other words, politicians have more knowledge about their abilities when compared to voters. Furthermore, according to the concept of rational negligence, it is difficult for a voter to influence the outcome of the elections. The voters, who are aware of this fact, do not look for information about the political parties during the elections. The asymmetric information between politicians and voters
is further enhanced by the fact that voters only follow up easily observed changes (Heidhues & Lagerlöf, 2003: 48). Thus, politicians attempt to demonstrate all their abilities with opportunistic goals as the elections approach. In this case, economic indicator fluctuations would occur in the short term since it is not possible to mislead the decision-making units in the long term (Alesina, 1988: 35-36).

Modern partisan political business cycle theories based on Alesina’s (1987 and 1988) work is the other modern model. This model resembles the traditional partisan political business cycle model due to its inclusion of ideological differences. However, in the modern version of theory, factors such as the presence of the rational expectations theory, the uncertainty of the winner in the elections and the rigidity of nominal wages are included (Snowdon & Vane, 2012: 477). Based on the assumption that voters-political parties have heterogeneous ideologies, it is not certain which right and left wing political parties would be elected in the elections. As a result, there is a difference between the expected and realized inflation rates. If it is expected that the right wing political party will be elected in the elections, contracts are signed based on the policies of this political party (Eryılmaz & Eryılmaz, 2016: 355; Eryılmaz & Eryılmaz, 2015: 53). However, the unexpected election of the left-wing party, which aims to reduce unemployment, would lead to expansionary policies. As a result, inflation would be higher than expected. Therefore, the difference between the two inflation rates would lead to economic fluctuations. Furthermore, the level of economic fluctuations would depend on the difference between expected and actual inflation rates based on the rigidity of the contracts (Alesina & Rosenthal, 1989: 375). Economic fluctuations would last until the two inflation rates are equal. As a result, although ideological differences and electoral uncertainties are the cause of economic fluctuations in the short run, fluctuations in the long run would not occur due to the impact of rational expectations (Alesina, 1987: 658-659).

1. THE PAST AND PRESENT PAID MILITARY SERVICE IN TURKEY

The origins of military service in Turkey dates back to 1826 when the Ottoman regular army was established by Mahmud the 2nd. The recruiting offices were established in 1886 to ensure orderly conscription. The present conscription law on the law no. 1111 was accepted on June 21, 1927 (Türk et al., 2015: 3). Within the framework of the above-mentioned law, Turkish military services are based on conscription, paid military service and professional military service. Conscription is a method based on the nationalist approach that every able Turkish citizen should serve in the military. The paid military service allows the fulfillment of military service under certain conditions for a fee and is based on the capitalist ideology, since it entails a monetary cost. Finally, the system includes a professional military service based on the occupational ideology (Tüzün et al., 2015: 154).

Paid military service is a system introduced in Turkey as an alternative to conscription and entails a payment in exchange for the military service. Financially capable citizens complete their military obligations in exchange for a payment, providing economic returns for the state (Tüzün et al., 2015: 166). The foundations of the paid military service can be traced to the pre-republican era. Innovations were introduced concerning the military service with the declaration of Tanzimat reforms in the Ottoman Empire was. In the framework of these innovations, the duration of active duty was determined as 5 years and the reserve period was determined as 7 years. Since
the soldiers in the army would change every year in the system, a census was conducted, and the conscriptions were determined with a drawing for each year. A new legislation was passed the title of "personal cost" in order to eliminate the negative effects of the drawing method. In the drawing method, military service was compulsory for the citizen whose name came out in the drawing. However, to prevent the negative economic impact due to the separation of individuals, who engage in important trade, from their business for 5 years due to the military service, these individuals were allowed to pay a fee in exchange for their military duties. The method of payment was not monetary, but these individuals had to find someone to fulfill their military duties. However, these individuals had to pay the person who would fulfill their military duties on a voluntary basis. Due to the difficulties experienced in the implementation, the “cost in cash” system was also introduced parallel to the “personal cost” system. In this system, those who cannot find another individual to fulfill their military duty could pay 15,000 kurus in exchange for their military duty (Kaledere, 2013: 43-44; Akyürek, 2010: 30).

In the Republican era, the conscription method was defined in Article 10 of the Military Service Code No. 1111 and in the Cabinet decision No. 87/1193. The general rationale of these codes reflects that the paid military service could be implemented only in times of peace and when available conscriptions exceed the needs of the army. Furthermore, the military service code no. 1111, still in force, includes the fulfillment of military service as an employee in public institutions and establishments as an alternative to a monetary payment (Akyürek, 2010: 30). Paid military service application was regulated with the code no. 3358. However, transitional provisions were legislated for the above-mentioned code to take effect. Due these transitional provisions, each conscription period is regulated within the framework of different procedures and conditions. Thus, the General Staff determines the presence of surplus conscriptions (Tüzün et al., 2015: 163). Between 1987 and today, the paid military service was implemented 5 times in Turkey on 1987, 1992, 1999, 2011, and 2014. Each paid military service practice was implemented with transitional provisions based on the then current conditions. In 1987, 18.433, 35.111 in 1992, 72.290 in 1999, 70.431 in 2011 and 200.338 individuals benefited from the paid military service in 2014 (Türk et al., 2015: 8).

The paid military service code no. 3358, which was issued in 1987, entered into force on April 28, 1987. Based on this code, it was possible for the draft evaders or deserters to be exempted from military service by appointment in public institutions or by paying a monetary value after basic military training. There was no age limit in the above-mentioned code; however it was valid only for 2 years. The price was determined as half of the military service fee paid in foreign currencies. However, in order to be exempted from the basic military training, the incumbents aged 40 and over were required to pay double the set amount (Akyürek, 2010: 30).

The paid military service code that was legislated in 1992, entered into force on June 1, 1992, with the Provisional Article 33 in Law No. 3802. It covered the incumbents who were escapees, draft evaders, deserters or deferred and 28 years old or older on the date the code went into force. Accordingly, the incumbents could fulfill the military service within a year by paying the determined amount. The incumbents listed in this article and those who were over 40 on December 31, 1992 could pay DM 15,000 or equivalent in one installment to fulfill their military duties.
The 1999 paid military service law entered into force on November 14, 1999, according to the Provisional Article 37 in Law No. 4459. The related law covered the incumbents who were born before 1.1.1973 and still not conscripted based on the military service law no. 1111. Those born before 1.1.1973 were considered to have fulfilled their military duties on condition that they pay DM 15,000 and those who were born before 1960 had to pay DM 20,000. Those who desired to benefit from the paid military service code were obliged to receive basic military training within the period determined by the Chief of General Staff. The 1999 paid military service code was issued on 17 August 1999 to finance the Marmara earthquake. Thus the 1999 paid military service law was unique. In this period, approximately 600 million dollars of revenues were accrued with the military service fees (Aktürk & Albeni, 2002: 11). Furthermore, it was decided that the revenues would be used to build temporary and permanent housing for people whose homes were demolished by the earthquake, construction of public service buildings and infrastructure investments in the areas affected by the earthquake.

The 2011 paid military service law entered into force on December 15, 2011 according to the Provisional Article 46 in Law No. 6252. The Act covered individuals who were 30 years of age or older as of December 31, 2011 and still unlisted and subject to Military Service Law Nos. 1076 and 1111. The incumbents had to apply within 6 months of the date when the law entered into force in order to benefit from the paid military service legislation. They were deemed to have fulfilled their military duties without receiving the basic military training provided that they paid TL 30,000. It was stated that these fees, which were accrued in a special account would be spent for relatives of the martyrs, veterans, disabled individuals, individuals in need, those who were disabled in active duty in Turkish Armed Forces and in Security Forces in accordance with the principles determined by the Cabinet.

The 2014 paid military service law entered into force on December 13, 2014, according to the provisional Article 52 in Law No. 6582. The related law covered individuals who were still not in active duty and born before January 1, 1988 based on their obligations under the Military Service Laws 1076 and 1111. The law was valid for a two-month period from the date of its entry into force. The incumbents would fulfill their military service upon their request after the payment of TL 18,000 or equivalent in a convertible foreign currency in a single installment and without completing basic military training. The due amount was paid to the account of Defense Industry Support Fund to be opened in Ziraat Bank, Halk Bank and Vakıflar Bank.

2. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENERAL ELECTIONS and PAID MILITARY SERVICE

The relationship between the general elections and paid military service laws can be analyzed with political business cycle theories. Because, although stimulation of the economy with economic policies include opportunistic goals, the sustenance of the government depends on its popularity. A popular government does not or seldom manipulate policies during elections, while an unpopular government could use mixed policies to improve its popularity (Frey & Schneider, 1978: 250). Thus, the prominent political business cycle theories indicate that political parties resort to fiscal and
monetary policy instruments during the elections\(^1\) (Nordhaus, 1975; Hibbs, 1977; Alesina, 1987; Rogoff, 1990; Rogoff & Sibert, 1988). Apart from the use of these policies, the foreign exchange rate could also be used for opportunistic purposes during the election period (Tayyar, 2017a; Tayyar, 2017b; Tayyar, 2017c). Therefore, the skills related to the administration of the economy are the most significant skills for the ruling party. However, political parties can manipulate the electorate with other factors other than economic policy instruments during the elections. For example, in countries with an unemployment problem, the government could gain votes by recruiting civil servants (Schuknecht, 1996: 159-160; Eryılmaz et al., 2015: 239).

On the other hand, the paid military service could be an instrument used by the government to manipulate the voters during the election period. The enactment and enforcement of paid military service laws before the elections demonstrate the opportunistic goals of the government. Although there are political costs of implementing monetary and fiscal policies by the government during the elections, the political costs related to the paid military service laws are too small to be considered. This is due to the fact that the government wins the electorate and increases its popularity with paid military service, while increasing financing revenues of the public sector. For example, the above-mentioned financial revenues could be used to finance military spending (Akça, 2010: 16; Eryılmaz, 2015:7). Therefore, the paid conscription represents a win-win situation for the government. In addition to the benefits of paid military service for the state, the deprivation of the government of a large military force represents the costs of the practice. Due to the fact that paid military service is only implemented during the times of peace and in the presence of surplus conscription according to the Military Code No. 1111 in Turkey, the related costs of the method appear to be quite low (Akyürek, 2010: 30; Eryılmaz, 2018: 3002). Furthermore, the fact that the amounts accrued with the practice are used under the authority of the Cabinet demonstrates the dominance of political incentives. An analysis of the paid military service laws in Turkey would demonstrate that the areas where the revenues could be used are clearly specified. However, it could be argued that the revenues could be used to balance the budget deficit created by the elections due to the lack of transparency and the effects of asymmetric information. Furthermore, if the implementation of paid military service application is delayed until after the elections, the gains of the government during the elections would decrease. Since the electorate is nearsighted, the post-election implementation of the paid military service application will be forgotten until the next elections. Therefore, the aim of the post-election implementation of the paid military service application is solely to increase the financial revenues of the state. In short, it is more accurate to implement the paid military service application before the elections for the re-election of the government.

The basic hypothesis of the study is the expectation that the paid conscription applications would be introduced before the elections based on the political business cycle theories and the information mentioned above. Accordingly, it is possible for the

\(^1\)Political business cycle theories are based on intensive use of fiscal policy instruments during the election periods. However, there are studies that determined the use of monetary policies and foreign exchange rate administration by the government in addition to fiscal policies during elections with opportunistic purposes. For further reading, see Tayyar (2017a, 2017b, 2017c), Grier (1987), Beck (1987) and Asutay (2005).
ruling party to increase its popularity through paid conscription applications consistent with its re-election goal. Therefore, the relationship between the five general elections held between 1987 and 2018 (1987, 1991, 1999, 2011, 2015 general elections) and enacted paid military service laws was investigated in the present study. The present study was based on the general elections due to the fact that general elections provide better results when compared to other elections such as local and presidential elections in studies on political business cycle theories. Furthermore, the general elections held before 1987 included non-democratic practices such as military coups, thus the present study included the general elections held after that date (Bakırtaş & Koyuncu, 2005: 56-57; Eryılmaz, 2015: 231). In this respect, since the political business cycle theories would only be valid in a democratic environment, the 1987 general election was selected as the baseline in the present study. Furthermore, the first paid military service implementation in the Republican era that was conducted after the 1980s took place in 1987. Whether political business cycle theories were valid on the relationship between the paid military service act and general elections in Turkey can be determined by observing Table 2.

Table 2: The Relationship between the Paid Military Service and General Elections

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELECTION YEAR</th>
<th>GOVERNMENT</th>
<th>GENERAL ELECTION DATE</th>
<th>PAID MILITARY SERVICE LAW DATE OF ENACTION*</th>
<th>STATUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>SINGLE PARTY</td>
<td>November 29, 1987</td>
<td>April 28, 1987</td>
<td>Pre-Election</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>COALITION</td>
<td>October 20, 1991</td>
<td>June 1, 1992</td>
<td>Post-Election</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>COALITION</td>
<td>April 18, 1999</td>
<td>November 14, 1999</td>
<td>Post-Election</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>SINGLE PARTY</td>
<td>June 12, 2011</td>
<td>December 15, 2011</td>
<td>Post-Election</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>SINGLE PARTY</td>
<td>November 1, 2015</td>
<td>December 13, 2014</td>
<td>Pre-Election</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The table was developed by the author. (*) denotes the date the law was published on the Official Gazette.

The dates of the five general elections held between 1987 and 2018 and the paid military service acts in Turkey are presented in Table 2. Since Turkey was ruled by a coalition government between 1990 and 2000, it is necessary to examine the changes in paid military service implementations based on single-party and coalition rules. The general expectation is that the ruling party would enact a paid military service law before the election for popularity purposes. However, the table reflects mixed results. During 1991 and 1999 coalition governments, the paid military service laws were enacted after the elections. It is suggested that this was due to the conflicts of interest among the coalition partners in countries ruled by coalition governments. The presence of conflicts of interest, therefore, leads to delays in acts that improve the social wealth. The lack of consensus among coalition partners could lead to wars of attrition in the coalition, as projects could be suspended or prolonged (Alesina & Drazen, 1991: 1170-1188). Thus, the fact that paid military service laws were delayed until after the elections in coalition governments could be interpreted as the coalition had abandoned

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its goal of maximizing its popularity and aimed to increase the financial revenues of the state. Furthermore, it is important to note that the 1999 paid military service act has a special status since it was implemented to compensate for the damages that occurred during the August 17th earthquake and to improve the state financial revenues.

During the elections held in 1987, 2011 and 2015, a single-party government was in office. In Table 2, it can be observed that the paid military service acts were implemented before the general elections held in 1987 and 2015. This supports the main hypothesis on paid military service implementations conducted in general elections. Hence, it was observed that on these elections, the government utilized paid military service to be re-elected and increase its popularity. However, in 2011 elections, which were held under single-party government, the paid military service act was enacted after the elections. Thus, 2011 elections contradict the general hypothesis of the study. Furthermore, the AK Party (AKP), which was elected in 2002 elections, was the ruling party during three general elections (2007, 2011 and 2015 general elections). Before and after 2007 general elections, no paid military service acts were enacted. This could mean that the political popularity of AKP was high at the time and they felt no need to enact a paid military service act. However, the fact that paid military service was implemented after 2011 general elections and before 2015 general elections could demonstrate the increasing desire of the government for popularity. Finally, eight general elections were held between 1987 and 2018 (1987, 1991, 1995, 1999, 2002, 2007, 2011, and 2015). Among these, no paid military service acts were implemented before, during or after the elections in 1995, 2002 and 2007. It can be argued that in the elections of 1995 and 2002, the presence of a coalition government before the election led to the suspension of the paid military service tradition due to the attrition wars mentioned above. In 2007 general elections, it can be stated that the popularity of the AKP was high; therefore the government did not consider a paid military service act before or after the election.

4. CONCLUSIONS

During election periods, political parties are inclined to implement policies that are favored by the electorate to be re-elected. Especially within the context of political business cycle theories, the governments prefer economic policy instruments, which have immediate economic effects when compared to economic policy objectives before the elections. Studies in the literature determined that these instruments included financial and monetary policies. However, non-economic instruments can also be used in addition to economic instruments to increase the popularity of the government among voters. One non-economic instrument could be the implementation of paid conscription. The paid military service implementation is based on the military service act no. 1111 in Turkey and enforced through provisional articles within the law. Therefore, during election periods, the use of these provisions by the government for opportunistic purposes could be due to increase its popularity among the electorate. Thus, in addition to the politics-economics relationship, it is quite important to examine the paid military service laws within the context of law-economics relationship in election periods.

By implementing paid military service provisions during the pre-election period, the government would increase both its popularity and financial revenues. However, postponing the implementation after the elections would lead to the renunciation of popularity and limit the benefits with only an increase in the financial revenues of the
state. Consistent with the above-mentioned expectations, the relationships between the general elections held in Turkey since 1987 and five paid military service implementations (1987, 1992, 1999, 2011 and 2014) were examined in the present study. Since the period in question included both coalition and single party governments, the relationship between the two government types was also conducted. Study findings demonstrated that the paid military service implementations during the 1991 and 1999 coalition governments were delayed until the post-election period. The conflicts of interest experienced between the coalition partners led to the fact that the only benefit expected from the paid military service implementations was the financial returns. The fact that 1999 paid military service act was enacted to cover the losses of the earthquake confirms this hypothesis. The paid military service act was enacted in 1987, 2011 and 2014 during the single-party governments. The 1987 and 2014 paid military service acts enacted before the elections were consistent with the main hypothesis of the present study. However, the implementation of the paid military service in 2011 contradicted with the main study hypothesis since it was implemented after the elections. AKP, which came to power in 2002 elections, was in government during three general elections (2007, 2011, 2015 elections). No paid military service act was enacted before or after 2007 general elections under AKP rule. This demonstrated that the political popularity of AKP was high during the mentioned period and thus, it did not need the paid military service provision. However, after 2011 general elections and before 2015 general elections, the adoption of the paid military service act reflects that fact that the need for popularity was on the rise on AKP’s part.

In conclusion, paid military service implementations differ in terms of coalition and single party governments. Accordingly, the likelihood of the enactment of paid military service provisions before the elections was low during coalition governments in Turkey, while it was likely to be implemented after the elections. The only benefit of the coalition governments from the implementation of paid military service was to increase the financial revenues of the state. During the single-party governments, the likelihood of the enactment of paid military service provisions before the elections was high, however lower during the post-election periods. The single-party governments utilize paid military service provision to achieve higher popularity rather than to improve financial revenues.

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Chapter 5

Investigation of the Foreign Trade between Turkey and Russia in Terms of Income and Price Flexibility

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INTRODUCTION

The number of the studies carried out on the basis of the estimation of foreign trade demand functions is quite high among the studies on international trade. The studies show that relative prices and income changes between countries are important determinants of foreign trade volume (Balcilar et al., 2014, Düzgün and Taşçı, 2014). For this reason, it is important to understand how these mechanisms, which are important determinants of foreign trade volume, affect foreign trade between countries. Studies carried out in this context are among the priorities of economic governments in the globalizing world (Yayar et al., 2013: 479-485).

The effect of exchange rates on the economy, one of the mechanisms in question, has always been an important issue to be examined, especially in the context of emerging economies (Sek and Har, 2014). One of the most important approaches to testing this effect is the Marshall-Lerner condition. This condition first came to the fore with Marshall (1897), one of the writers who gave his name to the condition at the same time. Lerner (1944), another writer who gave his name to the condition in question, fully clarified this condition. Accordingly, it is stated that the devaluation practices positively affect the foreign trade balance by increasing the net export (Ünsal, 2013). The capability of devaluation in a country for increasing net export depends on the fact that the Marshall-Lerner condition is valid. This condition is expressed as the sum of domestic demand elasticity ($e_m$) of exported goods and foreign demand elasticity ($e_x$) of imported goods being equal to or greater than 1, assuming that supply elasticities of foreign goods are infinite (Hepaktan, 2009: 40-55).

$$e_m + e_x \geq 1.$$ 

There are two types of effects of foreign exchange on foreign trade balance, namely price and quantity. With the appreciation of the foreign exchange rate, the price effect takes place if the prices of imported goods become more expensive than the prices of the exported goods. In response to these changes in the prices that lead to the disruption of the trade balance in the short run, producers adjust their production volumes. However, cheap exported goods can cause an increase in the amount of production by creating high demand on domestic commodities. For this reason, the quantity effect can have a positive effect on foreign trade balance in the long run. The fact that appreciation of the foreign exchange rate leads to a recovery in the trade balance in the long run depends on the fulfillment of the Marshall-Lerner condition (Sek and Har, 2014: 23-28).
After implementing the free trade policy decisions stability with stability decisions on January 24, 1980, Turkey encountered severe foreign trade deficit in the 2000s. Therefore, this study is important in terms of reducing the foreign trade deficit having increased in years. Considering the ranking of the countries to which Turkey, as the importer of subsequent amount of energy, imported in the same years, it can be seen that Russia takes place near the top with oil and gas imports. Russia is one of the leading countries causing foreign trade deficit in despite of being a significant trade partner for Turkey. In this scope, the aim of this study is to investigate the effect of price and income on foreign trade with Russia and the foreign trade deficits that result from this trade (Akbulut and Yılmaz, 2013: 431-436).

According to the Figure 1, export amounts from Turkey to Russia have been lower than the import amounts for years, and have not yet reached the desired level today (Kalaycı, 2013: 37-58).

In Turkey-Russia foreign trade which experienced a shrinking due to economic recession in Russia in 1998, significant increases have occurred as of 2002. However, it is observed that foreign trade deficits also experienced significant increases in this period. The most important reason for this is the Natural Gas Agreement signed with USSR in 1984, which led to the interruption of goods export in exchange for natural gas in the following years. Due to the global financial crisis in 2009, approximately 39% decrease was seen in the foreign trade volume between two countries, while Turkey’s export and import to Russia decreased by 51% and 37%, respectively. As of 2010, there was an around 45% increase in export and 11% increase in import occurred with the increase of foreign trade volume. In 2011 and 2012, compared to increase in both export and import in the previous years, export increased by 4.2% and import shrank by 5.9% in 2013 compared to 2012. Following the fluctuations in 2014 and 2015, export amounted to USD 1.73 billion while import amounted to USD 15.16 billion in 2016. Total foreign trade volume declined by approximately 30% compared to the previous year. The most important reason behind the decline in import since 2012 is the decrease in natural gas prices by years. Turkey faced with 13,43 billion dollar trade deficit in

![Figure 1](annualturkey-russiabalance.png)

**Figure 1** Annual Turkey-Russia Foreign Trade Value (Million $)  
*Source: TÜİK, 2018*
foreign trade with Russia in 2016, and the highest foreign trade deficit occurred with 24.88 billion dollars in 2008 when the global crisis was experienced (Republic of Turkey, Ministry of Economy, 2017).

Considering the foreign trade between Turkey and Russia on the basis of goods, it can be seen that a large portion of the import to Turkey was comprised of natural gas and oil imports. Accordingly, 68% of the import made in 2013 consisted of products obtained from mineral fuels and their distillation, 11% consisted of iron and steel, 5% consisted of vegetable and animal oils and 4% consisted of cereals. In 2016, the share of mineral fuels and their distillation products in the import was 55%, of iron and steel was 14%, and of cereal products was 4%.

In Turkey's export to Russia, it is possible to see the effect of the export ban imposed for political reasons. In 2013, Turkey's export to Russia was 6.964 billion dollars, however, this figure declined to 1.734 billion dollars in 2016 with the influence of political developments. On the product basis, approximately 15% of the export made in 2013 were composed of fruits and vegetables, 14% were land vehicles and fixtures and parts. In 2016, the share of edible vegetables and fruits decreased to 5% and the share of vehicles and accessories and parts also decreased to 5% (TUİK, Data Base, 2018).

1. LITERATURE REVIEW

According to the literature review, it can be considered that the high number of the studies conducted on particularly foreign trade deficits of different countries with different methods is a significant indicator of the importance attached to this subject. Many studies have been conducted on the effects of price and income elasticities on foreign trade deficits of different countries. It is thought that the Marshall-Lerner condition applies in some countries and that the interventions to be made in exchange rates may have a positive impact on foreign trade deficits. In some countries, the opposite findings have been obtained. A summary table of information on some of the studies examined is given in Table 1.
According to the studies summarized in the table above, it can be seen that there is no consensus on either the Marshall-Lerner condition or the income elasticity.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

In this study, quarterly data between 1998Q1-2014Q4 were used. All data in US dollars obtained from TurkStat, the Federal Reserve Economic Database (FRED) and the OECD database (National Accounts) were included in the analysis by logarithmic forms, excluding seasonal effects. In the study using the ARDL Econometric method, export and import demand functions included in the study carried out by Bahmani-Oskooee and Brooks (1999) and models based on estimation method were used.

Model 1; Export demand model

\[ E_t = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 RER_t + \gamma_2 GDP_t^{Rus} + \epsilon_t (1) \]

Model 2; Import demand model

\[ I_t = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 GDP_t + \epsilon_t (2) \]
\[ I_t = \theta_0 + \theta_1 RER_t + \theta_2 GDP_{t}^{\text{TUR}} + \varepsilon_t(2) \]

Here, \( E_t \) and \( I_t \) refer to total export and import amounts from Turkey to Russia, respectively. \( RER_t \) symbolizes real effective exchange rate while \( GDP_{t}^{\text{TUR}} \) (domestic income) ve \( GDP_{t}^{\text{Rus}} \) (foreign income) symbolize total income obtained by Turkey from Russia, respectively. \( \gamma_1 \) and \( \theta_1 \) refer to real effective exchange rate elasticity coefficient of export and import, respectively. \( \gamma_2 \) and \( \theta_2 \) refer to income elasticity coefficient of export and import, respectively. \( \varepsilon_t \) symbolizes error terms.

According to definition made by the Central Bank of the Republic of Turkey, the decline in the real effective exchange rate means the depreciation of the national currency while the increases in the real effective exchange rate mean that the national currency will experience an appreciation. In this context, real effective exchange rate elasticity coefficient signs of \( \theta_1 \) import model and \( \gamma_1 \) export model are economically expected to obtain positive \((\theta_1 > 0)\) and negative \((\gamma_1 < 0)\) values. It is expected that the domestic and foreign income variable elasticity coefficient signs will obtain positive \((\theta_2 > 0 \text { and } \gamma_2 > 0)\) values.

The validity of the Marshall-Lerner condition, which is based on the Elasticity Approach, depends on the fact that the sum of the absolute values of the real effective exchange rate elasticity coefficients of the export and import demand functions is above 1 (one) \((\theta_1 + \gamma_1 > 0)\).

### 3. EMPIRICAL RESULTS

#### 3.1. Unit Root Analysis

In order to obtain consistent results in the empirical analysis and to avoid the false regulation problem, the statistical level of the data to be used in the study should be determined (Atgür and Altay, 2015: 79-97, Hüseyni and Çakmak, 2016). In the cointegration methods of Engle-Granger (1987), Johansen (1988, 1991) and Johansen-Juselius (1990), the series should be constant at the same level. The ARDL Bounds Test Approach brings great convenience in unit root analysis compared to the mentioned methods and has been used frequently in recent times. The most important reason for this is that according to the ARDL Bounds Test Approach, cointegration analysis can be performed even if the series have total I (1), total I (0) or mixed stationarity level except for I (2) (Özdamar, 2015: 66-97).

The Phillips and Perron (PP) (1988) test, which includes inconstant variance and autocorrelation errors is frequently preferred in the unit root tests rather than the Extended Dickey and Fuller (ADF) (1981) test, which includes constant variance and errors without autocorrelation (Vergil and Erdoğan, 2009: 35-57). Both unit root tests were used in the study to test the applicability of the ARDL cointegration test, and the results obtained are shown in the Table 2.

The Phillips and Perron (PP) (1988) test, where variance and autocorrelation are in contrast to Extended Dickey and Fuller (ADF) (1981) test, where constant variance and lack of autocorrelation are concerned, is often preferred in unit root tests and Erdoğan, 2009: 35-57). Both unit root tests were used in the study to test the applicability of the ARDL cointegration test, and the results obtained are shown in the following tablature.

The results of the obtained unit root test show that domestic income and export
data are constant at level values I (0), and all other variables are constant at first different values I (1). Since these results show a mixed structure, they also indicate that the ARDL Cointegration test is applicable at the next stage as well.

Table 2: Results of the Unit Root Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>ADF (Level)</th>
<th>PHILLIPS-PERRON (Level)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>Constant with Trend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITH</td>
<td>-1.45</td>
<td>-0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IHR</td>
<td>-1.25</td>
<td>-3.40**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSYH\text{\textsubscript{Dir}}</td>
<td>-0.68</td>
<td>-2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSYH\text{\textsubscript{Rus}}</td>
<td>-4.24***</td>
<td>-1.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REDK</td>
<td>-2.46</td>
<td>-3.45*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Results of the Unit Root Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>ADF (First Differences)</th>
<th>PHILLIPS-PERRON (First Differences)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>Constant with Trend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITH</td>
<td>-3.24**</td>
<td>-7.27***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IHR</td>
<td>-4.62***</td>
<td>-4.53***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSYH\text{\textsubscript{Dir}}</td>
<td>-6.96***</td>
<td>-7.04***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSYH\text{\textsubscript{Rus}}</td>
<td>-7.41***</td>
<td>-3.92***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REDK</td>
<td>-6.14***</td>
<td>-6.13***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Critical Values

|          | Constant                | Constant with Trend                 | No constant, no trend | Constant | Constant with Trend | No constant, no trend |
| 1%       | -3.53                   | -4.11                               | -2.60                | -3.53    | -4.10               | -2.60                |
| 5%       | -2.91                   | -3.48                               | -1.95                | -2.91    | -3.48               | -1.95                |
| 10%      | -2.59                   | -3.17                               | -1.61                | -2.59    | -3.17               | -1.61                |

Note: *** = 1% significance level, ** = 5% significance level, * = 10% significance level.

3.2. ARDL Cointegration Test

The hypotheses adapted to the study in order to determine the long term cointegration relation between the variables following the unit root test are presented below. An alternative hypothesis was tested to show that there is a long-term cointegration contrary to the null hypothesis that there is no long-term cointegration relationship between the hypotheses and the variables.

Import Models

\[ H_0: \theta_4 = \theta_5 = \theta_6 = 0 \text{ (No cointegration)} \]
\[ H_1: \theta_4 \neq \theta_5 \neq \theta_6 \neq 0 \text{ (Cointegration)} \]

Export Models

\[ H_0: \gamma_4 = \gamma_5 = \gamma_6 = 0 \text{ (No cointegration)} \]
\[ H_1: \gamma_4 \neq \gamma_5 \neq \gamma_6 \neq 0 \text{ (Cointegration)} \]

The results of the cointegration test presented in Table 3 show that the F-statistic values of both export and import models have higher values than the table-critical values in Peseran et al. (2001). Moreover, this statistical significance at 1% level causes rejection of the null hypothesis and acceptance of the alternative hypothesis. Hence, it is assumed that there is a long-term cointegration relationship between both import and export model variables.
Table 3: Bound Test (F Test and Critical Bound Values)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>All Models</th>
<th>Number of variables (k)</th>
<th>F statistics</th>
<th>Critical Value (%1)</th>
<th>Critical Value (%5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Export Model</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.67***</td>
<td>I(0)-I(1)</td>
<td>I(0)-I(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.13-5</td>
<td>3.1-3.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Import Model</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.93***</td>
<td>I(0)-I(1)</td>
<td>I(0)-I(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.13-5</td>
<td>3.1-3.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *** = 1% significance level.

3.3. ARDL Model Estimations

The model estimation results in which the maximum delay length is determined as 8 (Eight) using AIC information criteria are shown in the table 4 with the appropriate delay lengths and the coefficients obtained.

The estimated model results show that the export model estimated as ARDL (5,3,3) is statistically significant at 1% and 5% levels of the first and third delay, respectively. Nevertheless, it can be seen that in the first delay, the result obtained is compatible with the economic expectations. When the foreign and real effective exchange rate variables are examined, it can be seen that all the variables except for the first delay of the real effective exchange rate are statistically insignificant.

In the import model estimated as ARDL (1,0,7), the import variable is statistically significant at 1% level. The domestic income variable has a statistically significant effect at the current level of 1%, in line with the economic expectations. Furthermore, the artificial variable included in the import model is statistically significant at 1% level. The real effective exchange rate variables do not show any statistically significant results.

The diagnostic test results are of great importance for the models to give reliable results. The results obtained in this context show that there is no variance problem according to the Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey test and no autocorrelation problem according to the Breusch-Godfrey test on either export or import models. According to the Jarque-Bera test, the error terms showed normal distribution. In addition, Cusum and Cusum Square tests were carried out as presented in the graphs below in order to understand whether the parameters have a stable structure. The results show that there is no structural break in the export model. This shows that the parameters are stable and that the model can be estimated without using dummy variables. In the import model, on the other hand, the Cusum Q test result showed a structural break in the model. Therefore, it can be seen that the parameters showed a stable structure after the artificial variable included in the model by considering the frequency range having the break.
Table 4: Results of ARDL Model Estimations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>All Models</th>
<th>Export ARDL (5,3,3) Model</th>
<th>Import ARDL (1,0,7) Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variables</td>
<td>Coefficient</td>
<td>t-Ist.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IMP (-1)</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>REDK</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GDP_{Tur}</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GDP_{Tur} (-1)</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GDP_{Tur} (-2)</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GDP_{Tur} (-3)</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GDP_{Tur} (-4)</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GDP_{Tur} (-5)</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GDP_{Tur} (-6)</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GDP_{Tur} (-7)</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DUM</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EXP (-1)</strong></td>
<td>0.71***</td>
<td>5.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EXP (-2)</strong></td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EXP (-3)</strong></td>
<td>-0.25**</td>
<td>2.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EXP (-4)</strong></td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EXP (-5)</strong></td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>-0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GDP_{Rus}</strong></td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GDP_{Rus} (-1)</strong></td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>1.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GDP_{Rus} (-2)</strong></td>
<td>-2.47</td>
<td>-0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GDP (-3)</strong></td>
<td>-1.14</td>
<td>-0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>REDK</strong></td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>REDK (-1)</strong></td>
<td>-0.59*</td>
<td>-1.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>REDK (-2)</strong></td>
<td>-0.23</td>
<td>-0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>REDK (-3)</strong></td>
<td>0.44*</td>
<td>1.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C</strong></td>
<td>-9.09***</td>
<td>-6.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Diagnostic Tests**

| | Coefficients | Coefficients |
| | | |
| R² | 0.99 | 0.99 |
| Corrected R² | 0.98 | 0.98 |
| Autocorrelation | 2.55(0.11) | 1.15 (0.56) |
| Normality | 3.72(0.16) | 3.25 (0.20) |
| Ramsey Res. | 0.88(0.35) | 0.15(0.70) |
| Heteroscedasticity | 14.3(0.35) | 5.43 (0.91) |
| Probability | 0.000 | 0.000 |

Note: Note: *** = 1% significance level, ** = 5% significance level, * = 10% significance level. The values in parentheses are p (probability) values.
3.4. Long Term Coefficients and Short Term Error Correction Models

Error Correction models established after the ARDL Model estimates predict short-term relationships between the series. The Error Correction Term (ECT), which is expected to have be statistically significant coefficient statistics with negative coefficient sign, is derived from the results of the Error Correction Model estimation result and the estimation residuals. Error Correction Terms is an important indicator of how close the short term imbalances are to the equilibrium in the next period (Görüş and Türköz, 2016: 31-54). The Error Correction Model established to this end and the long term coefficient results are presented in the table 5.

The results of the short-term error correction model show that the domestic income variable has a positive and statistically significant effect on imports. A 1% increase in the current value of domestic revenue increases Turkey's imports from Russia by 2.64%. Moreover, it is seen that the artificial variable added into the model as a representative of the structural change in the import model has a positive and statistically significant effect on the import in the short term. The foreign income variable has a statistically significant effect on short-term first delay and this result is in
line with economic expectations. This result implies that a 1% increase in foreign income will have a positive impact of 3.61% on export in the short term. The real effective exchange rate variable is not statistically significant in either of the models in the short term. The export model in the second delay yielded a meaningful and statistically consistent result at 10% level.

**Table 5: Long Term Coefficients Estimation Results of ARDL Models**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Export ARDL (5,3,3) Model</th>
<th>Import ARDL (1,0,7) Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coefficient</td>
<td>t-Ist.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Gross Revenue</em></td>
<td>1.65***</td>
<td>2.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DUM</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Gross Revenue</em></td>
<td>4.12***</td>
<td>19.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REDK</td>
<td>-0.20</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>-15.31***</td>
<td>-19.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Short Term ARDL Error Correction Estimation Results**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>t-Ist.</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>t-Ist.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D(GDP)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.64***</td>
<td>4.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GDP)(-1)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1.84***</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GDP)(-2)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.07***</td>
<td>4.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GDP)(-3)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GDP)(-4)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GDP)(-5)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>1.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GDP)(-6)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1.62***</td>
<td>2.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(DUM)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.20</td>
<td>-0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(REDK)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(EXP)(-1)</td>
<td>0.30***</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(EXP)(-2)</td>
<td>0.16*</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(EXP)(-3)</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td>-1.23</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(EXP)(-4)</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GDP)</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GDP)(-1)</td>
<td>3.61*</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(GDP)(-2)</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(REDK)</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(REDK)(-1)</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
<td>-0.97</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(REDK)(-2)</td>
<td>-0.44*</td>
<td>-1.98</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECM(-1)</td>
<td>-0.59***</td>
<td>-6.73</td>
<td>-0.17***</td>
<td>-4.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *=%10 significance level, ***=%1 significance level. The values in parentheses are p (probability) values.

When the short term Error Correction Term coefficient signs of both models are analysed, it can be seen that both import and export models are in conformity with the economic expectations and negative. In addition, both coefficients are statistically significant at 1% level. This means that 17% and 59% of the imbalances that will take place in the short term will be equilibrated in the import and the export model, respectively, in the next period.

When the long term coefficients are examined, it is understood that the domestic and foreign income variables are statistically significant at 1% and have a positive effect on import and export in line with economic expectations. In other words, a 1% increase in domestic income increases Turkey's import from Russia by 1.65%, while a 1% increase in foreign income increases Turkey’s export to Russia by 4.12%. Moreover, the dummy variable added to the model for the structural change in the import model is statistically significant at 1%, indicating a positive effect on import. The real effective exchange rate coefficients of both models are not statistically significant.
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The findings obtained from this study show that the change in the total amount of Turkey’s exports and imports to Russia results from the changes in domestic and foreign income rather than changes in exchange rates. Export and import real effective exchange rate elasticity coefficients are found statistically insignificant. This result shows that the Marshall-Lerner condition may not be valid for Turkey's foreign trade with Russia. On the other hand, the domestic income elasticity coefficient was found in line with the economic expectations and statistically significant at 1% level. This situation shows that policies towards domestic incomes may play an active role to meet foreign trade deficits of Turkey. Taking stand from this point, it is highly important for economy administration of Turkey to make policies which aim to reduce the foreign trade deficit related to the foreign trade between Turkey and Russia.

The results show that, an import-oriented policy might have more beneficial outcomes rather than exchange rate policies considering the fact that import from Russia is much more than export. Oil and natural gas have an important place in Turkey’s import from Russia. Taking stand from this fact, it is believed that that it is necessary to reduce the energy dependency and to increase the production of these products and other products based on them in the country. Increasing R&D activities and budget support for these products could have an impact on foreign trade deficits with Russia. In addition, it is believed that the realization of a nuclear power station will have very effective impacts on the mentioned deficits on condition that incentive is provided for the use of renewable energy sources and social sensitivity is taken into consideration.

REFERENCES


INTRODUCTION

One of the conditions of maintaining the continuity of business in an effective way is being able to manage time efficiently both by employees and managers. Because time is the only source of business that can not be controlled actually. The concept of time management has evidently attracted attention of scholars in last three decades in Turkey. Many researches have been conducted and articles were written related with time management. However, effective time management techniques, especially in business life can not be used sufficiently. Therefore; this study was done in order to allow for more up to date researches and in terms of positive managerial results.

In this research, time management of university students in the aspect of social media utilization is determined. This study begins with introduction. In the first part; materials and methods are explained. In the second part, results of the conducted research are expressed. And the third part demonstrates discussion and conclusions.

1. MATERIALS AND METHODS

In this part; firstly the concept of time management and social media utilization are expressed. Lastly; explanations about research are described.

1.1. Definition of Time Management

If a person can not organize himself within the limited time in business life, he is not be able to organize anything. In this case he needs to learn how to organize himself as the time passes continuously. On the other hand a person can not manage time actually because the flow of time is out of his control. The important thing is being able to organize himself (optimize his activities) throughout the continuous flow of time. According Webster’s Dictionary definition of time is; a nonspatial continuum in apparently irreversible succession from the past through the present to the future (Webster’s II, 1994; 1210).

Time management is the discipline of controlling business life through the use of 168 hours that are available every week. Being able to manage that time can force manager/employee to be explicit about what she/he values in professional/personal life and helps allocating efforts accordingly. Mastering time management helps balancing many kinds of pressures in working life and lets achieving goals efficiently. All of these reasons decreases the amount of stress in work and makes a person more productive in business life, besides in private life. Together with the explanations above; time
management is a conscious attempt to control and allocate finite time sources (Harvard Business Essentials, 2005; xvii).

1.2. Definition of Social Media

In literature social media concept was first used by Chris Shipley, founder of Guidewire Group in San Francisco in USA. This concept includes all the tools that support the participation and cooperation which enables communication and information online. Dialogs and exchanges between individuals on internet create social media. At first glance, it may seem like dialogues between individuals or small groups, but the number of people interested in shared information or content is increasing rapidly (Boyd, 2008; 92).

Social media can be defined as online areas that individuals use to convey their emotions and thoughts, their observations, their experiences and to communicate with each other (Kırık & Murat, 2012; 69).

1.3. Explanations about Research

The subject of this research is to develop a time management survey in the aspect of social media utilization. It is aimed to emphasize importance of social media utilization on managing time effectively. Managing time effectively by employees have importance in organizational success. When this topic is approached in terms of behavioral perspective, it is assessed the organization can enhance organizational success. The assumptions of this research are as follows; the selected sample group of students participating in the survey answered the questionnaire in an impartial and serious way. The responses of the students who participated in the survey reflect the current situation. Method; as the perception and behaviors of university students in their natural environment were determined, this is a field study (Özdemir, 2010; 11).

Material; theoretical part of the research is written by scanning Turkish literature as well as the relevant English. References to this research and theoretical information are mainly selected from relevant scientific studies. Survey form of this research is inspired by previous researches. Pilot practice is conducted to test the validity and reliability of the draft survey form. The final survey was applied to target audience in Aydın Adnan Menderes University’s Economics Administrative Sciences Faculty Campus (İsabeyli/Nazilli) in May 2018. The students of Economics Administrative Sciences Faculty are selected as target audience. The results were evaluated and demonstrated by using the SPSS 25.0 Program. At last 201 questionnaires were evaluated. Reliability of the survey and factor relationships depends on the adequacy of sample size. The adequacy of sample size might be evaluated on the following scale: 50-very poor; 100-poor; 200-fair; 300-good; 500-very good; +1000–excellent (Comrey & Lee, 2009; 217).

Research Model; sub-factors of social media utilization survey are Social media addiction (SMA), Occupational use (OCC), Individual use (IND), Social media myths (MYTH). And sub-factors of time management survey are Utilization (UTL), Plan (PLAN), Positive attitudes (PATD), Negative attitudes (NATD), Behaviours (BEHV).

2. RESULTS

In this part; demographic findings, validity and reliability analysis, correlation analysis and then confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) are mentioned.
2.1. Demographic Findings

2.1.1. Distribution by Gender:
According Table-1, percentage of female students is 69.2% and percentage of male students is 30.8%.

Table 1: Distribution by Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>FREQUENCY (n)</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>69.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.1.2. Distribution by Age:
According Table-2, age “19-21” has most percentage (70.6%) and age “+25” has least percentage (3.0%).

Table 2: Distribution by Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE RANGE</th>
<th>FREQUENCY (n)</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16 -18</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 – 21</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>70.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 -24</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>22.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 &amp; above</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.1.3. Distribution by GSM Operator:
According Table-3, Turk Telekom has most percentage (40.3%) and Bimcell has least percentage (1.5%).

Table 3: Distribution by GSM Operator

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gsm Op.</th>
<th>FREQUENCY (n)</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turkcell</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>25.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vodafone</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.Telekom</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>40.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bimcell</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.1.4 Distribution by Geographical Region:
According Table-4, Aegean region has most percentage (54.2%), South East Anatolia has least percentage (1.0%).
Table 4: Distribution by Geographical Region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GEOGRAPHICAL REGION</th>
<th>FREQUENCY (n)</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Southeast Anatolia</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mediterranean</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>10,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marmara</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>17,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Anatolia</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Sea</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Anatolia</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aegean</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>54,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2.1.5. Distribution by Departments:
According Table-5, Labor Economics & Industrial Relations has most percentage (38,8 %) and Finance has least (7,0 %).

Table 5: Distribution by Departments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DEPARTMENTS</th>
<th>FREQUENCY (n)</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economics</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>32,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internatioanal Trade &amp; Finance</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor Economics &amp;</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>38,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Service</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>13,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Besides demographic findings above, additional descriptive statistics are shown at Table-6 as follows;
Table 6: Descriptive Statistics for the Scale Type Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Skewness Coefficient</th>
<th>Kurtosis Coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monthly Revenue of Students</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>801,890</td>
<td>339,058</td>
<td>0,936</td>
<td>0,615</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expenditures for Entertainment</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>240,239</td>
<td>144,872</td>
<td>1,025</td>
<td>1,030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expenditures for Telephone Call</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>41,508</td>
<td>24,713</td>
<td>2,809</td>
<td>10,579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet Data Packet Monthly for Mobil Phone</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5,651</td>
<td>3,597</td>
<td>1,970</td>
<td>5,562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expenditures for Mobile Data</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>38,891</td>
<td>19,210</td>
<td>2,553</td>
<td>8,418</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Standartd Error of Skewness is 0.168 and Standart Error of Kurtosis is 0.335

2.2. Validity and Reliability Analysis

In order to determine validity of the survey, factor analysis (FA) is applied. Precondition for FA is that there is a certain correlation between variables. Bartlett’s test of sphericity (BTS) shows whether there is a sufficient relationship between variables. If value of BTS is lower than the significance level of 0.05, this shows there is a relationship between variables that is sufficient to apply FA. Similarly, whether the number of participants participating in the survey application is sufficient for FA is determined by the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test. If $0.80 \leq KMO$ it is excellent; $0.70 \leq KMO < 0.80$ it is good; $0.60 \leq KMO < 0.70$ it is moderate; $0.50 \leq KMO < 0.60$ it is lower; and $KMO < 0.50$ it is unacceptable (Sipahi et al, 2010; 80).

2.2.1. Time Management Survey Analysis

Time management survey form was developed by B.K. Britton & A. Tesser (University of Georgia, USA, 1991) and applied by S. Alay and S. Koçak (Hacettepe University, 2002), A. Terzi (Yıldız Teknik University, 2007), M. Süsin (Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, 2012), E.A. Uyanıker (Haliç University, 2014).

Table 7: KMO & Bartlett’s Test of Time Management Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KMO and Bartlett's Test</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.</td>
<td>0,791</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett's Test of Sphericity</td>
<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
<td>946,627</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>df</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

KMO coefficient of time management survey is 0,791. The result is good to apply FA. And also value of significance level of BTS is 0,000 (which is lower than 0,05). There is a relationship between variables that is sufficient to apply FA.

Common factor variance is used to determine the reliability of the test. Common variance is obtained by summing the squares of the factor loadings. The high variance of common factors, the model is said to be the highest of the total variance.
Table 8: Total Variance Explained for UTL, PLAN, PATD, NATD, BEHV Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
<th>% of Variance</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (UTL)</td>
<td>4,971</td>
<td>22,578</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (PLAN)</td>
<td>1,987</td>
<td>9,463</td>
<td></td>
<td>32,041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (PATD)</td>
<td>1,471</td>
<td>7,006</td>
<td></td>
<td>39,047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (NATD)</td>
<td>1,343</td>
<td>6,396</td>
<td></td>
<td>45,443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 (BEHV)</td>
<td>1,156</td>
<td>5,504</td>
<td></td>
<td>50,947</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The questionnaire consists of 21 items, 5 factors and explains 50.947% of the total variance. After FA; first component is utilization (UTL). This component consists of 6 items and explains 22.578% of the total variance. Utilization (UTL) component’s factor loadings vary between 0.524 and 0.735. Second component is attitude (PLAN). This component consists of 4 items and explains 9.463% of the total variance. Plan (PLAN) component’s factor loadings vary between 0.538 and 0.755. Third component is positive attitude (PATD). This component consists of 5 items and explains 7.006% of the total variance. Positive attitude (PATD) component’s factor loadings vary between 0.470 and 0.722. Fourth component is negative attitude (NATD). This component consists of 3 items and explains 6.396% of the total variance. Negative attitude (NATD) component’s factor loadings vary between 0.621 and 0.769. Fifth component is behaviour (BEHV). This component consists of 3 items and explains 5.504% of the total variance. Behaviour (BEHV) component’s factor loadings vary between 0.423 and 0.782. After factor analysis, result parameters are shown below.

Table 9: Mean, Standard Deviation, Factor Loadings and Cronbach Alpha (If Item Deleted) for the Sub-Items of UTL, PLAN, PATD, NATD, BEHV Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Factor Loadings</th>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Deviation</th>
<th>Cronbach Alpha (If Item Deleted)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UTL5-Daily list</td>
<td>.735</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>1.227</td>
<td>.669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UTL8-Finishing date</td>
<td>.580</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.136</td>
<td>.671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UTL11-Identify goals working hours</td>
<td>.561</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.075</td>
<td>.665</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UTL7-Net next week</td>
<td>.548</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>1.058</td>
<td>.694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UTL6-Lesson activity programme</td>
<td>.542</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.206</td>
<td>.671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UTL10-Calendar</td>
<td>.524</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>1.490</td>
<td>.734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLAN2-Beginning week</td>
<td>.755</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>1.228</td>
<td>.729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLAN1-Beginning day</td>
<td>.692</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.103</td>
<td>.655</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLAN3-Time daily plan</td>
<td>.614</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>1.093</td>
<td>.621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLAN4-Identify daily goals</td>
<td>.538</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>1.038</td>
<td>.659</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NATD20-Finish goals within time</td>
<td>.722</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>1.003</td>
<td>.531</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PATD21-Quick decisions</td>
<td>.686</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>1.251</td>
<td>.629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PATD17-Constructive</td>
<td>.570</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.915</td>
<td>.553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PATD19-Feel self planned</td>
<td>.553</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>1.098</td>
<td>.576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PATD15-Identify priority</td>
<td>.470</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.066</td>
<td>.614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NATD23b-Waiting long time</td>
<td>.769</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>1.132</td>
<td>.268</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reliability of time management survey is measured by using the SPSS 25.0 program. If Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient ($\alpha$) is $0,40 \leq \alpha < 0,60$ then, reliability of survey is low level. If “$\alpha$” is $0,60 \leq \alpha < 0,80$ then, survey is quite reliable. If “$\alpha$” is $0,80 \leq \alpha < 1,00$ then, survey is high level reliable (Çetinkaya, 2014; 258).

Table 10: Reliability Results of Time Management Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>“$\alpha$” Value (Cronbach’s Alfa)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Utilization (UTL)</td>
<td>0,722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plan (PLAN)</td>
<td>0,727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive attitude (PATD)</td>
<td>0,634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative attitude (NATD)</td>
<td>0,553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour (BEHV)</td>
<td>0,494</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According Table-10 results of sub-factor; Negative attitude (NATD)’s reliability is low level (0,553). Considering that there are 5 (five) variables (survey questions) depending on this factor, the reliability level of this factor is acceptable. Also behaviour (BEHV)’s reliability is low level (0,494). Considering that there are 3 (three) variables (survey questions) depending on this factor, the reliability level of this factor is acceptable.

2.2.2. Social Media Utilization Survey Analysis

Social media utilization survey form was developed and applied by H. V. Tekayak (Çukurova University, 2017).

Table 11: KMO & Bartlett’s Test of Social Media Utilization Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KMO and Bartlett's Test</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure</td>
<td>0,693</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequacy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett's Test of Sphericity</td>
<td>731,178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Df</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

KMO coefficient of social media utilization survey is 0,693. The result is good to apply FA. And also value of significance level of BTS is 0,000 (which is lower than 0,05). There is a relationship between variables that is sufficient to apply FA.
Table 12: Total Variance Explained for SMA, OCC, IND, MYTH Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (SMA)</td>
<td>3,250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (OCC)</td>
<td>2,117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (IND)</td>
<td>1,812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (MYTH)</td>
<td>1,398</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The questionnaire consists of 16 items, 4 factors and explains 53,611% of the total variance. After FA; first component is social media addiction (SMA). This component consists of 4 items and explains 20,314% of the total variance. Social media addiction (SMA) component’s factor loadings vary between 0.641 and 0.779. Second component is occupational use (OCC). This component consists of 3 items and explains 13,234% of the total variance. Occupational use (OCC) component’s factor loadings vary between 0.549 and 0.850. Third component is individual use (IND). This component consists of 5 items and explains 11,325% of the total variance. Individual use (IND) component’s factor loadings vary between 0.445 and 0.770. Fourth component is social media myths (MYTH). This component consists of 4 items and explains 8,737% of the total variance. Social media myths (MYTH) component’s factor loadings vary between 0.558 and 0.716. After factor analysis, result parameters are shown below.

Table 13: Mean, Standard Deviation, Factor Loadings and Cronbach Alpha (If Item Deleted) for the Sub-Items of SMA, MYTH, OCC, IND Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor Loadings</th>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Deviation</th>
<th>Cronbach Alpha (If Item Deleted)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SMA6-Leavig loneliness</td>
<td>.779</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>1.251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMA7-Express himself</td>
<td>.721</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>1.260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMA5-Lost</td>
<td>.695</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>1.271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMA8-Anxiety</td>
<td>.641</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>1.187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCC1-Using the Social Media for New Academical Knowledge and Developments</td>
<td>.850</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>0.886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCC2-Contributing the Social Media for the Academical Knowledges</td>
<td>.821</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>0.921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCC11-Quantity of professional visit</td>
<td>.549</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IND9-Quantity of personal visit</td>
<td>.770</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IND12-Curiosity</td>
<td>.662</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IND10-Routine of daily life</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>1.084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IND3-Using the Social Media to get News</td>
<td>.503</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>0.874</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IND4-Ensuring of the Social Media to learn</td>
<td>.445</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>1.121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MYTH14-Boring</td>
<td>.716</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>1.095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MYTH15-Risky</td>
<td>.708</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>1.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MYTH13-Time wasting</td>
<td>.700</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1.135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MYTH16-Unqualified information</td>
<td>.558</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>0.957</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reliability of social media utilization survey is measured by using the SPSS 25.0
program. If Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient (α) is 0.40 ≤ α < 0.60 then, reliability of survey is low level. If “α” is 0.60 ≤ α < 0.80 then, survey is quite reliable. If “α” is 0.80 ≤ α < 1.00 then, survey is high level reliable (Çetinkaya, 2014; 258).

**Table 14**: Reliability Results of Social Media Utilization Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>“α” Value (Cronbach's Alfa)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social media addiction (SMA)</td>
<td>0.712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational use (OCC)</td>
<td>0.649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual use (IND)</td>
<td>0.651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social media myths (MYTH)</td>
<td>0.625</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3. Correlation Analysis

Knowledge of relationship between two or more variables is needed in business administration science. Shortly, correlation coefficient (p) is the measure that indicates the power of linear relationship between a pair of random variables. If 0,00 ≤ p< 0,40 there is low level; 0,40 ≤ p< 0,80 there is medium level; 0,8 ≤ p< 1,0 there is high level relation (Newbold, 2009; 479).

2.3.1. Time Management Factors Correlation Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptive Statistics</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UTL</td>
<td>2.9739</td>
<td>.82855</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLAN</td>
<td>2.7894</td>
<td>.78094</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PATD</td>
<td>2.9337</td>
<td>.84789</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NATD</td>
<td>3.6448</td>
<td>.68307</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEHV</td>
<td>2.6982</td>
<td>.91263</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 15**: Correlations of Time Management Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UTL</th>
<th>PLAN</th>
<th>PATD</th>
<th>NATD</th>
<th>BEHV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.506**</td>
<td>.303**</td>
<td>.279**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLAN</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.398**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PATD</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.238**</td>
<td>.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NATD</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.221**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According Table-15, as a result of the correlation analysis which is done with SPSS 25.0 program, the correlation coefficient value found for all variables is; 0.00 < p< 0.506. Mostly there are low and medium level relations between all variables. And there is a meaningful relation between all variables at 0.05 significance level. Sub-factors of time management survey variables which have medium-level correlation between each other; PLAN and UTL p= 0.506, PLAN and PATD p= 0.398.
2.3.2. Social Media Factors Correlation Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SMA</td>
<td>3.1675</td>
<td>.66103</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCC</td>
<td>2.3684</td>
<td>.89337</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IND</td>
<td>3.9414</td>
<td>.72959</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MYTH</td>
<td>2.3696</td>
<td>.72435</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16: Correlations of Social Media Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>OCC</th>
<th>IND</th>
<th>MYTH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SMA</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>.135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td><strong>.585</strong></td>
<td>.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCC</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td><strong>.393</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IND</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According Table-16, as a result of the correlation analysis which is done with SPSS 25.0 program, the correlation coefficient value found for all variables is; 0.00 < p < 0.808. Mostly there are low and medium level relations between all variables. Only one high level relation between two variables. And there is a meaningful relation between all variables at 0.05 significance level.

Sub-factors of social media utilization survey variables which have high-level correlation between each other; SMA and MYTH p = 0.808. Sub-factors of social media utilization survey variables which have medium-level correlation between each other; OCC and SMA p = 0.585, OCC and IND p = 0.393.

2.4. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Amos 24.0 program is applied for CFA. As the survey form is inspired by previous researches, CFA technique is also used in this research. CFA is used to determine the accuracy of the structure that is predetermined by the researcher and to show to what extent variable groups and factors are represented. It is also used to test how main factors fit a model (Aylar, 2017; 398).

2.4.1. Time Management Survey CF Analysis

After CFA, result parameters which are obtained from the application of the correction indices are below;

According Table-17; sub-factors of time management survey represent & identify the model. Therefore the model is acceptable.
Table 17: CFA Parameter Results of Time Management Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>RESULT</th>
<th>ACCEPT LIMIT (months, 2017; 401)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2$ (Chi Square)</td>
<td>250,897</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df (degree of freedom)</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\chi^2 / df$</td>
<td>1,402</td>
<td>$\chi^2 / df &lt; 3,00$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation</td>
<td>0,045</td>
<td>RMSEA &lt; 0,08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI: Goodness of Fit Index</td>
<td>0,90</td>
<td>$0,90 \leq \text{GFI}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI: Incremental Fit Index</td>
<td>0,91</td>
<td>$0,90 \leq \text{NFI}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI: Comparative Fit Index</td>
<td>0,91</td>
<td>$0,90 \leq \text{CFI}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.4.2. Social Media Survey CFA Analysis

After CFA, result parameters which are obtained from the application of the correction indices are below;

Table 18: CFA Parameter Results of Social Media Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>RESULT</th>
<th>ACCEPT LIMIT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2$ (Chi Square)</td>
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<td>df (degree of freedom)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\chi^2 / df$</td>
<td>1,914</td>
<td>$\chi^2 / df &lt; 3,00$</td>
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<tr>
<td>RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation</td>
<td>0,068</td>
<td>RMSEA &lt; 0,08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI: Goodness of Fit Index</td>
<td>0,90</td>
<td>$0,90 \leq \text{GFI}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI: Incremental Fit Index</td>
<td>0,90</td>
<td>$0,90 \leq \text{NFI}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI: Comparative Fit Index</td>
<td>0,90</td>
<td>$0,90 \leq \text{CFI}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According Table-18; sub-factors of social media survey represent & identify the model. Therefore the model is acceptable.

3. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

According to demographic findings, distribution by gender; percentage of female students is 69,2 % and percentage of male students is 30,8 %. Distribution by age; “19-21” has most percentage (70,6 %) and “+25” has least percentage (3,0 %). Distribution by GSM Operator; Turk Telekom has most percentage (40,3 %) and Bimcell has least percentage (1,5 %). Distribution by geographical region; Aegean region has most percentage (54,2 %), South East Anatolia has least percentage (1,0 %). Distribution by department; Labor Economics & Industrial Relations has most percentage (38,8 %),
Finance has least (7.0 %).

Statistically there’s a relationship between the dimensions of social media and time management. There are not many researches done in the area of social media in Turkey. The area is considered to be needed for further researches. This research is an original study approaching to the subject of time management in the aspect social media dimension. It is also evaluated that this developed questionnaire can be applied not only to university students but also to different sectors and business life.

Time is a strategic source for organizations. Social media has effects on managing time efficiently. Thus, managing time effectively by employees in the aspect of social media have importance in organizational success.

REFERENCES:
APPENDIX: Time Management Survey Questions:
1. Do you plan your day before you start it?
2. Do you have a set of goals for each week ready at the beginning of the week?
3. Do you spend time each day planning?
4. Do you write a set of goals for yourself for each day?
5. Do you make a list of the things you have to do each day?
6. Do you make a schedule of the activities you have to do on official working days?
7. Do you have a clear idea of what you want to accomplish during next week?
8. Do you set deadlines for yourself for completing work?
9. Do you keep your important dates (eg. Exam dates, research paper due dates, etc.) on a single calendar?
10. Do you try to schedule your best hours for your most demanding work?
11. Do you keep or photocopy articles which, although not presently important to you, maybe in the future?
12. Do you regularly review your class notes, even when a test is not imminent?
13. Do you keep things with you that you can work on whenever you get spare moments?
14. Do you set and honor priorities?
15. Do you make constructive use of your time?
16. Do you feel you are in charge of your own time, by and large?
17. Do you think you can usually accomplish all your goals for a given week?
18. Are you able to make minor decisions quickly?
19. Do you believe that there’s room for improvement in the way you manage your time? (*)
20. Do you often find yourself doing things which interfere with your work simply because you hate to say "No" to people? (*)
21. Do you find yourself waiting a lot without anything to do? (*)

(*) These items are reverse scored.

Social Media Survey Questions:
1. I use social media platforms in order to follow new academic knowledge and developments related with my education or profession.
2. I use social media platforms in order to contribute to academic information about my education or profession.
3. How often do you follow the pages of associations and groups related to your education or profession on social media platforms?
4. I get lost in social media.
5. I think I get rid of loneliness through social media platforms.
6. Social media allows me to express my emotions and thoughts that I can not express face to face or on the phone with ease.
7. Not being able to pursue shared messages during periods when I can not access social media platforms online drives me anxiety.
8. How often do you visit social media platforms for your personal use?
9. Surfing my accounts on social media platforms is a routine in my daily life.
10. I use social media in order follow up what I'm curious about and what I'm interested in.
11. I use social media in order to get information.
13. Using social media is a waste of time.
14. The usage of social media is boring.
15. Using social media is risky.
16. Non-qualified information can be reached through social media.
INTRODUCTION

The human capital, which was not a significant concept until the 19th century, began to be scrutinized since the 20th century. Until then, the share of educational and health expenditures was very low in total spending. The changing world and needs led to the development of information economy. With the advent of human capital in economic literature since the 1960s, several studies were conducted on the subject (Izushi and Huggins, 2004: 75).

Investments in the individuals increased the importance of the improving qualities and talents in the society. Today, human capital is considered among the production factors. As the quality of labor increases, productivity increases as well.

Human capital is generally defined as education and accumulation of experiences. In recent years, health has also been considered as one of the main subcomponents of human capital since it affects physical capacity, cognitive ability and mental health of the individuals (World Economic Forum, 2013: 13).

If human capital investments are neglected, a process of growth and reduction of poverty would be unlikely. Given the current economic conditions, with the rise of the importance of knowledge and technology, the provision of human capital has become increasingly significant.

Skills, knowledge and human labor are very important for the production process, positively affecting economic growth and development (Piketty, 2015: 238). As technology advances, the need for human capital at every level of production becomes more significant. The 21st century is a period of advances and change in technologies. Thus, the importance of human capital investments has been recognized globally. Today, the most important objective of nations is economic growth. Furthermore, reducing income inequality and poverty is also an undeniable objective.

Each investment in human capital contributes to social and economic development. In particular, social services for the poorest population in a nation should be prioritized (Khan et al., 2016: 229). The significance of education and health investments in a country directly affects the development process in that nation. These services increase individual productivity, which in turn reduces the poverty (Dao, 2008: 294).

Today, the most important problem in developing countries is the ignorance of the significance of education and the presence of undeveloped health and social security systems. These problems lead to inadequate human capital and the migration of the qualified workforce to other countries. It can be argued that the countries that invest more in human capital are the developed nations with high levels of income. Indeed, the
developed countries are more successful in creating and using new information. This is the most important factor for the difference between developed and developing countries. Developing countries can only achieve development if they are successful in creating and using information.

The first section of the present study addressed the concept of human capital and its importance, then the economic significance of human capital and its relationship with poverty were discussed, followed by a literature review and conclusion sections.

1. The Concept of Human Capital and Its Significance

Until the early 19th century, only physical capital was considered sufficient for economic development in the literature and especially from the middle of the 20th century on, the emphasis on the significance of human capital in the solution of national developmental problems became prominent.

Possession of talents and experiences such as ability, decision-making, knowledge, communication skills and risk taking constitutes the source of human capital (Barney, 1995: 50). Thus, it can be argued that human capital consists of individuals who possess the knowledge and capacity that an institution or a country needs.

Human capital is defined as the knowledge and abilities of the employees in the labor market. From a political perspective, human capital is defined as the capacity of a society to increase the economic growth. Human capital is generally defined as the accumulation of education and experiences. In recent years, health has also been considered as one of the main subcomponents of human capital, since it affects the physical capacity, cognitive ability and mental health of individuals (World Economic Forum, 2013: 13).

Human capital is generally expressed using conceptual qualities. Furthermore, the knowledge accumulated due to environmental factors, living and learning improves human capital. Factors that contribute to human capital development can be listed as follows (OECD, 2001: 18):

- Education in the family during early childhood
- Formal education (Primary, secondary and higher education)
- On the job training (For example, training on R&D and innovation, membership in Professional networks, etc.)
- Informal education (Learning by living in daily or professional life)

As described above, human capital investments are directly associated with investments in education. Well-educated, healthy individuals are the foundations of the society. Being a qualified individual benefits the individual, as well as the society in economic and social aspects. Education shapes the individuals to promote the society and play an important role in the future of a nation (Karateşer, 2017: 427).

Human capital is associated with several scientific disciplines such as politics, industries, sociology, demographics, law, biology, psychology, health, education, history, geography, military, technological development, R&D and innovation, as well as social and economic sciences (Aksu, 2016: 71). Every human capital investment contributes to social and economic development.

2. Economic Significance of Human Capital

Until the 19th century, the share of educational expenditures and other expenditures related to education remained very low in total expenditures. Initially, in Great Britain,
more efficient new production techniques were adopted based on scientific developments, and these techniques spread all over the world. During the century, the significance of education, quality and knowledge in the development of individuals and nations increased. In the 20th century, the importance of human capital increased significantly, becoming one of the most important factors in national development. When the 21st century arrived, human capital became the most important element among the production factors. The advances in information technologies that took place in this period are considered as the most important means of economic and social development. Advanced technological infrastructure leads to an increase in the quality of the human capital. Today, human capital assumed a higher significance in the ability of nations to achieve technological development and innovations and in the development of countries (Aksu, 2016: 69-70).

It is difficult to measure the impact of the human capital on the economy. The first method to achieve this objective is to determine the effect of educational investments on productivity compared to special costs and profits after tax and on returns on investment. When the returns on investment are determined, the job satisfaction of the individuals as a result of education is also considered. However, it is not easy to measure the benefits and costs in this method. For example, it is difficult to determine the effect of education on individual earnings. Furthermore, the benefits of education are shared by the whole population. Another method used to determine the effect of human capital on the economy is to determine the effect of the human capital stock and the changes in capital ratio on economic growth (OECD, 2001: 28-29).

In the development of a country, human capital is required as much as the physical capital. The ability of the human capital to increase production efficiency also depends on its complementation by physical capital. Both physical capital and human capital should be present at optimal ratios (Karataş and Çankaya, 2010: 30).

Human capital is a factor used to determine the degree of national development. Education and health investments increase the quality of human capital. In addition to the social benefits of human capital investments to individuals and hence to the society, these investments also have a positive effect on the economic development due to the contribution of the well-trained, qualified and healthy workforce to production. Indeed, a well-trained workforce makes it easier for a corporation to produce and utilize new technologies. Thus, it is possible to argue that the emphasis on the most important components of human capital, namely health, nutrition and education, has a positive effect on economic development (Isola and Alani, 2012: 813; Dao, 2008: 294). Skills, knowledge and human labor have become very important in the production process, positively affecting economic growth and development (Piketty, 2015: 238). In human capital theory, a well-trained workforce facilitates the adoption and production of new technologies (Izushi and Huggins, 2004: 75).

The most important conditions to achieve and sustain economic growth and development in the globalized world are investments in knowledge and innovations. Innovations, which became the most important instrument for national competitiveness, are dependent on the improvement of the quality of the labor. An increase in the quality of human capital leads to an increase in the production of knowledge and innovation. The most important current problem in developing countries is the ignorance of the significance of education and the presence of undeveloped health and social security systems. These problems lead to inadequate human capital and the migration of the
qualified workforce to other countries (Tiryakioğlu, 2008:320).

2. The Human Capital and The Problem of Poverty

Today, one of the most important global issues is the attempts to solve the problem of poverty that negatively affects the individuals. Serious efforts are spent by nations and especially by international economic organizations to reduce the global poverty.

Poverty, the most important obstacle to national development, is of greater importance, especially for underdeveloped and developing countries. Poverty affects the countries in many ways; it leads to inability to meet the economic, social, cultural and political needs of the individuals (Kayade, 2012: 7).

In the literature, several definitions of poverty are available. Simply, poverty is the lack of provisions that are necessary for individuals to continue their lives such as food, shelter, clothing and other social services (Kayode, 2012, p.6). Poverty can also be defined as the low level of well-being of individuals, and the inability to access essential goods and services, due to their income levels. This impedes individuals from benefiting from health and education services, to experience difficulties in accessing clean water, exposure to injustices in safety and inability to benefit from opportunities (Haughton and Khandker, 2009: 1-2; Worldbank, 2004: 2).

When the national income reaches a high level, the country succeeds in economic growth and human capital accumulation (Becker, 1995: 5). In eliminating poverty, which is one of the most important national problems, factors such as increase in economic growth, individual income levels and alleviation in income inequalities play an important role. It is possible to reduce poverty through activities such as creating employment opportunities, improving the quality of services such as health and education, and facilitating access to these services.

Factors such as low national income and high rate of population growth in developing countries prevent the development of the human capital (Tiryakiolu, 2008: 328). Education and human capital investments are higher in countries where infant mortality rates are low and high quality health care is available. Concurrently, a decline in the number of children is observed as the family education level increases. This leads parents to allocate more financial resources to their children's education and health. Education is the most important factor that determines an individual's expectations of a healthy life. As the emphasis on good nutrition and education increases, bad habits such as smoking, etc. decrease (Becker, 1995: 7).

In Table 1, human development, education, life expectancy and income indices were used as indicators of human development in OECD countries. Developed countries such as Norway, Denmark, Australia, Canada, Germany, Iceland, the Netherlands, the United States of America, the United Kingdom, Switzerland, Sweden, Iceland, Japan, Korea and New Zealand are quite successful in human development index, which is the most important indicator of national welfare. The countries except Canada, the Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland and the UK exhibited a similar achievement in the education index, which is calculated based on mean and expected schooling period. The country with the best life expectancy was Japan with a rate of 0.980, followed by Italy.
Table 1: Human Development Indicators in OECD Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Australia</td>
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<td>0.939</td>
<td>0.962</td>
<td>0.915</td>
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<td>0.915</td>
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<td>0.841</td>
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<td>0.886</td>
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<td>0.875</td>
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<td>0.913</td>
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<td>0.854</td>
<td>0.790</td>
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<td>0.910</td>
<td>0.896</td>
<td>0.936</td>
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<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>0.920</td>
<td>0.900</td>
<td>0.911</td>
<td>0.948</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: www.oecd.org.tr.

The best income index figure, which is calculated based on the income per capita (minimum $ 100 maximum $ 75000), belonged to Norway. It was followed by Luxembourg and Switzerland. Based on human development indicators, it is not possible to argue that Turkey was successful.

The World Economic Forum calculated the national human capital indices based on certain indicators. These indicators are categorized under four main groups. These are health and welfare (indicating the physical and mental well-being of individuals from childhood to adulthood), education (including the qualitative and quantitative...
assessment of education, information on basic education, higher education level, and current and future workforce), labor force and employment indicator (indicating the knowledge, skills, and experiences of individuals in the workforce), and environmental indicators (that affect the human capital such as laws and infrastructure) (World Economic Forum, 2013: 4).

The top ten countries with the best human capital index ranking, calculated based on the abovementioned output were Finland, Norway, Switzerland, Japan, Sweden, New Zealand, Denmark, the Netherlands, Canada and Belgium. Turkey was ranked 73 out of 130 countries (URL 1).

Education, which is the most important component of human capital, has a positive impact on economic growth and productivity, as well as reducing the infrastructural deficit that arises from inequality of opportunity among individuals. The level of access to health services is also affected negatively from income inequalities. Thus, in addition to the economic effects of the human capital, it is necessary to emphasize its social effects. Investments in education and health, which are the important components of human capital, play an important role in reducing poverty (Becker, 1995: 9-13).

Education contributes to the intellectual, characteristic and psychomotor development of individuals. Human capital, which is as important as the physical capital of a country and the quality of which increases with the quality in education, contributes to the national economic and social development. For the individuals, the development of the human capital is a process that starts from childhood and lasts until older ages. Best use of this process would contribute to the sustainability of national achievements in a dynamic and continuously developing world (Omotayo, 2015: 151).

The ratio of education and health expenditures to GDP and poverty rates in OECD countries are presented in Table 2. Generally developed countries with low poverty rates are the countries with high human capital investment rates. Countries with the highest education expenditures were Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Finland and Iceland. The country with the highest health expenditures was Sweden, followed by Belgium, Denmark, New Zealand and France, respectively. The poverty rates in these countries (the ratio of the population with income below the poverty line to the total population) were 0.1. Education expenditure rate in Turkey was 4.8, health expenditure rate was 4.2. Poverty rate was observed as 0.2. Based on the data presented in the table, it can be argued that countries with high human capital investments were developed countries with high income levels.

The achievements in developed countries are largely attributed to human capital investments. Scandinavian countries of Norway, Sweden, Denmark and Finland are also successful in R&D activities in addition to investments in education. The United Nations report also reflected that the same countries were the best places to live in the world. Furthermore, the economic achievements of countries such as China, Japan and South Korea were linked to the advanced state of their human resources (Kayode, 2012, p.10).
### Table 2: Education and Health Expenditures and Poverty Rates in OECD Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Education Expenditures (% of GDP, 2013)</th>
<th>Health Expenditures (% of GDP, 2014)</th>
<th>Poverty Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>5.6</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>0.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Rep.</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>9.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
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<td>8.7</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
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<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>4.1</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
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<td>Japan</td>
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<td>8.6</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
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<td>4.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>3.5 (1995)</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
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<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>0.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>0.1</td>
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<td>Portugal</td>
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<td>Slovak Rep.</td>
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<td>Slovenia</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Switzerland</td>
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<td>7.7</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
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<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.K.</td>
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<td>7.6</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


#### 3. Related Literature

The economic significance of human capital was scrutinized extensively in the academic literature. There are several empirical studies on the subject.

Certain studies were based on various growth theories. Mankiw et al. (1992) conducted one of these studies to determine the correlation between the increase per capita income and human capital. The said study was based on the Solow model. According to this model, human capital is considered as a production factor and provides the same contribution as physical capital. Baumol (1986) and Barro (1991)
stated that a better-educated workforce can innovate by imitating the technologies of advanced countries. Thus, accumulation of human capital contributes to economic growth by increasing total factor productivity. Based on the neoclassical growth theory, Romer (1986) explained long-term growth by technological change, which is an external factor. Furthermore, human capital is an important factor in explaining the difference between developed and developing countries in economic growth. In a similar study, Lucas (1988) stated that human capital growth would accelerate economic growth. Benhabib and Spiegel (1994) also pointed out that human capital contributes to economic growth by significantly influencing the technology development and utilization infrastructure in an economy.

Nelson and Phelps (1966) associated the increase in production with two growth patterns in their economic growth model. These factors were the accumulation of human capital and prevalence of knowledge. According to the study, human capital plays an important role in national innovations and in the adaptation of the technologies developed abroad.

Omatayo (2015) investigated the impact of human capital (education and effective health services) on economic growth in Nigeria between 1980 and 2012. According to the results obtained in that study, a 22% increase in human capital resulted in a 1% increase in GDP. Thus, improvements in education and health positively affect the economic growth. Furthermore, Sulaiman et al. (2015) attempted to determine the impact of human capital and technology on economic growth in Nigeria. They conducted a time series analysis for a period of 35 between 1975 and 2010. It was determined that secondary and higher education had a significant and positive impact on economic growth. Furthermore, technology was considered as another important factor that affected economic growth in Nigeria.

In an analysis conducted by Arabi and Abdalla (2013) for 1982-2009, it was concluded that the quality of education in Sudan had a decisive impact on economic growth and the increase in quality of health positively affected economic growth.

Khan et al. (2016) analyzed the impact of human capital on poverty in Khayber Pakhtukhwa Karak region. The analysis was conducted with a questionnaire. It was stated that the effect of human capital components of education level, experience and gender on reducing the poverty was significant. As the education level increased, the distance from the poverty line increased significantly.

In another study by Khan and Rahman (2012), it was indicated that human capital improved the productivity of labor in different parts of Pakistan. Based on the study results, there were inequalities among the human capital investments in different regions in Pakistan. Public education and health investments in especially rural areas would contribute to the removal of the said inequalities.

Dao (2008) attempted to determine the effects of human capital components on poverty and income inequality. In an analysis conducted on 40 developing countries, it was found that poverty was directly correlated with primary and secondary education, purchasing power, maternal mortality during pregnancy, and births performed by specialists. The analysis conducted on 35 developing countries with a different sample also concluded that income inequality was affected by the same variables plus stillbirth rate and primary education graduation rate.

In their study, Thomas and Strauss (1997) concluded that various health indicators increased the individual income of women and men living in rural Brazil.
In a study by Coulombe and Tremblay (2001), it was reported that the alleviation of regional income inequality was significantly correlated with college education between 1951 and 1996 in Canada.

CONCLUSION

Today, reduction of the poverty, which is one of the most important global problems, and ensuring economic growth are among the most significant national goals. Although physical capital was considered sufficient for economic growth until the early 19th century, human capital was also considered as a significant production factor starting from the mid-20th century. It is not possible to improve individual knowledge and skills and ensure socio-economic development without investing in individuals and the human capital components of education and health services today. If individuals can not access adequate education and health services, it will not be possible to produce information. It was observed that education and health service standards were high in high-welfare societies where people conduct happy lives.

The success of developed countries depends on their human capital investment levels. Scandinavian countries Norway, Sweden, Denmark and Finland were both successful in R&D activities in addition to their emphasis on education investments. According to a United Nations report, these countries are the best countries in the world based on living standards. Furthermore, human resources developments in countries such as China, Japan, South Korea, which accomplished important economic growth during recent years, were significant. It is also possible to argue that human capital has an effect on alleviation of poverty due to its social and economic effects. Human capital investments do not only affect growth and productivity, but also ensure that the infrastructural inequalities of the past among individuals are removed. Countries should prioritize human capital investments starting from the childhood. Thus, it would be possible to strengthen competitiveness in a dynamic and ever-changing world.

Furthermore, adequate use of human capital is also important. Productivity would increase when qualified individuals are employed in their areas of expertise and with the wages they deserve.

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Chapter 8

Customer Complaint Management Quality: Measurement and Dimensions

Safiye Süreyya BENGÜL
Assist. Prof. Dr.; Dumlupınar University, Kütahya Social Sciences Vocational School, Department of Marketing and Advertising Kütahya, Turkey

INTRODUCTION

It has been already acknowledged that the cost of gaining new customers is higher than the cost of customer retention for businesses. Thus, firms need to make rational efforts in order to keep their customers on which they have financially invested, refrain from dissatisfying them and prevent them from choosing rival firms. The way firms handle issues raised by customers and solve them would facilitate keeping them and even winning their loyalty. It is most likely of these loyal customers to share how the firm handled and solved their complaints with their friends, colleagues and family (Odabaşı, 2010). If the firms cannot run an appropriate process for mitigating customer complaints, assure transparency in complaint management procedures, customers have difficulty in reaching the related departments or people for their complaints, customers cannot find adequate response to their complaints from related staff, and the firm fails to standardize the processes for solving incoming complaints using a holistic approach and/or sufficiently empower their staff for solving complaints then they will have difficulty in keeping complaining customers, the firm’s reputation would be impaired, and their chance to survive in the competitive market would weaken.

There is an intensive body of research on customer complaint management in literature. In view of the present literature it has been observed that the mentioned studies focus on customer complaint management process, characteristics of complaining customers, justice perceptions of complainants, complaint collecting channels, benefits of efficient complaint management, types of reactions by complaining customers and factors that lead to complaints. However research has not questioned which factors affect how customer complaint management quality could be ensured and improved. If the customer complaint management branches of firms are not efficiently and effectively operated, it would not be possible to offer a high quality service, from the detection of customer complaints to solving them, which meets the demands of the customers. Thus the dimensions of customer complaint management quality should be discovered and customer complaint management processes would be developed in view of these factors.

1This study is based on the Ph.D. dissertation thesis titled “Quality Determinants of Customer Complaint Management in Service Businesses and Business Performance”, completed in Dumlupınar University, Turkey in 2015.
* In this study, financial support was provided from the BAP Office of Dumlupınar University for the implementation of the questionnaires.
The main aim of this research is revealing the dimensions of customer complaint management quality of firms.

The results of this study are expected to introduce customer complaint management quality and its dimensions to customer complaint management literature and fill an important gap in literature. At the same time, the offered customer complaint management quality dimensions would have practical outcomes.

A “Customer Complaint Management Quality” scale was developed in order to determine the dimensions of customer complaint management quality. Some of the scale items were borrowed from the work of Homburg and Fürst (2005), and Tax et al. (1998) and adapted to the conditions of the sector in which the research would be carried out and dimensions of customer complaint management quality would be measured. The developed scale was applied to the executives of Garanti Bankası, İş Bankası, Yapı Kredi Bankası and Akbank branches located in İstanbul.

The “Customer Complaint Management Quality” scale developed in this study is also important as the first scale developed in this field. The analyses carried out in the study revealed three dimensions as determinants of customer complaint management quality and were labelled interest and transparency, authorization, and process standardization.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Importance of the Research: No specific studies concerning the determinants of customer complaint management quality were encountered in the literature concerning customer complaint management. In the theoretical section of this study, three basic factors were identified as the determinants of customer complaint management quality and appeared in the related literature for the first time. These are interest and transparency, empowerment and authorization and process standardization. These factors which were named “customer complaint management quality determiners” were supported with the present analyses and included in customer complaint management literature for the first time filling an important gap. This marks an important contribution of the study to existing literature and also its originality.

Purpose of the Study: The main aim of the study is contributing the literature through the confirmation of customer complaint management quality determinants discussed in the theoretical background of the study and labelled as interest and transparency, empowerment and authorization and process standardization.

The practical aim of the study is developing a valid and reliable tool for determining and measuring the theoretically established dimensions of customer complaint management quality.

Scope and Method of the Study: The scope of the study includes the branches of four private banks located in İstanbul. The banks are İş Bankası, Yapı Kredi Bankası, Akbank and Garanti Bankası. These banks were selected as they represent similar organizational scales and are closest rivals to each other. Data was collected from those districts of İstanbul where the branches of the mentioned banks are geographically close. The research was applied on the executives of bank branches. Since questionnaires were used for collecting data the research was carried out during a specific time period.

Both theoretical and empirical research methods were employed during the research. During the literature research international periodicals, scientific books,
papers presented at national congresses, national periodicals, and statistics presented by public institutions were consulted. The theoretical foundations of the study were based on the data gathered through a theoretical method; secondary data analysis, and primary data required to test the research model based on the mentioned theoretical foundation were collected through an empirical research method; survey method.

The research has an explanatory research model. The model was chosen as it allows exploring the causality among the variables of the study. The research unit is the bank branch. The data was collected through survey method and face-to-face interviews. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were made to discover the factors that are the determinants of customer complaint management quality.

**Research Population and Sampling:** The research population is composed of the private banks in Turkey. According to the 2016 data of Banks Association of Turkey the number of private banks operating in Turkey is 9 and the number of local branches these have overall Turkey is 4258. Due to the large research population and their geographical distribution a full inventory was not possible and a sampling was taken. Decisional sampling, which is one of non-random sampling methods, was accepted as the sampling method.

Thus, the research was limited to private deposit banks Akbank, İş Bankası, Yapı Kredi Bankası and Garanti. Considering the cost and span of the study the research was limited to the branches of the four private banks located in Istanbul. According to the data obtained from the Banks Association of Turkey the total number of branches these banks have in Istanbul is 1262 (Akbank 305, Yapı Kredi Bankası 325, Garanti Bankası 320, İş Bankası 360). This adds up to 30% of the total number of branches these banks have in Turkey. Therefore, the branches in Istanbul were taken as the sampling.

**Preparation of the Questionnaire:** The first part of the questionnaire is composed of six items and reserved to collecting demographical information about the participants, the branch age and number of employees working at the branch.

The second part is composed of a 27-item scale, all related to customer complaint management. The scale items in this part were taken from the work of Homburg and Fürst (2005), and Tax et al. (1998) and adapted to the banking sector and changed so as to measure the dimensions of customer complaint management. As a result, the “Customer Complaint Management Quality” scale was developed.

**Collecting, Coding and Organizing the Data:** In the applied part of the research the primary data was collected using survey method. The surveys were applied through face-to-face interviews. The research was selected for financial support by Dumlupınar University Scientific Research Projects (BAP) office. Financial aid for applying the surveys was provided by Dumlupınar University Scientific Research Projects (BAP) office.

The data was collected through face-to-face interviews with the branch managers of Akbank, İş Bankası, Yapı ve Kredi Bankası and Garanti Bankası in Istanbul. A sum of 368 branches of these banks in Istanbul have been visited however only 200 branch managers accepted to participate in the study. All the questionnaires handed out were correctly and entirely filled and the analyses were conducted over these 200 questionnaires.

The answers of the participants were processed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) 16.0 for Windows and LISREL 8.51 for Windows softwares. Since both softwares have been commonly used especially in quantitative analyses conducted
in many branches of social sciences, we also used the named software in our study. The two software packages were used coordinately as they complete each other in view of the specifications they bear. Although exploratory factor analysis can be carried out using SPSS 16.0, this software program lacks the necessary modules for computing multivariate statistics including confirmatory factor analysis.

RESULTS and DISCUSSION

Reliability: As a result of the reliability analysis conducted on the 27 scale items concerning customer complaint management quality, the Cronbach’s Alpha value for the scale was 0.93, the standardized Cronbach’s Alpha value was also 0.93, and all scale items were positive and scored higher than 0.25 and none of the scale items had larger alpha values compared to that of the scale in general.

As the Cronbach’s Alpha values obtained after the analyses are highly reliable, it can be claimed that the scale developed for determining the dimensions of customer complaint management quality is a reliable and valid measure. Exploratory Factor Analysis: Exploratory factor analysis was made for testing the discriminant and convergent validity of the scale and discovering the dimensions of customer complaint management quality; that is, obtaining theoretically significant and independent factor structures. After the primary factor analysis conducted for measuring the customer complaint management quality using Maximum Likelihood and Direct Oblimin factor rotation methods, it was determined that 5 factors had Eigenvalues larger than 1, the $X^2$ value was significant and the KMO value was 0.90. In addition to this, items 16 and 17 were removed from the scale as their factor loadings were below the base value 0.50 and items 5, 9, 10, 11, 15, 21 were removed from the scale as they load onto more than one factor and inattentive readers might misunderstand the query and the factor analysis was repeated. As a result of the second factor analysis it was determined that 3 factors had Eigenvalues larger than 1, the $X^2$ value was significant and the KMO value was 0.90. In addition to this, items 16 and 17 were removed from the scale as their factor loadings were below the base value 0.50 and items 5, 9, 10, 11, 15, 21 were removed from the scale as they load onto more than one factor and inattentive readers might misunderstand the query and the factor analysis was repeated. As a result of the second factor analysis it was determined that 3 factors had Eigenvalues larger than 1, the $X^2$ value was significant and the KMO value was 0.90. The items 12, 13 and 18 were removed as they load onto more than one factor and removed from the scale since they were equivalent items. The factor analysis was repeated for a third time after the items were removed. After the factor analysis it was determined that the scale constructed for measuring customer complaint management readily load onto 3 factors, factor loadings were above 0.50 and the total variance explained by the three factors was % 59.80, the $X^2$ value was significant and the KMO value was 0.89. This indicates that the items and the factors are highly and significantly related.

Regarding the relationship between the scale items and the factors they load onto the mentioned factors were named; (1) interest and transparency, (2) empowerment and authorization, and (3) process standardization. Out of the total variance explained (59.80%), the factors explained 40.50%, 10.21%, and 9.08% of the total variance, respectively.

Exploratory factor analysis results for customer complaint management variable are given on Table 1 and Table 2 below.
Table 1: Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis of Customer Complaint Management Quality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPONENTS</th>
<th>1 Interest and Transparency</th>
<th>2 Empowerment and Authorization</th>
<th>3 Process Standardization</th>
<th>Cronbach alfa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Branch allows its customers for communicating complaints in their own viewpoints.</td>
<td>0,61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch’s procedures designed for handling complaints are fair.</td>
<td>0,57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch compensates customer complaints most appropriately.</td>
<td>0,73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch customers continue to buy service from the same branch after their complaints are resolved.</td>
<td>0,67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We provide customers explanatory and satisfactory information regarding their complaints.</td>
<td>0,79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0,88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We make effort to find a resolution even if the complaint arises from a customer fault.</td>
<td>0,81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our customers can easily contact executives through all direct and indirect communication channels to communicate a complaint.</td>
<td>0,72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customers are replied soon after communication of complaints.</td>
<td>0,68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are instructions in complaint management procedure that enables the personnel to take on responsibility for resolution of the problem.</td>
<td></td>
<td>0,75</td>
<td></td>
<td>0,78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff has enough authority for resolution of the complaints.</td>
<td>0,67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are compensation instructions applicable for complaints.</td>
<td>0,61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff deems customer complaints as not critics but an opportunity to build up customer satisfaction.</td>
<td>0,71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer complaint management procedure is clearly defined.</td>
<td>-0,71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0,79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required maximum time for complaint resolution is determined.</td>
<td>-0,67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customers are informed when their complaints are conveyed to relevant departments.</td>
<td>-0,75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complaint records are kept in a fast, complete and reasonable way.</td>
<td>-0,66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: KMO (Kaiser-Meyer Olkin) and Barlett’s Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Sampling Adequacy Measure (KMO)</th>
<th>Test of Globalness</th>
<th>1.41</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Df</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Meaningfulness</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the factor loadings obtained as a result of the exploratory factor analysis were above 0.50 and the factor structure of the scale explains more than 0.50 of the mean variance it can be asserted that the scale has discriminant and convergent validity. Moreover, according to Igbaria et al. (1995), if the correlation between the factors and the variables they belong to are high and significant and even higher than the variables that do not belong to these variables points at discriminant validity. When the correlation matrix used in the study is observed, it was deduced that the variables do not have high correlation with factors other than they belong to and they have high reliability values. In this context, the customer complaint management scale proposed in our study the items which measure each construct support unidimensionality and also backs up discriminate and convergent validity.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis is made to determine whether observable variable groups (measurements) are adequately represented by the factors they belong to or not. During confirmatory factor analysis, the covariance matrix produced by LISREL 8.51 for Windows software was used. To this end, the factor analysis results obtained using the covariance matrix produced for observable variables and MLE (maximum likelihood estimation) are given in the tables below. The variable is considered to load onto the right factor when parameter estimation value ranges between 0.50 and 0.99, it is statistically significant and the t value at the related significance value is above the theoretical values (t>2.58 for p<0.01, t>1.96 for p<0.05, t>1.64 for p<0.10) (Hair et al., 1998: 620).

Before confirmatory factor analysis the data has to undergo preliminary preparations. The data has to be checked for normal distribution, particular attention should be paid to skewness and kurtosis coefficients. The mentioned values were calculated using Lisrel 8.51 and the relative multivariate kurtosis values of the item means was calculated as 1.36. When multivariate kurtosis value is <10 the distribution is accepted to be normal (Kline, 1998). The correlation table obtained after the confirmatory factor analysis carries out using covariance matrix and maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) is given in Figure 1, confirmatory factor analysis results are given in Table 3 and the goodness fit indices for the related variable are given in Table 4.
Chi-Square=189.20, df=101, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.666

**Figure 1:** The Correlation Matrix obtained after Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Customer Complaint Management Quality

As observed in Table 3 the $t$ value is above the suggested theoretical value ($t>2.58$ for $p<0.01$). Moreover, all error terms have negative values and below 1. As also observed in Table 3, as a result of the confirmatory factor analysis for customer complaint management quality, the $t$ values for all factors were above 2.58. As the obtained $t$ values are above 2.58 the parameter validity were confirmed. The results of the $\chi^2$ test were also statistically significant.
### Table 3: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Customer Complaint Management Quality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exogenous Variables</th>
<th>Observed Variables</th>
<th>Parameter Estimates</th>
<th>t Values (p&lt;0.01)</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Process Standardization</strong></td>
<td>Process Standardization 1</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>Ref. Variable</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Process Standardization 2</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>7.82</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Process Standardization 3</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>8.80</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Process Standardization 4</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>8.11</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Empowerment and Authorization</strong></td>
<td>Empowerment and Authorization 1</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>Ref. Variable</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Empowerment and Authorization 2</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>9.01</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Empowerment and Authorization 3</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>7.55</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Empowerment and Authorization 4</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>9.34</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interest and Transparency</strong></td>
<td>Interest and Transparency 1</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>Ref. Variable</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interest and Transparency 2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Interest and Transparency 7</td>
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<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interest and Transparency 8</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>8.20</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 189.20, \text{ df } = 101, \frac{\chi^2}{\text{df}} = 1.87, \text{ p}=0.00 \]

Many studies in literature use goodness of fit indices and their limit values for testing confirmatory factor analysis results and model. As observed in Table 4 the \( \chi^2 / \text{df} \) value is below the suggested value (3) which indicates that there is no significant difference between the estimated and observed correlation matrices used in confirmatory factor analysis and the best factor structure was achieved. Similarly, Table 4 shows that the RMSR, RMSEA values are below the suggested values, the GFI, AGFI, NFI values are slightly below the suggested values and the NNFI and CFI values are above the suggested values. This shows that the factor structure is supported by the collected data.
Table 4: Goodness Fit Indices for Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Customer Complaint Management Quality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Recommended Values</th>
<th>Values Reached</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RMSR</td>
<td>≤ 0.05</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>≤ 0.08</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)</td>
<td>≥ 0.90</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted GFI (AGFI)</td>
<td>≥ 0.90</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normed Fit Index (NFI)</td>
<td>≥ 0.90</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonnormed Fit Index (NNFI)</td>
<td>≥ 0.90</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comperative Fit Index (CFI)</td>
<td>≥ 0.90</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2$/ df</td>
<td>≤ 3</td>
<td>1.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings confirm that the interest and transparency, empowerment and authorization and process standardization factors are the dimensions of customer complaint management quality. This signals a major contribution of our study to customer complaint management literature. These factors are explained in detail below.

**Dimensions of Customer Complaint Management Quality**

**Interest and Transparency**

The first dimension of customer complaint management quality is interest and transparency. Interest and transparency denotes taking care of the complaining customers in a suitable way regarding their complaints, understanding their expectations about how their complaints would be handled and providing solutions, informing the customers about the process and the steps already taken and building a transparent complaint management involving the customer within the process.

To this end interest and transparency dimension covers the activities related to facilitating access of customers to channels where they can raise their complaints, allowing the customers to tell their problems from their own points of view, giving explanatory and sufficient information regarding their complaints, compensating customer complaints in the most appropriate manner, making efforts to solve the problem regardless of its being customer-oriented, acting justly and rapidly.

The most important task of customer complaint management is encouraging customers to complain. Because, when customers do not make complaints to the firm they do not remain silent but they either tell the problem to their immediate vicinity in a negative manner and spread infamy through word of mouth or direct the complaints to third party people or institutions even worse break with the firm. In all three cases the firm will receive severe damage. Thus, firms need to improve the quality of customer complaint management process, design processes that facilitate reporting complaints, and enable smooth access to all complaint reporting channels.

Once the firm is informed about the complaint it becomes a part of the business processes of the firm (Barış, 2006). This is the most simplistic part of the process. The main and more important process involving the customer complaint management process starts here which should be characteristically caring and transparent. During this part of the process the customer makes another evaluation of her/his satisfaction asking “Was my complaint solved in an appropriate, just and fair manner?” and if s/he believes that the problem was not solved appropriately and adequately s/he decides to leave the firm (Barış, 2006).
If the firm has established close ties with the customer solving the complaints, that particular customer most likely becomes more loyal than another one who did not have any complaints (Bee, 1997). Service compensation denotes guaranteeing the problem causing the complaint would be solved and promptly taking action towards solving the problem. At this point customer complaints have an important stimulating effect and they initiate customer complaint management process. The customers who submit their complaints should be positively responded and the complaints would be welcomed with diligence. This might only be achieved if enough time is reserved for caring about the customer’s complaint and solving (Odabaşı, 2001).

The ties between the customer and the firm would be strengthened if customer complaints were correctly answered in transparent complaint solving processes that involve the customer in the process, showing due respect and care (Barlow & Moller, 2009). Customers become return customers when they believe that the firm takes earnest care of their complaints and would make every effort to solve issues (Hansen et al, 2009).

In line with the principle of care and transparency which are determiners of customer complaint management quality, the customers should be allowed to tell the problem from their own perspective. Even though the problem might be customer-oriented, a full understanding of the customer’s complaint can be achieved after a detailed recording of the entire information. However, these would not be limited to the problem of the customer but information about the desired measures to be taken by the firm to mitigate the experienced dissatisfaction should also be recorded (Barlow & Moller, 2008).

The principle of care and transparency is intended for having return customers after a solution has been provided for the complaints of the customers. A caring and transparent customer complaints management is more than handling the complaints; they also enable firms to make return customers out of those who have experienced problems (Larivet & Brouard, 2010).

For achieving quality in the customer complaint management, the customer should be convinced that the firm is interested in the complaints and the solution process is also transparent. The firm needs to openly announce that it wants to hear complaints; that is, it should publicize through ads, brochures, interior poster or sales point promotions that they want to listen to their customers (Barlow & Moller, 2009).

If firms do not understand their customer’s perspective about their products they would be unable to appreciate why they complain. This would prevent them from seeing complaints as an opportunity to improve the firm, its activities and products and relate them to quality improvement processes (Frimann & Edvardsson, 2003). However, the attitude of firms towards complaints, the way they deal with complaints and customers, and how they accept complaints and make efforts to solve problems might change the perception of customers about the firm in a positive manner.

While establishing customer complaint management processes firms need to take into consideration that the targeted intrabusiness processes and procedures should be as transparent as possible for the customer who experienced problems and complaint file processes need to be tailored to the perspective of the customer (Stauss & Seidel, 2004).
**Empowerment and Authorization**

The second dimension of customer complaint management system quality is empowerment and authorization. Empowerment and authorization denotes delegating authority to employees working within complaint management process enabling them to take immediate action in resolving complaints.

Empowerment and authorization covers the activities related to delegating sufficient authority to employees, issuing instructions that facilitate taking initiatives in the complaint management process, making employees regard customer complaints not as personal threats but as an opportunity to achieve customer satisfaction and developing a customer complaint management process which includes appropriate compensations for mitigating customer complaints.

The customers who had problems with the product tend to put the blame on the firms while the firms tend to accuse the employees (Barlow & Moller, 2009). When there is a problem at stake laying the blame on others would not contribute to finding solutions but result in a muddle. In order to prevent the existence of such a spiral the employees responsible for customer complaint management process would not regard complaints as personal criticism but consider them as opportunities for achieving customer satisfaction.

In the customer complaint management system, the first step to be taken is determining the behaviours of the firm managers and employees in case of a problem. In order to effectively alleviate customer complaints the managers and/or employees should listen to the problem, then investigate where it stems from and determine why these problems should be solved and following these start support programs to avoid repetition of complaints and lastly trace the complainant (Bedoyere, 1995).

It is of utmost importance for the managers and employees to know what to do in order to investigate the causes of customer complaints, solving complaints and offering sitable compensations for customer complaints. The employees should be continuously trained for achieving an understanding of their duties and responsibilities in the customer complaints management process and undertake what their position necessitates. The training should aim at encouraging the employees to listen to the complaints and teach them that an efficient complaint solving policy helps prevent unhappy customers leave the firm (Barlow & Moller, 2009). Thus, it would be possible to enhance the capabilities of the managers and employees on listening to and solving problems and even preventing problems which leads to increasing customer satisfaction (Yüksel & Kılınç, 2003) which in turn adds to the quality of the customer complaint management process.

While handling complaints within the customer complaint management process the firms need to acknowledge that the attitude of employees towards customer complaints is also important. When employees encounter a frustrated customer they might think that they were falsely accused and spend an unforeseen amount of time solving the complaints of these customers which in turn annoys them (Stauss & Seidel, 2004). However, if employees have such attitudes and behaviours the already frustrated customer would be further provoked and the problem would become insolvable. Thus, each and every employee of the firm would control their personal feelings while meeting customer complaints and follow right attitudes for dealing with customers. Following right attitudes in customer relations denotes being positive, caring, attentive and empathetic with the customer. In such cases, employees should decide on the
measures to be taken in order to resolve complaints, plan the actions to be taken, answer possible customer responses, and know the necessary information in advance to make reliable evaluations (Taşkın, 2005).

In some cases employees might take the complaints of the customers as an assault on their self-confidence. They consider complaints as comments on their profession and relate them with who they are. In short, they might personalize the complaints (Barış, 2006). Whereas, instead of all these negative sentiments and opinions employees should realize that complaining customers are not rivals but partners who intend to improve the processes and products of the firm (Stauss & Seidel, 2004).

In the customer complaint management process the employees responsible for the process should be endowed with suitable authority and responsibilities. If the people responsible for the process are not appropriately empowered and the manager is involved in the process the customer might think that the employee lacks necessary skills for coping with the problem thus it would remain unsolved by this person. This would adversely affect the customer’s trust to the firm and the impression that the problem would remain unsolved would occur. On the other hand, the involvement of the manager in the process might lead the customer to think that similar instances would be prevented in the future. The firm should decide on the involvement of the managers in alleviating the problems related to the customer complaint considering the reactions and reviews of the customers (Yüksel & Kılınç, 2003).

It is important to empower those employees who have face to face communication with the customers for solving the problems that cause complaints. In order to ensure that these responsibilities and the related authority are fully understood by the employees, the employees should be correctly chosen and supported by training activities. The recovery of the losses encountered by the customer is parallel to the amount of authority enjoyed by the employees (Odabaşı, 2010).

**Process Standardization**

The third dimension of customer complaint management system quality is process standardization. Process standardization means the standardization of entire customer complaint management processes.

To this end, process standardization covers an open and clear complaint management process where incoming complaints are rapidly, fully and logically kept, the maximum amount of time required for solving the complaints has been defined, the complaints are conveyed to the related departments and the customer is informed about the process.

When the customer notifies the firm about his/her complaint the complaints becomes involved in the work processes of the firm. The employee who receives the complaint is responsible for directing the complaint to the related department or manager regarding its topic. The unit or manager receiving the complaint should determine the criteria to be applied not only for the present customer complaints but in order to prevent all future complaints (Singh & Widing, 1991).

The firms should openly and clearly define their process of complaint management processes. This would result in precisely determining the activities to be undertaken for solving the complaints and by whom or which department. Building such a process would enable openly defining the steps to be taken when a complaint is received, the duties and responsibilities of the employees in the process and facilitate solving the
complaints straightaway. Moreover, rapidly and fully recording the customer complaints is an important matter in customer complaint management process. Because, keeping complaint records fully and rapidly means solving the issues rapidly and fully.

Each and every complaint provides the firm with valuable information. The firms should convey the information it gained through complaints to all the departments that cause or might be influenced by complaints. In addition to that the customer should be notified when the complaint is forwarded to the related department. The main contribution of this reducing the negative sentiments caused by the complaint as the customer would feel that the complaint has received attention and is being processed.

The firm should examine the customer complaint management processes in detail. The firm should determine the errors in the department taking care of complaints and would improve as necessary, keep a record of the complaints and ensure the simplicity of complaint acceptance procedures (Johnston & Mehra, 2002).

The factor of process standardization necessitates determining the maximum amount of time needed for solving the problems. If the problems are solved by the firms in a small amount of time the satisfaction rates of the customers increase and they purchase other products of the firm. Research carried out in this field indicates that the repurchase intention rate of the customers whose complaints were solved is 54% while it increases to 82% if the problems are solved immediately. Hence, if the problems are solved rapidly the intention to purchase drastically increases from 54% to 82% (Griffin, 2002).

The firms have to state the amount of time required for solving the complaints in their customer complaint management process. For instance; 90% of the incoming complaints should be answered in maximum 7 days. For longer amounts of time the customer should be updated in every two days about the process and estimated time remaining (Eşkinat, 2009).

Firms should openly define their complaint management processes as required by the process standardization factor which is a determinant of the quality of customer complaint management system. In order to do this firms should prepare guidelines showing how complaints would be handled and the procedures related to handling complaints and pass it to employees working in complaint management processes. This guideline should include the plans made for solving the complaints, methods of analysis, operational procedures, a checklist of requirements from the opening of a complaint to its solution and a detailed list of people responsible for these requirements and the names and positions of all employees related to complaint management (Eşkinat, 2009).

CONCLUSIONS

There are numerous studies on customer complaint management in related literature. Scrutinizing these we came across with subcategories including customer complaint management process, issues that cause complaints, characteristics of complainants, and complaint collecting methods. However, research has not questioned the determinants of customer complaint management quality in any of the reviewed literature.

The present study identifies three dimensions of customer complaint management quality as process standardization, empowerment and authorization, and interest and transparency. This was confirmed with exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses.
This marks an important contribution of the study to existing literature filling an important gap and also its originality.

Moreover, a scale was developed in order to determine the dimensions of customer complaint management quality. After the reliability analyses carried out it has been confirmed that the developed “Customer Complaint Management Quality” scale is highly reliable and valid. This is an important result for the related literature. This study is expected to shed light on further studies in the field as it represents a unique scale that is intended for discovering the dimensions of customer complaint management.

This study also bears importance for the service sector. The banks that represent the research population of the study receive the highest number of complaints compared to other firms in the service sector. This indicates that banks need to devote particular attention to quality of customer complaint management. Our study openly suggests that banks need to consider the factors of process standardization, empowerment and authorization, and interest and transparency in order to improve the quality of customer complaint management.

The applied part of the study was carried out on branch managers of İş Bankası, Yapı Kredi Bankası, Akbank and Garanti Bankası operating in İstanbul. The study might be repeated 1-2 times on at least 3 year intervals or researchers might compare their findings on studies in bank branches in different cities with the results of the present study. It might even be considered to extend the research to all the branches of these banks throughout Turkey and a general result might be achieved.

It has to be noted that the sampling of the study was taken from the branches of 4 private banks. Future studies might consider appealing to larger samplings, and if the research were applied on all private banks research findings could be generalised to all private banks operating in Turkey.

The scope of this study excluded public banks. If the public banks were taken as the research population the finding could be presented in a comparative study of the customer complaint management quality of public and private banks.

Lastly, the population of this study was limited to banks only. Other service sector firms (for instance tourism) where face-to-face interaction is ample might be the subject of similar studies.

REFERENCES
INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the study is portraying the sight of public administration field in Turkey after 2000 through the Amme İdaresi Dergisi prominent, rooted and well-known academic journal on public administration field, released since 1965. However, that considered the issues between 2000-2017 period. The journal has been brought out four times annually.


These studies have revealed the characteristics of the public administration discipline in Turkey. In literature, the early studies have focused on the periodical changes of public administration as a discipline, its research topics and their frequency distribution among the public administration studies in Turkey (Berkman 1987, Ayman-Güler 1994, Aykaç 1995, Keskin 2006). The next phase studies revised the early studies through the knowledge of state in academic journals (Berkman 2009, Kurt and Sözüer 2016).

The focused questions are following: 1) How can be clarified the progressing of the public administration discipline after 2000 in Turkey in accordance with research topics and their distribution among the Amme İdaresi Dergisi rooted and well-known academic journal on public administration field? 2) Are the findings research topics and their distribution among the Amme İdaresi Dergisi compatible with the findings of the studies involved in literature scanning?

The study has been constructed in three sections. In the first section, Amme İdaresi Dergisi has been scanned in accordance with its issues between 2001 and 2017 and classified with research topics in the second section, frequency and percentage distribution of the themes after filling of code card by years have been composed in the tables. In the conclusion, the outstanding topics and portrayal of the public administration discipline in Turkey have been discussed.

CLASSIFICATION OF THE TOPICS IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The investigation begins with the scanning the public administration studies in literature in Turkey. After the literature scanning has been encountered the studies that have been set on the evaluation of the periodical progressing of public administration

These studies have revealed the characteristics of the public administration discipline in Turkey. In literature, the early studies have focused on the periodical changes of public administration as a discipline, its research topics and their frequency distribution among the public administration studies in Turkey (Berkman 1987, Ayman-Güler 1994, Aykaç 1995, Keskin 2006).

The next phase studies revised the early studies through the knowledge of state in academic journals (Berkman 2009, Kurt and Sözüer 2016). The in questioned studies have concentrated on themes and topics of the public administration discipline. After literature scanning, that adverted two highlighted arguments. Emre 2003 indicates that after 1990, with globalization effects Public administration studies have been getting into the mainstream of business administration discipline. This new version of the public administration is called public management. The main themes of the public administration have moved to deregulation, managerialism in public administration, performance measurement and international actors.

Üstdiken Pasadeos 1993 asserts that globalization and systemic change of the order in the world have reflected Turkey with tracing private sector oriented policy and international expansion practices. Hereunder, Public administration studies have turned towards the productivity, organization culture, international actors, and knowledge management themes.

The arguments and intersecting points of the studies selected from literature have steered the detection of the categories and having contemplated the main issues of public administration and design into four main categories: 1) Theoretical issues, 2) Issues in the structure of the Public Administration, 3) Issues in the function of the Public Administration 4) Issues in the parties of the Public Administration.

Then, Amme İdaresi Dergisi has been scanned and key-words of the articles have been noted for each issue between 2001 and 2018. Hereunder, four main categories have been associated with keywords. Theoretical Issue has divided into Political Sciences, Administrative Sciences, and Public Administration. The issue in the Structure of the Public Administration has divided into Issue has divided into three sub-categories: a) Reform and Regulation in Public Administration. b) Administrative control, Organization, Personnel Regime, Bureaucracy. c) Leadership Human Resources, Public Relations, Knowledge Management, Performance Audit flexibility.

Issues in the Function of the Public divided into two categories: Public services and public policy and as last main category issue in the parties of the public administration divided into two sub-categories: a) Political parties, identity, class, ideology b) state-citizen relations, national, international actors. Thereby, code card has fulfilled (see Appendix I). As a next step, the code card has filled by years and data set has been constructed (see Appendix II). The articles that encompass intersecting keywords have overlapped in code card. Totally 334 articles have been marked.

**ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS**

The frequency of the topics in Amme İdaresi Dergisi and distribution of the topics in accordance with the percentage has been derived from the data set involved in
### Table 1: Frequency of the Topics in Amme İdaresi Dergisi

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Sub-Issue</th>
<th>Main Issue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical Issues in Public Administration</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issues in the Structure of Public Administration</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issues in the Function of Public Administration</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issues in the Parties of Public Administration</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issues in the Structure of Public Administration</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>18</td>
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<tr>
<td>Issues in the Function of Public Administration</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issues in the Parties of Public Administration</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table-1 presents the frequency of the topics in Amme İdaresi Dergisi. Issues in the structure of the Public Administration have been involved in Amme İdaresi Dergisi with 163 articles is the highest score between 2001-2017 years. Theoretical issues are the second highest category with 77 articles. Issues in the Parties of Public Administration relevant to human relations and behavioral analysis are the third highest category with 64 articles.

The function of the public administration has been involved in Amme İdaresi Dergisi with 30 articles. Issues in the structure of the Public Administration have been divided into three sub-categories. Administrative control, Organization, Personnel Regime, Bureaucracy category represents early themes and 51 articles have passed in Amme İdaresi Dergisi. However, Organizational structure Leadership Human Resources, Public Relations, Knowledge Management, Performance Audit flexibility category is relatively current themes. Additionally, this category is related to business administration discipline and 75 articles have passed.

Issues in the Parties of Public Administration have represented the human behavioral and human relations. It is the third highest category. The state-citizen relations, national, international actors sub-category is relatively current themes. It shows higher score with 42 articles in 64 articles.
Table 2: Distribution of the Topics in accordance with Percentage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-Issue</th>
<th>Political Science</th>
<th>Administrative Sciences</th>
<th>Intersecting Area</th>
<th>Public Administration Reform and Regulation</th>
<th>Public Administration Administrative control Organization Personnel Regime</th>
<th>Public Administration Organization Culture, Leadership Human Resources Knowledge Management, Performance Audit flexibility</th>
<th>Public Services</th>
<th>Public Policy</th>
<th>Political Parties Identity</th>
<th>State-Citizen Relations</th>
<th>national International Actors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Issue</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table-2 presents the percentage of the topics in Amme İdaresi Dergisi. Theoretical issues in Public Administration category has been political science with 0,5 percent. Issues in the structure of the Public Administration has been involved in Amme İdaresi Dergisi, Organization Culture, Leadership Human Resources, Public Relations, Knowledge Management, Performance Audit flexibility category is relatively current themes and taken placed with 0,46. Administrative control, Organization, Personnel Regime, Bureaucracy category represents early themes and has been constituted 0,31 between 2001-2017 years.

Issues in the Parties of Public Administration have represented the human behavioral and human relations. It is the third highest category. The state-citizen relations, national, international actors sub-category is relatively current themes and) state-citizen relations, national, international actors category is 0,66 in the main category issue in the parties of the public administration.

**CONCLUSION**

When the public administration studies after 2000 in Turkey have been evaluated through the Amme İdaresi Dergisi the following remarks can be articulated:

Political sciences have been the intensive issue of the theoretical aspect of Public Administration with 38 frequency in 77 articles (0,50 percent) in the scanning of Amme İdaresi Dergisi between 2001-2017 period.

The Issue in the structure of the Public Administration has been the top-line topic with 163 articles in the Amme İdaresi Dergisi between 2001-2017 period. When the sub-issues has been view Organizational structure Leadership Human Resources, Public Relations, Knowledge Management, Performance Audit flexibility category is 75 frequency in 163 articles (0,46), relevant to business administration field the highest score. This finding approves the effect of business administration discipline on public administration studies as Emre 2003 has indicated.

Furthermore, the height of the in questioned issues frequency can be proof the
tracing private sector oriented policy and its swiftly impact on public administration studies. However, Reform and regulation issue has not demonstrated dramatic score 37 frequency in 163 articles (0.23).

The Issues in the Function of Public Administration category has shown the lowest score 30 frequency in the 334 articles. Finally, Issues in the Parties of Public Administration has represented the human behavioral and human relations. It is the third highest category. The state-citizen relations, national, international actors sub-category is relatively current themes. It shows higher score with 42 articles in 64 articles.

This finding shows the systemic change on the parties of Public Administration. As a corollary of the international expansion, the international actors have been involved in Amme İdaresi Dergisi as a theme. That said, Üstdiken and Pasadeos 1993 argument can be supported.

REFERENCES


## APPENDIX –I: CODE CARD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Political Science</th>
<th>Administrative Sciences</th>
<th>Intersecting Area</th>
<th>Public Administration</th>
<th>Reform and Regulation in Public Administration</th>
<th>Issues in the Structure of Public Administration</th>
<th>Issues in the Function of Public Administration</th>
<th>Issues in the Parties of Public Administration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

- Political Science
- Administrative Sciences
- Intersecting Area
- Public Administration
- Reform and Regulation in Public Administration
- Issues in the Structure of Public Administration
- Issues in the Function of Public Administration
- Issues in the Parties of Public Administration

- Administration culture, Leadership
- Human Resources
- Public Relations
- Knowledge management
- Performance Audit
- Flexibility
- Public Services
- Public Policy
- Political Parties
- Identity
- Class
- State-Citizen Relations
- National-International Actors
## APPENDIX –II: Data Set

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Political Science</th>
<th>Administrative Sciences</th>
<th>Intersecting Area Public Administration</th>
<th>Reform and Regulation in Public Administration</th>
<th>Administrative control Organization, Personel Regime, Bureaucracy</th>
<th>Organization culture, Leadership, Human Resources</th>
<th>Public Relations, Knowledge management, Performance, Audit, Flexibility</th>
<th>Public Services</th>
<th>Public Policy</th>
<th>Political Parties</th>
<th>Identity</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>State-Citizen Relations</th>
<th>International Actors</th>
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<tr>
<td>2001</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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Chapter 10

A Significant Transformation in the Right Politics at the Beginning of the 21st Century: Meltdown in the Center Right Politics

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INTRODUCTION

The emergence of the center right politics in Turkish political life can be linked to the political and economic conditions created by the post-World War II Era (Mert, 2007: 35). The emergence of bipolar world in the aftermath of World War II required Turkey, as well as all other countries trying to take sides with the West, to take a number of political initiatives (Şeyhanlıoğlu, 2001: 108). The criticism that the political regime of Turkey purporting a one party dictatorship was more intense for the period until 1945 (Sunay, 2010: 171). These criticisms can be said to have an accelerant effect on Turkey's transmission to the multi-party political life, as a country in search for a new Western-based alliance. The fact that center-right politics having international support from the starting of its institutionalization and implemented politics in harmony with the international global economy and politics, have been discussed within the context of meltdown in the center right politics at the beginning of the 21st century, which is the main subject of the present study.

With the foundation of Democratic Party (DP), founded by the opposition wing within the Republican People's Party (CHP), the multiparty political life is known to start de facto in Turkey and the right politics is known to emerge. DP, considered as the milestone of the center right politics in Turkey, was an opposition party from its foundation date January 7, 1946 to May 14, 1950, and became the ruling party from May 14, 1950 to May 27, 1960 coup d'état. After DP was closed with the May 27, 1960 coup d'état, Justice Party (AP), which was one of the most important parties in the center-right movement, was founded in 1961. The AP gained the most prominent right-wing party identity supported by conservative voters, either alone when it came to the power during crisis period or in coalition with other parties between 1960 and 1980 (Uzun, 2010: 271). The center-right politics and political parties in Turkey after 1980, which is the main subject of the present study, have been observed to adopt fundamentally the same political style with the center-right parties before the 1980, in terms of their policies in harmony with the global politics and the electorate they appeal to.

It will be to the point to evaluate the general lines of center-right politics in Turkey after 1980 in conjunction with the effects of the new right politics in the USA and UK axis on national and international processes. First, the neo-liberal economic policies adopted by the January 24th Declaration just before the coup d'état were applied rapidly, and the bourgeoisie began to gain autonomy from the state, manifested itself in
the process of change and transformation. Conservatism, a part of the right politics, is a phenomenon on the rise with the center-right politics under the name of "new-right" or "new-conservatism" in Turkey, although not handled politically within a specific system (Safi, 2007: 171-176; Eryılmaz, 2010: 18-19). In other words, as a reflection of the new-right politics such as Thatcher administration in the UK, and Reagan in the USA, the pioneer of Turkey's new-right politics was Motherland Party (ANAP) and its leader Turgut Özal. Turgut Özal was raised in a religious household devoted to Islamic Naqshbandi order, and he was an advocate of free market economy and devised a "four-wing"\(^1\) politics defending democratic values. These factors have opened the way for the new-right openings in Turkish politics and can be argued to open the way for Turkey to integrate with the global politics with the present conservative elements.

In addition to the ANAP, it is necessary to draw attention to the right-wing party DYP, which is another central right-wing party in the same period, and the dividing votes of the center-right. Founded in 1983 as the continuation of DP and AP, DYP was headed by Süleyman Demirel starting from September 6, 1987, after the abolishment of political bans. Thus, for the first time in the political scene, two major center right parties coexisted. From this perspective, during the nineties, a divided center right politics can be seen with the coexistence of ANAP and DYP (Kahraman, 2007: 94-96; Altuğ, 1993: 69-76). Taking the voting rates of both parties into consideration, especially after 1991, it is not possible to say that the desired success was achieved, though slight increases were seen. This situation was not recognized by the headquarters of both parties, and although the search for different leaders and partnerships were brought to agenda till 2002, the implemented politics could not stop the melting of both parties' grassroots.

AK Party, claimed as another representative of serious fractures in the center right politics history, declared itself as the real representative of the nation, exhibiting the continuation of the classical rhetoric. However, AK Party follows the National Opinion tradition, which is a radical right tradition. It is argued that political parties "becoming the state itself" today, instead of representing society as political actors, focus on their own interests and as a result lose public confidence. However, the picture emerging in the 21\(^{st}\) century shows that the parties are not weakened; on the contrary, they are strengthened. For this reason, it would be appropriate to determine the meltdown/inefficiency of the system parties rather than to claim the inefficiency of the parties. Within this framework, it can be said that "marginal" parties come into power and undertake the construction of new center (Durgun, 2014: 352-353). Unlike the center-right party tradition, AKP is a party coming from the National Opinion tradition, and gather the votes of center under a single roof, and it can be evaluated within this scope.

Based on this background, the study focuses on the gradual power loss of center right parties and weakening of the center right line in Turkish political life. This

\(^1\)The foundation years of DP coincided with the II. World War years. The economic problems experienced during this period caused a reaction against the CHP, the ruling party. Indeed, it is one of the widely accepted facts that ruling party pays off for the failure in the implementation of politics in the newly established systems. As a result, the CHP lost May 14, 1950 elections. This situation is not only regarded as the defeat of the single party administration. DP's victory in the elections is regarded both as the transition to the multiparty life (Sarıer, 1999: 23) and as the emergence of the center right political understanding in the political life in Turkey.
situation can be considered as an important transformation for Turkish politics. The study investigates the reasons for this situation and aims to predict the transformation of right politics. The study first reviews the general lines of the right politics, and then focuses on the reasons for the gradual power loss of the center right parties in the light of this information. Within this framework, the fundamental research questions are determined as follows: 1. How can the center right politics concept be defined? 2. What is the historical development of center right politics in Turkey? 3. What are the main reasons for the meltdown of center right in the 21st century? The answers to these questions are elaborated in this study.

1. The Political Life in Turkey within the Framework of Center, Right and Left Politics Concepts

The emergence and development of the doctrines upon which right and left politics based can be traced back to the 18th century. In the West, the first doctrine to develop in this sense has been liberalism which was developed to remodel the new economic, social and political constructions of industrial society. Liberalism developed as a theoretical doctrine with rich content rather than political practice and was effective in shaping the new political life of the emerging new society during the seventeenth century and eighteenth century. However, in response to the growing liberalism in the nineteenth century, Socialist and Marxist currents determined left politics, while conservatism, developed as a reaction movement against the French revolution, became the focus point of the right politics (Çaha, 2001: 95). Although the definitions of right-left and central politics are widely based on such a historical acceptance, it preserves the ambiguity of the debate about the separation between ideologies emerging within the framework of these concepts. It seems difficult to sharpen or eliminate totally the distinction between right and left politics based on the literature reviews. The ideological classification can become even more complex when conceptions such as center right politics and center left politics within the framework of center politics are added to the existing ambiguity.

The most common theories that are used in the classification of ideologies are "Linear Spectrum", "Horseshoe Spectrum" and "Two-Dimensional Spectrum". On the right-hand side of these liberalism-centered spectra are fascism, conservatism, new-right, center-right and varieties of these movements, while on the left side there are communism, socialism, social democracy, center left politics trends (Heywood: 2007: 21). Right and left ideologies have developed as opposite ideologies in the different regions of the world, especially in the West, and have been in conflict since their emergence. It is possible to say that this conflict which has been present since the eighteenth century also caused a change in the meaning of right and left concepts. In this context, it can be said that the same ideas are accepted as right in certain periods and left in other periods. When the arguments on the left and right ideologies are analyzed critically, it can be seen that these ideologies have not vanished especially in the twentieth century, but have come closer to each other in terms of the policies they implemented and thus their meaning and content have changed.

In addition to all this arguments, it should be kept in mind that right and left are not really ideologies, but are conceptualizations that are used to facilitate the expression of ideological thoughts. Another point that should not be forgotten is that there are only two poles in the right-left distinction, and critics of this distinction can claim that they...
lost the meaning of classification when they found a third political position. But just as there is a gray between black and white, there can be a center in the middle of the right and left, which are the two ends of the political arena and which give the classification its name. Like the gray area block the contact between right and left, it can also express a moderate right or moderate left close to the center. This facilitates the positioning of political movements and the understanding of systems (Bobbio, 1999: 47-62). Turkey has also many examples of political parties self-identifying as center-right and center-left, just in gray areas in the classification of Bobbio. It is seen that the vast majority of these examples of political parties emerged in the late eighteenth century in parallel to the global political understanding.

According to Bobbio (1194), as politics is based on aggression, it is possible to say that the right and left categories continue to affect the political thought. The essence of politics is based on the opposition. Left and right polarization is a creative distinction and will renew itself as before. According to Bobbio (1994), the difference between left/right is not entirely based on polarization. There are only basic ideological divergences between them. In this sense, "equality" concept is one of the most important criteria to distinguish between right and left politics. Left politics stands with more equality, while right politics classify the society inevitably in a hierarchical structure. In fact, the political understanding in which these basic ideological divergences smoothed redefines itself with the new conceptualization of politics such as the center-right, center-left, third way, new-right, new-left. 20th century political understanding, when the global political process accelerated after the dissolution of the USSR, is characterized by the lightening of the ideological baggage, and politics are implemented diversely both in theory and in practice.

Indeed, with the dissolution of the USSR, the globalization resulted in the differentiation the profiles of both right and left politics. The abandonment of socialism as an economic theory meant that another one of the important divergences between left and right politics was removed. As time passes and circumstances change, problems and possibilities, which was not previously considered within the ideological activity area of left and right politics have been brought to agenda. In addition to the ecological problems, problems related to the nature of the family, business, personal and cultural identity problems can also be listed (Giddens, 1994), and the political parties, as the chief actors of the politics, should produce solutions to these new problems within their ideological viewpoint. The development of the political understanding, evolved in parallel to the global political understanding, such as center right politics and center left politics, away from the marginal political thoughts such as left politics and right politics, can be traced back to the transition to the multiparty life in Turkey.

In Turkey, the classification of parties as right and left parties has started with the transition to multiparty life. However, this classification as right and left parties doesn't coincide with the right and left as defined by Western thought. In Western thought, left political stand means alternation, liberalism, populism and social equity while in Turkey left can be said to be "supporter of the status quo, prohibitive, statist and elitist" (Akdoğan, 2011: 8). In this way, although the concepts and ideologies of left and right carry the features of the geographies where they emerged it can be observed that they have gained features unique to Turkey in time. When the concepts of right and left politics entered to the Turkish political life and political polarization began, the left politics tried to build their own identity taking the certain legacy of left ideologies in the
Western border into account. The right politics tried to locate itself in respect to the position of leftist ideologies and adopted the political multi-alternativeness. In this context, it can be seen that while right politics turned to the multicultural structures and history to consolidate its native qualities, left politics adopted a political understanding based on economic right and equality. Once more, right politics can be said to qualify itself as liberal in the face of left politics.

As a matter of fact, the political understanding of center right parties that relieve their political baggage are seen to emerge generally in the field of liberalism-based economy. In this context, right politics is shown as the symbol of economic tranformationalism in Turkey, unlike left politics (Küçükömer, 2002: 143-144). The fact that during DP and AP period, the right politics gave priority to private enterprise system as well as the fact that the center right politics tried to establish the relationship between Turkey and globalization processes via especially and primarily economic field can be shown as the indicators of this situation. In the aftermath of 1980 when the world tended towards single polarity, this trend of economic development continued through ANAP, in the framework of center right political understanding. Reviewed from this point, the history of center right politics in Turkey is different from center right politics in the West. Liberalist, nationalist and conservative tendencies can be seen together in the center right political understanding in Turkey. At the same time, center right politics became integrated with the state as it implemented politics in parallel with the global political understanding. As will be explained in detail below, it was impossible "for a bourgeoisie integrated with the state to discuss with the state" until 1980s. However, it is possible to say that this situation has changed with the 1980 coup. In other words, center-right politics became autonomous from the state and assumed a relative independence (Kahraman, 1995: 21).

The center right political understanding in Turkey in the aftermath of 1980 tried not only to gain independence from the state. But it was also influenced by the trend of melting the ice between different political understandings with the influence of the rising wave of globalization. This process can be said to manifest itself more clearly in the politics of political parties especially with the end of 1980s. This process, in which political parties with very different ideological understanding can stand side by side and react in similar ways, brings a political standing that goes beyond ideologies into the foreground (Akdoğan, 2011: 9). Rather, this understanding, characterized by center right and center left political understanding, brought a secular, nationalist, statist, guardian, status quo, etc. understandings into the foreground in Turkey. As a matter of fact, it is possible to say that at the end of 1990s many parties in the center right and in the center left were based on these basic approaches.

The late 1990s and the early 2000s are considered as a period during which the loyalty to the political parties decreased both in Turkey and in the world, the discontent with the parties and politicians increased, the most of the political parties resembled ideologically to each other, the possibilities of electorate in terms of the political parties decreased. It should be remembered, however, that at the end of the twentieth century political parties have a global dimension in terms of their disgrace and / or collapse. The acceleration of global political process, the dominance of free market economy and neoliberal ideology are listed as the reasons for this situation. Once more, the political parties, which lose their ties with the society and their representative power, approach to the state and try to maintain their populist relation with the society via the bureaucratic
devices of the state, state subsidies, etc. (Cizre, 1999: 16). Technological developments that are the accelerators of globalization constitute a new political culture in this sense; citizens' efforts to criticize and change politics and anti-party politics are realized through global communication means.

In addition to the change of the content of the right and left ideologies which formerly dominated the whole political agenda, this resulted in the indistinctness of traditional oppositions. While left politics positioned in the conservative spectrum, global politics and capitalist economy have been promoted to a supra-political position in the framework of the right politics perception of new period. However, as stated in the introduction of the study, the picture emerging in the 21st century shows that political parties are not weakened; on the contrary, they are strengthened. This situation has created a new climate in which the policies with the progressive qualification were integrated into the public circulation as the pioneer and carrier of the change in the neo-liberalist right politics based Turkey. As a matter of fact, this century can be regarded as the century of parties’ descendant from the radical right parties rather than as the century of the center right parties, like the previous century. Influence of changes that overlap with the values of the center politics can be seen in the rise of the right ideological parties to the prominence in the 21st century, unlike the 20th century. The emergence of themes such as "twilight of the new age", "21st century vision", "two thousand years", etc., have resulted in an opposition relation via the distinction between "reformist" and "supporter of status quo" (Keyman, 2009: 10). Indeed, similar effects replacing the traditional right and left polarization in Turkey can be frequently seen as in the usage of binary oppositions of status quo-alteration, statism-globalism. For gaining a better understanding of the process, it would be appropriate to look briefly at the role and position of center right politics in Turkish political life.

2. Historical Development of Center Right Politics in Turkey

The emergence of right-center politics in Turkey are known to incorporate many national and international political factors within. The conditions in the international area especially in the aftermath of II. World war and economy politics seem to be effective in the development of center right politics. In national area, political and economic politics implemented in parallel with the international agenda seem to be associated with the reflections of the social structure of Turkey. In other words, the right politics tradition can be said to be affected by the conjuncture of 1946 and forward when DP was the ruling party in Turkey (Tosun, 2008: 3; Sunay, 2010: 171). Within the framework of the process of modernization, it is generally accepted that the center right politics tradition, which bases its rhetoric on liberalism and takes its powers from the original owners of the state, establishes its ties between electorate based on this foundation. The fact that center right politics had international support from the beginning of its first institution in Turkey and implemented politics in parallel with global economy and politics, are important factors to consider in analyzing the effect of globalization on the meltdown of center right political parties in the beginning of 21st in Turkey, which is the main subject of the present study. In this context, it is possible to say that the policies implemented and processes initiated to harmonize the country with the global political system by the center right parties when they are the ruling party follow nearly the same line.

It is generally accepted that the right politics in Turkey can be traced back to the
parties of Prince Sebahattin. After the attempts such as Progressive Republican Party (Terrakkiperver Cumhuriyet Fırkası), closed in the first years of the Republic and Liberal Republican Party (Serbest Cumhuriyet Fırkası) which had to close itself, DP became the center of the right politics (Akyol, 2009: 247). With the foundation of Democratic Party (DP), which was founded by the opposition wing within the Republican People's Party (CHP), the multiparty political life is known to start de facto in Turkey (Özdemir, 2012: 205). DP, considered as the milestone of the center right politics in Turkey, was an opposition party from its foundation date January 7, 1946 to May 14, 1950, and became the ruling party from May 14, 1950 to May 27, 1960 coup d'état (Uzun, 2010: 271). The political parties in the framework of the meltdown of center right politics in Turkey in the 21st century, which is the subject of the present study, can be seen to adopt fundamentally the same political style with the center right parties before 1980, in terms of the politics implemented in harmony with the global politics, and the conservative electorate they appeal to. The similarity between the politics with the center right political understanding constituted a political understanding consisting of economic liberalism, religious sensitivities and nationalism. One of the most important examples to give in this direction is the remove the ban on Arabic call to prayer with the DP government. This action provided a great advantage both to DP at that time and to other parties following the center right politics in the later years. As a matter of fact, it can be said that the central right-wing parties after the DP has striven to capture and / or maintain the positive wave that the DP created through religion (Mert, 2007: 20-135).

When the DP came to power with the 1950 elections, as an opposition party falling from power, CHP appeared to form an opposition mentality that influenced the formation of central right politics. For example, the reaction they revealed with the expression "Will those with sandals and caps rule us?" is seen to be almost engraved in the Turkish political history (Demirtepe, 1991: 15). This can also be interpreted as the negativity towards the opposition in Turkish political culture. It can be said that after the transition to the multiparty life, the ruling parties were intolerant to the opposition and this was an important factor leading to military coup d'états (Dursun, 2005: 182-183). This disturbance experienced by CHP showed itself in the change of ruling power in the following years of the Turkish political history. This viewpoint has been even taken up in the history pages of the Turkish political life as the reason for the reasonable acceptance of military interventions by some parts of the society. It is possible to say that the relation of power-opposition and therefore the viewpoint of center right politics continue in our time in nearly the same way.

On the other hand, it can be argued that during the rule of power, the DP was similar to single-party rule in terms of limitations3 on both social and political life. During the DP’s nearly ten years of power, the CHP took on the organization of opposition, and this time it assumed the leadership of democracy within the opposition.

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2Political propaganda and publication bans were implemented for six months for the members of parliament separated from DP, and the job security of civil servants, judges and academic members were abolished with the enacted laws. Opponent journalists were judged, CHP rallies were banned, the economy deteriorated, due to the inflation certain commodities were scarce (Findley, 2011: 308).

3"Four wing” means different political parties in the political scene: AP-the liberal right, CHP-social democracy, MSP-religious-right, MHP-nationalist right (Yücel, 2006:57).
The political events such as the blockade of CHP’s members of parliament, notably, İnönü, with the votes of DP’s members of parliament in 1960 increased the social tension and became one of the reasons for military coup d’état in May 1960 (Findley, 2011: 309).

The first party established as the continuation of the DP in the center right is known as the Justice Party (AP). It is possible to say that Ragip Gümüşpala, who was appointed to the General Staff Presidency on May 27, 1960, was welcomed by both civilian and military wing to be the general secretary of the AP after his retirement. While civilians regarded Gümüşpala, with a military history, as a guarantee for the center right politics, the military was also pleased to see a soldier at the head of center right after the coup (Ahmad, 2002: 149-165, Coşkun, 1995: 316). It can be argued that the desire of National Unity Committee (ruling military junta) to keep political parties under control in the aftermath of the 1960 coup resulted from the desire to prevent the emergence of extreme tendencies in the political scene. However, in the following years, this situation has turned into an almost familiar relationship between military and center-right politics.

After the 1960 coup, the AP, led by Süleyman Demirel, created a conservative and provincial political atmosphere by creating a discourse in which religious elements were frequently mentioned together with the propaganda of anti-Communism. Süleyman Demirel stated that his reason for entering to the politics was “to reconcile the state with peasantry and religion”. In this respect, Demirel can be seen as a closer to the religion and leader with a political standing on more right wing than Adnan Menderes. Moreover, the leader in the center right was no longer someone from the elites of the Republican regime, but a commoner with an engineering degree (Kahraman, 2007: 63).

In the years following the 1960s, the political mobility increased in Turkey in parallel with the world conjuncture. After the military intervention in 1971-1973, the political spectrum for both right and left wings seems to continue to expand in Turkey. Within the framework of global economic processes, Turkey took its share from global fluctuations at the end of the 1960s. In 1973 and 1979, the global increase in oil prices made the economic conditions difficult in oil importing countries. The economic conditions further increased the complexity political life and brought along the 1980 military coup d’état (Findley, 2011: 310). It is possible to say that there was a change of identity in the center right politics on the basis of neo-liberal political practices which were tried to be based on the authoritarian order after 1980. A center right in harmony with the global political processes, concentrated on neoliberal economic politics, but had conservative values centered on charismatic leader understanding, based on ANAP power and Özal could be seen in Turkish political scene instead of a center right, instead of a center right which spoke the language of people in the face of modernization processes, representing the Anatolia.

The center right politics in Turkey started to gain prevalence since the 1980s with both neo-liberal and conservative factors in parallel with the implementations in the world. As of this date, the center right politics and values have been transformed into concrete political aims (Eryılmaz, 2010: 18-19). In the same period, as a reflection of the new-right politics being Thatcher administration in UK, and Reagan in the USA, the pioneer of Turkey’s new-right politics was Motherland Party (ANAP) and its leader Turgut Özal. Besides all of these, Turgut Özal was raised in a religious Naqshbandi
household, and he was an advocate of free market economy and devised a "four-wing" politics defending democratic values. These factors have opened the way for the new-right openings in Turkish politics and can be argued to open the way for Turkey to integrate with the global politics with the present conservative elements. This can also be considered as the reason for the strengthening of the center right political understanding after 1980 by "differentiating" it.

Since the establishment of the its ideological foundation, ANAP took the private entrepreneurship to the forefront and sought to create a new civil society as a bourgeois society (Tosun, 1999: 220). It is possible to say that the desire to establish the civil society in favor of bourgeoisie and civil power consisting of Islamic-conservative powers led ANAP to synthesize the four tendencies which are statism, left politics, liberalism and Islamism, diverging from the overlap with traditional center right identity in Turkey.

When the themes laying at the ideological foundations of the True Path Party (DYP) representing center right political understanding at the same period, themes such as democracy, national will and prosperity are seen to be highlighted, which were the themes of DP in 1950s and AP in 1960-1970s. DYP, in need of basing its discourse on DP and AP due to the section it represented, gave great importance "national will" and "democratization" concepts since its establishment. The "victimization" of the two predecessor parties due to the military intervention constitutes one of the main themes of this discourse (Tosun, 1999: 231). In this period, religion began to be the "rising value" by taking advantage of the new free market conditions and the freedoms of democratic values. Because in the period before the 1980s, communism and fascism, two powerful radical tendencies, created a political identity and traile led young people, intellectuals and masses. It can be argued that, after the 1980s, when the globalization accelerated, the ideologies didn't end but both their effects disappeared compared to before and their "extremism" were smoothed within the framework of harmonization with the global political process and thus a gap can be said to emerge in making their identities meaningful. Religion and traditional values were seen as an important alternative in filling the gap existing in this process. In this context, the 1990s became the years when the most vigorous debates took place in Turkey in parallel to the global politics (Mert, 2007: 18). September 12, 1980 coup d'état can be said to affect the dividedness in the center right, a recurrent phenomenon in the parties founded after 1980. But it would be appropriate not to ignore the fact that, apart from the effects of the military coup d'état on the center right, the center right political leaders were more inclined to opposition idea than gathering the center right parties under a single roof, or uniting among them; instead they highlighted their own leadership features. The fact that both Demirel and Özal continued their effects on their parties even after their presidency can be evaluated in this context. As a matter of fact, DYP-SHP coalition in 1991 was the result of the dispute between center right party leaders, thus right and left party leaders came together and formed the coalition government.

Indeed, the 1991 general elections took place in a political conjuncture where the divisions both in right and left parties drew attention. With these elections, five political parties entered the parliament. The first party was DYP under the leadership of

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4The problems related to the rights of the Turkish minorities in the dissolved USSR and Yugoslavia can be given as an important example.
Süleyman Demirel and after appointed by President Turgut Özal to form the government, he established DYP-SHP coalition by agreeing with SHP. The two parties had a recurrent discourse on "democratization and demilitarization" when they were opposition parties. Acting in accordance with this rhetoric, they passed a legislation in June 1992 which allowed to reopen the closed political parties with September 12 military coup d'état. Thus, it paved the way for the CHP, AP, MSP and MHP, which were closed on October 16, 1981, to be reopened under the same names. Thus the existing parties were reinstituted with their original names. There have also been interruptions in domestic politics and the governmental activities such as the death of the President Özal, which resulted in Demirel's Presidency and Tansu Çiller's leadership in DYP; which led Çiller to form a new government. The DYP-SHP government also had to deal with various problems in foreign policy (Kara, 2007: 210). In this context, Turkey was deeply affected by the increasing conflicts in the world. Especially 1990s are considered as the most intense years of terror and anarchy incidents in Turkey. DYP-SHP government can be regarded as a democratic achievement for Turkish political life for a center-right and center-left party formed a government together for the first time. However, the insufficiency of the central parties to produce solutions to the political problems manifested itself in the subsequent processes.

The rise of the right political understanding rather than the center right political understanding which was reflected in the results of the 1995 elections prepared Turkey to the RP government both mentally and organizationally. The votes classified as center right in 1995 were shared between ANAP, DYP and RP; even RP being not a center right but only right party won 21.5 per cent of the all votes, the highest per cent in the election. 1995 early elections are considered as important in that for the first time the votes of the center right party grassroots shifted to a right wing party. Another important feature that should be noted in the 1995 elections is the gradual fall in the votes of left parties. As a result, RP and DYP formed a coalition government while all other political leaders were hesitated to be a partner in the coalition (İnan, 1996:6-7). A large part of the population defined as the center right grassroots, voted for ANAP in 1983 and 1987 chose to vote for RP in 1995, representing the religious and traditional values. The main reason, among many others, was emergence of a perception that the orientation of ANAP implemented with the neo-liberal politics was unsuccessful (Safi, 2005: 175). Although the political parties defined as the center right tried to differentiate their rhetoric to recover after this date, the voters cannot be said to accept this change in their rhetoric. The most intense meltdown in the center right was experienced after this date.

For example, at the beginning of the 1990s, when the votes began to fall, ANAP tried to keep the idea "liberalism unbalanced by conservatism would lead to anarchism, conservatism unbalanced by nationalism would bring back a state based on religion" (Heper, 2011: 209; Mutlusu, 2010: 386-387) on the agenda to show the union of four tendencies in the same party. This rhetoric led to a short term revival in the party administration and party grassroots (Tosun, 2008:3). But the rhetoric couldn't stop the loss of voters; which is one of the examples of the meltdown in the center right political understanding, the main subject of the study. As a matter of fact, the party members tried to emphasize the distinctive features of being center right party with the leader changes but couldn't attain the desired results.

DYP, another long established party seeking the center right votes, was chaired by
Çiller until 2002 elections. DYP, very hopeful for the 2002 elections, couldn't even pass election threshold despite the alliances it had established with other parties. As a result, Çiller withdrew her candidature in the first congress of DYP (Yücel, 2006:72). The party started to increase the votes with Mehmet Ağar, who was the new president in the next period, but could not attain the desired success. This indicates the meltdown of the party root grass and/or the differentiation of the demands although the party administration may not have realized.

November 3, 2002 was considered as a disappointment for all parties regardless of their position in political spectrum. AKP (Justice and Development Party) received 34.43% of the all votes in 2002 elections, a different party entering to the elections for the first time. The President of the period appointed Abdullah Gül to form a government, and AKP government created a rhetoric accordance with the 21st century political understanding, such as democratization, the removal of obstacles for Turkey's EU membership, a more democratic constitution, since the day it became ruling party with both right and center right votes (Koç, 2013:195). In this context, constitutional amendments and some harmonization packages have been approved by assembly. AKP came to power alone in 2002, 2007, 2011 and 2015 elections.

Thus, AKP's coming to the power as a newly established party, as well as its party staff, based on not a center right but a right-conservative political tradition made AKP the ideal choice for the center right electorate. While the center right political understanding was losing its credibility in the minds of existing parties, their administrative staff and the electorate, a party coming from right political tradition was able to gain the votes of both right and center right with the rhetoric in line with the 21st century political understanding and global political processes. It is apparent from this date that the discourse and the votes of the center right electorate began to define itself through the right political parties. This situation is expressed as meltdown of center right within the scope of the study.

In Lieu of Conclusion: The Reasons for the Meltdown of Center Right

The presence of the DP in the 1950s has been accepted as the starting point of the center right political rhetoric in Turkey. An opposition front was activated for the first time and it gained a political expression with DP. Nation was redefined as "Western, secular" within this framework. Following the DP, the AP took place in Turkish political life. AP, especially with Demirel, one of the leaders leaving his mark in the history of the center right politics, claimed to represent the nation and make the nation the ruler of the state, and always highlighted this point in its pro-democratic rhetoric. Democracy would be accomplished when the power will be given to the “true representatives” of the nation. ANAP and its leader Özal continued this rhetoric in the renewed center right politics after 1980, and highlighted that as a political party and political power, they were a part and representative of the nation (Mert, 2007: 104).

It can be argued that the desire of military power to keep political parties under control in the aftermath of the 1960 coup resulted from the desire to prevent the emergence of extreme tendencies in the political scene. This process was not only influential in the fact that the center right line located itself and was defined differently as the national will, but also it was influential in the fact that the center right rose to the power and characterized itself in the aftermath of 1980 military coup d'état. Within this framework, it is possible to say that there was a change of identity in the center right
politics on the basis of neo-liberal political practices which were tried to be based on the authoritarian order after 1980. A center right politics in harmony with the global political processes can be seen in Turkish political scene, instead of a center right politics which spoke the language of people in the face of modernization processes, representing the Anatolia. It is possible to say that the nation had an understanding of different political understandings in line with democratic order and global politics in this period. However, during the 1990s when the effects of the military coup d'état were tried to be removed with the clearing the way of constitutional freedoms, the meltdown process in the center right political parties and the opposition understanding in the new period seem to cause the center right politics to lose its power to represent the will of the nation and to further the meltdown of party grassroots in time.

In other words, for the center right parties, the political understanding seems to turn into a means of staying in power or taking a part in the administration within the military-politics relationship, instead of representing the will of nation. This situation is considered among the reasons of the meltdown in the center right politics especially in the 1990s. The political party leaders, coming to the power with the claim to be the representative of the nation, started to act with the bureaucratic elites of the state instead of the nation, thus the nation couldn't reach its voice to political party leaders in time. In the end, the nation whose demands were not taken into account came to the point of breaking its ties with the political parties. It is these parties which were defined as center right and couldn't pass the threshold in the elections at the end of 1990s.

Considered as a strong proof of meltdown in the center right politics, DYP-SHP government can be regarded as a democratic achievement for Turkish political life for a center-right and center-left party formed a government together for the first time in 1995 elections. However, the insufficiency of the central parties to produce solutions to the political problems manifested itself in the subsequent processes. The votes classified as center right in 1995 were shared between ANAP, DYP and RP; even RP being not a center right but only a right-wing party won 21.5 per cent of the all votes, the highest per cent in the election (İnan, 1996: 6-7). 1995 early elections are considered as important in that for the first time the votes of the center right party grassroots shifted to a right wing party. In this context, an important point to note in the 1995 elections is that a large part of the population defined as the center right grassroots, voted for ANAP chose to vote for RP in 1995, representing the religious and traditional values (Safi, 2005: 175). Although the political parties defined as the center right tried to differentiate their rhetoric to recover after this period, the voters cannot be said to accept these change in their rhetoric. 21st century political understanding within the framework of globalization processes can be considered as one of the underlying reasons for this meltdown and demand for differentiation. Because the change was not limited to administration and economy. The mindset and the demands of the citizens/electorate, having met with the outside thanks to the globalization, differentiated. Indeed, during this period, the parties unable to produce solutions to the problems of the electorate were in search of new ways; and the meltdown in the center right politics was witnessed within this framework.

It seems inevitable for politics and political parties to have difficulty in responding to this multidimensional complexity covering the whole global political processes and stagger from time to time. Indeed, the first thing to notice during the period from 1990s to 2000s is the political party "fragmentation" in the Turkish politics after ANAP's loss
of political power. The fragmentation in the political parties is interesting in with regards to the reasons for the meltdown in center right politics, the main subject of the study. Two major center right parties (DP-AP and ANAP-DYP) and two far-right parties (RP-FP and MHP-BP) seems to have played an active role in the political scene since 1946. Conflict and political revenge rather than harmony came to the forefront in the coalitions established by aforementioned parties (Ataay, 2008:77-78). Briefly stated, the coalitions established seem to be clogged in the process of parties' opposition to each other and political revenge. However, the intellectual transformations political parties experienced due to the effects of the global politics, which affected their way of doing politics radically, should not escape the attention. For this reason, it would be appropriate to determine the inefficiency of the system parties and thus their meltdown rather than to defend the inefficiency of the parties. Within this framework, it can be said that "marginal" parties come into power and undertake the construction of new center (Durgun, 2014: 352-353). Unlike the center-right party tradition, AK Party is a party coming from the National Opinion tradition, and gather the votes of center under a single roof, and it can be evaluated within this scope. This situation can be considered as an important transformation for Turkish politics. The center right votes melting down in the 21st century were gathered under a single roof with a right wing party. In this sense, AK Party, claimed as another representative of serious fractures in the center right politics history, declared itself as the real representative of the nations, thus exhibiting the continuation of the classical discourse. At this point, AK Party is different from the before parties in its definition of "nation", which is now defined as more religiously and conservatively. One of the opinions on AK Party is about its being a party following the DP, ANAP line; rejecting the National Opinion line;

"AK Party defines itself as conservative-democrat as a legitimate identity, while not rejecting the National Opinion line. Conservative-democratic identity produced to remove the Islamist past of its administrative staff has failed to satisfy the party members and people outside the party. Different definitions for AK Party such as Islamic Party, Political Islamic Party, Moderate Islam, Muslim Democrat, Nationalist-conservative, Democrat, Center Right Party, apart from the conservative-democrat definition" (Safi, 2007; 294-313).

However, it would be more appropriate to state that center right voters identify themselves with AK Party, instead of attributing these different definitions to an identity search as expressed by some authors.

As a result, the aforementioned findings led to the meltdown and even the disappearance of the center right political understanding in Turkish political life. The failure of center right parties to pass the threshold in the November 3 elections can be regarded as the response of the electorate to these parties for their "soulless" political situation integrated with the state. It is possible to say that the political style based on "anti-political" rent-sharing they substitute for "the will of nation" caused center right parties to lose all their value for the nation (Tosun, 2008:5). Indeed, it seems that center right parties came to the power with the claim to implement democracy in all aspects but then returned to the state based politics instead. Another evidence for this situation is their effort to solve the problems and demands addressed to them while in power with the state based politics. As a result, the relationship between the center right parties and the electorate established since the 1946 was ruptured with the moving away from the populism based politics. In this context, it seems necessary to rebuild this relationship based on trust in order for center right politics to rebound.
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Chapter 11

Comparison of Turkey’s Vocational and Technical Education Structure with Various Countries

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INTRODUCTION

The flourishing developments in science and technology in today's world are changing and improving people's lives and social structures. From this change and development, the education systems of the community and especially the vocational technical education field are affected the most. Although Europe entered the 19th century by obtaining technical superiority, the Ottoman Empire began to institutionalize in technical fields with Tanzimat (Saylan, 2016: 150). It is changing rapidly business life from the industry revolution to this day. The rota of this change is now largely determined by information technology. It can be argued that these radical changes in business life will significant results in economic, social and legal contexts (Akçay & Yanik, 2017: 95). This change process is still continuing. Of course, when economy is affected by the progress and changes in the process, the workforce has an important place. It has been seen that the groups that suffer the most are those who have not received enough vocational training or have not taken the opportunity to develop in any way. The falling conjuncture has led to unskilled workers being pushed out of labor markets. This result reveals with all the clarity that the crisis on the labor market is indeed the result of a teaching and education crisis. Really, in an economy that is slowing down and weakening and declining in the conjuncture cycle, it is understood that those who have not been able to fully learn any profession and art in their lives in the first place. For example in West Germany, the Turkish laborers suffered the most from the unemployment issue, which has been increasing violence since the end of 1973. This situation reveals the lack of education of Turkish workers with all weight (Tuna & Yalçıntaş, 1999:115).

The rapid economic, scientific and technological development of society requires high vocational education. For example in developing countries like China, there is a need for quality and qualified labor. The supply of these workers to be employed in new industries is possible with high vocational training (Peng et al., 2017: 1751). Strong school-workplace cooperation is the most important element of strong professional education. In the emerging economies such as China differences in interests, inadequate and low cooperation, and vocational training are adversely affected in analogy to Turkey. However, it seems that cooperation will increase in the future with the increase of volunteerism in both schools and organizations. For this requires advanced management systems, a strong role for industrial organizations, excellent legal systems and a strong school market (Haisheng, 2016: 152).

Lack of skill in Turkey often shows as lack of experience itself in youth and it is emerging as high unemployment.
Table 1: Labour force rates (Seasonally adjusted)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Labour force participation rate</th>
<th>Employment rate</th>
<th>Unemployment rate</th>
<th>Non-agricultural unemployment rate</th>
<th>Youth unemployment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>44.8</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>40.3</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>50.5</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017/first</td>
<td>52.8</td>
<td>46.9</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 months</td>
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The unemployment rate of young people aged 15-24 is 21.3% in today's Turkey. The unemployment rate for young people aged 15-24 is higher in urban areas than in rural areas. In countries where the rate of young unemployed is so high, vocational training is a very important activity and should be activated. Rapidly developing technological adaptation in today's world is vital for employers. Employers who are unable to adapt to the developing technology, fall back at the speed of production, produce the product obtained with technology using more raw material, and as a result, the economic future is in danger against competitors. The adaptation of new technology of both new staff and working staff is provided by vocational training. All these adaptation processes are provided by vocational training.

The legal basis of the activities of the European Community in the fields of education, vocational training and youth is the 126th and 127th articles added to the Rome Treaty with the Maastricht Treaty (uiportal.net). Article 126, which refers to co-operation in education, aims to encourage the exchange and learning of member languages, encourage exchange of students and teachers, recognize reciprocal diplomas and educational periods, disseminate cooperation among educational institutions, promote exchanges of information and experiences about member education systems, purpose activities and the importance of co-operation in education. Article 127 refers to the fact that the Community will support the actions of its member countries in respect of the content, structure, cultural and linguistic differences of the education and training systems of the member countries and will put into practice a vocational education.

**VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION**

Vocational and technical education helps the employment of people in the professions they need and selecting in satisfied professions (Eray et al., 1995: 197).

Existing socioeconomic and geopolitical conditions indicate that innovation can be achieved through the integration of vocational education with science and industry. The rapid pace and quality of economic and social development, science and industry's rapid rise is possible by following the latest scientific and technical achievements and inventions. Only high skilled workers can cope with the complex problems of these industries (Todosiichuk, 2017: 690-691).

Number of students who attend vocational and technical education institutions in proportion of the total students is 43% in Turkey. In other words, only an insufficient percentage of students, such as 43%, continue to vocational and technical education institutions, while 57% have a "general high school" or "academic high school" (this rate has increased in favor of the vocational high schools in recent years) (TRTHABER, 2017). Of course, this apparent picture is very different when compared to European Union member countries or developed countries (USA, Japan, Canada, etc.). The importance given to lifelong education in the countries of the European Union is increasing day by day (Arribas, 2016: 495). Vocational education rates in the European Union have increased by an average of 65-70%. Vocational education in Germany is around 70% while Spain is lower. The replacement of industrial production by cheap labor from the Far East countries like China is one of the most important problems of the European Union. Also Germany's dual vocational education system has been tried to be adapted by Turkey and Spain, but Germany's success can not be reached (Balcı et al, 2013: 46). As a result, there is the opposite situation in developed countries and the European Union member countries from the situation in Turkey. Again, the South Korean example is striking in this respect. South Korea's economic growth and development programs have also significantly affected the education system of the country. It is seen as a natural situation that the vocational education policies are shaped according to industrialization subject. In this context, South Korea has adopted a strategy based on exports in the first phase of development and needed qualification in the labor market with agriculture and industrial transition. At this stage, South Korea has endeavored to raise quality human resources and strive to give individuals as much skill as possible. In the progressive years together with the country's economic breakthroughs, labor intensive economy information / technology intensive economy transition, the skills required by the labor market have also changed (Çevik, 2015: 90).

With this sides, South Korea can be a good example for Turkey. One of Turkey's main problems is that students want to go to a 4 years program so they prefer general high school to vocational school. This leads to a low profile of students who prefer vocational education. The number of students on academic high school is quite high.
However, there is the opposite situation in developed countries. In that respect, firstly this numerical table must be reversed; i.e. students who continue vocational and technical education should be withdrawn at rates of 65-70%, while those who continue academic (or general) high school education should be held at 35-40%. Situation is like this in Member States of the European Union and developed countries.

Despite the emphasis on the semi-skilled manpower requirement in almost all development plans in Turkey, it puts forward general education system in the country. This creates a dilemma between the manpower need of the country and the orientation of the individual. This dilemma affects children of lower socio-economic level families (Gündüz and Beşoluk, 2008: 42).

Today, the negative view on vocational training has changed. The difference can be easily seen when before and after the number of students of vocational and technical education institutions is compared. Today, the students who are waiting at the university doors today are much more than the old ones. This also shows that the direction to the school is incomplete, unqualified, and wrong. In other words, the person who does not receive vocational and technical education graduated from high school following academic education and entered university examination as "compulsory". Because there is nothing that an academic (general) high school student who does not have any alternative in front of him can do. Only 20% of the students waiting at the university gates are able to be university students. The remaining mass is left out of the system and it is forced. This is also means close to two million stressful, anxious and problematic students, each year. If the problems of vocational and technical education are not solved first, it is expected that the number of students waiting at university doors will reach 3 million in a short time. This is never an exaggeration (Baş & Kuzucu, 2010:1).

Vocational education in the world is regarded as a process of education which occurs depending on the specific socio-economic conditions of each country (Çevik, 2015: 69). In a study, 7 countries selected from Asia and Africa (Qatar, Kuwait, Gaza,
Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Turkey, Tunisia) it was found to have a strong relationship with vocational education in economic development and growth. State poverty, lack of finance, weakness of central government, weakness of private sector public sector relation are seen as vocational education problems (Elish and ElShamy, 2016: 74).

Especially in terms of freedom movement right and employment of workers in the European Union, young people must be educated in vocational institutions in Turkey. But when we look at the implementation of the vocational education system in Turkey, it does not have adequate vocational educational opportunities in manpower in entering the European Union. The manpower can't be trained to meet the needs of the employment market. In the Turkish system, which is based on the traditional education model, vocational education remains largely in theory and successful results can not be obtained in practice, since the industrial school business association can not be established. As a result of the difficulty of transferring higher education from vocational education, the vast majority of young people tend to go to general education and higher education. As a result of these institutions being inadequate, young people who can not enter the university are taken to work as unskilled workers. As there are no occupational studies for them, there is a problem about skilled labor force (Karakucak, 1992:123).

And also in Russia, after the compulsory education, there are two main options: general and vocational education. In the last 15 years, the number of those going to vocational education schools has increased, and the percentage of those who prefer general education has decreased from 65.2% to 56.1% with a decline of 10% (Popova, 2016: 757).

The problems of vocational and technical education in Turkey are summarized as follows;

• Today, teachers of vocational and technical schools show the low level of education of students who prefer these schools as the biggest problem of these schools. Students who lack basic knowledge do not eliminate this shortage in the vocational school. They graduate with insufficient knowledge and this leads to serious quality problems in the workforce.

• The relationship between education and employment is weak. There is a discrepancy between the supply of vocational labor supplied by the education system and the vocational labor force demanded by the labor market. The curriculum taught in vocational schools is not up to date. Training programs and curricula are determined without analyzing the needs of the labor market. Currently, new graduates are being trained in the professions where there is still heavy unemployment.

• Communication and cooperation between vocational and technical schools and businesses are lacking. Students do not have enough internship opportunities. Trainees are not given importance in enterprises.

• Trainers cannot be trained. Trainers do not recognize new breakdowns, technological developments, new machines, equipment and equipment. Vocational school students are doubtful about their professional knowledge and skills.

• Guidance and counseling services are inadequate in choosing a career. It is pointed out that vocational school students did not receive guidance and orientation before vocational school selection.

• Vocational high school students do not see their schools enough to prepare for the job. Students see insufficient textbooks, labs, workshops, tools, and foreign language education. Most of the students stated that they would not be able to study in
these schools if they were not given the opportunity (Kenar, 2010; Kayır et al. 2004).

• There are important shortcomings in the concept of lifelong education.

**Table 2:** Comparison of vocational secondary education in Turkey and some EU countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Primary Education</th>
<th>Vocational Secondary Education</th>
<th>Vocational Education Finance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>9 years</td>
<td>Dual Vocational Education / While the school is in progress, young people are employed as interns at workplaces. Theoretical+practice.</td>
<td>Government-employer-labor union cooperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>9 years</td>
<td>After 2 years, basic vocational education certificate or apprenticeship certificate then taking vocational training 2 more years, having basic vocational education brevet.</td>
<td>Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>9 years</td>
<td>2 years technical and vocational schools or the same schools are continuing for 4 years in the evening.</td>
<td>Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>8 years</td>
<td>Technical assistant at the end of 2 years short vocational education then At the end of 3 years private vocational education, title of expert technician is taken. In the workplace there are vocational training mainly in practice.</td>
<td>Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>9 years</td>
<td>3 or 4 years vocational technical education after basic education.</td>
<td>Government-labor market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>8 years</td>
<td>4 years vocational technical education after basic education. Practice education is inadequate.</td>
<td>Government</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Aykaç, 2010: 155-156.*

Emphasis should be placed on occupational policy, which provides the transition from school to workplace where the technical staff is needed. If the transition of the students of vocational education to the business life is achieved softly at an early age, these persons will be able to easily overcome the disadvantages in the future. Different vocational training should be applied to people of different ages. It is easier for young people to enter business life with vocational training (Hanushek et al, 2015: 84).

**CONCLUSION**

One of the most important indicators of development is undoubtedly education. One of the most important trivets in education is vocational and technical education. Vocational and technical training is essential to keep pace evolving technology. The fact that there are employers who do not work at full capacity, and that there are unemployed who can not find a job while looking for a job shows that the supply
demand balance in the labor market is not fully established. Most of the developed countries have provided the balance between labor supply and demand through vocational and technical education in the process of technological development. Giving enough rate, vocational and technical education in developing Turkey will accelerate the development process, but reduce unemployment. Turkey has more young population than EU countries. This is an opportunity to get a career for these youngs.

In Turkey, in order to catch up with EU countries and other developed countries with regards to vocational and technical education, it should increase the number of vocational technical high schools, the problem with vocational technical high schools should be solved, and lifelong education policy should be widespread.

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INTRODUCTION
Parliamentary elections first come to mind when talking about elections. This is mostly due to the significance of central elections. But besides the parliamentary elections, local government elections are held and in certain countries, presidential elections are held as well. In addition to the parliamentary elections in Turkey, local elections (provincial council, municipality, village and neighborhood) and presidential elections are held based on the decisions approved in the 2007 referendum. In Turkey, elections can be categorized under two main topics; elections held during the Ottoman period and elections held during the Republican era (Buran, 2005: 90). In the present study, 7 parliamentary elections held after 1987 were scrutinized. This was mainly due to the fact that accurate economic data could only be obtained for the period after 1987 and the political business cycle theory assumptions are more adequate for parliamentary elections. The period covered in the present study mainly includes the post-1980 period. This period represents a turning point in the economic and political history of Turkey. Analysis of post-1980 political developments would demonstrate that the military coups that were repeated every ten years after the 1960s, prevented the regular operations of the democratic political system during this period (Aydemir, 2007: 104). From the economic perspective, the post-1980 period was characterized by the impact of the fluctuations in capital movements and experiences in frequent financial turmoil and crises. Thus, Turkish economy shrank significantly in 1994, 1999 and 2001, revealing dangerous deterioration and uncertainty in macroeconomic indicators. Following an uninterrupted and high growth path for the first four years after the 2001 crisis, the economy entered a new era of destabilization in late 2006 and suffered a significant decline due to the impact of 2008 global economic crisis and exhibited signs of recovery in 2010 with the boom in global economy (Boratav, 2006: 172).

1. Economic Developments during November 29, 1987 Elections
Before Turkey recovered from the later effects of the oil shock experienced in late 1973, it faced the adverse effects of the second oil shock in 1980. The increase in oil prices, which is a significant Turkish import item, increased the need for foreign currency in Turkey, and with the addition of problems related to foreign financing, Turkey was unable to import production inputs and scarcity in basic goods led to the emergence of a significant black market and cues. Thus, the import-substitution

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1 This study is generated from the PhD thesis titled “Politik Konjonktür Teorileri Işığında Türk İktisat Politika Çıktılarının Analizi” completed by Filiz Eryılmaz
oriented industrialization policy, adopted between 1932 and 1980, ended with the 1977 economic crisis where a significant foreign currency bottleneck was experienced between 1977 and 1980, and the policy was replaced by the exports-based industrialization policy in the post-1980 period. Attempts were made to solve these problems by seeking external resources, and in the process, organizations such as the World Bank and the IMF accepted providing financing with the condition of structural transformations in the economy. Thus, January 24 decisions were implemented in 1980 (Erkişi, 2007: 193-198). This new strategy was based on promoting exports and acquisition of medium term high growth rate in exports, as well as confidence in market forces instead of government interventions with the newly enforced policies (Ekzen, 2009: 97). In other words, the main characteristic of the economic policies included in these decisions was the dependence on market prices in the economic decision-making processes (Kepenek and Yentürk, 2005: 199). As a result, foreign trade and balance of payments regime was liberalized through radical structural changes in the economy, exports incentives and subsidies, liberalization of the import regime, and flexibility in exchange rate policies. Also, the above-mentioned decisions stipulated the foundation of CMB and ISE, liberalization of the interest rates, establishment of Interbank Money Market and Foreign Exchange markets within the Central Bank organization, and a new banking law. Furthermore, the Value Added Tax was introduced within the context of the tax reform and various measures were adopted to make the SEEs more efficient and liberalization of capital movements in 1989 (Bayrak and Kanca, 2013: 3-4).

Decisions taken on and after January 24, initially caused banks to raise the interest rates and rapidly revived money markets, but after a time, due to the inability to introduce adequate legal guarantees, led to a crisis called "Bankers Disaster". Again, in this period, during 1978, 1979 and 1980, the foreign debt deference agreements signed with OECD countries and Japan in 1982 introduced an additional burden on our foreign debt stock, resulting in a 17.6 billion dollars foreign debt stock. Since 1982, foreign debt has increased steadily and rose to $ 40.3 billion in 1987 (Özkan, 2010: 152-153). Decisions of January 24 were implemented without interruption by minority governments in an environment where the democracy was interrupted between September 1980 and December 1983, until September 1980 and by Bülent Ulusu government (Eryılmaz and Eryılmaz, 2015: 53).

After the 1983 elections, Turgut Özal, whose party formed the government alone, emphasized that he would focus on two important economic issues: inflation and balance of payments. During his government, he implemented free market economic policies that minimized state interventions. Nevertheless, Özal government failed to keep the money supply under control and the public sector borrowing requirement was on a rising trend. In parallel with the increase in growth in the 1984-1987 period, serious increases in inflation were experienced (Bayrak and Kanca, 2013. 4). The real reason why ANAP emerged as the first party in 1987 elections in such a context was the economic success of ANAP government. Because, before the elections, ANAP utilized expansionist economic policies for populist aims, leading to political business cycles. For example, before the 1987 elections, real M1 increased 22% compared to the previous year, while after the elections, this was replaced with a 24% decrease. Similarly, real public revenues decreased by 14% in the pre-election period, and a 12% increase was observed after the elections. Furthermore, the public borrowing requirement was 5% of the GDP before the 1987 elections, while it was 8.8% during the
elections and decreased after the elections. After this period, due to the general increase trend in public borrowing requirement, domestic borrowing became more significant in financing the public deficit. This would in turn result in interest payments induced public financing crisis. One year before the 1987 elections, the inflation rate was around 33%, however it nearly doubled in the post-election period, reaching 75% and 65% in 1988 and 1989, respectively due to the long-term effects of public expenditures and emission. The opportunistic policies implemented during the 1987 election led to degeneration of the economy and high inflation rates. Tight monetary and fiscal policies implemented occasionally to reduce the inflation resulted in stagflation, which became a significant problem for the Turkish economy in following years (Efe, 1999: 86-87).

2. Economic Developments during October 20, 1991 Elections

The ANAP government period after the 1987 elections can be described as an economic liberalization period. In 1987 a new liberalization movement was launched by the ANAP government, but due to speculative movements, government went back to a managed economy system. In this period, foreign trade was liberalized, and decisions were made to encourage foreign capital investments. As a result, due to the expansionary policies implemented by ANAP government in the 1987 elections, the inflation began to increase after 1987, while economic growth started to decline. Due to this unfavorable economic situation, ANAP lost the 1989 local elections to SHP (Çınar, 2010: 88). In 1989 local elections, SHP got the highest vote, followed by DYP and ANAP (Şanlısoy, 2007: 226).

The economic policy trends observed in Turkey after the 1980s literally bore their fruits during the period after 1989. In other words, these trends were mainly shaped by two fundamental factors. These were the guardianship of the legislative and institutional framework of the military regime on politics. With the cessation of political bans and the return of the long-established parties or the pre-1980 period back in politics, this guardianship ended. The second factor was the populist economic policies implemented by political parties during the pre-election period, in other words, the economic policies implemented by government parties that led to political business cycles during the period. These policies had a negative impact on the neo-liberal stabilization policies that were implemented after 1980. Finally, in 1989, with the expectation that this would resolve the accumulated problems, the restrictions on capital movements were completely raised with the decree on The Preservation of Turkish Currency, no. 31 and Turkish economy started to experience high capital influx (Balyemez, 2008: 140). After 1989, major problems were started to be experienced in the public sector. For example, although there was no increase in tax revenues, public spending did not reduce, and a growth trend was observed in the public deficit. Since it was not possible to finance the public sector by regular means, the Central Bank resources were utilized. As the borrowing rate increased, the borrowing interest rate also increased, which led to an increase in bond and stock prices. The government attempted to pay these debts through refinancing (Aydemir, 2007: 110).

As the elections draw closer, ANAP, which was the ruling party before the 1991 elections, increased budget expenditures during the elections similar to 1987 elections and raised the civil servant wages, especially those of the workers significantly. With the postponement of the SEE price hike, inflation partially slowed down before the elections. It was not possible to sustain the election economy implemented in this
period later on despite its positive impact on the real economy. For example, the Central Bank initially disclosed the 1990 monetary policy, but it was not possible to announce the program due to the inability to implement the required tax reforms and the increases in public expenditures in the 1991 election year (Eryılmaz and Eryılmaz, 2016: 409).

Also, the analysis of the post-1987 elections period would demonstrate that the economy expanded due to the policies applied by the government. In the same period, the financial boom and exports-based industrialization experienced in Western economies created positive effects on Turkish economy (Özkan, 2010: 155-158).

3. Economic Developments during December 24, 1995 Elections

In addition to the contraction in global economy during the 1990s, Iran-Iraq war and the Gulf crisis led to a negative impact on Turkish exports. During the Gulf War, Turkish trade relations with the region decreased and the embargo imposed on Iraq almost halted Turkish trade relations with the region. The oil pipeline was disabled and the cost of the embargo on Turkish economy constantly increased. After the Gulf War, the power vacuum in northern Iraq led to the escalation of terrorism in South Eastern Turkey and terrorism disrupted social and political balances, as well as the economic balance in Turkey. Due to terrorism, Turkish economic relations with the Middle East countries suffered, and the security expenditures of the state adversely affected the budget deficit and lead to a higher inflation (Aydemir, 2007: 111). Due to these economic problems experienced in Turkey, the international credit rating agencies Moody's and Standard and Poor's has lowered Turkish risk below acceptable risk level, which in turn led to fluctuations in the market. Finally, this limited the borrowing capacity of Turkey, the speculative foreign capital immediately fled abroad, and Turkish currency was devalued, and a major economic crisis started on January 26, 1994. Again, sudden movements in the exchange rate led to serious problems in banking sector by creating payment difficulties in the banks with high exchange rate risks (Şanlısoy, 2007: 243). Stabilization measures were implemented on April 5, 1994 with the aim of saving the economy from the crisis, alleviating public deficits, and initiating structural reforms to stabilize the economy (Tayyar, 2017c: 492). The contractionary fiscal policies, which were implemented with April 5, 1994 decisions, could not be sustained until the second half of 1995, and on 1995, expansionary fiscal policies were implemented again with the decision for early elections. The political instability after 1995 elections hampered the attempts by April 5, 1994 decisions to reduce public deficit and continued to finance public deficit through borrowing. In July and September 1996, in order to reduce the public deficit, the government announced resource packages, which led to no improvements worth mentioning (Yaşar, 2004: 85-86).

4. Economic Developments during April 19, 1999 Elections

The Southeast Asian crisis broke out on June 1997 and led to the 1998 Russian crisis with the contribution of internal dynamics in Russia. Due to the similarity of the Turkish and Russian macro-economic indicators, increasing debt of both nations and bilateral trade relations, Turkey was the only country in Europe that was affected by this crisis (Şanlısoy, 2007: 245). During this period, in addition to political instability, problems such as economic recession, high inflation, balance of payments deficit, rising unemployment and income inequality were experienced in Turkey (Özkan, 2010: 164).
As a result of these developments, following a series of problematic stabilization measures, the government launched a comprehensive anti-inflationary program under the supervision of the IMF on July 1998. This program was implemented with the assumption that the inflation rate would be 50% in 1998 with the monitoring of monetary policies and direct money supply, and in the first period it was implemented, CPI fell slightly below the 1997 figure (Balyemez, 2008: 173).

Thus, in 1999, the economy grew by -6.1%, inflation reached 70%, and Treasury annual compound interest reached 106% on average, budget deficits reached an inexcusable level. Economy assumed hyperinflationary levels. As a result of these developments, the coalition government that came to power in 1999, started negotiations with the IMF to stop the rot in the economy and to find foreign resources. But the initiated process was not considered a new process but a continuation of the stand-by queries that had started before (Erkişi, 2007: 203).

5. Economic Developments during November 3, 2002 Elections

The DSP-MHP-ANAP coalition, which was formed under Ecevit as the prime minister after the 1999 elections, initially implemented an IMF-supported program and then, sent a letter of intent to the IMF on December 9, 1999. The implementation of the measures mentioned in that latter for the period between 2000 and 2002 was approved by the IMF on December 22, 1999 between 2000 and 2002. Thus, in January 2000, the "Inflation Reduction Program" that included structural reforms in the banking sector, and the implementation of tight monetary and exchange rate policies was initiated. However, the economy suffered significantly due to the August 17 and November 12, 1999 earthquakes (Bayrak and Kanca, 2013: 10-11). Following these negative developments, the economic problems became more and more obvious by mid-2000 and the system became more and more blocked due to the rumors about the banks. Detention and interrogation of bank owners flared the panic even more. As a result of these developments, repo interest rates rapidly increased as investors started to turn away from the market (Tayyar, 2017b: 440). Thus, in 1999, the implemented disinflation program did not function well and Turkey experienced a financial crisis that started on November 22, 2000, and three months later, on February 19, 2001, a disagreement between the president and the prime minister launched a second speculative attack, and this time the country faced an exchange rate crisis on February 21, 2001 (Özkan, 2010: 167). Ecevit government decided to develop a strong economic reform program to exit the 2001 crisis and the World Bank Vice President Kemal Dervis was invited to Turkey. Kemal Derviş, who became the state minister responsible for the economy on March 20, 2001, developed a "Transition to a Strong Economy Program" and accordingly, a new agreement was signed with the IMF in May and the IMF support was restored (Şanlısoy, 2007: 249).


After the 2002 elections, the fact that AKP formed the government alone became a turning point for Turkey, governed by coalition governments for a long time (Bayrak and Kanca, 2013: 13). The Turkish economy was stable after the implementation of "Transition to Strong Economy Program" after the 2001 crisis, and a period of growth, accompanied with falling inflation and interest rates was experienced. In this process, AKP announced that they would implement an "Urgent Action Plan" that included a
series of quarterly, semiannual and annual measures in the fields such as public finance, revenue policies, privatization, banking, monetary policies, real sector, infrastructure investments and education, and would stick to the agreement with the IMF (Şanlısoy, 2007: 251-252). On the other hand, during 2002-2004, the AKP government literally implemented GGEP by enacting the required economic, social and political harmonization laws in order to become a full member of the EU.

From 2002 to 2007, a steady growth was observed in the economy. GNP, which was 180 billion dollars in 2002, reached 400 billion dollars by 2007. Thanks to the rapid increases in exports and imports during the same period, rapid developments were also experienced in foreign economic relations. Consistent with the above-mentioned developments, a significant increase was also experienced in current account deficit. The implementation of tight monetary policies, monetary policies based on implicit inflation targeting and the monopoly in the economic administration led an inflation rate trend of less than 10%. Again, positive developments experienced in growth and inflation in this period were not reflected in unemployment unfortunately. During this period, unemployment rate remained in the band between 9.5% and 11% (Flag and Hook, 2013: 13).

In this period, the AKP government has seriously observed the fiscal discipline. It was observed that the target budget balance and predicted levels or rates of primary surplus were achieved. Due to these economic developments, public debt requirement was reduced and AKP was able to service the public debt with lower interest rates in the following years. Thus, debt management became easier, and the efficiency of the budget as a fiscal policy tool increased. Expansion of the money supply was also under control during the 2002-2007 period. The Central Bank implemented implicit inflation targeting until 2006 and open inflation targeting monetary policies after 2006, and the political interest rates became the principal monetary policy instrument (Şahin, 2011: 274).

7. Economic Developments during June 12, 2011 Elections

In 2007, the global economic crisis that spread from the United States hit Turkey on the second half of 2008. This financial crisis was reflected to Turkey as a real economic crisis. This was due to the fact that banks in Turkey did not purchase or made transactions including the toxic paper, in other words, the bad bonds that were the main infection agent of the financial crisis. Also, the fact that the IMF programs implemented at that time helped keep the public budget deficit and the public debt within the predetermined limits and unexpected foreign exchange influx helped meet the current account deficit (Tayyar, 2017a: 3). The impact of the crisis on the Turkish real industries was caused by the contraction in the foreign trade relations with the EU and the decline in foreign capital. The fact that the share of American toxic paper in the banks in Europe was 40% affected their assets and loans, and thus the credits were limited. As a result, the demand and exports fell in the EU, which resulted in a decline in domestic production, leading to an increase in unemployment. The impact of the 2008 financial crisis on Turkey was observed with the decline in the demand for export goods in EU and foreign capital inflow and resulting decrease in domestic real production in Turkey (Kazgan, 2013: 353-354).

The crisis intensified especially during the first half of 2009 and a stagnation trend was observed in Turkish economy due to the contraction in global economy. This led to
a decline in public revenues, in particular indirect taxes, which are sensitive to current economic developments, and thus the global financial crisis had negative effects on the budget due to both the contraction in the economy and the measures implemented against the crisis (Bayrak and Kanca, 2013: 16). However, due to the global crisis, a significant contraction was experienced in demand and this contraction led to access inventory and layoffs, and consequent unemployment in the real industries. Thus, unemployment rose from 13.6% in December 2008 to 15% in April 2009. Again, along with the global crisis, there was a high contraction in foreign trade volume. For example, imports decreased by 30% to $ 140.9 billion in 2009, while exports declined by 22.7% to $ 102.1 billion from $ 132 billion when compared to the previous year. Thus, the positive impact of the global economic crisis on Turkey was the reduction in the foreign trade and the current account deficits. In parallel to these developments, the Turkish economy that exhibited positive growth since 2002, as a result of the 2008 crisis, exhibited a contraction of 13.6% in the first quarter of 2009, while for the whole year, the contraction was 4.7%. In 2010, Turkish economy was already growing, and the growth was 8.9% and well above the forecasts (Şahin, 2011: 280-281). In 2011, due to shrinking demand in the European Union, Turkey was successful in increasing its exports to Middle Eastern countries in this period, in line with the strategy of diversification of Turkish export markets, limiting the slowdown in export growth in the post-crisis period. Again in 2011, foreign trade and current account deficits reached record levels, as the rate of increase in imports was well above the rate of increase in exports. Exports increased from $ 170.1 billion in 2007 to $ 241 billion in 2011, while the imports increased to $ 135 billion from $ 107.3 billion during the same period. Thus, in 2011, the high current account deficit became one of the most important problems of Turkish economy (Bayrak and Kanca, 2013: 17).

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Chapter 13

The Effectiveness of Ombudsman in Improving Good Administration in the European Union (EU)

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INTRODUCTION

The Ombudsman is a mechanism of control and monitoring of public administration activities that receives complaints about the violations of rights from citizens against public administration and investigate them within the framework of certain procedures. This institution, which is mainly based on parliament, benefits both the public administration and the citizens. At the same time, the ombudsman institution, which operates at the national and international level, can be seen an issue of administrative reform as well as an important step in policy transfer. In this context, the ombudsman represents not only a parliamentary institution that examines complaints but also an initiative that triggers reform processes in the institutional structure of the modern state and paves the way for policy transfers among them.

It is now seen that ombudsmanism is no longer just an institution established in nation states but also in the framework of international organizations. The European Union is also one of these international organizations. Although the European Union was established on the basis of economic integration, it has consistently implemented the necessary legal and institutional arrangements for the protection of human rights, the strengthening of democracy, the establishment of the rule of law, openness and accountability at the Union level and in the Member States. As a matter of fact, the ombudsman institution established in the early 1990s should be regarded as an accelerating step in these processes. In the European Union, the ombudsman has a structure and a function that works by complaints from its organs, citizens, various organizations and agents. In addition, the ombudsman is also active with his own initiative.

In this study, it is aimed to focus on the efficiency level of the ombudsman in the EU, taking into account the duties arising from the law and other official sources. Because of this, the official reports and bulletins of the organization and other scientific works on this subject were used. The study is divided into two main sections. In the first part, the historical development, administrative and legal aspects of the ombudsman in the European Union are mentioned in general. In the last section, it has provided information about ombudsman’s activities and results undertaken in order to ensure good administration.
1. THE OMBUDSMAN IN THE EUROPEAN UNION (EU)

1.1. What is the Ombudsman?

The Ombudsman is a public complaint body that finds application in all the continents of the world today. The ombudsman, by definition, can be described as an organization that receives complaints from citizens who claim to have suffered grievances against the public administration and then determined them after they have been through a certain procedural process (Weeks, 1969: 633). In addition, the ombudsman tries to provide benefits both to public administration and to citizens in a process of mediation between public administration and citizens (Kestane, 2006: 131-132).

The Ombudsman is basically affiliated with the parliament, and the decisions to be made on the basis of investigation / inquiry are also recommendations. In this regard, the ombudsman is not a jurisdiction but rather an independent, objective and impartial political/administrative office that supports the judiciary.

Among the main features of the Ombudsman are the following (Gellhorn, 1966: 9-10):

Independent and impartial,
Based on the law,
Objective and fast
Complaint authority,
The Mediator,
Parliamentary affiliation,
Controls the public administration from the outside,
Its decisions are advisory,
Mobilize public opinion,
Associated with the media.

This institution or organization that first appeared in the world in Sweden in the 18th century (Rosenthal, 1964: 226), became applicable in many countries at different stages of country, region, municipality, province level (Caiden et al., 1983: 11). Today, it is practiced in nearly 200 countries and various international ombudsman structures have rapidly spread among the continents. As already mentioned, one of the international organizations in which the Organization is founded is the European Union (EU).

1.2. Historical Development of the Ombudsman in the European Union (EU)

The idea of creating an ombudsman in the EU is based on the mid-1970s (Pino, 2011: 426). As a matter of fact, in 1973, with the participation of the UK, Ireland and Denmark in the European Community, Danish members of the European Parliament have requested comments from the Council of Europe and the European Commission to establish the European Ombudsman (Özer, 2017: 72, Magnette, 2003: 680). Despite this, both the European Commission and the Council of Europe have found it unnecessary to establish the European Ombudsman organization. In this respect, the Commission proposes that citizens of the European Community have the right to petition to the European Parliament, as well as the right to appeal directly to the Commission in relation to its activities or through the Commission's office in the member states. The Council emphasized that respect for fundamental rights is sufficient for the protection of its citizens. This issue was discussed at the Paris meeting of April
The idea of the establishment of an ombudsman in the European Community in 1979 was made possible by the Adonnio Committee established in 1985 to look for ways to create European citizenship (Gammeltoft-Hansen, 2005: 26). For the European Ombudsman to be legally regulated under the European Union acquis, it is necessary to wait for the Maastricht Treaty. The treaty arranges the ombudsman in the context of European citizenship (Köseoğlu, 2010: 38). A "European Ombudsman" was established with the Treaty on European Union signed in Maastricht in 1992. The European Parliament elected the first European Ombudsman in 1995.

On the other hand, the Treaty, which was briefly known as the Lisbon Treaty and would take the place of the European Constitution, was adopted in 2007. The Treaty entered into force on 1 December 2009. As revised on 30 March 2010, in the second part of the Lisbon Treaty, citizens of the Union were entitled to apply to the European Ombudsman (Köseoğlu, 2010: 39).

1.3. European Ombudsman’s Legal and Administrative Aspects

The EU is governed by a number of main organs as a supranational union (Roskin, 2012: 299). These include the Council of Europe, the European Commission, the European Court of Justice (ECJ) and the European Parliament. With the establishment of the EU Ombudsman, it is now one of the EU’s most important organs.

As a matter of fact, the Council of Europe (EU) consists of ministers in the governments of EU member states and it is an organization in the EU in which the national interests of member states are represented. Therefore, relevant ministers representing member states are present at Council of Europe meetings (ABGS, 2013). The Council of Europe is equipped with a number of legislative and executive authorities. On the other hand, the European Commission is the main executive body within the Union and is responsible for the operation and execution of the common market. Depending on these, the European Commission is able to prepare new policy proposals and make legislative proposals (Dura, 1997: 38). The European Parliament, another EU body, is an organization in which the citizens of the member states are represented at Union level. In this context, the Parliament is based on a democratic representation. The European Parliament is at the forefront with its characteristics at the level of the Union, especially concerning the legislative process (Bozkurt et al., 2001: 52-59). Another body, the European Court of Justice (ABAD), is the highest judicial body at the Union level deals with the solution of legal disputes between the parties in the Union (Tapan, 1998: 1012). On the other hand, the European Court of First Instance (ATIM), in order to provide some relief to the work of the Court of Justice of the European Union (ECJ) and to assist the Court of Justice of the European Union (ECJ), also performs its judicial functions within its jurisdiction (Kızılsümer, 2005: 43; Reçber, 2002: 1). However, after the Treaty of Lisbon signed in 2009, this court was separated from the Court of Justice of the European Union (ABAD) and named as "General Court" (Alyanak, 2014: 255-256).

The European Ombudsman structured as the complaints authority and the supervisory agency within the institutions in the EU (Gişi, 2017: 22). The Ombudsman represents a mandate to protect the rights of persons, organizations and companies residing in EU countries against any maladministration. In this regard, the ombudsman is striving to "establish good administration" within the Union (Şafaklı, 2009: 170;
Neuhold and Năstase, 2017: 40; Oğuṣgil, 2014: 50; European Ombudsman, 2018a). The European Ombudsman comprises of the General Secretariat, the Legal Advisory, the Administrative and Financial Affairs departments. The Secretariat of the European Ombudsman is responsible for the management of the Bureau of the European Ombudsman and makes recommendations to the ombudsman. The task of the Legal Advisory, mainly composed of lawyers, is to examine the complaints submitted to the European Ombudsman and carry out investigations under the supervision of the Legal Adviser. Administrative and Financial Affairs Department is responsible for all operations except the ombudsman investigation (Efe, 2011: 12-13).

Union institutions that are in the duty of the European Ombudsman are as follows (Altuğ, 2002: 135; Fendoğlu, 2011: 91):
- The European Commission,
- The Council of Europe,
- The European Parliament,
- The European Court of Auditors,
- The European Court of Justice (ECJ)
- European Personnel Selection Office (EPSO)
- Economic and Social Committee,
- Regional Committee,
- European Monetary Institute,
- The European Central Bank,
- Europol (European Police).

The European Ombudsman is independent in its tasks and activities (Popescu-Slaniceanu et al., 2010: 194) and appointed by the Parliament for a five-year term of office (Cadeddu, 2004: 161). The Ombudsman can be appointed repeatedly and there is not in a regulation that restricts the appointment period (Turhan and Ökten, 2014: 219; Vogiatzis, 2018: 15). In addition, the ombudsman organization has the same status as the European Court of Justice (Demir and Kalender, 2003: 248).

The complaints to the European Ombudsman can be made by any EU citizen (Friedery, 2008: 368). More specifically, complaints need to satisfy the following conditions (Tsadiras, 2015: 3):
- The complainant must be an EU citizen,
- Complaints should be about EU institutions,
- Complaints should not be brought within the jurisdiction of the European Court of Justice (ECJ),
- Complaints should be related to maladministration practices,
- The subject of the complaint and the identity of the complainant must be disclosed,
- There should not be any lawsuits filed or pending for complaints,
- Complaints must be at least 2 years in advance, starting from the time of the event.

The Ombudsman is investigating situations related to the bad functioning of the Community bodies in the case of the notification of a complainant or member of the European Parliament or in the case of his own knowledge. For this purpose, it is imperative that the information required by the ombudsman is given to it (Gündüz, 1999: 101; Kofler, 2008: 175; Magnette, 2005: 114; Baykal, 2013: 192).

All complaint filed to the Ombudsman is recorded and given a number. The Ombudsman decides whether the complaint is within its own jurisdiction, if it is within the jurisdiction, may request more information or documentation from the citizen before
deciding. If the complaint is outside the authority area or if not accepted, the ombudsman closes the file about the complaint. If the Ombudsman identifies a case of maladministration on the basis of an investigation conducted at the institution, the Ombudsperson is endeavoring to solve the problem as soon as possible and to find a solution that satisfies both sides and suggests recommendations (Özer, 2017: 86-87; Efe, 2011: 14; Turhan and Ökten, 2014: 220-221).

In cases where the ombudsman finds a maladministration situation, the ombudsman appeals to the relevant institution to report the opinion within three months (Köseoğlu, 2010: 43; Şafaklı, 2009: 171). The ombudsman then presents a report to the European Parliament and the relevant public institution. The person in charge is informed about the results of these investigations. In addition to this, the ombudsman presents to the European Parliament an annual report on the outcomes of the investigations (Gini, 2017: 24, Brinkhorst, 1998: 135, Gregory, 2000: 167). It is also possible that the ombudsman is also able to present special reports to the parliament over the course of the year (Miller, 2010: 12).

The decisions of the European Ombudsman are advisory (Parlak and Doğan, 2015: 252). Detection of maladministration for the relevant public body, it does not involve any statutory sanction in the context of public administration. For this reason, the fact that the activities of the European Ombudsman are open to the public has a significant role in the poor action that is the source of the complaint and the change of attitude of the institution that makes the transaction. Sharing its activities with the public increases the power of the ombudsman's institutions and bodies and takes the form of compelling influence (Şengül, 2018: 6).

2. GOOD ADMINISTRATION AND OMBUDSMAN IN THE EUROPEAN UNION (EU)

2.1. The Concept of Good Administration in the European Union (EU) and Ombudsman Relation

Conceptually, good administration is a transparent management that the individual is subjected to a treatment worthy of human dignity, all reasonable and justified expectations are fulfilled, and the administration always feels close and trusts himself (Akyılmaz, 2018). Good administration, in the broad sense, refers to the act in accordance with the prescribed rules and regulations to carry out a specific activity. There are good administration principles that apply to all administrative activities horizontally, such as impartiality, accuracy and promptness, although they vary according to the field of activity carried out (Karakul, 2015: 62).

The European Ombudsman strengthens the relationship of trust between citizens and institutions by resolving complaints in order to achieve good administration. European Ombudsman provides the elucidation of their maladministration practices and the control measure can be called good administration principle (Gişi, 2017: 26).

The poor functioning of EU institutions and organs arises when institutions fail to comply with the law, violate human rights and abide by good administration principles. Administrative irregularity, injustice, discrimination, abuse of authority, non-response to the application, refusal to give information about the applicants and postponement of the applicants unnecessarily are examples of maladministration. As a matter of fact, the European Ombudsman generally examines complaints from these issues (Pino, 2011: 443; Gişi, 2017: 26; Şafaklı, 2009: 171).
As regards the EU, the European Ombudsman in the field of good administration has drafted the "European Code of Administrative Behavior (Code)" as an important initiative and presented it to EU institutions in 1999. In 2001, the European Parliament adopted the "European Code of Good Administrative Behavior" (Koprič et al., 2011: 1523; Cadeddu, 2004: 177; Mashaw, 2007: 123). The European Ombudsman attaches special importance to the enforcement of this code and uses this code when investigating complaints about the administration. In addition, the ombudsman informs the public about what the rights and obligations of both individuals and officials are about the code (Efe, 2011: 18). This code helps citizens to have knowledge of which administrative standards EU bodies are entitled to expect. It also serves as a useful guide for civil servants in relation to the public. The code ensures that the highest administration standards are promoted by making the good administration principle more concrete (AB Ombudsmanı, 2018).

In addition, the right to good administration is explicitly set forth in positive Article 41 of EU Charter of Fundamental Rights for the first time. EU Charter of Fundamental Rights, adopted in Biarritz (France) in November 2000 by a joint declaration by the European Parliament, the Council of Europe and the European Commission, was announced by the Nice Treaty, which entered into force on 1 February 2003, but as the Lisbon Treaty entered into force on December 1, 2009, it became binding in the EU Law as part of EU Charter Treaty (Karakul, 2015: 91-92).

"The right to good administration" was set forth in Article 41 of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights, which regulates the fundamental rights of EU citizens and their responsibilities to the EU's citizens (Akyılmaz, 2018; Popescu-Slaniceanu et al., 2010: 198):

Everyone has the right to request that their actions be observed by the institutions and bodies of the Union in an impartial, fair and reasonable manner,

This right entitles everyone to the right to ask their opinions to be heard before any action is taken which may adversely affect him; everyone's right to access their own files and respect for legitimate privacy interests and professional and commercial privacy; includes the obligation to give justification for the decision of the employee,

Everyone has the right to compensation to the Union that any damage caused by the institutions or officials of the Union during the performance of their duties, in accordance with the common general principles of the laws of the Member States,

Everyone may send letters to the institutions of the Union in one of the languages of the Treaties, and it is obligatory to reply to them in the same language.

2.2. Evaluation of the European Ombudsman in terms of Good Administration Activities and Efficiency Level

The European Ombudsman is actively mediating citizens to establish good relations with the institutions and bodies of the Union. Accordingly, the European Ombudsman played an important role in establishing a trustworthy administration approach based on transparency between the citizens and the institutions and bodies of the EU (Özer, 2017: 72). The Ombudsman plays an important role in strengthening the democratic life in the functioning of the EU, in the development of the rule of law mentality and in the protection of human rights (Şengül, 2018: 5; Baykal, 2013: 181). As a matter of fact, openness and accountability are the most important qualities that determine the quality of administration and have become especially important issues for
the EU in recent years (Gregory, 2000: 155). As a result, the EU has taken some steps
to establish the citizens' confidence in the EU, the administration system and the EU
institutions. One of these steps is the establishment of an ombudsman organization
(Turhan and Ökten, 2014: 217; Pino, 2011: 433; Bijsterveld, 2018: 5; Bovens, 2007:
113).

More specifically, the European Ombudsman strives for the development of
democracy, human rights and the rule of law in the following areas (Friedery, 2008:
374):

- Protection of fundamental rights,
- Ensuring clarity and administrative accountability,
- Increasing the quality of public services,
- Strengthening the confidence in the rule of law,
- Protection of civil servant rights in the administrations.

This part of the study aims to provide information about the complaints received
by the ombudsman, the statistics of the complaints, and the results of the ombudsman,
using the annual reports of the European Ombudsman and other scientific studies on
this subject.

The European Ombudsman received 3,788 complaints from its founding year of
1995 to 1999. In 1998, 1,617 complaints were received. 1,237 of them came from
citizens, 63 from civil society organizations and 60 from companies. 9 complaints were
directed to the European Parliament. 247 complaints remained back in 1997, and 1
complaint was made by the ombudsman's own initiative (Gregory, 2000: 165).

In Table 1 below, the issues that the European Ombudsman has researched and
recommended between 1996 and 1998 are grouped.

Table 1: The Theme of the European Ombudsman's Recommendations (1996-1998)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject to Investigation</th>
<th>Number of Complaints</th>
<th>Percent of Complaints (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General issues</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall control of the Member States</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market / regulatory activities</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decisions affecting the union budget</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual activities / Corporate matters</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to documents</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Officer matters</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service contracts</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOPLAM</strong></td>
<td><strong>193</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Heede, 2000: 204.*

As can be seen from Table 1, the European Ombudsman has recommended a total
of 193 inquiries between 1996 and 1998. Of these, 33% (64) were the most frequently
investigated, and they were related to civil servant affairs. The least investigative issue
is that of 3% (6) general affairs and 3% (6) market / regulatory activities.

In Figure 1 below, the distribution of complaints to the European Ombudsman
between 2000 and 2009 is given. During this time, it is seen that the most complaints
were made in 2005. The number of complaints this year was 4,416 (Kofler, 2008: 177).
While the European Ombudsman has been criticizing EU institutions and bodies for 35 complaints about complaints in 2009, the number of critical explanations in 2008 was 44 in 2007 and 55 in 2007. This significant decline suggests that the institutions and bodies of the EU are increasingly functioning and that they are more committed to the European Code of Conduct. In addition, the number of complaints made to the European Ombudsman in 2008 was 3,406, while in 2009 it was 3,098. In 2010, it was 2,667 (Efe, 2011: 24).

The most effective ways to get complaints to the ombudsman is to fill in the complaint form on the e-mail or on the website of the European Ombudsman. 60% of the complaints recorded in 2008 and 72% in 2009 were sent using either of these two methods. Applications made by e-mail included only the purpose of obtaining information. The number of emails replied to the European Ombudsman email account increased rapidly until 2008 (3,500 in 2006, 4,100 in 2007, 4,300 in 2008). In 2009, 1,850 information requests were received from the e-mail account (Köseoğlu, 2010: 47).

Investigations in the European Ombudsman in 2009 are complaints that there is no or lack of transparency, including refusing to give information, mainly to maladministration accusations. In 2009, the European Ombudsman conducted investigations on such complaints in all the investigations, 121 of which constitute 36% of the total investigations. In the second group, it is seen that there were 14% (48) of investigations of abuse of power and injustice, 13 % (45) of unnecessary delay investigations, 13 % (44) of insufficient procedural investigations, 6% (22) of negligent investigations, 6% (21) of mistakes in fulfillment of obligations and bug investigations in the role of the European Commission's protector of treaties, 6% (19) of judicial error investigations and 5% (17) of discrimination investigations 5% (17) (Efe, 2011: 25).

65% (219 investigations) of the 335 investigations opened by the European Ombudsman in 2010, on the basis of 323 complaints and 12 on their own initiative, were related to the European Commission (56% in 2009, 191 investigations). The investigation of 35 (10%) with European Personnel Selection Office (EPSO) (there were 30 in 2009), 22 (7%) investigation with the European Parliament, investigations (2%) with the Council of Europe, 4 (1%) investigation with the European Union Court.
of Justice (ECJ) is related. 52 investigations relate to other EU institutions, bodies, offices and agencies (Efe, 2011: 24).

In Figure 2 below, attention is drawn to the total number of complaints received by the ombudsman in 2011 and 2012.

![Figure 2: Number of Complaints from the European Ombudsman (2008-2012)](image)

*Source: Oğuşgil, 2014: 51.*

As can be seen from Figure 2, there is a decrease in the number of complaints in 2011 and 2012 compared to previous years.

In 2012, 30% (740 complaints) of 2,460 complaints were concluded. Of these, 228 were not accepted. The Ombudsman has ruled that 62 files are acceptable but not open to inquiry. The Ombudsman opened an inquiry on the basis of complaints in 450 files in 2012. In this case, an increase of 18% is observed compared to 2011. The Ombudsman also reviewed 15 files within its own initiative (Silay, 2013: 28).

The European Ombudsman concluded that 25.6% (118) of the disputes it has resolved in 2013 finalize with the relevant institution or amicably, 26% (120) did not find any maladministration or practice, 10.8% management has been identified. In the year 2014, 33.3% (133) of the disputes it has resolved reached a friendly agreement with the related institution, 19% (76) did not identify any maladministration or practice and 9.8% (39) of maladministration was detected. In the year 2015, 52.3% (145) of the disputes it has resolved reached a consensus concluded with the related institution, 28.5% (79) did not find any maladministration or practice, 10.8% (30) had maladministration (Gişi, 2017: 33, European Ombudsman, 2018b).

The European Ombudsmen’s investigations conducted in 2016 were %58,8′i (144) with European Commission, 12.3% (32) with European agencies, 6.5% (16) with European Parliament, 5.7% (14) with European Employee Selection Office (EPSO), 4.5% (11) with European External Action Service, 0.8% (2) with European Fraud Service and 11.4% (26) with other offices, agencies and agencies (European Ombudsman, 2018c).

From the above data and from the description, it can be argued that the European Ombudsman is effective in increasing the level of political and administrative participation of citizens within the Union, strengthening of accountability and public administrations are active in developing more active and satisfying policies (Parlak and Doğan, 2015: 253). Indeed, it is clear that there has been a real progress in transparency / accountability when looking at the activities / performance of the European
Ombudsman so far (Efe, 2011: 22). In this regard, the European Ombudsman has been recognized by the organizations and institutions of the Union with its performance since its inception. The adoption of the solutions developed by the Ombudsman is being followed by EU institutions (Şengül, 2018: 10). This strengthens the democratic legitimacy of the EU basic bodies and other institutions, agencies and units.

**CONCLUSION AND EVALUATION**

The European Ombudsman is engaged in ensuring good administration at the level of the Union and thus strengthening democracy, the rule of law, openness and accountability. Therefore, the main task of the ombudsman is to combat maladministration practices.

The European Ombudsman operates in co-operation with the European Parliament, the Council of Europe and other organs, with institutionalization or further administration of good administration throughout the Union level. It also consolidates the democratic legitimacy of the ombudsman, who is elected and attached to the European Parliament.

Considering the results of the ombudsman organization’s duties and activities over the years, it is seen that the organization has increased its performance and increased its service capacity. As a matter of fact, the close relationship of the ombudsman with both the parliament and the public is accelerating the process. This shows the support that the ombudsman has for political and public control. The political system and legal structure of the EU, which are based on freedom and seeking rights, are also other aspects of the development of the ombudsman. Indeed, the ombudsman should be read and evaluated as one of the many arrangements and instruments that contribute to liberal pluralist democracy in the EU.

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Chapter 14

A Brief History of Administrative Reform in Turkey

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INTRODUCTION

This work aims to provide a brief history of Administrative reforms in Turkey. As the Turkish Republic had inherited the Ottoman bureaucracy when established in the 1923, it would be useful to examine the basic characteristics of the Ottoman administrative system at the outset, particularly its bureaucracy as well as the subsequent developments and reforms in that, in order to understand the present Turkish public administration. In the later stages, the article will study the major changes in the administrative system in the Republican period, before and after the introduction of the multi-party democratic system. The article will move focus upon structural adjustment and New Public Management type reforms of 1980s as well as the recent and more comprehensive efforts at restructuring the government and public administration, which have occurred since 2002, when under JDP-Justice and Development Party government.

1. The Ottoman Administration and Reform

In its glory days, the Ottoman State (1299 - 1923) established a centralist authority structure which was based on four social classes: ilmiyye (academics and clerics), kalemiyye (top bureaucrats and foreign office officials), mülkiye (top administrators in the central government and governors in provinces) and seyfiyye (military officials), and three mechanisms: the dominance of Islamic law, the system of devşirme and timar system.

1The Ottoman State, which was imperial-bureaucratic in nature in terms of the historical categories formulated by S. N. Eisenstadt (Eisenstadt, 1987; Heper, 1990: 321), had control over a large land in Asia, Europe and Africa for many centuries. Nevertheless, it began to decline in the 18th Century. There were many manifestations of decay and fragmentation towards the First World War and afterwards, which marked the end of the Ottoman era. The administrative machinery of the Ottoman State suffered at a considerable degree from these fragmentations, degeneration and decay. Despite a number of attempts to stop the decline through traditional ways, without adopting new

1Minimization of international economic relations as a result of a self-sufficient national economy.
Having observed the persistent decay and inadequacy of administrative efficiency, a number of Ottoman rulers such as Selim III, Mahmut II and Abdülhamid II attempted to initiate reforms in the administrative system, particularly in military and central government institutions from judiciary to education institutions in western line. Particularly, Tanzimat Period was a long-lasting reform period which was initiated by a group of civil-military bureaucrats who believed that the administrative powers should be at the hands of reformist bureaucrats and they should have protection against the central authority. The Decree of Tanzimat (Reorganization) offered them such a guarantee as well as an intellectual climate suitable for raising the momentum of westernizing reforms in socio-economic, administrative and political fields. In the subsequent years following the Tanzimat, the bureaucracy strove to reduce the powers of Sultan (Seyitdanhoğlu, 1998; Demirel, 2012).

In this period, the institutions of central administration have been further developed in the line of French and Prussian examples. The reformist elite of Tanzimat did not always imitate the European ideas blindly, but often mixed with their own perceptions and made a synthesis (Seyitdanhoğlu, 1998).

Nevertheless, these attempts at the reform of the Ottoman administrative system brought only limited success. This failure to achieve a lasting and measurable effect was due to the fact that the focus of such reforms was directed towards improving the state of the Empire’s political and financial affairs without taking account of the cultural and structural weaknesses within the administrative machine (Younis et al, 1992: 17-18; Shaw and Shaw, 1977: 103-113). As Younis et al. state, “this machine exhibited an unusual degree of elitism, favouritism, patronage and a misplaced sense of aloofness and mission” (Younis et al., 1992: 18). The Turkish administrative system which has manned the machinery of government since the declaration of the Republic has been a continuum of the existing administrative system of the Ottoman State.

2. Atatürk and Radical Attempts at Administrative Reform in 1920s and 1930s

It was this state of affairs when Mustapha Kemal Atatürk, the founder of the Turkish Republic captured the power. Atatürk tried to build a modern republic using the available tools inherited from the past and to create new, modern and responsible government institutions through such policies as statism and revolutionism.

Statism, a doctrine which promotes the central role of government especially in the process of industrialisation, formed the dominant economic strategy in the RPP period (Takim and Yılmaz, 2010). However, it has been the subject of controversy and confusion since its adoption soon after the great financial collapse of 1929. Some have seen it as an ideological alternative to Soviet Communism, while others perceive it as a typical form of early capitalism. Overall, the republican ruling elite perceived it as a pragmatic response to a situation in which the private sector was not strong enough to undertake the huge projects that an early phase of development requires because most of the available capital was in Government hands (Lamba, 2014).

Revolutionism, which was another pillar of Atatürk’s thinking, involves the idea that the revolution initiated in 1919 would achieve its aims and transform the traditional Ottoman society into a westernized one by the introduction of radical measures. However, the issue of to what extent the new regime has changed the administrative
cadres and structure is a matter of debate. Since the extent of opposition from the bureaucratic class was almost negligible, except the ideological-politic opposition from some of Atatürk’s own friends in the military, there were little changes on the bureaucratic cadres. As Dodd (1983: 47) states, “the changes which occurred in Turkish administration in the years following the war of independence were evolutionary, rather than revolutionary ... administrative change was inspired by current need, and the need was not so pressing in the early years”. Heper (1990) explains this with Atatürk’s preoccupation with his plans for The westernisation of Turkey.

Atatürk assumed that the Turkish society was not ready for democracy, therefore it was necessary to force his reforms on the society. The ultimate role given to the Civil service in this context was to implement the reforms initiated. As the Kemalist reforms could not get popular approval (Younis et al., 1992: 21, however, the government and the Civil Service were often the implementer, rather than initiators. Consequently, the Turkish people began to resent the Civil Servants who had to implement the reforms which would irrevocably alter their lives, regarding them as “little more than meddling pen-pushers” (Younis et al., 1992: 21). The popular belief that there was no check on the Civil Servants’ powers was another factor for this resentment.

3. Administrative Reforms after II World War Era

Having kept the perceived fusion of the Bureaucracy and the Kemalist Republican People’s Party, the new Democratic government of the 1950 initiated a series of administrative reform attempts based on foreign experience and with the help of foreign experts. However, the government favoured ad hoc foreign initiatives to carry out research into the administrative system, instead of establishing frameworks or strategies of comprehensive administrative reform. Some of the more important initiatives included Dr. F. Neumark report in 1949, report of the committee of experts from the International Bank in 1950, the Leim group report in 1950 and a number of investigations conducted by native experts in 1950s and 1960s.

A number of significant changes on the organization of administration as well as on the constitution were made after the 1960 military intervention, including the introduction of a new constitution (in 1961) which was paying more attention to the administrative affairs than the previous (1924) constitution and whose main interest was to de-politicise the civil service while protecting its employees through independent administrative law courts. Major changes in post-1961 constitution period included establishment of “the authorized agencies” such as universities, the Constitutional Court, the Council of State (the Turkish version of the French Conseil d’Etat) (Heper, 1990, creation of the National Security Council (NSC) and creation of new central institutions to assist in the implementation of administrative reform measures with the hope that administrative development and reform would lead to socio-economic development such as the State Planning Organization and The Institute of Public Administration for Turkey and the Middle East (IPA) (Ateş, 1995). In addition reform efforts persisted in 1960s and 1970s through such initiatives as MEHTAP (Central Government Organization Research Project) Report, Report of The Committee for the Reorganization of State Administration and Administrative Procedures” and KAYA report.

Structural Adjustment is a process of reforming the economic and political systems of a developing country, with the aim of making it more efficient and productive and able to compete in the global economy. Donor governments and the international banking system, through the IMF, frequently insist that indebted countries implement such programs as a condition for any new loans or developmental aid. As a result, structural adjustment programs, first piloted in the late 1970s, are now in force in most of the poorer countries. Typically such programs involve rolling back the state and allowing market forces to dominate by: opening up markets to imports, stimulation cash crops and other exports, cutting government spending, privatizing state companies and cutting bureaucracy. As a result, government spending on such public services as health, education and welfare is often cut and the government workforce has been reduced in size.

Being appointed as deputy Prime Minister in charge of economic policy, Özal and his team of bureaucrats, estimated to have been less than ten people altogether, drew up a reform program which even prominent ministers were unaware of the scope of the plan outside their own domain (Krueger: 1993). The key initiatives were as follows: devaluation of the Turkish lira with an announcement that henceforth the Turkish lira exchange rate would be changed frequently; increases in the prices of almost all goods produced by SEEs, with an announcement that SEEs would in future be free to set their own prices; and a variety of changes in the organization of the various ministries and bureaus that were responsible for economic policy, with the general purpose of reducing the power of some traditional groups and strengthening the hand of the deputy prime minister in charge of economic affairs (Krueger: 1993). Thereafter, auxiliary policy changes were pronounced at periodic intervals and several other economic and administrative problems were addressed. Ceilings on bank deposit rates were lifted and trade in gold was liberalized in June 1980. Throughout the year, conditions under which Turks could hold and use foreign exchange were liberalized.

The initial response to the reform package was positive from abroad. London and Paris clubs rescheduled the Turkish debt, and European Communities and multinational institutions supported the program financially. However, the ruling Demirel government was too weak to implement the financial, economic and administrative reforms as a whole as it was a coalition government and civil unrest had been a major problem prior to and during the outset of the program. As Demirel and Özal presented tax and other measures to Parliament in the summer of 1980, it became evident that Parliament was unlikely to approve them. It was this atmosphere that the military intervened again.

The military took over on 12 September 1980, and dissolved the parliament, outlawed all political parties and radical unions, and suspended numerous human rights. However, it kept Özal's economic team in order to persist structural adjustment process, while the Turkish military did not traditionally favor market-oriented economic policies. As Öniş and Webb argue, the military was divided over Özal's plans to reduce the role of the state in running the economy, nevertheless, it could not argue with his success in securing foreign financing and stimulating exports (Öniş and Webb, 1994). Thereafter several supplementary measures were undertaken. These measures included relaxation of restrictions governing direct foreign investment, and liberalization of capital markets as regulations governing bank behavior and trade in securities and other financial instruments were modified. Perhaps the most controversial of them, union
activity was forbidden.

The net effect of these measures were encouraging; the rate of inflation fell from 100 percent in 1980 to 42 percent in 1981 and to 28 percent in 1982; incentives to exporters increased by 32 percent in three years from 1979 to 1982. In addition, government expenditures and fiscal deficit fell rapidly, as SEE financing from the Central Bank ended, while the reduction in central government expenditures also reduced the fiscal deficit. Yet, after the collapse of one of Turkey’s largest money broker which has been called as the Banker’s crisis military forced Özal to resign and appointed a military man, Aslan Baser Kafaoğlu, in his post in 1982. However, this change did not produce the outcome the military leaders desire; on the contrary, the economic crisis deteriorated as the exchange rate was overvalued and budget deficits deepened (Önis and Webb, 1994). This episode illustrates that the military was not the primary force behind the policy reform movement and that it followed policies that would sustain its popularity in the short run.

When Prime Minister Özal assumed office in 1983, an economics team, headed by Özal himself, was gathered to carry reforms further, this team moved quickly to regain the momentum of policy reforms. Changes proceeded rapidly over the next three years. However, the reform package and objectives after 1983 focused almost entirely on achieving structural changes within the economy, particularly with regard to the role of import-competing and export industries on one hand, and the role of private and public sectors, on the other.

The initial measures included a major realignment of interest rates; liberalisation of foreign exchange regulations; permission for capital exports by Turkish residents; and further liberalisation of import licensing procedures, even abandoning it. A series of major reforms which moved the Turkish economy further away from its earlier centralized-control mode followed these initial moves. There was convincing reasons to suggest that the Turkish economic policy changes since the 1980s have been successful. In the words of Krueger, one of the careful students of the Turkish policy reforms, “Whereas in 1980 it was believed that further growth possibilities through import substitution had probably been exhausted, by the late 1980s, it was evident that Turkey’s potential growth through integrating with world economy was substantial. Moreover, the earlier suspicion of private business that had accompanied etatism have been replaced by recognition that Turkish industry could perform when provided with appropriate incentives and adequate infrastructure” (Krueger: 1995).

However, the macro reforms have been in difficulty, despite these successes. There is no mystery as to why inflation persisted: the main problem is that government expenditures increased beyond the ability of the government to increase revenues. In 1991, when Süleyman Demirel became prime minister, the earlier problems intensified, because of the government’s reluctant, risk-aversing style of socio-economic management. The fiscal deficit increased sharply, as among other things, the SEE drain on the government budget increased sharply (Krueger: 1995). The fiscal imbalance continued as a major problem in 1990s, as weak coalition governments were not able to bring solution. Furthermore, two fiscal depression, in 1994 and 2001, made the life worse for ordinary Turkish citizens. It was this state of affairs, when a newly established liberal-conservative party led by young conservative politicians, JDP-JUSTice and Development Party, came to power in 2002 general elections.

The period between the years 1991–2002 was the coalition period for Turkey. As it was experienced several times before, it is not possible to make comprehensive reforms in coalition periods in Turkey, except the mandatory regulations on financial issues. Therefore, except some EU-led non-essential changes in legislation, little has changed in this period in terms of administrative structure and administrative procedures. After November 2002 elections, however, when A. Gul and R.T. Erdogan-led JDP came to power by gaining majority of seats in parliament, a new wave of reform was initiated.

What lies behind substantial administrative reform efforts under JDP rule are both internal and external driving forces. Perhaps the leading external dynamic for administrative reforms since mid-1990s has been Turkey’s increased aspiration for the EU full membership. Turkey gained the status of a candidate country in December 1999, at the Helsinki Summit of the Council of Europe. In order to increase its chance to become a full member state as soon as possible, policy makers in Turkey decided to embark on a list of political, economic and social reforms in order to comply fully with the criteria for EU membership. A major component of these comprehensive reform series has been the ones which are administrative in nature. A second major driving force for administrative reforms has been demands of international financial organizations such as IMF and World Bank for administrative reform (Adly, 2012). Most powerful internal dynamic for administrative reforms of the recent times has been the strong leadership and political will demonstrated for restructuring of the state apparatus, including public administration, by the governments set up by the Justice and Development Party, which secured a landslide majority of the seats in the Turkish Parliament at the general elections of 2002, 2007 and 2015. It would not be overoptimistic to suggest that administrative reform has always been one of the key priorities of the governments set up by JDP. A second important driving force for making administrative reforms happen has been growing popular demands and expectations for efficient, effective and higher quality provision of public services.

Likewise, Güneş (2009) identifies 9 main factors which cause NPM-type reforms in Turkey in the last two decades: Developments in information and communication technologies; globalization; the influence of international organizations; three deficits: budget, trust and performance; increased popular expectations; developments in the theoretical field; political changes and new right policies; economic and financial factors; and inadequacy of Weberian bureaucratic system.

When AKP Government started to work, in order to overcome negative consequences of financial crises Turkey had to face with and with the aim of creating a sustainable growth environment, Council of Ministers decided to generate an Emergency Action Plan (EAP). Under this EAP and by the “Restructuring of Public Management” movement, which implemented by the government in the beginning of 2003, the public management reform attempt has gained acceleration. In this context, a book was written by Ömer Dinçer and Cevdet Yılmaz in the name of “Change Management for Change in Management” with the aim of manifesting the general context of re-arrangement in public sector in terms of "mentality, strategic design and size of organization" (Dinçer & Yılmaz 2003: 11) and in order to guide reform process. Additionally, Public Management Basic Law Working Group was created under the coordinator ship of Prime Ministry. As a result of months-long discussions and in the
light of principles and basics indicated in the aforementioned book, "The Draft Basic Law of Public Management" was prepared (Güneş, 2009).

Within the framework of re-structuring public sector, introducing the Basic Law on Public Management, and amending Provincial Local Administration and Municipality Laws were in question (Lamba, 2015; Güneş, 2009). Besides these, administrative procedures, transparency and citizen's right to get information, e-government, reduction and simplification of bureaucracy, to measure citizen satisfaction, transition to performance system and awarding, regulation of ethical conduct in public sector and implementation of modern management approach were other issues to be considered (Güneş, 2009).

Sözen (2012: 168) classifies the administrative reforms in Turkey in recent times under two categories in terms of its content: managerial reforms and governance reforms. “While managerial reforms aimed at improving economy, efficiency and effectiveness of public sector, good governance reforms focused on transparency, accountability, responsiveness and participation in public administration”. Managerial reforms undertaken since early 2000s include such measures and policies as privatization; establishment of autonomous regulatory agencies in order to regulate the relevant markets, outsourcing such functions as cleaning, waste collection, personnel transport, catering, security and IT services; adoption of business management practices into public administration such as introduction of strategic plans and performance-based budgeting with the aim of ensuring economic, efficient and effective use of the resources and increasing fiscal transparency and accountability; decentralization and strengthening local governments through such Laws as Municipalities Law, metropolitan Municipalities Law and Local Government Unions Law; establishment of Regional Development Agencies; managerial reforms in the field of public budgeting and financial management through the Law on Public Financial Management and Control in 2003; efforts on cutting red tape and simplifying administrative procedures; and requiring public organizations to establish their service standards and make them public.

Coupled with recent democratization policies in Turkey, a number of good governance reforms which aimed at improving transparency, accountability and participation within public administration has been introduced. Major reforms of this line include transparency and accountability through the Law on the Right to Information; establishment of the Ethics Committee for Civil Servants in 2004 with the Law (No. 5176); establishment of an ombudsman institution (the Public Inspection Authority) in 2010 through an amendment in the Constitution; efforts at enacting a general administrative procedure law which includes crucial principles aiming at enhancing the transparency and accountability characteristics of administration; establishing some mechanisms for ensuring civil society participation and cooperation such as creation of City Councils in 2005 by the Law No. 5393 on Municipalities (article 76); reforms in the field of protection of human rights such as establishing The Parliament Human Rights Review Committee, the National Committee for Human Rights Education, the Prime Ministry Human Rights Presidency, the provincial and district Human Rights Boards and the Bureau for Review of Allegations of Human Rights Violations under the Inspection Board of the Ministry of Interior.
6. An Evaluation of Recent Administrative Reforms in Turkey

As a result of the reform dynamics discussed above, a wide range of management reforms, both explicit and implicit, have been taking place since the early 1980s, particularly in the last decade. It is a continuing process, rather than a completed business; many reforms are still in their infancy, while some of them have been on the agenda for a long time. Moreover, the contents of individual reforms and the stress on the particular reforms vary from time to time; it seems that there is no stable, smooth, strictly prescribed, comprehensive reform package. However, taking the general trend of reforms into account, it would be possible to consider the reforms in the Turkish public management in particular and public administration in a broader sense, as a program which constitutes a strong shift from the traditional system to one with an entrepreneurial, flexible, and client and results-oriented ethos.

It is important to note that the government and public agencies do not place equal value on all of these elements at the same time. There are significant variations in this respect. In addition, some reforms listed in the table are incremental changes rather than the results of deliberate and induced efforts of the government and public officials, although majority of them are parts of the agenda of the governments in the last three decades. Further, the capacity to manage the reform process may be the most important factor in the search for new forms of governance. Although there is no generic model of change management which has been used in the Turkish socio-economic and public management reforms, mainly some general strategies can be identified which determine how comprehensive the overall reform efforts have been.

One strategy employed especially in the first half of the 1980s and in 2003-2010 period was a grand design (or “Big Bang”) approach which involves a comprehensive package of reforms across a broad front. This strategy “... has the advantage of communicating a vision of a desired end-point, presenting reforms as an integrated package and ensuring a consistent message ... [and] also offers opportunities for trade-offs among different interests, and is helpful in generating and maintaining political and top-level interest” (OECD: 1995). However, it may overwhelm management and staff in both the centre and line departments, and raise expectations unrealistically.

A more gradual strategy, which is in use more widely since 2010, provides greater flexibility to adapt along the way and a longer time-scale within which to build management capacities. It also spreads costs, and many successful reforms have been introduced over a longer period of time, building on and supporting each other. A disadvantage of this strategy is that it may dissipate interest and energy. Special effort must be made to maintain the coherence of reforms. Unless introduced within an overall framework, piecemeal reforms do contain the risk of having only limited and conflicting impacts.

Given the extreme sides of these strategies, the Turkish reforms need to find an optimum strategy, in that selective radicalism would be a more appropriate strategy in this respect. Incrementalism is usually not enough for the desired ends, because it cannot provide an adequate response to the fundamental changes and pressures in the environment. On the other hand, complete redesign of governance is frequently too enormous and overwhelming task particularly for the organizations which have strong administrative culture. Selective radicalism, in the sense of a limited number of reforms that are radical enough to make a real difference, can combine the benefits of the above strategies.
Within this general framework, there are mainly three methods for reform which are widely used for particular initiatives and in specific sectors and organizations in Turkey. First method is making reforms compulsory or at least promoting them vigorously by legislative changes and general, cross-organizational executive initiatives. Second approach which predominates the reform process is allowing public bodies to proceed with reform objectives at their own pace, while making the intention to reform clear at the outset. Third technique is initiating pilot projects. Since pilot projects allow reformers to draw conclusions from early experiments before extending reforms in addition to their demonstrative effect, generating demand from other units, they are widely used in the Turkish public management reforms. In most cases, at least one of these methods is employed in a particular organization, and sometimes more than one method are used jointly in different stages of the reform.

CONCLUSIONS
Main conclusions of the paper can be summarized as follows:
Modern Turkey inherited its administrative system from the Ottoman Empire when established in 1923.
Reforms aiming to stop decline of Ottoman State had brought only limited success.
The recent reform process in Turkey began in 1980s by structural adjustment process which entails mainly economic reforms.
Structural Adjustment Policies were not fruitful enough, while successful in transforming the economic structure from a closed one to open economy.
New Public Management has come to fore as a result of the fact that economic reforms and the requirement of the international community necessitate a thorough state reform.
New Public Management reforms followed almost the same route with the similar experiences abroad.
Within the country, New Public Management reforms have been perceived as a part of a broader New Right agenda and a complementary part of the ongoing privatization programme.
New Public Management reforms include introducing new management techniques and philosophies into the public sector. This includes such notions as governance and participative management, strategic management and performance management.
The main aims of reform process in Turkey began with structural adjustment and continued by New Public Management included reducing the power of traditionally strong bureaucratic classs in the society and the state, globalizing the Turkish public sector both in terms of functioning and culture, and creating a smaller but effective and efficient public sector.

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Chapter 15

Turkey's Administrative Restructuring Framework: Methods of Administrative Supervision

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1. INTRODUCTION

Since the early 2000s, Turkey has gone through a growing process of restructuring in the field of administration. The Turkish Constitutional Referendum on April 16, 2017 was a step in the direction to a novel administrative structure as part of the aforementioned restructuring process. The Turkish administrative structure now has to adopt a presidency-government model as a result of this fundamental change. By its very nature, the said model is firmly predicated on the principle of the separation of powers, which places even more importance on administrative structuring and supervision. Any future regulations in these two areas will be key to the success of the presidency-government system. The former administrative structure, which was molded in a setting of a 150-year-old parliamentary system and possessed its own institutions and norms, will have to be reconfigured based on the presidency model, which comes with its distinct characteristics and draws on the will and executive ability of a single person.

In fact, these restructuring efforts are not newcomers in the Turkish political scene and have a long history. Generally speaking, the efforts to reconstruct the Turkish administrative system went through three phases until the most recent and radical one. The first stage is the period of restructuring that started when a nation-state emerged and lasted till the 1980. This stretch of time mainly revolved around the concept of "administrative reforms". The second one corresponds to the post-1980 epoch when the role of the state was redefined and the concept of the welfare state was discontinued. At this period of time, putting into effect a new institutional change was the goal by redefining the role and functions of the administration within the framework of a special administration concept. The aim here was to put the state back to its classic functions and build up a more result-oriented and efficient organization (Eryilmaz, 2011, 42). As part of this approach, supervision techniques transformed significantly; in addition to compliance with laws, which is traditional, new methods such as performance supervision, total quality management supervision, and norm supervision came into play.

The third stage is when globalism entailed a spell of state restructuring, when pivotal changes occurred in the nation-state structure, and the need to engage all segments of the society in the resolution of disputes between the administration and citizens arose. Commonly referred to as governance, this new era requires that the public and private spheres in addition to the administration and civil society coexist and interact and that new regulations be in line with this (Aslan, 2005, 145).

Towards the end of the 20th century, efficiency sprung up as a criterion in the actions of the state. Accordingly, citizens began to be considered customers or
components of a large entity. Consequently, the administration did away with the traditional policies and had to reorganize both its administrative structure and service area in due way (Bryson, Crosby & Bloomberg, 2014: 447). Along with the nation-state process, this notable change in the role and quality of the state inevitably brought the administration and administrators to the forefront. These developments not only triggered the structural and theoretical transformation of the administration but also placed great importance on efficiency in the offering of public services, productivity, responsibility towards citizens, and, finally, supervision of the administration. These reasons made it necessary for the supervisory institutions to play an increasingly crucial role in order to ensure a healthy transformation in the administrative structure, which matters to each democratic country.

Restructuring in the administration mainly involves arrangements made in two areas (Tortop, 2000, 192). The first one is the restructuring of the organization and structure of the administration; this is a restructuring field with a principal focus on methods, personnel, materials, etc. The second one is the arrangement of supervision techniques in parallel with the restructuring efforts. In Turkey, these two areas are likely to undergo a radical transformation due to the constitutional amendments because, in the new system, services to be offered to the public will be announced in advance and the President will have to answer whether these services are truly offered and fulfilled. As the relations between the president and the ruled have become much more complex and diversified recently, it is not only necessary to defend the fundamental rights and liberties of the individual against the acts of the administration but also to perform checks on and effectively supervise the administration's deeds, attitudes, and behaviors.

This study will focus on the new phenomenon of "supervision" that sprung out of the restructuring of the administration based on the principal vision and approach in effect in the 21st century when the "individual" and "society" came to the fore. This development in the administrative system of Turkey paved the way for the need for restructuring in "administrative supervision" of the administrative sphere. In this study, the conceptual and legal framework for administrative supervision will be discussed. Later on, the supervision systems currently existing in Turkey will be touched upon, and their duties, powers, and responsibilities affected by the constitutional amendment will be tackled in the framework of the laws.

2. Conceptual Framework

Modern nation states offer public goods and services with an administrative organization (state administration), taking into account the needs of the society. While performing services through the administrative organization, the state also subjects the operations of the organization to various inspections as part of the legal rules. The state of law is in fact the supervision of the actions of the administration (Constitution Art.125). The state of law refers to the state that sets rules for the governed and, at the same time, subjects itself to the same rules and principles. In advanced democracies, the state had to go through a number of stages to reach the notion of the state of law in the end. Today, the state of law is generally acknowledged as one of the basic qualities of democratic regimes. It is for this reason that, at every stage of administrative activities, the body conducting supervision and decisions made afterwards are crucial to the well-functioning of the state of law. The 1982 Constitution adopted a judicial procedure against the actions of the administration and concluded that the administration would be
supervised in different ways. It is thus necessary to explicate the concepts related to supervision and analyze the supervisory bodies in the Turkish administrative system and the details of their duties and decisions.

2.1. The Concepts of Supervision and Administrative Supervision

The lexical meaning of the term supervision is "to examine and observe whether something is done properly by the administration" (TDK, 1998, 553). Since supervision is not simply about "observation", this definition is an insufficient description of the term. Aside from this passive and strictly limited definition of supervision, it also stands for "an intervention to ensure a process, act, or situation complies with rules", which, of course, adds a more active role to the word (Eroğlu, 1978, 36). Supervision is a process that helps, leads, and guides implementation and decision-making (Akıllıoğlu, 1990, 4; Mehter, 1998, 46).

The process of supervision varies in the legislative, executive, and judiciary, which are the government branches. In representative democracies, supervision of the legislative is among the natural requirements for exerting superiority over the national will. Supervision in the executive is used to obtain some results that depend on service. Judicial review is the first condition of becoming a state of law regardless of the stage and type of law.

Having said that, administrative supervision is the performing of actions and operations concerning administration or the making of legal decisions by relevant authorities with the employment of administrative tools and methods. While a certain portion of supervision is performed within the active administrative structure, part of it is provided by special supervision units outside of the active administrative structure (Balta, 1972, 137). However, these supervision methods vary based on countries' political regimes and legal systems. Generally, internal and external supervision is taken into consideration in the classification of supervision methods. Nevertheless, we will follow a different course and perform the classification by taking into account the quality of the post-supervision decisions. In other words, we will look at the effectiveness of the decisions made after supervision. The purpose here is to demonstrate the details of the state of law principle and legal basis regarding supervision because the most fundamental aspect of the state of law is judicial review. Judicial review of the administration operates with different features among supervision types but also has certain peculiar characteristics, which are unique and cannot be employed in other kinds of supervision. For these reasons, we will draw on the classification of the judicial and extrajudicial review of the administration, which are generally accepted (Gözler, 2012; Gözübüyük & Tan, 2001; Eryılmaz, 2011).

2.2. Objectives of Supervision

The phenomenon of supervision has two main objectives. The first is to ensure effectiveness in the distribution of public resources, prevent corruption and irregularities, and avert losses and abuse. The second one is to try to make certain that public officials comply with the rules of law and that administrative activities are carried out in this framework. In this way, it is supervised whether the administration performs its activities within the framework of the "legality" principle, and the quality of the administration is enhanced (Özer, 2004, 147-148; Al, 2007, 1).

The benefits of supervision are listed below (Tortop et al., 2000, 157): eliminate the tendency of state administrations to disproportionately expand with the work they
carry out, ensure that the bureaucracy pays due attention to public criticism, prevent civil servants from arbitrarily interpreting legal texts, establish that bureaucrats do not use their authority for personal interests, disregarding the rights of the governed, block bureaucrats from becoming the sole authority in state administration.

From an administrative point of view, supervision is mainly the prevention of bureaucrats and public officials from gratuitously abusing their authority. For this reason, there are two main effects of supervision (Tortop, 2000, 148). The first one is the constant tracking of public officials' behaviors and prompting them to act carefully. The second effect, on the other hand, is to demonstrate a result of formal proceedings in the work of public officials. Through the publication of the outcome or summary of the supervision, the actions and deeds of the administration attract the attention of the public, political parties and pressure groups, and, in turn, this could lead to possible moral sanctions on public officials (Gournay, 1971: 99-100).

2.3. Source and Scope of the Supervision Mandate

In democratic states of law, "supervision" stems principally from the constitution and various laws and other regulatory processes (Gözübüyük & Tan, 2003, 30). This understanding was regulated in all the past constitutions of Turkey and not least in the 1982 Constitution. Article 2 of the 1982 Constitution points out that being a "state of law" is one of the features of the state. One of the most fundamental requirements of the state of law is that it is subject to judicial review. Accordingly, Article 125 states that "legal remedies can be applied for each and every act and operation by the administration", and this puts judicial review under constitutional guarantee. Article 123 expresses that "the administration is a whole with all its institutions and duties and is to be regulated by laws". There are two legal supervision tools, namely hierarchical supervision and administrative tutelage, crafted with a view to securing administrative integrity.

Apart from the constitutional provisions, the Public Financial Management and Control Law (KMYKK) numbered 5018 and dated 2006 was adopted as the general law, and the supervisory mandate was united under one single law. With this law, administrative supervision was integrated in terms of objectives, principles and methods (Midyat, 2008, 1). The law introduced profoundly radical changes to the financial management and control system, which was reflected in the philosophy and execution of supervision. Law No. 5018, which includes new methods and approaches in supervision, brought significant changes to not only performance supervision but also to internal and external supervision.

Although the idea of an independent organization performing checks on the administration was repeatedly voiced in Turkey for years, it was not until September 12, 2010 when the constitution was amended that a new and independent body of supervision was established. On the basis of the constitutional provision, the "Public Supervision Institution" was founded on 14.06.2012 as per the Law No. 6328 (Official Gazette dated 29.06.2012 and No 28338). Thus, a new and independent supervisory organization emerged in Turkey. Other constitutional institutions such as the Council of State (Art. 155) and the Court of Accounts (Art. 160) provide consultation, opinions, and supervision with regards to the public services that the administration is planning to do and/or will do.
3. "Administrative" Supervision Methods in the Turkish Administrative System

In Turkey, the institutions and organizations within the scope of the legal public entity - mainly the legal entity of the state - and their operations, actions, and deeds are subject to financial, legal, and administrative supervision, which is performed in different ways. In this section, the Turkish administrative supervision methods will be explained by way of making two groups, namely judicial review of the administration and extrajudicial review of the administration.

3.1. Extrajudicial Supervision of the Administration

Extrajudicial supervision of the administration aims to determine if administrative operations and actions are legitimate and necessary. Extrajudicial supervision of the administration is carried out with the employment of different methods; it is conducted both from an "administrative aspect" and "political aspect" by "independent bodies" and "public opinion-pressure groups".

3.1.1. Supervision of the Administration from "Administrative Aspect"

Administrative supervision is the supervision of the operations and actions of the administrative body. This supervision can be in such a way that one of the two bodies within the same public entity performs inspections of the operations and actions of the other. It can also be in a way that an operation or action by a public entity or body is supervised by another public entity or body. These supervisions can be performed by the administration itself or independent private supervisory institutions/bodies that are founded by the state.

3.1.1.1. Executive Supervision

Executive supervision of the administrative organization is performed in four ways, namely call for amendment, administrative inspection, hierarchical supervision, and administrative tutelage.

3.1.1.1.1. Supervision for Amendment

This type of supervision is performed when a person whose rights have been violated or interests have been disregarded through the actions and operations of the administrative body resorts to that body to reverse, rescind, or amend those actions and operations. Upon the appeal of the person, the relevant authority may determine whether the action or operation in question is lawful and necessary. In this way, the administration makes some decisions through self-inspection, that is, it performs its own internal supervision (Gözler, 2012: 330).

3.1.1.1.2 Administrative Inspection

Administrative inspection is inspectors' supervision of decisions regarding the operations and actions concerning planning, organizing, managing, coordination, and hierarchical supervision. Administrative inspection is performed by inspectors on behalf of the body with executive powers.

Although it is commonly thought that administrative inspection and hierarchical supervision are similar, they have certain differences. Administrative inspection is carried out by inspectors, and they have no executive power. However, superintendents who perform hierarchical supervision have executive powers.
3.1.1.1.3. Hierarchical Supervision

Hierarchy, also known as the pecking order, denotes a kind of supervision based on the relations between the superior and the subordinate, the superintendent and the official, or the high ranking and the low ranking. It is a general supervision that entails no legal basis for its implementation in public administrative institutions and organizations within the same hierarchical order. In public entities, supervision on subordinates by superiors is called hierarchical supervision. In public administrations, there is a specific lex specialis that allows for the performing of this kind of supervision in public administrations. At the top of the hierarchical order within the central organization of the capital is the President. The highest hierarchical authority in the same ministry is the minister. The top-ranking official in a special provincial administration is the governor. In a municipality, the highest-ranking person is the mayor. In villages, on the other hand, the chief is the highest ranking official according to the laws.

The supervisory authority of the superior over the subordinate is grouped into two categories. The first is the superior's direct supervision of the subordinate while the second one is the superior's authority over the subordinate's actions.

The superior's authority over the subordinate's actions includes supervision of the latter's actions in terms of both lawfulness and necessity. Supervision can be performed upon demand or request of the superior. The superior conducting the supervision can reverse, rescind, or amend the subordinate's actions. In hierarchical supervision, the superior can supervise the subordinate's actions in terms of necessity and lawfulness, which prevents gratuitous behavior by the latter.

3.1.1.1.4. Tutelage Supervision

Administrative tutelage is a type of supervision that empowers the administration to control a public institution that is outside the administration and to reverse its decisions, all within the legal boundaries. According to this supervisory mandate based on Article 123 of the 1982 Constitution, it is intended to serve the unity and integrity of the state in expanding and executing public services across the country. This supervisory mandate was created so the local administrative institutions' activities that are likely to disrupt the unity of the state could be prevented. Within the scope of this constitutional principal, the central administration exercises "administrative tutelage" supervision over the operations and actions of the local administrations (Ekici et al. 2005, 8).

Accordingly, Article 127 of the Constitution states that "The central administration has the power of administrative tutelage over the local administrations in the framework of principles and procedures set forth by law with the objective of ensuring the functioning of local services in conformity with the principle of the integrity of the administration, securing uniform public service, safeguarding the public interest and meeting local needs properly". Administrative tutelage implemented by the central administration on the decisions and actions of the local administrations is an exceptional and legal authority exercised not only over administrative operations but also organizations, activities, and bodies (Sancaktar, 2012, 121; Tortop, et al., 2006, 51).

3.1.1.2. Supervision by Private Institution(s)

The administration is supervised by private supervisory institution(s) established
outside the administration, while self-supervision through its own mechanisms also remains in place. Such institutions include the State Supervisory Council, Board of Ethics for Civil Servants, Human Rights and Equality Institution of Turkey, and Information Acquisition and Assessment Board.

3.1.1.2.1. The State Supervisory Council

The State Supervisory Council went into effect with the 1982 Constitution for the purpose of inspecting whether the administration operates lawfully, properly, and efficiently. As per Article 108 of the 1982 Constitution, the State Supervisory Council was established on July 27, 1981 in line with the Law on the Establishment of the State Supervisory Council numbered 2443 and dated 1 April 1981. The Council performs supervision on institutions in and out of the Turkish administrative structure except the legal bodies. The Council acts upon the President's request and can supervise, investigate, and inspect every public institution.

Institutions and persons are obliged to hand in any documents and disclose any information to the Council over the course of its inquiries, investigations, supervisions, and inspections. In this respect, the Council may look into confidential files unlike the legal bodies. Once the Council finalizes its work, it prepares a report that is handed to the President. In fact, that document in question is, in a sense, a preliminary report or a notice (Gözübüyük & Tan, 2016, 739).

3.1.1.2.2. The Board of Ethics for Civil Servants

The mandate to perform "ethical" supervision was granted to the "Board of Ethics for Civil Servants" with the Law No. 5176 dated 25.05.2004. As expressed by Law No. 5176, the Board was tasked with following the due course in the event of any unlawful behavior or abuse by public officials. It sets and ensures the application of the ethical codes of conduct such as transparency, impartiality, honesty, accountability, and defense of public interests.

Applications to the Board are reviewed to determine if the ethical principles and rules are violated. The Board is required to finalize any investigation initiated upon a complaint or application after a maximum period of three months. The Board informs the relevant authorities of the outcome of the investigation in writing. Despite being a new actor of administrative supervision, the Board has an institutional structure. After all, it has an administrative function with members being assigned by political authorities.

3.1.1.2.3. The Human Rights and Equality Institution of Turkey

The efforts of institutionalization in the field of human rights followed a course parallel to the international developments. The first step in that direction was the establishment of the Commission on the Human Rights in the 1990s and the appointment of a minister as the person responsible for the human rights. The process gained even more momentum in the 2000s when the Turkey-EU relations took a new turn, and the Human Rights Directorate of the Prime Ministry was established as per Law No. 4643 dated April 12, 2001. However, the Directorate failed to successfully fulfil its duties, and it was restructured under the umbrella of the Human Rights Institution of Turkey with Law No. 6332 dated June 21, 2012. This institution did not live up to the expectations either. Thus, the Human Rights and Equality Institution of Turkey was established as per Law No. 6701 dated April 06, 2016 in order to increase
the efficiency of the human rights institutions, give them more responsibilities on an international scale, and provide more effective tools in the fight against discrimination (Official Gazette: 20/04/2016: 29690).

The institution has the characteristics of a public legal entity and possesses an effective and functional structure. It is organized in a way that allows it to perform three main tasks: protecting the human rights, fighting against discrimination, and offering a national prevention mechanism against torture and mistreatment.

3.1.1.2.4 Information Acquisition and Assessment Board

The Information Acquisition and Assessment Board was established with Law No. 4982 dated 09.10.2003. The Board has the right to access to all kinds of information and documents owned by real and legal persons, public institutions and organizations, and professional organizations in the form of public institutions. The Board became constitutional with the 2010 amendment. The fundamental purpose of the Board is to create an effective supervisory mechanism for the use of the right to information and lessen the burden on administrative justice. The Information Acquisition and Assessment Board is not a legal entity, yet its decisions are administratively binding for institutions. Having said that, its decisions are objectionable and can be evaluated by administrative justice. The Board does not grant direct access to the information and documents subject to appeal and conveys its decisions to relevant institutions and organizations so they can go into effect. Therefore, demanded information and documents are sent solely to the concerned institutions, organizations, and applicants.

3.1.2. "Political" Supervision of the Administration

Also referred to as Assembly supervision or Parliament supervision, "political supervision" is the inspection of the government by the legislative branch. Political supervision is used as a very strict and effective method in the countries that have adopted the parliamentary system. In presidential systems, this method is not practiced apart from exceptional cases. This supervisory method enables the legislative branch to indirectly inspect the administration. In the presidential system, the Grand National Assembly of Turkey's (TBMM) indirect supervision of the administration is only possible through the direct inspection of the government. Supervision conducted based on the 1982 Constitution is grouped into three categories:

3.1.2.1. General Supervision of the Government

In democratic systems, legislative-executive relations are supervised by some means of interaction, be it soft or hard separation. The transition from the parliamentary system to the presidential government system has enabled the legislative branch to supervise the executive in a variety of ways. This, in general, is the supervision of the executive, which, in fact, stands for the supervision of the "administration" by the legislative branch.

The Constitutional amendment law dated 16.04.2017 and numbered 6771 includes some regulations concerning the supervision of the executive by the legislative branch. Such interactive tools, which are non-existent in other presidential systems, were crafted specifically for the presidential government system. These instruments of supervision include parliamentary inquiry, written question, general debate, and parliamentary investigation. In this way, the Grand National Assembly of Turkey exercises its authority to obtain information and to monitor the activities of the
The parliamentary inquiry may be requested in line with certain methods by political party groups or through a motion submitted to the Presidency of the parliament by at least 20 MPs. The parliament then supervises the activities of the President and ministers by way of its commissions.

A written question is delivered by MPs to the President's assistants and ministers. The question is to be answered no later than 15 days after submission.

General debate is the discussion of any issue concerning the society or state activities at the Grand National Assembly of Turkey (Constitution Art. 98/4). In a general debate, the issue regarding the administration's activities is discussed in the parliamentary counsel; however, no vote is held. The style, content, and scope of a parliamentary inquiry, general debate, and written question are regulated by the Internal Regulations of the Parliament. In contrast, a parliamentary investigation is regulated directly by the Constitution.

A parliamentary investigation is conducted about the Vice President and ministers as per the 5th, 6th, and 7th paragraphs of Article 106. Accordingly, the Grand National Assembly of Turkey can be asked to launch an investigation on the Vice President and ministers for allegedly having committed crimes while executing their authority with a motion submitted by the absolute majority of the total number of representatives. The Parliament discusses the motion within one month at the latest; an investigation can be launched with “the secret vote of three-fifths of the total number of members”, and the aforementioned persons may be sent over to the Supreme Court with “the secret vote of two-thirds of the total number of members”. This method of supervision is non-existent in other presidential systems; it is an important instrument of supervision specifically crafted for the presidential government system.

3.1.2.2 Supervision through Application to the Grand National Assembly of Turkey

Unlike the methods discussed above, the parliament can act upon citizens' applications and launch political inspections. Citizens and foreigners residing in Turkey who are subject to the reciprocity principle have the right to resort to the Grand National Assembly of Turkey in written to voice their requests and complaints about themselves or the public (Constitution Art. 74/1).

Citizens can also go to the TBMM Human Rights Commission against human rights abuses. By doing this, citizens can prompt the Commission to take action on abuses and convey relevant information to the authorities. Established with Law No. 3688, the Commission has the power to investigate and request information on violations of human rights, directly or on application, in public institutions and private institutions. Debate on the reports prepared by the Commission at the General Assembly of TBMM makes supervision even more effective.

3.1.2.3 TBMM's Supervision of Public Economic Enterprises

The parliament also fulfils the duty of supervising the Public Economic Enterprises as per Article 165 of the 1982 Constitution. According to this provision, it is stipulated that institutions and partnerships with 50% or more of their capitals owned directly or indirectly by the state be supervised by TBMM. The supervision is performed by the parliament's Public Economic Enterprises Commission as required by Law No. 3346. The Public Economic Enterprises Commission, on the other hand, is
supervised by the Court of Accounts.

3.1.3. Supervision of the Administration by an "Independent Body"

The idea of supervision by an independent state body first emerged in Switzerland in 1713 under the name Ombudsman (Küçüközüyüş, 2006:91). The ombudsman, who is tasked with supervising the actions, attitudes, and behaviors of the administration, contributes to the enforcement of the rule of law and democratic rights in the country on behalf of the governed and is an independent institution conducting effective supervision (Eryılmaz, 2011:342). Supervision by the ombudsman is aimed at protecting citizens against the mismanagement by the administration and is employed especially in democratically developed or developing states. It was established as a new way of administrative supervision in Turkey with Law No. 6328 dated 14.06.2012 (Official Gazette dated 29.06.2012 and numbered 28338).

The main task of the institution is set out in Article 5 of Law No. 6328: "Upon any complaint concerning the functioning of the administration, the ombudsman is to investigate and advise the administration on any of its actions, operations, attitudes, and behaviors in a manner that is compatible with the law and the sense of justice on the basis of the human rights". With this article, the ombudsman is given the task of solving the problems that may occur between the administration and the citizens and making suggestions when necessary. The institution of ombudsman may vary based on the political and socio-cultural structure of every country. However, there is one thing about it that is internationally accepted: The ombudsman must fulfil his or her duty in an independent status (Tutal, 2013: 521). The ombudsman exercises only non-executive powers such as supervision and arbitration, if that power is granted. This supervisory duty is essentially based on the authority emanating from the legislative; this authority is also guaranteed by the legislative. The status, duties, and powers of the ombudsman vary from country to country. The word ombudsman has different equivalences across the world, namely "Ombudsman" in Sweden, "Parliamentary Commissioner" in the UK, "Advocate of Rights " in France, "People's Advocate in Spain, and "Civilian People's Advocate" in Italy. An ombudsman exercises his or her duties and powers set out by laws, and these duties and powers vary in each country (Gül et al., 2016, 188).

3.1.4. Supervision of the Administration by the "Public Opinion"

Public opinion supervision is the inspection of any misconduct, mistake and flaw committed by the administration in public service by way of going public in writing and with images. Moral sanctions ensue afterwards. Public opinion refers to the reactions, tendencies and approaches of citizens toward a social event or incident in a portion or whole of the country. Put another way, public opinion is the public's views and stance in the face of a problem. On the other hand, public awareness is also seen as a key element in ensuring that supervision is successfully conducted. In fact, some people think that public opinion is the fourth power coming right after the legislative, executive, and judiciary (Kıslalı, 2001, 339).

The effectiveness of public opinion undoubtedly depends on the existence of a democratic environment and certain conditions that enable the public to be conscious, to engage in public affairs, and to create public opinion (Ergin, 2010, 319-321). If such conditions are in place, administrators are swayed by public opinion and attach importance to finding out the public's views and thoughts. An aware and conscious public also facilitates the work of other supervisory mechanisms.
3.1.5. "Judicial" Review of the Administration

Ensuring the effective and efficient use of public resources is the main objective of administrative supervision. It is only through supervision that it is possible to confirm if this goal is achieved. While the supervisory methods discussed above play a crucial role in the supervision of the administration, they are oftentimes insufficient because the supervision of the legitimacy of the actions and operations of the administration is possible only through judicial review. In a state of law, authorized legal bodies play a key role as ultimate decision makers in settling legal disputes between citizens and administrative authorities.

Judicial review possesses its own characteristics, which can be discussed in terms of performers of supervision, methods employed, and results of supervision. As is known, judicial review is conducted by courts, and hence by judges. The primary feature of the law is "independence". The method employed in judicial review is protective and reliable. From a result-oriented point of view, judicial review is perhaps "the most effective" one in that it ends debates and adds "certainty" and "stability" to the sphere of social relations that it regulates (Akıllıoğlu, 1990,4). Therefore, judicial review is a particular requirement for any state to be considered a state of law. Judicial review of the administration is a vital supervisory method that makes the administration legally accountable and eliminates problems and disputes that cannot be solved with other supervisory methods.

3.1.5.1. Necessity of Judicial Review

The rights and interests of a number of persons may be harmed because of the actions and operations of the administration, which is why it is incumbent upon the state of law to defend and protect these rights and interests. Extrajudicial review can be effective in ensuring the administration's lawful operations and actions; at least, it can prompt the administration to operate lawfully to a certain extent. However, in some cases, it may not be able to meet the needs. While such supervisions are clearly important, they may be somewhat insufficient in protecting the rights and interests of the governed as they do not address the impacts of the administration's actions and operations on the legal system.

The administration has an important instrument called the "presumption of compliance with the law" suggesting that its actions and operations are in accordance with the law from the moment they are initiated and that they can be self-exercised (Gözler, 2011, 120). According to that presumption, because the administration's actions and operations are considered legitimate from the moment they are launched, authorities have no option other than having recourse to the administration again or going to courts of law so the impacts and consequences of those actions and operations can be undone (Karahanoğulları, 2005,15). Hence, the existence of the state of law hinges more on independent judicial review than on the supervision of the administration by the parliament or some other autonomous institutions and organizations. This is because the core purpose of administrative supervision is not the defense of the administration's interests, but rather those of the governed. This is only possible if any dispute between the governing and the governed is settled independent courts of law. The administration can be made to operate lawfully and be judged when it fails to comply with the rules with the presence of independent judicial review (Gözler, 2011, 340). Decisions regarding a dispute between the administration and
people are made as a result of such judicial review, which is the supervision of the administration through administrative justice (Çağlayan, 2014, 40; Gözübüyük & Tan, 2003,30).

3.1.5.2.2. Administrative Judicial System

The administrative judicial system refers to a legal system that remains outside of judicial bodies. The administrative justice is a part of this system because disputes likely to arise out of public services and rules employed to settle them are crafted based on different methods. In Germany, Italy, Spain, Greece, Turkey, and, in particular, France, the administration is subject to legal rules that are different from those applied to private persons. The kind of law applied to the administration has several liabilities and privileges stemming from public power, and it is named "administrative law". In a similar vein, the administration answers to courts that are different from those of private persons. In other words, different courts deal with cases against the administration; such courts are called "administrative courts", and the whole of such courts is referred to as "administrative justice". The fact that the administration is subject to a separate law and the administration is tried in special courts of law is called "administrative regime" (Gözler, 2012, 16).

There are also various systems for the exercise of administrative justice. The areas where administrative justice is exercised varies across the world. In some countries, for instance, it is the responsibility of the Council of State, which normally expresses its opinions to the administration. In certain countries, courts of law, which only have legal duties and report to a Supreme Administrative Court, fulfil that task. In a number of other countries, on the other hand, the Council of State and courts of law perform the duty of ensuring administrative justice together. Places of administrative justice are divided into two groups in terms of their tasks. The first group comprises places of law that have broad jurisdiction, meaning they deal with cases concerning all kinds of administrative operations and actions. The second group, in contrast, is composed of places with narrow jurisdiction where nullity suits against administrative actions are handled as part of administrative justice and cases concerning the financial liabilities of the administration are dealt with as part of judicial justice (Gözübüyük & Tan, 2016, 15 et al.).

In Turkey, administrative justice has the function of expressing its views to the administration. In addition, it operates hand in hand with the Council of State, which conducts appellate review of the verdicts of first instance courts and administrative courts, and with Administrative and Tax Courts that only have legal duties. Looking at the distinction in terms of duties of courts, it is possible to say that the jurisdiction of administrative justice is significantly broad. In principal, all disputes, which concern the administration and are caused by administrative law, are settled by administrative justice. However, disputes arising from administrative law, are settled by judicial justice, albeit in a tightly limited scope.

In terms of organization, administrative justice is made up of lower-ranking Administrative and Tax Courts, Regional Administrative Courts (as the authority for complaints), and the Council of State (as the authority of appeals) (Çağlayan, 2012,63-86). The duties and powers of Administrative and Tax Courts and Regional Administrative Courts are regulated by Law on the Establishment and Duties of Regional Administrative Courts, Administrative Courts, and Tax Courts, numbered
The duties and powers of the Council of State, on the other hand, are stated in Law on the Council of State, numbered 2575. Although, at first glance, the organization of administrative justice seems like a three-tier structure in which Regional Administrative Courts have a similar function to courts of appeal, administrative justice is, in truth, two-tiered.

In Turkey, the administration has been effectively subject to judicial review through the administrative justice and organization system since 1925. The system is an instrumental supervisory mechanism in defending people's rights and interests against the administration. Finally, it is worth mentioning that there are several principles specific to administrative justice which makes it efficient and quick in delivering verdicts. These are the need for every document to be submitted in writing, suasponte inquiry, simple and low-cost trial, and lack of a prosecutor.

4. Conclusion

An analysis of the overall administrative structure in Turkey reveals that it has preserved its classical organization despite various efforts and undertakings for a change. The existing institutional structure and processes should be reviewed in the light of the presidential government system and fine-tuned in such a way that it will meet the needs of the society. By its very nature, this new system will be successful only if it can fulfil the expectations of the public. The path to success, then, lies in creating an effective and accountable administrative structure, which also goes for the existing structure and predominant approaches in the field of supervision. If the necessary transformation is not achieved, the traditional approaches will largely remain in place, and, in spite of their high numbers, the institutions within the structure will fail to make sufficient contributions.

In parallel with the transformation of the state across the world and in Turkey, the restructuring of the administration has undoubtedly brought about a significant change in the phenomenon of "supervision". The transformation in the state in the 21st century is mostly predicated on the "state-citizen" relations that are in flux. Issues such as the administration's legal accountability and limitations on the government have gained more importance in citizens' struggle of freedom and rights against the administration. The debate on the limitation of the state power employed towards citizens and the methods by which such a limitation is to be imposed is based on two factors (Fendoğlu, 2013: 26). The first one is the extrajudicial limitations on the state with an emphasis upon moral elements such as equity, a sense of justice, and social cohesion. The second factor is the limitation through legal rules that allow the state to be effectively supervised particularly on a constitutional basis. Administrative supervision alone falls short in providing these two factors, and this, in turn, weighs on the legal bodies, resulting in grave difficulties.

The traditional supervisory system in the Turkish administrative structure has long been a process in which the principle of "compliance with laws" has been dominant, formalism has prevailed, and proper guidance has been absent. The purpose of supervision, however, is to determine whether services are offered in an appropriate and efficient way and to take all due measures. In this respect, supervision of the administration has become even more crucial recently. In the light of this, it is now of utmost importance that supervision be freed of the conventions, absorb scientific and technological developments, acquire knowledge of universal professional and ethical
standards, and adopt a structure that constantly aims to develop, innovate, and act independently. If all these are achieved, then supervision can start fulfilling its functions to the greatest extent possible. In countries where a new administrative understanding and democratic governance have been established, the administration has been under tremendous pressure for notably improving public services.

Administrative justice in Turkey is one of the key instruments of supervision in fully achieving a state of law. Subjecting the administration's actions and operations to judicial review is a must in all democratic systems. Accordingly, the administration's actions and operations can always be subject to judicial review. However, they are supervised only when they break the law, and even when an administrative operation is deemed lawful, it may in fact be unjust. In such a case, the need for independent supervisory institutions that can come up with fair solutions arises, and this is the reason Turkey established the Ombudsman Institution. The ombudsman tries to ensure that the most appropriate solution is offered to people seeking justice and that no rights are violated or a mistake is made. The Ombudsman Institution cannot replace administrative justice in a state of law, yet the institution can offer support and take the legal burden off it.

It is imperative that a participatory, interactive, value-driven, constructive, and citizen-oriented approach be adopted in conducting supervision. The administration, on the other hand, can significantly benefit from state institutions' and their directors' innovative, creative, healthy, quick, manageable, and target-oriented approaches. Therefore, it has become a necessity for Turkey to radically transform its internal and external supervisory mechanisms.

In conclusion, the presidential system is in need of, first and foremost, a stronger internal and external control system and more effective institutional structures and processes. Within the framework of democratic state of law principles, the administration's efficient and economic use of resources and realization of its institutional goals hinge on proper supervision. The Republic of Turkey's administration will effectively reconstruct its supervisory methods and institutions in conjunction with the new governance system by drawing on its historical heritage and experience.

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INTRODUCTION

Production processes that changed with the start of the Industrial Revolution in the 18th century raised the question of the need for and the management of labor force for the first time, and the growth of industrialization in time, the participation of new machinery and equipment into the business processes and the increase in the quantity and quality of employees, required a scientific re-interpretation also of business-human-machinery management. The development achieved in industrialization brought with it the need to re-interpret also the management of human resources just as the management of all other resources.

In recent years we are faced with a structural transformation brought by information. With the phenomena of globalization, the transition from industrial society to information society impacted all countries whether ready or not. Countries and businesses got closer as a result of increase in the flow of goods, capital and labor with globalization. During this period, defined as the new economy; businesses operate on a global world and in a dynamic market, and “information replaced labor and capital as the sole production factor” (Drucker, 1988, 15). The new economy is an information economy, and information is among the basic inputs. As information trade and the trade of information-intensive goods and services increase, the most important resource of corporations has become information and human capital rather than classical production factors (Aktan, 2003, 1). Just as all other organizations, while businesses are influenced by the change in their society, in some cases they also turn into major elements that shape the society. In this context, they need to be aware of both the socio-cultural structures of societies and changes and transformations that occur in the environment, including technology. This is because businesses are in harmony with the socio-economic and socio-cultural elements of their society and are in interaction with the demographic features of the society as much as with its traditions, customs and beliefs. Businesses that meet the requests and needs of the society on one hand contribute to increasing the welfare level of the society and on the other hand increase their own effectiveness and efficiency.

Information technologies have resulted in a change in the business world as they did in every field of life with the transition to information society and “these changes that made information the fundamental value, have paved the way for businesses to benefit from these information systems in their decision-making processes” (Aksel et al, 2013, 25). Assessing the change that occurred in time from the perspective of labor, it transformed both the expectations from businesses and the expectations of businesses from their employees. Today, businesses are on one hand developing strategies with the effort to gain sustainable competitive advantage, and on the other hand they found themselves to be in the process of employing and managing a new generation with
different expectations. The new generation thinks fast, can perform multiple tasks simultaneously, can quickly distinguish and set aside things that are important for themselves, has self-loyalty and loyalty for their own future, can quickly adapt to change, has high ambition for respect and learning and is comfortable with technology (Gross, 16). According to Engin and Gürses (2014) usage of the new internet named web 2.0 technologies by the municipalities was increasing in all over the world by the time. All these developments also lead to a change in the structure of labor force. On one hand, the need is increasing for the labor force employed in industry and on the other hand, a labor force structure with higher levels of qualification, training and income is starting to form. It is expected that the demand for jobs with low qualification will decrease while total employment will increase with the growth in industrial production. With smart production systems also utilizing robot technology, it is aimed to respond more and faster to customer preferences and needs and provide customization, smart production, improved production quality, production with fewer faults, less waste, localized manufacturing processes, acceleration of innovation processes and less resource utilization. It also constitutes the basis of Industry 4.0, defined as the “fourth” industrial revolution referring to optimization of value-chains in the production industry, especially factories, in terms of case-specific solutions, flexibility, efficiency and cost. The digital transformation that will get even more involved in our world and our business processes with the impact of Industry 4.0, will also change many habits (MESS, 2017, 22). The real problem starts at this stage; old habits are insufficient to manage the new human force. The purpose of this study is to examine the harmony between modes of managing human resources with the new technology in a changing world.

HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

Human resources management is a system where companies can manage all their human resource processes in line with particular personnel regulations and the labor laws. The essence of the system includes management of organization units, employee personal file management, career planning, training management, recruitment management, performance management and wage management. As is evident from its name, a human resources department, aiming to align the needs of employees in the business about humans with the needs of the business, on one hand undertakes the management of the asset named humans, with all their complexities, and on the other hand plays an active role in the sustainable growth of businesses by scientifically assessing their competences and skills. However, with changing times Human resources started to undergo a change and transformation with the use of human resources information technologies. Employees were considered as a cost element in the process starting with Personnel Management, which regarded it as operational transactions and a record-keeping activity where employees were selected and calculations were made for their leaves, number of days with health report, absent and late days and scores (Sabuncuoğlu, 2000, 8; Barutçugil, 2004, 40). The first change started with employees being regarded as organization values and the transformation initiated with business starting to “operate as a process of harmonization between organizational objectives and the needs of employees (Sabuncuoğlu, 2000, 9)” with the increase of humans within the business. The changing approach of businesses to humans and the change in their mode of conducting business resulted, on one hand to in the emergence of new management
models and on the other hand, it became an important tool in terms of harmony both with the in-house and out-house environment.

The developments in information and production technologies with globalization resulted in an increase in competition, businesses developing strategies aiming for pioneering in competition and sustainable growth, which in turn resulted in the need for businesses to prepare for competition first with their human resources. However, under its changing structure, the demographic structure of labor force also changed and the globalizing labor force in globalizing businesses, with its different expectations and socio-cultural structure, turned into a field of expertise for businesses that needed to be studied. The importance of organizational culture increased for the purpose working towards common goals for a labor force that is remote from the concepts of space and time, has varying levels of education and comes from different cultures. Hence, since a well-managed organizational culture that heads towards a culture fit for the purpose is hard to imitate, it started to create lasting competitive advantage in many businesses and the significance and need for co-existence increased.

**The Purpose of Human Resources Management**

The purpose of Human Resources management is to respond to personal needs of employees as it manages an organization gathering employees at various levels and positions, to contribute to the personal and professional development thereof, to create a well-structured working environment that allows them to achieve job satisfaction in a business environment, and to ensure the most effective and efficient utilization of human resources by employing a labor force with the quality and quantity to ensure that businesses can achieve the purposes and targets they set in the context of their strategies (Barutçugil, 2004, 37). Therefore, it is one of the significant resources used by organization to reach their objectives. In other words, humans are on one hand an indispensable instrument in the production process, and on the other hand a target that needs to be managed and organized. This results in the increase in the significance of investments in human resources and the works of human resources units in businesses. From this perspective, HRM can be said to have to basic purposes: to increase efficiency and to increase the quality of business life. This causes Human Resources Management to act with two basic thoughts (Palmer, 1993, 25). These two basic philosophies are the efficient use of labor force in accordance with the targets of the business and contributing to development of employees by meeting their needs. The current targets are directly related with three basic targets that impact the works and performances of human resources. These are effectiveness, efficiency and motivation climate. Factors that impact the real success of human resources management become significant at this stage. On one hand, in a business it drives employees at all levels, with very different professions, educations, qualifications and from various socio-economic and socio-cultural structures, to work towards a common goal in accordance with the targets of the business. On the other hand, it is necessary to manage the personal and organizational performance of all employees in the business, from recruitment to training, from performances to wage and career management, in an integrated manner.

**The Significance of Human Resources Management**

In the intense competition environment brought with globalization, the development in technology and the rapid change in the world require businesses to be
effective and efficiency for sustainable competitive advantage under the conditions of intense competition, but also require them to be innovative and catch up with the technology of the times. In this environment, where employees have gained critical importance, it is observed that employees are usually in conflict with the business managements through the human resources management. Every successful business needs a professional team which, in essence performs their professions in accordance with the targets of the business and it is the task of human resources management to establish and manage such team. Therefore, the conclusion can be reached that a team cannot be established without having a good human resources management. This is a function focused on recruiting, directing and managing employees. Due to the topics it undertakes, Human Resources Management plays a strategic role in managing employees, the business culture and its environment. If effective, it can make major contribution to achieving the purposes and targets of the business. The significant role of human resources in all strategic decisions should not be forgotten. Regardless of how its name is defined, “labor”, “human”, “human capital”, “intellectual capital” or “human resource” or “worker”, employees at each level have critical significance in terms of strategic success and competitive advantage.

However, the greatest problem of human resources management starts at this stage. Balancing company targets and employee targets in the management system is one of the leading basic purposes of HRM. Recruitment and training, performance assessment, improvement of the working environment together with dispute management are the main study topics of Human resources management. Particularly the increase of multi-national and international businesses, together with presence of employees from various cultures and countries and the increase in business sizes, caused the tasks of human resources management to become more complex. And in doing all this, it has to ensure that employees make the highest contribution to the business by best utilizing their abilities and skills and achieve highest satisfaction from their job. Thus, the functions of human resources management become important. HRM is a discipline covering activities for creating, planning, organizing, directing and inspecting policies for providing, recruiting and developing the human resource needed for the business to achieve competitive advantage. In performing these activities, it is required that the business makes a return higher than average in the context of its basic purposes, service is provided to the society, the responsibilities towards the society are met and the needs of employees are met, such that the business can also fulfill its responsibilities towards the society.

The Functions of Human Resources Management

The basic functions of human resources management are to plan, localize, measure and assess, reward, raise, develop and preserve employees as human resources and industrial relations. In fulfilling the functions of HRM, arrangements should be made in harmony between the functions and strategic targets of the business and the employees. The strategic importance of human resources management within business in ensuring efficiency and quality has both increased its value and diversified its tasks and responsibilities. Human resources have transitioned from record-keeping to full strategic partnership as a result of the change that occurred especially in recent year. HRM strategies aim to increase organizational efficiency by making most effective use of the power of the business by integrating personal and organizational purposes.
In this context, the functions of human resources are listed as follows (ÜLGEN and MİRZE, 2004): Human resources planning, recruitment and selection, Human resources development, training, performance assessment, compensation and wage management, occupational health and safety and industrial relations. Another source classified the functions of HRM as human resources planning, business analysis and business design, finding and selecting labor force, job evaluation, wage management, training and development, career management, occupational health and safety management, performance assessment, industrial relations management (Şimşek and Öge 2009). Today, the rise of globalization, change in the qualifications and expectations of employees, efficiency and quality and customer satisfaction gaining critical importance for competitive advantage; have cause human resources management to focus more on future-oriented strategies and events as much as, or event more than current events (Barutçuğil, 2004, 42). Thus causes continuous performance of needs analyses of human resources in businesses and the need to compile and interpret future-oriented information. In addition to using its functional and executive powers, future-oriented human resources management also has to manage change, perform planning and organization, be integrative and manage information. Today executives are aware that in the lack of effective operation of human resources the functions of the business such as production, marketing-sale, finance and research & development cannot be effective. This fact opened a new door in the human resources functions of businesses: Human Resources Information Management. For businesses in global markets to maintain their presence in the new world order, it is required that on one hand recording and monitoring operations should be sustainable on large scales and the need analyses should be prepared by making future-projections based on the obtained data and for it to play an effective role in giving correct decisions when needed. Today countless amount of data flow occurs in businesses from internal and external environment, but such data has no meaning by itself. Information management gains value by ensuring correct flow of data and processing and interpretation thereof in suitable technological infrastructures. However, in order to achieve this, it is first required that the human resources unit, together with its employees should adapt to technology, that the data should be acquired and that a value is generated from such data. Hence, now the basic expectation of businesses from human resources have been settled as an organizational culture in businesses as a quality-oriented performance management where the employees participate in management, that values humans and takes action quickly; and needs a globally-thinking human resources management that turns employees into one of the resources for competitive advantage and creates a learning organization that can adapt and direct to changing strategies. In this sense, now getting separated from personnel management with sharp lines, human resources management is gaining a new meaning and entirety. Use of data is also very important in the new process. This is because functions can be performed such as accessing, managing, updating, transferring and creating defined relations among the acquired data.

**HUMAN RESOURCES and INFORMATION MANAGEMENT**

With the increase in the need of businesses for qualified human resources, the developments in production technologies and human-focused studies in social sciences, in time it has found its place also in business life and HRM both gained a wide place in
business life and also became a management approach considered more important by businesses each passing day. Today, businesses at each level include HRM as one of their executive activities. However, as the development of technology and especially information technologies entered the management systems of businesses as an important facilitator, it also started to change the structure in the organization. As the integration of the basic functions of businesses with information technologies provided the opportunity for the senior management to easily view and interpret the whole and the sub-items through the data it obtains in the new system, it also increased the need of the senior management for new knowledge and skills, in other words for training. “Development information systems and integrated software covering all operating functions, has provided the opportunity to restructure the departments of human resources just as the whole organization, to redefine the processes and re-design the works (Barutçuğil, 2004, 79). In this process, having seen in practice the contributions of using database in management success, they started to support actions in this regard. This clearly shows the importance of using databases in HRM and in this management process (Bayraç, 2008). Human resources information systems can be defined as “the system that allows the collection, storage, update and conversion into information to support strategic and executive decisions, of personal data related to human resources of the organization and organizational data related to all human resources activities in order to help effective operation of the human resources function of an organization” (Keçecioğlu, 2003, 32).

The main purpose of human resources information systems is, by providing complete and accurate information at the right time, to provide useful information based on which HRM and the senior management can give decisions on human resources correctly in terms of the business and employees. Thus, decisions can be taken by determining the correct strategies at the right place and time by accessing “the whole consisting of individuals, processes, forms and data used for acquiring, storing, analyzing, correcting and distributing information on the human resources of the organization” (Karabulut, 2016 ). The system is necessary and mandatory in terms of observing the whole and the differences within the whole and to monitor the change especially in large businesses and in multi-national businesses. Moreover, technology now also provides the opportunity to classify large-scale data in businesses. Today, human resources units widely use information systems in labor force management, performance management, training and development management and wage management.

**Labor Force Management**

The basic and most important function of human resources is to plan the human resources required by the business, make predictions for the future and contribute to ensuring that the business makes correct decisions for its future. At this stage information technology allows the assessment of the knowledge, skills, training and abilities together with the efficiencies of employees and the current and future labor force need of business, which provides competitive advantage to businesses by contributing to analyzing, planning and controlling their future needs today. Interpretations on labor force turnover, performance analysis, skill inventory, wage information, job and training information, open jobs and potential open jobs can be performed based on data recorded in digital environment.
Training and Development

Today, when technology is rapidly advancing and the production process is changing very quickly, it is observed that information and skills become outdated very quickly. The basic function of HRM is to manage the training of employees. Technological infrastructure on one hand requires change and renewal in the qualifications of employees, and on the other hand allows for very fast and accurate definition and programming of such requirement and if necessary, even for programming of remote or self-training through electronic learning.

Performance Management

Performance management is the process of collection, analyzing and reporting of data in a systematic whole to ensure that employees and the business can be assessed. Actually, performance management is a field that is effective in decision-making processes from labor force management to security management and from wage management to training management and has critical importance for both the business and the conflicts in the market. The performance assessment system should be operated transparently, fairly and reliably and all its stages should be traceable and accountable. Although until today it was not sufficiently used effectively because establishing and using the system imposed significant burdens on businesses in terms of time and cost, it started being preferred because it became is less costly with the establishment of the technological infrastructure.

Wage Management

Wage is the basic income for employees and one of the significant cost elements for businesses. The diversification of the role and effectiveness of humans in businesses, the differentiation of modes of working, the differences in legal regulations especially in international businesses, cause significant differences in basic wages as well as in base wages with benefits, special discounts, additional incomes, social aids, insurance and tax cuts. Associating performance management and wage management in recent years has made the system even more complex for businesses. Software for wage management contributes to fairness in wage-performance relation and to determining wage policies and also allow for reliable operation of the process from accrual to the bank.

THE CHANGE THAT THE HUMAN RESOURCES INFORMATION SYSTEM SHALL CAUSE FOR BUSINESSES

The change that occurred from the Industrial Revolution to Industry 4.0 gives clues about the change to occur in the future. In terms of human resources management, the availability of information systems is the sole way to collect, analyze, interpret and later store information of large quantities and many different qualities. In today’s business life where international competition is rapidly increasing, the effectiveness of businesses is, to a large extent, dependent on the success of human resource management that can fulfill the strategic human resources function. Hence, in the system “the emergence of an internet-based system under the name of electronic human resources, sharing information very rapidly and properly with computer networks, the fact that citizens have ID numbers, are becoming the inputs of a system that is heading towards the same direction (Karabulut, 2)”.

In determining the priorities of businesses, human resources units develop the
priorities for human resources information and determine and set the information to be included in the human resources information system according to their significance at this stage in performing human resources functions. In order to fulfill their functions human resources management needs to use computer systems, interactive electronic media and telecommunication networks in a manner that fits the purpose (Öge, 2005:110). The basic purpose of the system is easy, fast and efficient control and management. Although the system is basically suitable for new production technologies and new modes of management, it brings restrictions as well as various advantages.

Advantages of the Digital Transformation in Human Resources

Document management is one of the leading problems of human resources management. Document management imposes serious burdens on businesses in terms of time and cost as business sizes and the number of employees increase. In businesses without good document management, the difficulties in accessing information disrupt processes from production to training and performance of employees. Information management allows human resources planning in businesses as a result of analyses conducted with accurate and timely collected data. Data management is required in large businesses for deciding on the labor force with current jobs. Keeping data regularly, especially for statistical methods used particularly in making future predictions can prevent potential mistakes in planning. Gathering absence rates, labor force turnover rates, total and individual workloads on a single system will facilitate determining future-oriented strategies as well as the current situation of businesses and make it possible to take decisions with high hit rates. On the other hand, the same data shall be used in the inspection processes.

Recently, most businesses use their own corporate websites or specialized recruitment websites in the process meeting labor supply and demand and in recruitment, selection and assessment. Initiating and conducting the process on electronic media allows the labor market to homogenize to the benefit of qualified labor and provides the advantage of searching for a skilled job from anywhere around the world and keep résumés up-to-date. In terms of businesses, it allows for selection from a larger number of candidates, make assessments with standard résumés, have up-to-date labor force information, reach qualified personnel at first-hand and complete the process by saving from time and money.

The main reason for the failure in performance assessment works is that they take too long; they are costly and cannot be used for purposes other than discharge or setting wages, because at the end of the assessment the information at hand is usually obsolete. Performance assessment performed in digital environment takes the burden off businesses in terms of time and expense and makes it a priority among basic data to be used in strategic management. Fast, a comprehensive, reliable and effective analysis of wage management and job evaluation data minimizes errors.

Taking measures regarding occupational health and safety is among one of the current problems of businesses. Measures taken in the past mostly through trial and error and under the guidance of tallies at hand have resulted in failure in this field. With the ability to perform risk analysis in the real sense through data management in businesses, occupational health and safety measures can be taken in a holistic approach and significant reductions can be achieved in occupational health and occupational disease rates. By comparing risks of systems, measures to be taken, previous diseases of
employees, negative attitudes and behaviors regarding the job they encountered, the trainings they received and their qualifications, it is possible to develop health, training and protection programs suitable for high-risk jobs, working conditions and persons.

Such studies have various benefits also in terms of employees in addition to benefits for the business. First, feeling that their performances shall be assessed and charged correctly within the whole is one of the significant factors that increase organizational loyalty in terms of employees. Transparency, fairness and timeliness of the decisions taken from the recruitment process to discharge and from training management to career planning, will provide positive contributions to the business outside the organization as much as inside. Observing that the business is being managed based or rational resources lead employees to feel that they have a future in the business and provides support to the employees in career planning and offering new job opportunities and developing their knowledge and skills. While reducing routine business processes, flexible business models can be developed, and the efficiency of employees and the effectiveness of the business can be increased in the context of changing needs. Faster and more accurate provision of HRM services increases employee satisfaction and thus, performance (Çalış, 2012).

Disadvantages of the Digital Transformation in Human Resources

The main decision that businesses need to give in the process of digitalizing human resources management is whether they shall set up and operate as open for continuous update, a system suitable for their business, as the installation process and the data size and complexity are costly, which constitutes the basic disadvantage of the system. Correct operation of the system is closely related to being up-to-date.

On the other hand, there is the problem of keeping some data as private in the business and protecting them with awareness of risks in terms of both personal privacy and in terms of security gaps such as theft or sale of information in the system. At this stage it is required that the Human Resources Information System is set up as a system not easily accessible and usable only by authorized persons in the human resources unit, its user restrictions are well-defined, and the due diligence is shown in defining information accessible by everyone and information open to the senior management.

Collecting and interpreting incorrect and non-reliable information is the leading problem caused by correct specification of the place and methods regarding information collection. Such a practice on one hand shakes the confidence of the users in the system and on the other hand leads to all the works performed with such data to not be related with the employees and the business and to making incorrect plans and taking incorrect decisions.

Organizational needs must be identified, and employees must strictly be informed about where and how the collected information will be used and about the procedures and principles regarding the assessment of their personal data and a guarantee must be given that third parties shall not have access to the data.

Organizational performance will show its impact as a result of the optimum combination of performance aspects such as efficacy, effectiveness, efficiency, quality, continuous improvement, innovation, business life quality and profitability (Bredrup, 1995). This is why performance management is indispensable for businesses, however, the uniformization of the system through information systems will lead to neglect of the human and behavioral aspects and consequently, to formation of employees who regard
themselves as a stranger to their jobs and businesses. Such and similar situations that will demoralize and demotivate employees will lead to alienation and exhaustion in the organization.

In industrial relations management; expectations of employees regarding the job and business, working rules, agreements and particularly the labor agreement, complaints, requests and expectations are maintained also with the support of union organizations. The main function is to ensure that employees have a comfortable and peaceful working environment. Although human resources information systems seem to be indispensable for industrial relations when examined in terms of functions, as it is a field that needs to respond to humans and to human fears, concerns and expectations, users of information systems should always keep in mind that the subject of the issue is humans especially in sub-studies directly concerned with employees. In short, a human resources information system can result in pushing humans and the human and behavioral aspect to the background

**CONCLUSION**

Human resources management is an acknowledged field of science. It is the assessment and management of the effectiveness and efficiency of businesses and employees by measuring the knowledge, skills and abilities of humans using scientific methods and by making predictions about the process. However, it should not be forgotten that its subject is humans. Regarding humans, who are emotional beings, as numbers and defining them with mathematical expressions will be insufficient in responding to their needs. Under conditions where technology and production processes of businesses have standardized almost on a global level, human power is the strategic resource of businesses that seek to make a difference in competition. Although technological developments, including human resources information system, is an undeniable fact for businesses to achieve the development that they seek in an intense competition environment, human power is the basis of the most successful organizations, and employment thereof at the right place, the right time and under the right conditions depends on the perspective of human resources management towards humans.

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Chapter 17

Intellectual Foundations of Marxist Revolutionary Movements

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INTRODUCTION

An analysis of the common points of many studies on the logic of illegal leftist organizations' actions, which have adopted the principle of armed struggle, reveals that the most important inferences that are made are that these organizations are always supported by external powers and that their militia are psychologically disturbed. It is obvious that such inferences are gravely limited and offer no useful insight into logic of illegal armed groups, which is why these notions are not included in the scope of this study. Traditional analyses that blindly follow the official discourse simply reduce the issue of armed struggle to terrorism and hence a security problem. Thus, the solution to armed actions becomes limited with security forces.

This study aims to describe the intellectual foundations and arguments of the Marxist organizations - RAF (Red Army Fiction) in particular - and Latin American rural guerillas. To that end, political assessments are made on the subjects' political roles in the historical period spanning from Marx to Lenin with a view to demonstrating the historical heritage that formed the action groups in cities. In this way, it becomes easier to understand the RAF's armed struggle in Germany and Latin American rural guerillas' actions.

By no means does this research claim that it aims to shed light on the motives of all leftist and armed organizations in the world or have insights into the philosophy of every single illegal leftist group. The purpose of this study is to understand the action type and philosophy of the RAF and Latin American rural guerillas that adopted armed struggle.

Revolution According to Marx and Lenin

From 1840 to 1850 in France, Marx and Engels thought the era of socialist revolutions began in Europe by looking at the political developments that followed the February Revolution. This political landscape was interpreted as follows: "...Considering the conditions at that time, we had no doubt a great struggle had begun. It was crystal clear this struggle had to be put up over a long period of revolutionism with lots of choices to be made. Finally, there was no doubt this struggle would end with an absolute victory by the proletariat" (Marx, 1996: 11).

The 1847 world trade crisis was what caused the February and March revolutions (French Revolution on 24 February 1848 and incidents in Vienna and Berlin on March 13 and 18, respectively). The relative development of the industry, which slowly came to the fore as of mid-1848 and reached its peak in 1849 and 1850, revived reactionism in Europe. Following a coup d'état by Louis Bonaparte on December 2, 1851, the
revolutionary period stopped in its tracks. It was not long before Marx realized his arguments and inferences about socialist revolutions were invalid: "History proved us and all those with similar ideas to be wrong" (Marx, 1996: 14).

Marx clearly reached flawed conclusions in interpreting the 1848 revolutions in Europe. At that stage of capitalism (i.e. the imperialist phase), Lenin made several important points. He asserted that it was not Marx's and Engels's period anymore and that capitalism had evolved into a new stage. Capitalism was now in the period of constant depression which Marx and Engels previously thought it already was between 1847 and 1850. Lenin aptly observed the unbalanced and intermittent progress of capitalism, which became all the more apparent in the monopolist period, and summed up the duties of the European proletariat and colonies in the war against imperialism: "First, (...) We see the imperialist (...) war as a reactionary, enslaving, and cruel war (...) Second, (...). Anyone who accepts the class struggle must come to terms with the civil war, too. (...) Third, a socialist victory in a single country cannot suddenly end every war. (...) Victory is a must in one or more countries while other nations will remain in the bourgeois or pre-bourgeois period for some time. (...) In such cases, war will be legitimate and just for us (Lenin, 1992a: 66-7).

In the light of Lenin's comments, it is safe to say that socialists emphasized the impossibility of disarmament in the face of the war against imperialism and stressed that the colonies can fight their national liberation wars only with arms against regular imperialist armies. The proletariat in imperialist countries, on the other hand, had to start a determined civil war against the bourgeoisie. As capitalism developed unevenly, a simultaneous socialist revolution in all countries was out of the question. Hence, the proletariat needed to consider the condition that it should empower itself first in one or several countries.

According to Lenin, "uneven economic development is an absolute rule of capitalism, which brings us to the conclusion that socialism is possible in very few capitalist countries at first, probably even in just one". Marx's and Engels's statement that "the revolution will be sparked in all the countries at once" was no longer valid in the imperialist era. Lenin thought that the parties and proponents of the parties of the Second International that dogmatized and repeated this obsolete view of Marx and Engels did nothing more than falling in line with the economic and political interests of the bourgeoisie.

According to Lenin, the idea that regarding the internal development of a country as a condition for the success of a proletariat revolution and determining if the development level of the productive forces is enough was a thing of the past. In the imperialist era, the conditions for a revolution in any country did not depend on the level of development of the productive forces. This is because imperialism already dethroned autarchy and made national economies into rings of the chain called the world economy. From a wholistic point of view that looks at the entire imperialist system, every country on earth possessed the objective conditions for a socialist revolution. Imperialism had no progressive role. At this special stage of capitalism, the ideas that productive forces in underdeveloped countries would be built up and the proletariat would make a revolutionary move in an evolutionary way were totally wrong (Lenin, 1992b: 57). It was thus illogical to expect the first proletariat revolution to take place in the country where capitalism was most developed and the level of democracy and culture was highest. This hypothesis of Marx and Engels, which held true for the
pre-monopolist epoch, was no longer valid in the imperialist era. Lenin believed that the first proletariat revolution would break out not in the country with the highest level of capitalism or democracy but in the one that was the weakest link of the imperialist chain. In the light of all these assertions, it is safe to say that analyses of historical transformation processes featured a shift from "determinism" to "voluntarism" (revolutionary initiative).

The Second International's take on the socialist revolutionary strategy mainly involved deterministic elements. In other words, the internal contradictions of capitalism would inevitably come to a socialist stage independent of single individuals. For this reason, it was not compulsory for the socialist revolutionary struggle to - as opposed to Lenin's formula - be led by a pioneering party consisting of professional revolutionaries that join their forces around certain central principles. If the internal contradictions of capitalism were to be used to reach socialism first and then communism, which represented a society without class distinctions, this goal could be achieved with reformist methods as opposed to the strategies of revolutionary struggles. A careful look at the Second International's socialist revolution strategy shows that it did not leave much free territory for the conscious activity of subjects in the historical transformation processes. The revolution was reduced to the economic level of development.

The success of the October Revolution and its impact on the masses dealt a solid blow to the principles of Marxism that had been widely accepted since the Second International. Contrary to the expectations, the Socialist Revolution took place in a country where capitalism partially developed and feudal and semi-feudal relations prevailed. This also corroborated the fact that a change based on subjects' conscious efforts is possible in countries where capitalism relatively developed and that a socialist revolution can take place in such settings.

Another significant postulation emphasizing the transformative role of the conscious subject was made by A. Gramsci who developed his ideas in Italy, which was in stark contrast to Russia. Therefore, Italy's particular conditions were reflected in his opinions and revolution strategies. Gramsci condoned the Russian Revolution; however, he pointed out the exact same revolution strategy would not work out in Europe; the civil society in Russia was not powerful, and the state was dominant over the society, thereby maintaining its presence by using force. The situation was significantly different in Europe where a strategy directly targeting the state would never reach its ultimate goal in the brewing process of a socialist revolution. This was because there was a strong civil society already existing in Europe. The state maintained its presence with the public's consent and realized it through "hegemony" which it had developed in the civil society. Thus, the strategy of a possible socialist revolution in Europe had to differ from that of Russia (Anderson, 1988: 36). Conscious subjects in Europe would cause the state to lose the social consent - the most important foundation of the state - because of the hegemony in the civil society. As a consequence, the state, which ensures its continuity by exerting hegemony over the civil society, would go into a phase of steady decline and fall into the sphere of the hegemony that was already surrounded internally. This process that would lead up to the conquest of the government was named "war of position". In Russia-like countries, the revolutionary struggle directed straight at the state was called "war of movement". The war of position entailed an encompassing struggle that was directed at the hegemony over the
civil society.

As this social consent-centered struggle grew and gained importance, the armed struggle would gradually lose its significance. However, the successful guerilla activities conducted against the regular armies in countries like Cuba and China after 1950 revived the issue of armed struggle. The achievements of relatively small groups against larger armies resulted in a novel way of struggle in the mid-1960s: urban guerilla warfare.

**Urban Foco**

An analysis of the three legacies of the urban foco's actions gives us the following: First, the importance of subjectivity grows throughout the process of socialist build-up. Second, the proletariat is no longer the revolutionary force. Third, it is practically possible to defeat regular armies with smaller groups. The fundamental principle shaping the armed actions of the urban foco is that there is an "artificial balance" between oligarchy and popular discontent. This "artificial balance" can be broken in favor of the public with a series of regular and systematic actions against the state. Nevertheless, this does not happen all by itself.

The purpose of the urban foco's armed struggle against the state is to reveal the nefarious and concealed aspects of the state. As the state embarks on a quest to punish the people who commit illegal acts, it makes innocent and ordinary people suffer as well. This way, masses that are perhaps totally apolitical are politicized directly or indirectly. In order to maintain stability, the state exerts even more power over the people, which accentuate the public hatred towards the state. The contrast between oligarchy and popular discontent becomes all the deeper with the guerilla's armed actions against the state's means of oppression. This dialectic relation between the opposing sides results in the public's conquest of political governance.

The RAF (Red Army Faction) was a militant organization that aimed to take control of Germany's political governance by way of armed struggle. Understanding the RAF's philosophical logic by looking at its actions is key to this research. The RAF had no intention to develop a theory and did not limit its sphere of activity to national borders. The group referred to the dominant regime as "imperialism". According to the RAF's revolutionary strategy, socialist revolutionary struggle could not be restricted to national borders in a setting where capital was international, economic dependence increased day by day, and means of communication were constantly improved. The revolutionary struggle must thus take place in the international arena, and this fight was called "anti-imperialism". The RAF formulated imperialism from top to bottom as follows: American imperialism, collaboration between capitalist states, multinationals, and the military organization (NATO).

The RAF roughly defined the international face of imperialism as such. This imperialist system concentrated in "cities". This system could be made dysfunctional through military actions by urban focos (Steiner, 2000: 153). According to urban focos' political and military strategy, the main elements in the machinery of the imperialist system (military, police, law, companies, etc.) were to be damaged with a series of armed actions, which would result in breaches in the system and eventually paralyze it. Thus, the security essential for the imperialist system would disappear, and the territory of imperialism would be severely limited. The imperialist system would fail to repair and reassert itself in this unstable environment and keep losing strength.
The term fascism plays a key role in the RAF's analyses. The fascist movements that sprung up in the early 20th century were mass movements. This was evident in the fascist movements in Italy, Germany, and Spain. However, from a standpoint that considers the social reality, it can be said that new fascism was organized from bottom to top, but it was rather promoted by the state. According to the RAF, the fascistization process of the masses was run directly by the state. The process of fascistization was carried out with the support of the parasitic strata of the society. Put another way, the fascistization process in the imperialist system happened top down - rather than bottom-up - with the state's tools of ideology and oppression (Steiner, 2000: 154).

The RAF mentioned two important terms in tackling classes: "attitude" and "movement". The Soviet Union had a class attitude that it developed both domestically and abroad. This attitude aimed to have a powerful socialism in one country. There was also the political attitude that depended on the alliance between the Soviets and the other socialist countries against imperialism. This class attitude both in the Soviet Union and abroad deemphasized movement. The RAF, on the other hand, preferred movement as its main weapon against imperialism; the group was constantly at war with imperialism and had no way of coming to terms with it. Therefore, the RAF's political attitude towards imperialism did not correspond to the class attitude of the Soviet Union (Steiner, 2000: 155).

Raising awareness in masses was a key action plan of Marxist-Leninist left-wing organizations. The RAF adopted an approach to the issue of educating masses that was different from those of other leftist organizations. According to the RAF, cities were big and complex places where inhabitants were alienated, and it was impossible to raise awareness in people in such places. A cloud of alienation hovered over big cities where everyone was in a constant state of war with each other. Under these conditions of exploitation, the system would discover individuals, make them forget their social selves, and let itself be perceived as a being outside of the production circle. Pressure was ever-present in such places of alienation, which, in turn, would result in resistance.

It was not possible to organize massive resistance in a coordinated and systematic way within the legal political order in cities because alienation would take place smoothly and take the reins. Hence, the exploited and the ruled were never able to vent their hatred and anger directly at those in power. Due to the chaotic nature of the metropolis, the present condition of alienation had certain impacts on the individual's mental state. People would reflect their discontent with the system on themselves or transfer their negative feelings to weaker others. Moreover, one would exhibit fascist behavior in cities. The person would simmer with hatred because of the system's contradictions and then take it out on the weaker. Other signs of alienation were mental diseases, suicide, rape, and drug abuse, which are all destructive and pernicious. The efficiency of urban people was determined by the capital. Metropolises were the isolation zones of large masses. The RAF suggested that these zones could be ripped apart through urban focos' systematic military operations against the ruling power. The group argued that alienation was a historical phenomenon that could actually be overcome.

The person could be liberated like never before thanks to the anti-state military action by urban focos. Subject to all sorts of alienation at every stage of life, the person could see themselves through the eyes of the system. Put in a different way, the person would be liberated to the extent that they were freed of yoke of the state's ideological
and oppressive tools (Steiner, 2000:156). Severing all legal ties with the state and commencing armed struggle against it, the urban foco finally had the opportunity to identify themselves with it. This way, the person could regain their identity they had lost in the process of alienation. According to Herbert Marcuse, armed struggle is intended to break the isolation, regain the lost identity, and ensure emancipation by totally rejecting the state (1997: 123).

The RAF pointed out that the collective struggle of the militants would bring about a common identity after a period of time. The formation of a common identity was by no means a simple feeling of solidarity among the militants during the struggle. The path to a common identity was also the struggle put up under the fiercest and most intense conditions of isolation. For example, an inmate in a prison is subjected to all kinds of oppression in the system, the most obvious indication of which is torture. An officer who performs torture objectifies the victim, thereby trivializing his or her body. There is always the need to inflict this feeling of unimportance upon the tortured. Oppression under the strictest of isolation conditions can be overcome by a collective hunger strike. Individuals subjected to torture do not allow their bodies to be objectified by someone else. In the last analysis, this goes to show that if something or harm is to be done to their bodies, they themselves will be the ones who do it. Thus, tortured individuals gain self-esteem thanks to their tenacity. This clash between the militant and the enemy (i.e. officer) is in fact a battle of wills intended to impose superiority. Consciousness that is obtained during this clash is not social consciousness that is desired to be provided after the revolution takes place. Rather, it is the consciousness of the guerilla fighting under the existing conditions. According to the RAF, struggle was more a means than an end; it was the struggle itself that would create a new identity.

Construction of the Revolutionary Subject

The debate on the question "Who is a revolutionary subject?" has been around for eons. Marx and Bakunin's discussion in the First International as to who a revolutionary subject was and how the revolution would take place did not come to an end for a while. Marx argued that the working class was the only candidate, whereas Bakunin never accepted the notion of an organized struggle. Engels emphasized the party's importance as he criticized the Social Democratic Party of Germany. Lenin held that the ascension from the level "class in itself" to "class for itself" was only possible through a party made up of professional revolutionists organized around central tenets. For Lenin, an organized party constituted a key aspect of the revolutionary strategy. According to Althusser, subjects were buried in structures, and subjects were also the bearers of structures. Structures were continuous entities. When the problem is laid out this way, even the possibility of a revolution becomes subject to debate.

The RAF approached the question of the revolutionary subject from a completely different angle. The group did not reduce exploitation to production only; rather, exploitation was rampant in every aspect of life. Exploitation was not just the abuse of the working class during production. Indeed, exploitation manifested itself not only in production but also in consumption and miscellaneous aspects of life. Consequently, the revolutionary subject was basically everyone taking up arms against the system. Political-practical analyses of the RAF's demonstrate that it was not a class movement (Steiner, 2000: 146). As explained above, Lenin always underscored the importance of a disciplined party in the revolutionary struggle. The RAF did not adopt a Leninist
structure because the group did not appoint itself to a dominant or ruling role. Neither production nor consumption was determinant in the RAF's revolutionary strategy; what mattered was the total of every praxis.

According to Lenin, capitalism of the 20th century had entered a new stage - one that was different from Marx's period. The imperialist stage, which Lenin describes as the highest phase of capitalism, did not cement the productive forces. In contrast to the free competitive capitalist stage, the imperialist one gave way to capital intensity and resulted in the problem of new markets and investments. Thus, the conflict between the proletariat and bourgeoisie within national boundaries was replaced with a clash between the north and south. According to Lenin, the first socialist revolution would take place in the country where the chain of imperialism was the weakest and not in a country where capitalism and democracy enjoyed their heyday (Lenin, 1992b: 113).

Unlike Marx and Lenin's opinions, the RAF claimed antagonistic contradiction existed between the proletariat and imperialism. The group supported national liberation movements in colonies and semi-colonies. The RAF positioned itself as a faction of the world socialist movement. The solidarity between the RAF and revolutionary organizations in other countries was of the parties' own accord and therefore did not exist on a written agreement among them (Steiner, 2000:160). The RAF adopted all kinds of armed struggle against the state. The organization divided the state into two in terms of its domains: ideological apparatuses and tools of oppression. The ideological apparatuses include religious institutions, schools, media, and prisons while the tools of oppression are the military, police, and government. The tools of oppression are usually employed by means of brute force, whereas the ideological apparatuses use the ideology to build popular support. This explanation overlaps with Althusser's analyses (Althusser, 2002: 32-34). According to the RAF, city focos could only escape from the state's oppression and control by taking up arms against it. For this reason, military facilities, banks, the press, judges, prosecutors, and powerful capitalists were the direct targets of the group. The idea was to inflict significant damage to the moral potential of the imperialism through continuous armed actions, cripple the entire imperialist system, and finally put an end to it.

The actors that shaped the RAF's area of operation were the imperialist system and individuals to be made conscious. The notion of the "third actor" was pivotal to the RAF's modus operandi; it constituted an international sphere in the group's analyses of the revolution. In 1977, the RAF assassinated Hanns Martin Schleyer, a businessman with two important identities. He had a past as an SS officer and was also an affluent businessman. After Schleyer's assassination, his identity as a wealthy man became of secondary importance, and his past as a Nazi officer came to the fore. The RAF sought to underline the international nature of its actions. The RAF attempted to eradicate fascism by drawing parallels between the old order (Nazi Germany) and the new order (Federal Germany); this was intended to gain international support in line with the organization's third actor notion (Steiner, 2000:167).

As expressed above, the issue of raising awareness in masses is central to a number of leftist organizations. The RAF, however, claimed injecting consciousness into masses was impossible because of many reasons including the ones given above. There is therefore no room for "possibilities" in the RAF's actions. Furthermore, the group disregarded the theories of revolution put forth by many revolutionaries. For the RAF, practice was not a mechanical deterministic structural consequence of theory. The
RAF left no room for possibilities in its actions and never expected the enemy to play fair. The group attacked enemy after enemy, shooting first and asking questions later. This was how the organization discovered the weakest spot of the system at the time and dealt blow after blow. The notions of "time" and "space" played a significant part in the RAF's actions. Continuity was key in the RAF's actions, and the space was always large. The purpose was to reveal the implicit state fascism, which would clearly mark out the enemies and bring them out in the open, making them soft targets.

**Guerilla Warfare in Latin America**

Throughout history, guerilla warfare has been practiced for countless times to accomplish tasks under various conditions. In the recent past, it has been used in places where public leaders have chosen to adopt illegal ways to combat military forces. As power grab is at stake in the struggle against feudalism, colonialism, or neocolonialism, the Asian, African and American continents have all been the scenes of guerilla warfare. In Europe, on the other hand, it has been used as a complementary to the regular armies or allied forces. Before going any further, it should be stressed that this type of struggle is a means to an end. For every revolutionary, this end is the overthrow of the political authority and grab of power. Che described the guerilla as follows: "Guerillas are the pioneering public warriors, settled in a plot of land, armed, and ready to execute a series of military actions aimed at the seizure of power, which is the only possible strategic objective." (Guevara, 2011: 68).

This quote from Che indicates that the primary goal of military action is to seize "political power". Che drew three critical conclusions from Cuba where guerrilla warfare was waged: 1) People's forces can defeat a regular army; (2) It is not always necessary to wait until all the conditions for a revolution are in place; the spearheads of the rebellion can create such conditions by themselves; (3) The armed struggle in the underdeveloped countries of the Latin American continent should be waged particularly in rural areas... (Guevara, 2011: 73).

These explanations by Che stem from the specific social characteristics of the Latin American countries. A look at the Latin American economies demonstrates that their industries were ill-developed and a production structure composed mainly of feudal and semi-feudal elements was common. Therefore, villagers' role in the social transformation process of the Latin American countries was so fundamental that no struggle overlooking these people was destined for success. Che pointed out that the armed struggle should start in rural areas where villagers resided and then spread to cities. This way, the armed struggle that began in rural areas would come to an end with the capture of cities and surrounding of regular armies. After that, guerilla units in rural and urban areas would combine their forces and form liberation armies. Developed by Che and a number of other revolutionaries, the Latin American guerilla tactics were later employed in underdeveloped countries against invaders and even by organizations in Western Europe led by Marxist-Leninist professional revolutionaries. Now, let us focus on the meaning of guerilla warfare and see how it is practiced and mobilizes masses.

Revolution is expedited or slowed down by the specific conditions of each country, its consciousness level, organization level, and development. Sooner or later, however, objective conditions become eligible; awareness is raised; organizations are created; the leadership mechanism is perfected, and, ultimately, the revolution takes
place. Whether this will happen through peaceful means or be an excruciatingly painful process depends not on revolutionaries but on the reactionary forces of the old society resisting the formation of a new one, which is born out of contradictions and still carries the old society in its core. To draw an analogy, we can say a revolution is to a society as a midwife is to a mother. A midwife never takes violent measures unless the mother’s life is at stake, but when "birth" requires drastic measures, then she applies them to the best of her ability. This "birth" is so special that it gives the enslaved and exploited masses hope for a better life (Guevara, 2011: 77).

Popular support is the prerequisite for guerilla warfare to achieve success; in other words, people must see the guerilla as their savior. According to Bayo, "Guerilla forces must be right in their fight against invasion by external powers, nefarious dictatorships, governments that are public enemies, or oligarchies. Otherwise, guerilla forces are eventually defeated. Then, the rebel movement ends up with nothing and gets wiped out" (Bayo, 1968: 43).

There are two important terms in guerilla warfare, namely the "strategy" and "tactics". The strategy is the understanding of the objectives to be achieved in the light of the overall military situation and the analysis of the different ways of achieving these objectives (Guevara, 1989: 36). Tactics are the practical methods of monitoring key strategic goals. Tactics complement strategies and, in some ways, are their performance in action. Tactical methods are much more variable and flexible than final objectives and must be adaptable to all wartime conditions. During the war, there are certain fixed and varying tactics. First and foremost, guerrillas must make every effort to adapt their actions to those of the enemies (1989: 42).

The land where the war will be fought must be suitable for armed struggle. In addition, guerrillas must know their land like the back of their hands. A people's army is a must so the regular army can be eliminated. This people’s army does not come to exist on its own; it is equipped with the weapons stolen and scavenged from the enemy. There are three important conditions for a guerrilla squad to survive: (1) constant mobility, (2) constant alertness, (3) constant suspicion. Undoubtedly, such a struggle requires a great sacrifice and utter devotion. In fact, the squad will feel the regular army breathing down their neck at times. Even under these harsh conditions, guerrillas must persevere and never flinch. According to Che, it should never be forgotten that guerrillas are different from regular armies; guerrillas should pick where and when a battle will be fought. Che called this tactic "relative superiority". Accordingly, "... it is better not to act if relative superiority is not clearly present. Any conflict that does not lead to the victory should be avoided, yet when and how a battle will take place can be chosen" (Bayo, 1968: 51).

In the context of large-scale political-military action, guerilla warfare expands and gets reinforced slowly, and then "bases" for guerilla armies emerge. Once tactical and political difficulties are overcome, guerilla warfare enters into a higher stage. Guerrillas must never forget their tasks and duties as the vanguards of the society, and thus create the "political prerequisites" for the establishment of a revolutionary government based on total popular support.

The "political prerequisite" is of utmost importance for the establishment of guerilla warfare on solid grounds. In other words, the demands and needs of villagers should be met as much as possible in a way that will promote a close-knit and tenacious society. To put it another way, ensuring harmony with locals and boosting solidarity are
essential for armed struggle. Political and military struggle should be pursued in a balance: "The struggle is political and military, so it must develop accordingly and be understood as such" (Bayo, 1968: 57).

Guerilla warfare or independence wars comprise three main stages. The first is the stage of strategic defense when the smaller armed group on the run deals a blow to the enemy; the armed force does not retreat to perform passive defense in a tiny zone; instead, it puts out a defensive fight with limited assault. The second one is reaching the point of balance where the possibilities of action by the enemy and guerillas are stable. The third one is when the oppressive army is subdued with the invasion of big cities and decisive and fierce battles (Bayo, 1968: 59). Once the point of equilibrium where both powers (the guerilla and the regular army) consider one another serious enemies is reached, guerilla warfare starts to attain different aspects. The term “maneuver” comes into existence: troops attacking bulwarks, mobile war with moving troops and assault vehicles with relative strike power (Bayo, 1968). However, maneuver warfare cannot hold a candle to guerilla warfare; maneuver warfare is just a means employed until guerillas are reinforced and a fully competent people's army is created. Even at this stage, guerillas rise in their "purest" form by thwarting many of the actions planned by regular armies, cutting their communication, and sabotaging the enemies' defensive mechanisms (Bayo, 1968: 64).

In Latin American countries, revolutionary strategies developed under specific conditions cannot have a narrow reach. On this, Che said the following: "... We said the war would be fought across the continent. This also means the war will last long and be fought on many fronts, resulting in massive bloodshed and countless lives (Guevara, 1989: 71).

If a comparison is to be made between the armed leftist organizations in Europe and the rural foco in Latin America, the difference is their sociological analyses. It can simply be said that the guerilla movement in Latin America built popular support one way or another and even a mutual desire for a better future arose between villagers and guerillas. There are numerous reasons for the success of the Latin American (Cuban) guerilla movement. The main reason, however, is that it was based on a class struggle. The armed leftist organizations in Europe, on the other hand, focused not on classes but on individuals, which is the central factor that distinguishes it from the Latin American guerilla movement.

CONCLUSION

In numerous parts of the world, the youth movements representing the different revolutionary philosophies of the 1960s turned into armed struggle as a means for the seizure of political power in the 1970s.

As many regular armies across the world were defeated by smaller forces, armed actions gained importance, and the idea that different revolutionary strategies could be crafted was practically verified. Successful guerilla movements in Latin America in particular had tremendous impacts on the armed left-wing groups in Europe.

Even though armed organizations such as the "Red Army Fraction", "Red Brigades", and "Communist Combatant Cells" carried out a number of sensational acts against the state, they turned marginal and went into decline because they did not represent a class struggle and lacked popular support. Moreover, though it was claimed that city focos' armed actions could direct public discontent at the political government,
the conditions for such a struggle were not well underlined, and no observation was made about what kind of hegemonic relations were at play in the relations between the opposing sides (i.e. oligarchy and public discontent), which proves that city focos' actions were based on a fundamentally flawed mechanical and dialectical method.

Finally, it is evident that nothing was achieved in terms of the grab of political power although a number of notable acts were committed by armed militants particularly in urban areas of many industrialized Western European countries.

REFERENCES
Chapter 18

The Social Dimension of Urban Renewal from the Perspective of Yıldırım Municipality: The Turkish Case

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INTRODUCTION

Urbanization and urban renewal policy instrument of urban transformation has quickly entered into the agenda of Turkey and has taken an important place. Moreover, to the extent that it was discredited for many years, it is now placed on the agenda. Turkey previously recognized this urban transformation in several cities such as Istanbul and Ankara but is now accepted throughout the entire country, as a gigantic project. On the other hand Turkey is a country of immigration.

In short, the "urban renewal law" the official name being "6306 No. Disaster Risk Transformation of Areas under Law "is the law, following the adoption by the Parliamentary General Assembly on May 16 came into effect after approval by the President on 31 May 2012. In Turkey, from a total housing stock of around 20 million at risk of serious disasters, around 7 million is estimated to be demolished and rebuilt in a time frame of 20 years. On the one hand the detection of faulty buildings, and on the other hand the demolition and construction work will be carried out. The cost to the country will be about 500 billion US dollars. Urban transformation is also expected to have a major impact on the 200 industrial sectors as well as create employment which will be a very positive contribution to the industry and the economy in general.

Meanwhile, work on which will be analyzed are located in the center of the field and the Yıldırım Municipality "Urban Transformation Master Plan "was approved by the relevant Ministry. This step will be taken on behalf of the urban renewal work Yıldırım Municipality opened and provided support by the central government .This study, acting according to the information and facts given has focused on the social and economic dimensions which have previously been ignored and from this perspective the theoretical and practical sides of urban transformation are taken into account were finally examined as the urban transformation project in the Yıldırım Municipality.

The purpose of the study of urban transformation in Turkey is to draw attention to the social and economic issues, to create an awareness, whereby the applications by the Yıldırım Municipality are to be analyzed. This report gives weight to the empirical part and after optimal volume to the theoretic part turns to the Bursa Yıldırım District orientation as an example, whereby sociological surveys carried out before starting work on the urban transformation project describes the analysis and synthesis of the study. The study offers a unique framework with respect to the scope and content. In this framework, the limitations of Proceedings are in the context of the Declaration; the study of the theoretical part of the concept, the theory and socio-economic dimensions, the application by the Yıldırım District in urban renewal projects in urban areas.

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sociological research conducted for this project (survey, observation et al.) thematic as "social and economic dimensions of urban transformation analysis" can be expressed. The basic problematic of the study is to be carried out in metropolitan cities in Turkey, where the social and economic dimensions of the planned urban renewal projects are to be determined.

As far as methods of work are concerned, answers are searched for in the Yıldırım District example through descriptive and practical analysis and synthesis. Whilst this report gives answers to these questions it gives a "deterministic" view using the "inductive method". This paper has been prepared based on extensive empirical research in order to offer a real and scientific perspective. This research includes interviews with regards to the issue addressed as well as surveys and observations. Before the projects have been implemented and whilst still in draft form, all empirical research directed at fieldwork have been conducted in the Yıldırım County city center. In this respect the Yıldırım Municipality as one of the very few pre-applied projects in Turkey, the Yıldırım Municipality has implemented sociological and economic field research projects. The application of this work under the title "The Social Texture Analysis", in scientific terms "a priori" called "advance" work done are implemented. But if we look into the implementation of more projects in the empirical study on urban transformation in Turkey, that "a posteriori" called the "later" are the actual works. The success of urban transformation projects, with the right approach at the right place before everything is possible with the correct application of the right projects. One of the preconditions of the project draft is to conduct the necessary social fabric analysis and to provide a real and up to date socio-economic profile. Through he obtained findings the project will achieve success and will direct the urban transformation projects by shedding light on them.

**Conceptual framework of urban renewal: a brief overview**

In literature, often known as “urban renewal” and also described as "urban transformation", "urban renovation" and "urban regeneration", "urban transformation", is a social science becoming more popular and is located at the intersection of several social sciences. In a sense the "city regulations "or" urban renovation – renewal” this term may be referred to as the urban science, political science, urban planning, management science, sociology, urban economics, architecture, which is developed as a common area of environmental law and science.

In some sources of literature it is known as "urban renovation" or "urban renewal". "Urban transformation" is used instead of the concept, and in some separate sources of urban transformation, urban renewal is used separately. According to Demirkiran in this context (Demirkiran, 2008) both terms are defined in the study were classified as follows.

According to this perspective, to obtain a successful urban renewal application and all matters related to the project and such problems such as; social, economic, cultural, administrative, environmental, planning is required to be dealt with in urban aesthetics and design, in all its dimensions. Only under these conditions can expected results be achieved. Urban transformation is not only to create new land plots or real estate development indexed to capital; but rather the necessary framework required to find solutions to existing physical and social problems in urban areas and should provide multipurpose services on the application (Bozdağ et al., 2011). The concepts of urban renewal, agreed upon, as in many of the concepts in the social sciences are not
expressed in a single concept. In Yaman (2012) in this area, such as experiencing a conceptual confusion as some sources is presented as a separate concept and framework of urban renewal, while others are used as a concept at the bottom of urban renewal. This problem is similar in many foreign literature, but actually moved to the indigenous literature of different concepts and terms, and is starting to show itself in Turkish.

As per its nature, urban transformation houses many aspects, development axis, trends and concepts within itself. As stated by Duman and Coskun (2015) in conjunction with urbanization in an era of globalization, and as pointed out as the principal determining axis of this concept; population and population dynamics, industrialization, and industrialization issues, global competition and capital, and social polarization are considered as the major the problem areas.

**Social dimension of urban renewal**

As specified at the beginning of this paper, the dimensions of urban transformation include different areas identified in the field. In this sense, urban transformation is a complex social phenomenon. There are two main axis of urban transformation before everything: "Human" and "Space". The concept of urban transformation projects in these two cases and the x and y axes as "urban" solutions that combine the optimal point coordinates, will give good results. The city's main subject is human. An urban policy and is also in individual cases will be central in the implementation of the urban transformation instrument. Hence urban societies are formed by individuals, and have to be considered as independent variables in urban transformation.

Without the necessary social research, society and individuals that are based in a project to design and implementation will lead to unhealthy results. Social Studies; the research methods used in social sciences are; sociological, socio-economic, socio-psychological and socio-political themes. The methodology; surveys, interviews, observations, interviews, inferential statistics, content analysis, descriptive methods and random screening methods are available. A project where the cities main focus is on the human subject will show “social” sensivity without being locked into a uniform mold. Due to the nature of urban transformation projects, the social dimension is in a primary position. In order to achieve the aim and target, projects that are designed with sound social fabric analysis, good cultural antecedents, that determine people as individuals, families, groups and communities in an urban policy, that carry out sociological and psychological solutions in sub-categories, and urban policy programs and projects which have achieved its objectives are more permanent and sustainable. The main objective is to ensure urban sustainability through the improvement of the quality of urban life and to leave livable spaces for future generations.

Urban renewal, urban life and basic living necessities, ultimately with a view to be a deterministic link to the "urban quality of life," and called the city "livability" level sets and basically affects the whole society and shapes the civil criteria and factors which are interactively closely linked. The urban quality of life issue, did not receive the attention it deserved from the public until recently. It wasn’t even widely known. In recent years the agenda of "urban sustainability", a description that others know as “urban quality of life" is now a concern of national and local decision-makers and policy-makers. In this area, the reports of international and national organizations that make real and objective assessments on cities are awaited with great interest.

First of all it is the responsibility of the citizens to make a city an honorable living...
space. The city’s pride, is the dignity of the citizens. Urban space, while at the center of life, the quality of this life, is on the one hand determined by the single act of individuals, and is on the other hand shaped by the decisions, practices and policies of the local administrations (Tekeli, 2011).

Urban transformation, after the collapse of the urban real estate boom in the 1920s, began to be discussed as a serious public problem in the 1930’s (Weiss 1985). The point that has been reached today represents a return to an urban policy entrepreneurship welfare approach on the one hand, and resolution on the use of projects and capital trends, on the other hand.

Projects may also be an insufficient basis for social services across the board in respect to urban renewal, urban image of renewal and the increase in social inequality beyond the physical changes, the creation of precarious jobs (Vento, 2016). The reconstruction of Europe after the Second World War according to Keynesian economic policy prioritizes the welfare state concept, the approach to the city is to transform the urban space as a large-scale project, where the proposal to open areas can be carried out in the event of economic activities (Yaman, 2012).

From a Turkish point of view urban regeneration projects planned to be carried out across the country in the coming years covers 6.5 million buildings at a total cost of around 500 billion US $. With such a huge area of economic activity, of course, it requires serious analysis in the project design phase. Another important aspect is the development of urban economies and the acceleration of urban transformation projects of urban development. People-oriented approach to urban regeneration is continuously gaining acceptance and is accepted today as a widespread phenomenon. This trend is essentially a hybrid approach to the agenda.

The social dimension of urban transformation may be perhaps the weakest side of this project. Projects in developing countries are taken into consideration in a more economic and a physical planning dimension. Financing of the project, economic benefits for project contractors and the applicability of the basic principles for the public sector is on the forefront, while the social status of the individuals and groups within the project, requirements, expectations, goals, problems in accordance with recommendations and social structure dynamics are not given enough emphasis.

An urban policies and methods of application of the urban transformation projects, open interaction in the social sphere and social integration will be a success to the extent that internalize the needs of each social sector. For example, in this context, the realities of each part of the social fabric as to the physical and safety needs of the elderly and to minimize stress levels should be included in the equation (Yung et al., 2016). Improving local living conditions within the urban renewal program in some southern European cities, alleviating poverty and social inequality and be seen as the primary way to concentrate on social benefits, is one of the functional examples of this approach (Arbaci, 2012). Some applications are evaluated as a regional development tool of urban transformation and urban planning at the same time creating growth opportunities in economic growth can be installed on multiple function projects. Malaysia is an example of one of the elite programs of this approach. Malaysia’s development of urban transformation, triggers the local people's socio-economic development and provides a solid foundation in generating regional and national development (Osman et al., 2015).
The social texture researchs before projects of urban renewal in Yıldırım Municipality

The Yıldırım Municipality is one of the leading municipalities in urban transformation projects in Turkey. The municipality is the first to file their report to the Environment and Urban Planning Ministry, has been approved for its proposed projects which is already working in this field in a systematic and comprehensive manner and has identified an important part of the town center in the urban renewal area.

Municipal management has demonstrated an awareness of this work before the start of the "social texture analysis" has made and continues to make this analysis. Social fabric analysis is usually done after the application of urban transformation projects in Turkey. However, before the start of the project analysis and field research, building stock should be applied when determining the urban transformation of urban space. The results obtained from empirical work with social and economic content, ensures the project to be more accurate and efficient. Projects are designed according to the field survey conducted in Yıldırım, in accordance to observation, interviews, data of sociological surveys, benchmarking, etc. Empirical research takes place before urban renewal projects are formed and synthesis and analysis of the data provided in the light of findings obtained after relevant to the structure of the project. Undoubtedly, this kind of social and economic dimensions of field research is conducted in the case of project implementation and in the post-implementation phase.

The Yıldırım Municipalities urban transformation projects are created as “a priori-advance". This research approach is carried out during and after the application. In the remaining part of this study, the District Municipality of Bursa Yıldırım urban renewal project "base," and plans to implement the right projects designed and conducted by field surveys will be analyzed and findings will be evaluated. Within the boundaries of Yıldırım, the neighborhoods of Arabayatağı, Çınarönü, Hacivat, Ulus, Mevlana, along with some areas within the boundaries of the neighborhood of Şirinevler are located in risk areas. These areas are "6306 No. Disaster Risk Areas Under the Law on Transformation of the" scope of the Council of Ministers No. 2012/4086 on 01.21.2013 where “risk area" has been declared. Yıldırım District is entirely a first degree earthquake zone. An active fault line passes approximately 3 km south of the boundaries of Yıldırım the neighbourhoods of Arabayatağı, Çınarönü, Hacivat, Ulus, Mevlana, along with some areas within the boundaries of the neighborhood of Şirinevler. Therefore, in response to the possible risk of No. 6306 of the Law on Transformation of Disaster Risk Areas Under these areas according to the 2nd article have been declared as a "risk area" (Anonymous, 2015).

33 percent of Yıldırım if we include incorporating the launch of one of Turkey's largest urban transformation initiatives. Ministry of Environment and Urban Planning Lightning Municipality and will be held with private sector resources to get the approval of our basic criteria of our citizens in our urban renewal work. Yıldırım before the transformation is a choice not a requirement, we will convince our fellow citizens, then we'll rebuild Yıldırım. Yıldırım urban regeneration priority areas; Mevlana - International District Urban Renewal Project, Teferrüç District Urban Renewal Area, Piremir District Urban Renewal Area, Yediselvi on-Srâcevizler neighborhoods Urban Renewal Area, Vatan District Urban Renewal Area, Beyazit-152 Homes neighborhoods Urban Renewal Area, Ortabağlar-Güllük- Mimarşinan Quarter Urban conversion Area, Esenevler District Urban Renewal Area, Yiğitler District Urban Renewal Area,
Şükraniye-Beyazit neighborhood of Urban Renewal Area, Ertuğrulgazi-Kapıkaya District Urban Renewal Area.

**Sociological Researches and Interviews Undertaken by the Yıldırım Municipality in The Yıldırım District**

Yıldırım Municipality has undertaken 15 sociological research studies in this context. This is some of the interviews and survey research in the form of empirical field studies, while the other part consists of descriptive research and statistical data analysis. Examples of the Declaration “calls" and "survey" operation will be selected from the main research topics.

The requested surveys were undertaken at the request of the Mayor who was elected in 2014, which was one of the first tasks undertaken by the new administration. The research conducted in this report and the findings to the surveys have led to the evaluation. In this context, within 2014-15 research conducted on different dates through different research institutions implementing necessary empirical and scientific criteria, two issues that come forward in terms of our field survey findings of the study will be discussed. These studies and the results obtained in the urban renewal axis framework are as follows:

**Mukhtara interview reports on urban renewal (Pehlivan, 2015).**

In 2015, on one on one interviews were undertaken amongst the mukhtar of 25 neighborhoods within the Yıldırım municipality. The data obtained has been individually classified followed by a "Review and Final Report". Analysis of work to be done; Yıldırım district within the boundaries of the urban transformation plan for development and implementation of the district will conduct face to face interviews with the neighborhood mujktars taking into consideration the point of view of the mujktar’s and their assessment.

**The Neighborhood Mukhtar Interview Analysis Summary**

Face to face interviews conducted amongst 25 neighborhood mujktar’s and their perspective, approach and expectations of the neighborhood residents; is reflected with the outcomes.

The requested surveys were undertaken at the request of the Mayor who was elected in 2014, which was one of the first tasks undertaken by the new administration. The research conducted in this report and the findings to the surveys have led to the evaluation. In this context, within 2014-15 research conducted on different dates through different research institutions implementing necessary empirical and scientific criteria, two issues that come forward in terms of our field survey findings of the study will be discussed. These studies and the results obtained in the urban renewal axis framework are as follows:

**Positive approach (Pehlivan, 2015)**

In the interviews, Yediselviler, Sracevizler, Şükranıye, Çankaya, Hacivat, Çınarönü, Yiğitler, Piremir, Mimarsinan, Esenevler, Beyazit, Ortabağlar, Gulluk districts are open to urban transformation and Piremir, Yediselviler, Sracevizler, Hacivat, Çınarönü, Vatan, Beyazit and Mimar Sinan neighbourhoods showed that the work on urban renewal should be started immediately as soon as the conversion work was completed.

**Negative approach the** overall opinion on the fieldwork undertaken in the neighbourhood of Şirinevler: They consider to having suffered losses and believe they
will be indebted. Although the muhktar of the Ulus neighbourhood is for urban renewal, 80% of the residents are against it and request that the muhktar acts in accordance with the demands of the residents. The muhktar of 152 Evler expressed that survey work conducted by private construction companies showed that only 10-11 residents were in favour of urban renewal and a majority was against it. On the other hand the Mukhtar of Arabayatağı stated that residents would be indebted, would be at a loss and would be forced to live in small houses, therefore was of the view that the residents were not in favour of urban renewal. Futhermore the Mukhtar stated that the households had a high number of occupants per house and even if they were given one for one they would still be left short thus were in opposition to urban renewal.

**Cautious approach** In the interviews, Karapinar, Kaplıkaya, Değirmenönü, Mev prés, were wary of urban renewal and were of the view that they would be at a loss.

**The Survey Works by Yıldırım Municipality in the Yıldırım District**

**The Research of the Urban Agenda in the Yıldırım District**

This survey conducted on citizens; In March 2014 after the local elections were held the objective of the survey was in regards to the newly established municipal administrations ideas about the services it offers, expectations, satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and to identify perceptions and predictions about the mayor. Face to face survey method which is an Urban Agenda Research quantitative research technique was undertaken. The Scope of Research: spontaneous and reminding question were jointly used. Example Structure and sampling method; the research sample; Selection of households "multipurpose random sampling" with the choice of subjects "quota sampling" was determined. Face to face interviews with a total of 14834 subjects under study was conducted. The topics and findings of the report as serving the purpose of urban renewal work shed light on data considered in this study as follows:

**Table 1: Results 1: Yıldırım District’s Most Important Problems. What are the most important problems of the Yıldırım Council?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OCTOBER 2014</th>
<th>JULY 2015</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied / No Problem</td>
<td>16,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban transformation / unplanned construction / reconstruction problem / Toki / Old buildings / Illegal construction</td>
<td>14,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roads / Pavement / Asphalt</td>
<td>6,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waste disposal / Environmental pollution</td>
<td>5,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation / Transportation expensive / Buses crowd / bus services insufficient</td>
<td>4,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No service / No interest</td>
<td>4,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parking problems</td>
<td>4,2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: Results 2: Awareness of the Yıldırım Municipalities Services
Which of these these services are provided by the Yıldırım Municipality? Which of these services have you seen or heard of?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service</th>
<th>Awareness Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Free courses provided to 8 thousand citizens in neighborhood centres. YIL-MEK courses</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action plan to combat against drug addiction</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opening of 4 new neighborhood centers. Kazımkarabekir, Akçağa, the 75th Year and Yiğütler neighborhoods</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creation of a new main street and wide connecting streets from 23 points to relieve traffic congestion. Transport for connecting to the main transportation Yıldırım Transportation Vision Project to be launched at the end of 2015</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yıldırım Medical Center to provide free cancer screening to all citizens that carry the risk of cancer and early detection services</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 thousand square meters of green space created in the space between the neighborhood with tree planting and greening</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animal shelter to the expanded and modernized</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Launch of the private sector in urban renewal in Sinandede, Değirmenlikizık and 75th year neighborhoods</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Founded with the aim of providing service in all branches - Yıldırım Municipality Sports</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Results 3: Yıldırım mayor’s mind at rest (known) Services (His services are 40.8 % who know the answers given are as follows)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service</th>
<th>Awareness Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Road Works</td>
<td>13.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Habitat Areas (Museum, Sports Complex, Café, Mukhtar mansion, the Growth Centre, Swimming Pool Etc.)</td>
<td>13.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Park Construction</td>
<td>10.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Pollution (Garbage and Cheque Post Service, Environment, Clean Stream Improvement Work, cleaning, spraying, etc.)</td>
<td>10.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No service</td>
<td>10.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landscaping Services</td>
<td>5.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Urban Renewal</strong></td>
<td><strong>5.25</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asphalt</td>
<td>3.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Services</td>
<td>3.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td>2.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>2.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The awareness of urban renewal work as seen in the three neighborhoods considered at 13.4 percent has an important ratio.

Yıldırım District Citizens Expectations Measurement Survey
This research was conducted in the district of Yıldırım in November 2015. The information obtained from this study were obtained by scientific data and the statistical analysis and descriptive statistics were examined in the summary. On the other hand, the relevant questionnaire, in proportion to the population of 3003 subjects (2015 number of voters) was applied on the face to face interview technique.
Table 4: Results 4: Services in which the Yıldırım Municipality Mayor was found unsuccessful. Respondents (46.44 %) which found the Mayor unsuccessful are as follows

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient Social Habitat Park, Playground, Marketplace</td>
<td>5.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient Landscaping, Maintenance and Cleaning</td>
<td>4.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cannot obtain Information about Projects and Studies (Lack of Advertising And Promotion)</td>
<td>3.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking Sides</td>
<td>2.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not solving the problem of parking, traffic and transportation</td>
<td>2.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Not undertaking urban renewal</strong></td>
<td>1.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Auditing</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The making of roads and their narrowness</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In regards to services in which the Mayor was seen to be unsuccessful, not undertaking urban renewal measures is at a low rate of 1.65.

Table 5: Results 5: Satisfaction Level of Yildirim Municipality Services

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Heading</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parks and playground construction</td>
<td>10.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental pollution</td>
<td>6.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Road construction</td>
<td>6.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Urban renewal</strong></td>
<td>5.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Areas (sports facilities, shopping centers, and Bike Parks and Roads, Ball Fields, Theatres etc.)</td>
<td>5.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Measuring the level of satisfaction of the municipality's services took place at 5.83 percent higher than the average rate of urban renewal.

**Results and Discussion**

The social and economic dimensions of urban renewal projects studied in the Yıldırım Municipality example has given us important results. In the theoretical part of the study, the review of literature has shown that one of the key dimensions of urban renewal projects and programs is the social and economic dimensions. When we look at developed countries and a number of developing countries, we see that social and economic dimensions are of utmost importance. Undoubtedly, issues of physical planning, environmental, legal, political, administrative, and other dimensions in lower detail can be seen. However, social and economic issues, a basis for projects in this area “base “is taken, it is considered to be a priority research topic. The province of Bursa is on one of the major fault lines in Turkey and is one of the highest earthquake risk areas therefore making urban renewal projects of critical importance. Yıldırım which is one of the central districts of Bursa is also one of the most densely populated regions in Turkey. Yıldırım is situated in the eastern part of the city is also exposed to massive migration. Over the last 40 years the district has been a major center of internal migration, and is faced with years of accumulated urban problems. One of the foremost issues facing the district is perhaps unplanned urbanization and unhealthy growth. The new municipal administration which came to power after winning the local elections, has created projects and programs primarily by analyzing the problems of the city using versatile scientific and systematic means. By establishing the Directorate of Urban
Design and R & D offices, with the aid of authoritative consulting services and constantly meeting with partners and alliances with urban dynamics model has prepared new urban plans and projects. This defacto style of work along with the Mayor having a master's degree in the field of local government and a doctoral study in "social and economic dimensions of urban transformation” has also been a natural determining factor. As shown in this paper, the Yıldırım Municipality with its concrete and systematic interest and importance to social and economic dimensions of urban transformation work has been adopted in principle. Social fabric analysis and socio-economic surveys to assess a priori is a decisive way to the base before starting the project. In parallel a social group made a contact and cooperation with the concerned residents that occur naturally establishes the basis for a realistic and effective stakeholders. This approach takes into equation other stakeholders, and the world of science has shown us that successful implementation is consistent with the ways and means. The findings obtained from social studies presented in the paper, markers and router for urban renewal projects and programs have been incorporated into the equation with a basic factor formula. Created formulation, more accurate, realistic, permanent, effective and successful implementation of urban renewal work. In this context, Yıldırım, exhibits functional examples that can contribute to the work of urban transformation in Turkey. Municipal management of social and economic research, monitoring, assessment and study carried out by distilling the common sense through effective partnerships; prior to the project, investigate and analyze in a systematic way during the project and after the project was planned to move a steady return and the revaluation logic. Undoubtedly the success of an organization, before our people, which directly addressed, where the meaning is contribution to our future and Turkey.

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Yurt Yayınları.
Chapter 19

Political Developments during Election Periods after 1980 in Turkey*

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INTRODUCTION

Political Developments during November 29, 1987 Elections

As a result of the military coup d’état, Turkish Armed Forces seized the power on September 12, 1980 in Turkey, Bulent Ulusu was appointed as the prime minister of the initial military government on September 21, 1980, and the code that invested the legislative and executive powers in the National Security Council (NSC) was enacted on September 28, 1980. September 12 military regime suspended the activities of political parties, introduced a political ban against party leaders, and finally disbanded all political parties on October 16, 1981, almost a year later (Atay, 2006: 92-93). As a result of the military coup, the 1982 Constitution authored by the Advisory Council introduced several amendments to the electoral system. The constitution stipulated that the elections would be held every five years based on the principles of free, equal, secure elections and universal general suffrage, open count and audit. Also, the amendments included a change from d’Hondt system without threshold to a seat allocation system with a 10% threshold based on electoral district. The electoral age was also reduced to 20 (Özkan, 2010: 150). After the adoption of the Constitution and the election of Kenan Evren as President, the September 12 government decided that elections should be held to revive the political environment and 15 political parties were established under various names. However, due to the preference of Kenan Evren and his colleagues for establishment of a small number of parties, only ANAP founded by Turgut Özal, MDP founded by Turgut Sunalp and Populist Party (HP) founded by Necdet Calp, 3 of the 15 parties established, were approved, the other parties were vetoed due to the vetoing authority of the NSC or their foundation approvals were delayed to prevent them from running in the elections. Thus, it is not possible to qualify the 1983 elections, a product of artificial political parties and the political environment, as a democratic election. As 1983 elections approached, Kenan Evren declared that the successor of the military regime was the MDP and attempted to influence the electorate to support MDP in various pre-election speeches. Finally, the general elections that only MDP, founded by the military, HP and ANAP participated were held on November 6, 1983, ANAP got 45.1% of the vote and won 211 deputies, HP got 30.5% and 117 deputies, and MDP got 23.3% and 71 deputies and ANP won the elections under the leadership of Turgut Özal (Atay, 2006: 93). Thus, the Özal period began in the Turkish

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* This study is generated from the PhD thesis titled “Politik Konjonktür Teorileri Işığında Türk İktisat Politika Çıktılarının Analizi” completed by Filiz Eryılmaz
politics. This period was the golden years of ANAP. ANAP, utilizing the power of the single party government, implemented “distorted populist” policies for the masses. The objective of this distorted populism that aimed urban and poor voters was to engineer masses without class consciousness and that could easily surrender to the capitalist ideology. ANAP government avoided policies such as unionization, wage interventions, and agricultural subsidies based on its populist goals. During this period, the objective was to engineer an urban, poor, consumerist, and slum electorate (Eryılmaz and Eryılmaz, 2011: 41).

For the three and a half years after the military coup, economic policies were basically a capitalist counter-attack, which led to the military control of the labor market. The January 24, 1980 decisions left their mark on the economic policies until the post-1987 elections period, set the ground for the elements that would be instigated in the future and attempted to create the idea among the people that neo-liberal economic model had no alternatives. The process that started on January 24 and lasted until the 1983 elections was thus called "liberal economy under a military regime.

The ruling party carefully prepared for the 1987 elections by making amendments to the electoral system following the 1983 elections. This could be interpreted as precautions taken to change the election code seven times to influence the election results in favor of their party. From 1983 to 1987, the government enacted a number of amendments to the Constitution and electoral laws. These amendments included the reduction of the voting age from 21 to 20. The electoral districts were narrowed, and the number of electoral districts per province was reduced to six. Furthermore, contingent deputy system was introduced in the electoral districts with more than four candidates were elected, and the Grand National Assembly member count was increased from 400 to 450. Another amendment introduced the preferential voting method. Accordingly, voters could elect as many as half of the number of representatives in the electoral districts in the polls. These efforts were considered as an incentive to concentrate the votes in the main political parties via the nationwide threshold (Eryılmaz and Eryılmaz, 2015a: 168). However, even though the high threshold prevented election of representatives from certain parties in practice, starting from the 1987 elections, overall, it would be accurate to consider the political party system in Turkey a more-than-two political party system similar to Denmark, Italy and Finland. Thus, the efforts made in this period did not lead to a dual party system by concentrating the votes in two major political parties as expected (Balyemez, 2008: 123). On the other hand, the 1982 Constitution provisioned to hold general elections every five years. In this context, after the 1983 elections, legally the next elections was supposed to be held in November 1988. However, the elections were held in November 1987, one year earlier (Aydemir, 2007: 105-106). By holding the elections a year earlier, Turgut Özal aimed to remain in the power after the elections and prevent the old political leaders to consolidate their power based on the idea that they lacked their original political power due to the results of the referendum on the elimination of political bans conducted on September 6, 1987, which resulted with an even vote (Şanlısöz, 2007: 225). Holding the elections one year before made it difficult for the ANAP government to implement election economy policies. However, ANAP tried to influence the masses with the policies it already implemented since the day they were elected, and thus, before the 1987 elections, implemented expansionist policies in line with the interests of capitalist classes. The political parties, banned after the 1980 coup, returned to the political scene after the
referendum. ANAP defended the continuation of the bad against the old political parties in the referendum, and used this position in their election propaganda as well (Eryılmaz and Eryılmaz, 2015b: 57).

Seven parties participated in the 1987 elections including the parties that returned back to politics. These parties were ANP, the True Path Party (DYP), the Welfare Party (RP), the Democratic Left Party (DSP) and the Social Democratic Party (SHP) on the left, Nationalist Labor Party (MCP), which was the renewed MHP, and Reformist Democratic Party (IDP) (Aydemir, 2007: 105-106). Most of these parties were new in name only. In fact, they were renewed parties that were banned by the military coup (Çınar, 2010: 87). As a result of the elections, only 3 parties were able to get votes above the national threshold. ANAP got the highest vote followed by DSP and DYP. ANAP lost votes in this election compared to 1983 elections. However, the number of ANAP seats in the parliament increased due to the change in the electoral system and introduction of the 10% threshold on national vote and the contingent deputy quota (Aydemir, 2007: 105-106). The fact that there was a significant difference between the number of seats ANAP won and the votes it got in the elections made this election the most unfair elections in history (Fidan, 2011: 77). The fact that ANAP lost votes was due to the introduction of new right-wing political parties in the political system. On the other hand, SHP, which was newly established when CHP was banned and ideologically close to the latter, achieved a significant percentage of the votes. This was due to the shift of CHP votes to SHP (Aydemir, 2007: 105-106). When the results of this election is examined based on the distribution of votes in the political spectrum, it was observed to be similar to the 1983 elections in general, and the absolute winner of this election was the right wing parties (Arslan, 2007: 8).

The turnout in 1987 elections was around 93%. In this sense, 1987 elections took its place in Turkish political history as the general elections with the highest turnout in the multi-party era. In general, these elections demonstrated that the traces of the September 12 military coup began to be eradicated from the political life of the Turkish society (Arslan, 2007: 6).

2. Political Developments during October 20, 1991 Elections

On August 6, 1990, after the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait on August 2, 1990, the United Nations decided to impose an embargo on Iraq. Turkey shut down the oil pipeline and suspended business activities with Iraq. Based on a ruling by the parliament, permission was granted to deploy Turkish Armed Forces to foreign countries or allow the deployment of foreign armed forces in Turkey, and a similar decision was reenacted on September 5th. In December 1990, Turkey requested the deployment of rapid deployment forces from NATO. Thereupon, the troops began to arrive in Turkey on January 6 and on January 17, allied nations, utilizing the military bases in Turkey, launched the Operation Desert Storm against Iraq. In the midst of this crisis, the desire of Özal to play a more active and combatant role, even to participate in the war did not happen, and initially ANAP, and then the Turkish public strongly opposed to the idea (Şanlısoy, 2007: 226).

Before the 1991 elections held in the midst of such developments, certain amendments were made to the electoral law to democratize the election process. First, the electoral threshold was reduced to 25.5% in electoral districts where 2, 3, 4 and 5 representatives would be elected and to 20% in electoral districts where 6
representatives would be elected (Eryılmaz and Eryılmaz, 2015: 603). The second amendment was the reduction of the number of preferences that voters could make in electoral districts from 50% to one (Balyemez, 2008: 139). In 1989 local elections held before the 1991 general elections, the SHP received the highest vote and DYP was the second and ANAP was the third political party (Atay, 2006: 94). The 1989 elections initiated the disintegration of ANAP politically (Fidan, 2011: 77). Following the local elections, Turgut Özal was elected as the President on 31 October 1989 and appointed Yıldırım Akbulut as the prime minister on November 9, 1989, and Mesut Yılmaz, who was elected as chairman of the ANAP in the party congress held on June 15, 1991, took over the office of prime ministry from Akbulut. After Turgut Özal was elected president, there was a significant decline in ANAP’s performance (Atay, 2006: 94). In such an environment, snap elections were held on October 20, 1991, due to the early election expectations after the 1990 Gulf Crisis.

ANAP, DYP, SHP, RP, DSP and the Socialist Party participated in the 1991 elections. In these elections, similar to the other elections, a mixed system was implemented, however, since election alliances among the parties were allowed, RP, MCP and IDP formed an election alliance and People’s Labor Party (HEP) and the Democratic Center Party, founded by a group that left SHO and ANAP formed an election alliance with DYP (Sezgin, 2005: 151). In 1991 elections, the DYP won 178 deputies with the 27% of the vote and became the leading political party. The second party, ANAP, received 24% of the votes and 115 deputies, followed by the SHP with 20.8% of the vote and 88 MPs. While the RP won 62 deputies with 16.9% of the vote, DSP narrowly beat the threshold with the 10.8% of the vote and 7 deputies (Alkan, 1998: 60). Erbakan’s RP that increased their votes by 135.75% when compared to the previous election was undoubtedly the winner of the elections. This result was the precursor of the storm that would be experienced in Turkish politics during the next elections (Arslan, 2007: 11). Based on the 1991 election results, the votes of both right and left wing parties dropped by five base points and the rate of nonvoters increased by nine base points (Alkan, 1998: 60). In the 1991 elections, the winner of the elections was the right wing, while the left continued its downward trend (Arslan, 2007: 11). Another significant feature of that election was the election of the representatives of HEP, a predominantly ethnic party, to the parliament for the first time. Finally, with this election, the leaders politically banned in the September 12 coup, Demirel, Ecevit, Erbakan and Türkeş were elected after 11 years (Alkan, 1998: 60). On 21 November 1991, the DYP-SHP coalition was formed under the leadership of Süleyman Demirel, ending the ANAP rule (Atay, 2006: 94). Thus, the period of coalition governments, which lasted until 2002 began (Aydemir, 2007: 110). However, the DYP-SHP coalition government, established in 1991, was different from the coalition governments formed later. Because, this coalition included two political parties that represented two opposing ideologies that never formed a coalition government before (Çınar, 2010: 90).

ANAP experienced a significant loss in votes in the elections since the majority of ANAP electorate voted for DYP. In fact, the signals that ANAP would lose votes in 1991 elections were observed in 1989 local elections. There were several reasons for the loss of votes by ANAP. The most noteworthy of these factors was the deterioration of the economy due to the rising inflation rate and the falling rate of growth, and increased corruption during the ANAP government, and the presidency of Turgut Özal, leaving the party without a leader (Atay, 2006: 109).
3. Political Developments during December 24, 1995 Elections

Before the 1995 general elections, the DYP-SHP coalition enacted certain amendments in electoral law to their advantage. The most significant of these was the enactment of the bill amending Article 16 of the Constitution on July 22, 1995 (Balyemez, 2008: 157). Accordingly, the voting age was reduced to 18, the total number of deputies in the parliament was increased from 450 to 550, freedom to engage in politics was granted to faculty members, implementation of narrow electoral districts was abandoned, and preferential voting was abolished (Tayyar, 2017a: 7). Previously each province was an election district up to 6 deputies, with the new amendment each province was considered an electoral district up to 18 deputies (Özkan, 2010: 162). With another bill, it was forbidden to publish public opinion polls and to broadcast opinions in favor of or against a political party and candidate after the beginning of the election period (Alkan, 1998: 61).

The 1995 election year was an active year in politics full of political debate. In the same year, a total of two elections were held; one local election and one parliamentary election. On June 4, 1995, local mid-term elections were held to elect mayors and municipal council members in 2 districts and 34 townships. Also, on 2 June 1995, Kilis, Karabük and Yalova were promoted as provinces and the law granting the authority to issue a decree to promote certain districts as provinces was approved within a few hours by Turgut Özal. It was alleged that this decision was an election investment for the midterm elections at that time (Balyemez, 2008: 156).

Local elections were held on March 27, 1994 before the 1995 general elections. While there was a decrease in the votes that ANAP and DYP received in these elections, the RP continued to increase their vote (Eryılmaz and Eryılmaz, 2016: 355). The main reason behind the loss of votes by ANAP and DYP in local elections was economic due to recession induced by the increase in foreign and domestic debt, inflation, foreign trade deficit as a result of the 1994 crisis. Due to the economic decline in this period that started with the ANAP government and continued during the DYP-SHP coalition, the confidence of the electorate in central right decreased (Aydemir, 2007: 112).

On February 18, 1995, CHP and SHP merged under the roof of CHP. Deniz Baykal became the party leader. When Çiller and Baykal failed to reach an agreement on a DYP-SHP coalition after the 1991 elections, Çiller resigned, but she later agreed on a coalition with CHP. The condition presented by Deniz Baykal to form this new coalition was to hold snap elections, and they agreed to hold the snap elections on December 24, 1995 (Şanlısoy, 2007: 229). Markets welcomed the announcement of the snap elections as a less destructive option that would remove the uncertainties quickly. Despite the short time left until the elections, public workers' demand for a wage hike was accepted, and it was announced that the salaries of public servants and pension payments would be increased in November. Thus, the first signs of election economics were also observed (Balyemez, 2008: 157). On the other hand, before the general elections, a Customs Union agreement was signed with the EU on March 6, 1995. Ciller and Baykal considered this deal as a big step towards full membership and expected to be rewarded for this development in the 1995 elections. However as will be discussed later, the electorate voted for the April 5, 1994 decisions instead of this agreement and both parties lost votes (Şanlısoy, 2007: 229).

Twelve parties participated in the general parliamentary elections held on December 24, 1995. These parties were DYP, ANAP, RP, DSP, CHP, MHP, HADEP,
YDH, MP, YDP, IP, and YP. The winner of this election was RP with 21% of the votes. Based on the results of this election, RP and DSP increased their votes when compared to the previous election, while the votes of the other parties decreased. One of the most notable aspects of the election results was the vote shifts between the right-wing and left-wing parties. While the decrease in the votes of DYP and ANAP were considered as the source of increase in RP and MHP votes, the decrease in the votes of CHP was interpreted as a source of increase in DSP, HADEP and YDH votes (Çınar, 2010: 91-93). General assessment of the 1995 elections would demonstrate that the political power was extremely dispersed in Turkish political life. Nevertheless, when the results are examined based on the distribution of votes in political spectrum, it was observed that the political spectrum was again dominated by the right wing parties (Arslan, 2007: 12-15). In this period, the leftist votes preferred DSP and HADEP, which defined themselves as nationalist left-wing parties. Based on the election results, it can be argued that the votes were influenced by religious and nationalist identities (Çınar, 2010: 91-93).

Since no party had the majority to form a government alone, the mandate to form a government was first given to Necmettin Erbakan on January 9, 1996 by Süleyman Demirel, who was elected President after the death of Turgut Özal in 1993. Erbakan's coalition talks with the other parties did not produce any coalition government and returned the mandate to the President. It was the turn of the party who received the second highest vote to receive the mandate to form the government. However, there was a problem about the party with the second highest vote; whether it was DYP or ANAP. Because, ANAP received 4 percentage points more votes than DYP, however DYP had 3 more MPs than ANAP. Demirel considered the number of deputies as a more adequate criterion and gave the mandate to DYP leader Tansu Ciller. Çiller, similar to Erbakan, was not successful and returned the mandate to the President. Thereafter, the President gave the mandate to Mesut Yılmaz, who was the leader of ANAP. Finally, ANAYOL government, which was a coalition of ANAP with DYP and with an alternating prime minister formula, where the first prime minister would be Mesut Yılmaz, was formed (Sezgin, 2005: 152-154).

4. Political Developments during April 19, 1999 Elections

ANAYOL government formed by ANAP-DYP coalition ended when the Constitutional Court annulled the confidence vote received by the government on October 6, 1996. Thus, the President gave the mandate to form the government to RP again, and the Refahyol coalition with the alternate prime minister formula and included RP and DYP and with Erbakan as the first prime minister was established. Due to some problems experienced during the Refahyol government, this government ended with the resignation of Erbakan on June 18, 1997. This time the President gave the mandate to form the government to Mesut Yılmaz and on July 12, 1997 ANASOL-D coalition government was formed between ANAP, DSP- and DTP. With the no-confidence motion of CHP on November 25, 1997, this government resigned as well. Finally, Bülent Ecevit formed a minority government on January 17, 1998 and until the early elections of 1999, this coalition government remained in power.

Although the 1999 elections were a snap election, it had different characteristics when compared to the snap elections in the past. Governments resort to snap elections usually to overcome a crisis. Thus, the date of the snap elections is determined to ensure
that elections are held as soon as possible. There has been a 40-60 days difference between snap elections and the date of the decision to hold elections, however the same period was 9 months in this election. Despite the fact that the early election decision in 1999 was taken in the parliament with 11 nay and 486 yea votes, the doubts and debates on whether the elections would be held on the determined date continued until the last moment. Thus, only 20 days before the elections, it was clear that the elections that were decided 9 months ago would be held on time (Sezgin, 2005: 152-154).

Twenty political parties participated in April 18, 1999 snap elections, and only five parties succeeded to get the votes to pass the threshold. It can be argued that the main determinant of the 1999 elections, where the local and general elections were held at the same polls, was in the Kurdish issue and the arrest of PKK leader Abdullah Öcalan. With the arrest of Öcalan, the current Prime Minister Bülent Ecevit’s DSP got the highest vote, while MHP became a second party with a large increase in their votes due to global rise of nationalist sentiments, and CHP was not able to send any deputies to the parliament. The election results once more demonstrated that the right-wing votes were the absolute majority. However, the right-wing parties lost a significant share of their vote when compared to the 1995 elections (Arslan, 2007: 19). In this election, the votes of FP, which was the reincarnation of RP that was banned during the September 12 coup, ANAP, and DYP decreased. Two important developments were noteworthy during the 1999 elections (Tayyar, 2017b: 425). The first was the votes that DSP received. For the first time after 1980, a leftist party was able to get such a high percentage of the votes. This was mainly due to the fact that the coalition period was claimed to have destroyed the regime and the system by the DSP and the claim that the current economic conditions were a consequence of coalition periods. The second was the fact that MHP, which was an extreme right party, was able to pass the threshold. Furthermore, MHP did not only passed the threshold, but also received the second highest votes.

Analyzing the preferences of the Turkish electorate based on these facts seems to be difficult for the period. Both a party with a leftist ideological view and another right-wing party received the majority of the votes (Aydemir, 2007: 115-116).

On the other hand, based on the election results and the competition among the political parties in Turkey, three political zones emerged. These were Central Anatolia, Western Provinces and Eastern Provinces. The lowest competition was experienced in Central Anatolia. The preference of the electorate in this region was MHP. The region where competition was most intense was the western provinces. DSP was the leading party in this region. The eastern and southeastern provinces were the regions where the competition between the parties was the highest, however the shift of votes between the parties were the lowest. In these regions, the votes were divided between HADEP, FP and center right-wing parties. As a result, although the ethnic and religious identities were significantly represented in 1999 elections, the voter preferences and the competition between the parties varied considerably based on the economic and social differences between the regions (Çınar, 2010: 93-94).

After the elections, the mandate to form a government was received by DSP and the DSP-MHP-ANAP coalition was established (Fidan, 2011: 82). Thus, in these elections, the "hostile siblings" DSP and MHP that competed severely during the 1970’s declared peace and became partners in the government (Arslan, 2007: 16).
5. Political Developments during November 3, 2002 Elections

After the 2011 crisis, which was considered as the most severe economic crisis of the Republican era and occurred during the DSP-MHP-ANAP coalition government, the parliament decided for snap elections with the support of the coalition partners due to the subsequent failure of the coalition government to secure economic stability, rejection of the government’s radical economic decisions by the society, the increase in the problems within the major coalition partner DSP, and health problems of the prime minister, Bülent Ecevit (Özkan, 2010: 166).

Eighteen political parties participated in the elections of November 3, 2002, which was held in a politically unstable period, only the AKP and the CHP, which increased its votes by 122.85% when compared to the previous elections, were able to be elected to the parliament. Thus, all parties that received the highest votes in the last five elections including the 1987 elections, were not elected to the parliament. Thus, the elections of November 3, 2002 demonstrated clearly that the 10% national threshold system implemented after 1983 led to irregular results. Based on the election results, the sum of votes received by the two parties that exceeded the national threshold was around 54%. Thus, 46% of the votes was not represented in the parliament (Balyemez, 2008: 187). Until this election, such a situation has never been witnessed in Turkish political history. If the national threshold was 5% in this elections, five parties would be represented in the parliament, and about 36% more of the votes would be reflected in the parliament (Tayyar, 2017c: 93). Thus, the analysis of the 2002 elections would suggest that the election system produced results that were similar to a majority election system. Only two parties were represented in the parliament and the party with the highest vote was represented with almost twice as many deputies when compared to the vote it received. Thus, the election system which was indeed a proportional representation system led to results similar to a majority system (Bulut, 2011: 9).

Another noteworthy characteristic of the 2002 general elections was the lowest suffrage since 1980 (Cinar, 2010: 95). The overall election results are presented in Table 8.

After the 2002 elections, the AKP that split off from the Fazilet Party and considered as its progressive wing, formed a single party government. Thus, Turkey finally had a single party government after nearly 11 years (Özkan, 2010: 169). According to some, the main reason behind such a high vote received by a newly formed party such as the AKP, was the fact that voters were looking for a new leader instead of a new political party. Thus, AKP leader Recep Tayyip Erdoğan ended the search of the electorate and became not only the leader of the party but also its symbol. After the 2002 elections, the first government was led by Abdullah Gül since Erdoğan's prior conviction and Erdoğan became the prime minister who regained his right to stand for election after the Constitution was amended to allow for it (Aydemir, 2007: 120). In this election, the distribution of the votes in the political spectrum demonstrated quite important results. In the 2002 elections, the right-wing parties received the second-highest ever vote and the support of the electorate in Turkish political history. The highest electorate support for the right-wing parties was 69.79% in 1995 elections. In the 2002 elections, the right-wing votes were 69.7% and nearly reached the same rate in the 1995 elections. On the contrary, the left wing lost a serious share of their previous vote in these elections (Arslan, 2007: 23).
6. Political Developments during July 22, 2007 Elections

After AKP came to power in 2003, a major crisis emerged between the US and Iraq and the United States threatened Iraq and requested Turkish support. Thereupon, a bill to approve the United States to use Turkish lands to invade Northern Iraq and participation of the Turkish army in this operation was voted in the parliament and rejected. This decision led to the deterioration of the relations between Turkey and the US and the AKP government had to implement cuts on public spending and policies to increase public revenues after the US stopped payment of grants and financial aid (Şanlısoy, 2007: 233).

As a result of the reforms and improvements experienced in the economy after AKP came to power in 2002, the AKP's reputation among an electorate increased and this was reflected in the 2004 local election results. Thus, the winner of 2004 local elections was AKP, which increased its votes by 8% when compared to the 2002 general elections. The other opposition parties MHP and DYP increased their votes with the exception of CHP when compared to the 2002 elections and passed the 10% national threshold (Fidan, 2011: 85).

Prior to the 2007 elections, the age of candidacy was reduced to 25 with a bill proposed by AKP on October 28, 2006. But the amendments made within a year before the elections could not be implemented in the first election, so this change was not enforced in 2007 elections. However, in the 2007 elections, independent candidates were included in the split tickets (Balyemez, 2008: 202).

AKP experienced the most serious political crisis during the 2007 presidential elections. There was a great resistance against AKP’s decision to propose Foreign Minister Abdullah Gul as the candidate to replace Ahmet Necdet Sezer. The resistance was originated in the CHP and certain media and judiciary authorities. AKP, ignoring the resistance, initiated the vote in the parliament. During the first hours of April 27th, the day of the third-round elections, a memorandum published on the web site of Turkish General Staff and called the “e-memorandum” shocked the political agenda (Koç, 2011: 8). However, it turned out to be a futile incentive and the judiciary bureaucracy directly intervened in the political process. The recent political event, called the “367 incident” occurred. The Constitutional Court ruled on a special methodological condition for the Presidential election, and as a result, the AKP candidate Abdullah Gül could not be elected president, however AKP turned the election decision into a sort of referendum about the tension between the system and AKP (Kahraman, 2011: 5). Thus, AKP held a referendum on October 21, 2007 to resolve the Presidential election crisis. In this referendum, the constitution was amended with a 68.9% yea vote. Thus, significant changes such as holding the parliamentary general elections every five years instead of four and the election of the President by direct vote of the people were legislated (Koç, 2011: 8).

In the 2007 general elections, AKP radically increased its and was the winner of the elections with 340 deputies and 47% of the total vote. In these elections, CHP got 21% of the vote and 112 MPs, MHP got 14.29% of the vote and 71 MPs and DYP and ANAP could not get any seats in the parliament. In this election, the second party, CHP increased its votes by only 2% when compared to the 2002 elections, leading to heavy criticism of Deniz Baykal, the party leader. Another important characteristic of this election was the election of 20 Democratic Society Party MPs, who were independent candidates in the election avoiding the national threshold (Şanlısoy, 2007: 235).
The critical point in these elections was the distribution of Kurdish votes and the votes in the Eastern and Southeastern regions. Thus, the most important development in the 2007 elections was the election of Kurdish politicians as independent candidates. Thus, the DTP was represented as the 4th party in the parliament.

7. Political Developments during June 12, 2011 Elections

The most important political development that took place after the 2007 elections was the political party closure case against AKP, which amended the Constitution to lift the headscarf ban shortly after the election of the parliament. Thus, another conflict was experienced between the executive and the judiciary (Kahraman, 2011: 5) and the constitutional court decided to only warn AKP with a decision to prevent a probable political chaos. This decision surprised most people. Because, the public expected the closure of AKP as a result of this lawsuit (Koç, 2011: 8).

Political developments between 2007 and 2011 can be summarized with three points. The first is the relationship between political system and bureaucracy. In this respect, AKP has taken steps to democratize and transform the system in all areas including democratization of the judiciary and the reorganization of the military/civilian power relations. Again, the beginning of the series of court cases called Ergenekon was interesting in this perspective during this period. The prosecutors in these cases argued that there have been recent coup attempts against AKP. The second important point was the debate on the Kurdish issue. A democratic initiative was attempted in this topic; however, it was not finalized. Kurdish issue was the most discussed issue in those years. In parallel, the Kurdish issue was the determining factor in the debates on the new constitution. The third point was the economic developments before the 2011 elections. In particular, although increasing unemployment was a reality in a period underlined by the global crisis induced by the United States, the fact that Turkey was affected by the global economic crisis less than expected and the steady growth in the Turkish economy and increasing per capita income led to a significant impact on the society (Kahraman, 2011: 5).

AKP got the highest vote in 2009 local elections held before the 2011 general elections. However, for a political party that received 47% of the vote in 2007, 38.8% of the total vote was perceived as a slight failure. In 2004 local elections, the AKP was the first party in 58 provinces that included 12 metropolitan cities, however in 2009, they were the first party in 45 provinces including 10 metropolitan cities. In districts they were not the first party, they were the second party.

Again, one of the most critical phases of this period was the September 12, 2010 referendum. After a difficult process in the parliament, the Constitutional amendment package was voted to be included in the referendum except for one article. The amendment package included certain democratic rights, and articles related to the awareness for the settling the account with past coups d’état, especially the September 12 coup. The September 12, 2010 referendum was concluded with 58% yea votes. September 12 referendum in a way sent the old Turkey to the grave and initiated the discussions on how to build the "New Turkey". Thus, the main theme at that time was "the new". Another important topic that affected the country amid the debate on New Turkey was the Arab Spring that began in Tunisia and introduced changes in the whole Middle East.

Before the 2011 elections, the AKP based the election propaganda on three pillars.
The first included the list of the economic and democratic achievements in the first 8.5 years of their government, the second included is the new constitutional democratization efforts that was planned for the next term, and the third included promises about the continuous and new projects such as the Channel Istanbul, the establishment of two new cities in Istanbul, the maintenance of new housing projects, the establishment of new universities, increasing the number of existing provinces from 81, and developments in the fields of health and education (Koç, 2011: 9-20). Before the 2011 elections, CHP leader Deniz Baykal resigned and replaced by Kemal Kılıçdaroğlu and the "New CHP" discourse came to the fore. In general, it was clear that the most important dynamic that determined the election strategy of political parties in that period was the referendum that was held 9 months ago. The political parties that considered the September 12 referendum as a rehearsal for the general elections viewed the June 12th elections as a process of repair for the results they obtained in the referendum. The AKP highlighted the slogan of "building a new Turkey" in 2011, while CHP attempted to maintain the dynamics of change and preserve the seat of the new leadership, MHP aimed to sustain its political life, and BDP aimed to become the sole legitimate and effective representative of the Kurds (Ete, 2011: 2-11).

In June 12, 2011 elections, which was held in this atmosphere and was not a snap elections, the AKP got 46.6% of the votes and managed to stay in power for three consecutive terms by increasing their votes and that was a first in Turkish political history (Göksel and Çınar, 2011: 1). In this elections, the CHP was the second party with 20.85% of the vote and the MHP was the third party with 14.29% of the vote (Ada, 2012: 46). The AKP votes was the highest rate that any party received in an election for several years. On the other hand, despite this rate, the AKP failed to reach the number of seats in the parliament required to amend the constitution. The most interesting result in the elections was accomplishment of the independent candidates. Independent candidates got 6.57% of the total votes, and 35 independent deputies were elected to the parliament. Thus, the independents, DTP and Labor-Peace-Freedom and Democracy Block demonstrated the futility of the 10% election threshold in Turkish electoral system (Kahraman, 2011: 6-8).

Certain results that were observed in previous elections and became a trend after the 2002 elections, continued with the 2011 elections, while others did not. These were led by geographical polarization. Both in the 2007 general elections and in the 2009 local elections, the coastal cities in the country voted for CHP and the landlocked areas continued to vote for AKP. However, this changed after the 2011 elections, the AKP increased its votes in urban areas like İzmir and Antalya and lost in cities such as Aydin with a small margin. Again, the vast majority of the independent vote came from the Southeast Anatolian region. The two major parties in this region were AKP and BDP. CHP lost by a large margin in the region. Thus, the main task of resolving the Kurdish issue became a task for AKP and BDP after the 2011 elections.

In conclusion, the 2011 elections were one of the rare elections in Turkish political life that were held under the most usual conditions. Because, Turkey held elections to overcome an existential crisis for many years instead of building a new future. April 18, 1999 elections were held to overcome the February 28 political crisis, November 3, 2002 elections were held to overcome both the political crisis of February 28 and the 2001 economic crisis, and the July 22, 2007 elections were held to overcome the political crisis due to the Presidential elections. Unlike the last three elections, Turkey
did not hold the June 12 elections to overcome a crisis, but to start building a new future. In the June 12 process, the fact that the most decisive topic was the new constitution symbolized the future building process (Ete, 2011: 8).

REFERENCES


Chapter 20

Enterprise Risk Management: Past, Today and Future

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INTRODUCTION

Today, we live in a risk society. Unfortunately, and thankfully, there is no risk-free point on earth and as a result, a vast portfolio of risks such as accidents, financial crises, natural disasters, terrorist attacks, etc. are experienced by humankind. Thus, certain solutions were developed to cope with possible harmful effects of risks and to transform these risks into opportunities when possible. One of the popular business solutions is “Enterprise Risk Management (ERM)”. It seems like that ERM is not a new fad (Fraser et al., 2008) or fashion and its significance would boost in the near future particularly due to the emergence of new types of risk. However, despite these developments, ERM literature is still in infancy (Krause & Tse, 2016; Marc et al., 2018; McShane, 2018), thus, reviews on ERM (e.g. Razali & Tahir, 2011; Bin Kasim & Hanafi, 2012; Bromiley et al., 2015; Niralia, 2017) in international literature are still only a few.

The objective of the present study was to conduct a literature review on ERM. Thus, the author hopes that the study would shed light on past, today and future of the field. Instead of a very long literature review, the present study would attempt to clarify ERM in a concise manner. For this purpose, the method of traditional literature review was adopted. It is the hope of the authors that certain discussions in the current study would benefit the scholars in the field. Through the examination of the recommendations of the author, they might discover certain niches in the field to work on.

ENTERPRISE RISK MANAGEMENT (ERM)

There is no final consensus in the literature on the meaning of ERM. For example, in one of the most accepted definitions in the field, “Committee of Sponsoring Organizations (COSO) (2004: 2) defined ERM as:

“Enterprise risk management is a process, effected by an entity’s board of directors, management and other personnel, applied in strategy setting and across the enterprise, designed to identify potential events that may affect the entity, and manage risks to be within its risk appetite, to provide reasonable assurance regarding the achievement of the entity objectives”.

In a similar vein, Wu et al. (2011: 1) defined ERM as “… the integrated process of identification, analysis and either acceptance or mitigation of uncertainty in investment decision making”. In one of the seminal studies of the field that the current study will adopt its’ definition with minor additions, Dickinson (2001: 360) defined ERM as “Enterprise risk management is a systematic and integrated approach to the management of the total risks that a company faces”.

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This last definition refers to certain crucial characteristics of ERM. For example, since it includes certain repetitive steps such as internal environment, objective setting, event identification, risk assessment, risk responses, control activities, information-communication and monitoring (COSO, 2004), it can be deduced that ERM is “systematic”. It is also “integrated” since it takes all types of risks in conjunction such as market, operational, financial, compliance, strategic, reputational and hazard risks, etc. Furthermore, one other characteristic of ERM could be included in the definition: ERM is “strategic” (Lundquist, 2013). There are certain reasons for this. First, a healthy ERM system is often build consistent with strategies and objectives of a related organization. In a similar vein, Fraser et al. (2007) considered disconnected character of ERM implementations and objectives in a firm as a crucial mistake. Second, commitment of CEO and top management is crucial for the success in ERM. About 30 years ago, “Risk Management (RM)” was an activity implemented by lower level officers in organizational hierarchy (Nocco & Stulz, 2006). However, it became one of the responsibilities of the top management over time. Third, it was discussed that adequate ERM efforts could lead to a competitive advantage for the organizations (Nocco & Stulz, 2006). In a similar vein, Yang et al. (2018) indicated in their study that ERM is an antecedent of competitive advantage for organizations.

Thus, it should be clarified that certain studies prefer to use concepts such as “Business Risk Management”, “Corporate Risk Management”, “Enterprise-wide Risk Management”, “Holistic Risk Management”, “Integrated Risk Management” and “Strategic Risk Management”. These studies often use these concepts as synonyms to ERM (Liebenberg & Hoyt, 2003; Fraser et al., 2007; Bac, 2010; Razali & Tahir, 2011). When the RM is mentioned, it could imply different concepts. It can be argued that there are two main approaches to formal RM systems such as “Traditional Risk Management (TRM)” and ERM. There are certain differences between these approaches to RM. For example, as opposed to the traditional approach with a silo-based understanding to RM, ERM is based on a more holistic approach to risk management. Second, TRM approaches reactively to RM and it also attempts to mitigate the harmful effects of risks. However, ERM proactively acts and considers that risks may also bear certain opportunities for organizations (Tufano, 2011). These differences between the two RM systems are summarized in Table 1.

Since RM became a necessity for organizations, some international organizations attempt to develop certain frameworks for standardization of ERM implementations. For example, “Committee of Sponsoring Organizations (COSO)” formalized its “Enterprise Risk Management-Integrated Framework” and published it. Then, it was revised in 2011 and 2012. In a similar vein, “International Standards Organization (ISO)” published “ISO 31000: 2009” as a standard for RM (Lundquist, 2013). In addition to the most known two RM frameworks mentioned-above, there are several other frameworks such as “Arthur Andersen Business Risk Management Process”, “Criteria on Control Model (CoCo)”, “Management of Risks (MoR)”, “South Africa King III”, “The Australian/New Zealand Risk Standard (AS/NZS 4360)”, “The Combined Code and Turnbull Guidance”, “The FERMA Risk Management Standards”,

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Table 1: Differences between TRM and ERM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional Risk Management (TRM)</th>
<th>Enterprise Risk Management (ERM)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Silo-based approach to risk (independently dealing with risks)</td>
<td>Portfolio approach to risk (dealing with risks holistically)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited interaction with organizational strategy</td>
<td>Extensive interaction with organizational strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top management commitment not present</td>
<td>Existence of top management commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reactive approach to risk management</td>
<td>Proactive approach to risk management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM is largely based on loss avoidance</td>
<td>RM is largely based on seizing opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Related to control and minimization</td>
<td>Related to competitiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of certain positions/units responsible with RM</td>
<td>Presence of certain positions (e.g. CRO) /units responsible with RM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focusing on only measurable risks (e.g. financial, hazard).</td>
<td>Focusing on both easily measurable and hardly measurable risks (e.g. strategic, reputational).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: The table is largely compiled from Bac (2010); Kerstin et al. (2014); Rodriguez & Edwards (2014) and McShane (2018).

“The Institute of Risk Management (IRM) Risk Management Process”, and “The International Association of Insurance Supervisors Framework” (Bac, 2010; Bin Kasım & Hanafi, 2012; Maingot et al., 2012; Lundqvist, 2014; Wessells & Sadler, 2015; Annamalah et al., 2018). Despite some efforts for standardization of ERM implementation, certain studies demonstrated that there was no universal approach to ERM implementation (Agarwal & Ansell, 2016), that is, the ERM implementation method varies based on the organizational context.

Thus, there is more heterogeneity among the organizations in ERM implementation rather than homogeneity. For example, Arena et al. (2010) examined three organizations suggesting that they have an ERM system in place. Their findings indicated that ERM was conceptualized differently by organizations due to interactions between the ERM and previously extant uncertainty control systems in these organizations. In a similar manner, Czarniawska (2012) drew attention to the significance of context at more macro level. According to her, ERM experienced crucial and different translations during its travel to Sweden and UK. Thus, ERM has both different and common characteristics in these countries.

The question of the factors that affect decisions on implementation/non-implementation or degree of implementation of ERM in organizations is crucial. Previous literature demonstrated several factors that lead to differences in the level of implementation of ERM among organizations. At the organizational level, some of these factors that determine the level of implementation were size and the industry of the organization (Beasley et al., 2005; Golshan & Rasid, 2012; ; Önder & Ergin, 2012; Brustbauer, 2016; Li, 2018), size of financial leverage, (Liebenberg & Hoyt, 2003; Önder & Ergin, 2012; Khan et al., 2016), willingness of CEO, board of directors and “Chief Finance Officer (CFO)” for the implementation of ERM (Beasley et al., 2005; Tufano, 2011; Clyde-Smith, 2014; Caldarelli et al., 2016), ratio of independent members in board of directors (Beasley et al., 2005; Golshan & Rasid, 2012; Khan et al., 2016; Li, 2018), ownership structure (Brustbauer, 2016; Li, 2018), existence and impact of a “Chief Risk Officer (CRO)” in the organization (Kleffner et al., 2003;
Beasley et al., 2005; Kerstin et al., 2014), consistency with the strategic objectives of the organization (Clyde-Smith, 2014), degree of complexity of the organizational structure (Golshan & Rasid, 2012; Li, 2018), desire of an organization to gain competitive advantage (Gates, 2006; Havenga & Venter, 2007), and finally, existence of a strong corporate governance and poor organizational performance (Khan et al., 2016). Furthermore, certain macro level factors such as country of domicile (Golshan & Rasid, 2012; Lundquist, 2013), certain pressures by regulatory agencies and rating agencies such as Standard & Poors and Moody’s (Liebenberg & Hoyt, 2003; Gates, 2006; Havenga & Venter, 2007; Lundqvist, 2014; Khan et al., 2016) and requirements of listed stock exchanges (Harrington et al., 2002; Kleffner et al., 2003) may trigger adoption of ERM in organizations.

In addition, certain consequences or advantages of the adequate use of ERM were mentioned in the literature. For example, ERM may provide effective identification and management of several types of risks. With the implementation of risk identification, organizations may recognize opportunities better. This may increase effectiveness of corporate governance (Fraser et al., 2008). As managers prepare contingency plans, possibility of encountering with surprising situations is reduced (Taran et al., 2013). ERM also helps organizations to fulfill their missions, strategic objectives and targets (Wessells & Sadler, 2015). Furthermore, with the help of ERM, resource allocation may improve (Fraser et al., 2008). All these positive contributions of ERM, as a result, lead to an increase in organizational performance (Andersen, 2009; Florio & Leoni, 2017; Annamalah et al., 2018). Finally, ERM implementation can create a legitimizing effect for its adopters. Table 2 summarizes the potential outcomes of ERM.

Table 2: Outcomes of adequate ERM implementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th>Sources the benefits were cited by</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Improvement in corporate governance</td>
<td>Gates, 2006; Havenga &amp; Venter, 2007; Fraser et al., 2008; Güneş &amp; Teker, 2010; Taran et al., 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimizing surprises and losses</td>
<td>Havenga &amp; Venter, 2007; Fraser et al., 2008; Taran et al., 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More coordinated and consistent approach to RM / More effective RM</td>
<td>Kleffner et al., 2003; Sax &amp; Torp, 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective allocation of resources</td>
<td>Harrington et al., 2002; Fraser et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective decision-making</td>
<td>Gates, 2006; Fraser et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased communications and better understanding of risks by the organization</td>
<td>Havenga &amp; Venter, 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achieving mission goals, strategic objectives, targets</td>
<td>Gates, 2006; Havenga &amp; Venter, 2007; Güneş &amp; Teker, 2010; Wessels &amp; Sadler, 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased compliance</td>
<td>Havenga &amp; Venter, 2007; Fraser et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancing firm value</td>
<td>Fraser et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher cash flow</td>
<td>Marc et al., 2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive advantage</td>
<td>Yang et al., 2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased organizational (financial) performance</td>
<td>Gates, 2006; Andersen, 2009; Gordon et al., 2009; Florio &amp; Leoni, 2017; Annamalah et al., 2018; Li, 2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased non-financial organizational performance (e.g. awards on corporate governance and transparency)</td>
<td>Li, 2018</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The table was developed by the author.
On the other hand, ERM may lead to certain negative outcomes. For example, a quite rigid RM system in an organizations may enforce the obstacles to innovation efforts. Therefore, in organizations, where ERM is implemented and innovation is a target, balancing RM and innovation management is a crucial quality. Furthermore, managers in certain organizations consider ERM “only” as an obligation or a “rule-based compliance” (Arena et al., 2010) that needs to be obeyed to achieve legitimacy in regulatory agencies and stakeholders. This behavior may prevent certain potential benefits of ERM. For example, it may neutralize possible positive effects of ERM on decision-making processes (Meidell & Kaarboe, 2017). Finally, Marc et al. (2018) found that ERM adoption may even lead to certain negative impacts on firm values. They explained this finding with more conservative investment behavior of organizations after the adoption of ERM.

PAST, TODAY AND FUTURE OF ERM APPLICATIONS AND THEORY

The Past in the Field

Informal RM has been used by companies for centuries. However, integration of formal RM into decision-making systems in organizations started in late 1940s and early 1950s (Dickinson, 2001). Although a text book published in 1963 by Mehr and Hedges mentioned a very similar RM approach to ERM (McShane, 2018), until mid-1990s, majority of organizations continued to use TRM based on management of risks in separate silos. In that period, Doug Barlow became the first individual who took on the title of risk manager in 1963 (McShane, 2018). However, certain developments clarified the inadequacies of TRM and triggered a paradigm shift in RM. Series of factors such as more turbulent and competitive environments (Eryılmaz & Eryılmaz, 2015), developments in information and risk measurement technologies, corporate scandals (Kleffner et al., 2003; Liebenberg & Hoyt, 2003; Arena et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2011; McShane, 2018), radical changes in political business cycles (Eryılmaz, 2015, 2017), natural catastrophes (e.g. 2011 tsunami in Japan), terrorist attacks (e.g. 2016 truck attack in Nice) (Wu et al., 2011; Lundquist, 2013) and financial-economic crises (e.g. the 2008 crisis) (Eryılmaz & Eryılmaz, 2011; Kerstin et al., 2014) led to a search for new applications and the transformation from TRM to ERM. As a result of these developments, ERM emerged in mid-1990s (Arena et al., 2010; Wu & Olson, 2010). This transformation from TRM to ERM was considered as a paradigm shift by certain authors such as Havenga and Venter (2007) and Gordon et al., (2009). History of organizational RM is presented briefly in Table 3.

Table 3: Brief history of RM in organizations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Informal RM</th>
<th>Formal RM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Until late 1940s)</td>
<td>(Late 1940s – mid-1990s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRM</td>
<td>ERM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mid-1990s - Present)</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

Today in the Field

Today, ERM has been gradually institutionalized in both academic world and in practice. In academia, certain journals (e.g. Risk Management, International Journal of Risk Assessment and Management, Journal of Enterprise Risk Management) that include “risk management” and ERM in their title are published.

In the past, several studies focused on antecedents of ERM. Today, certain studies
started to examine the results of ERM implementation during recent years such as increases in business performance and decreases in various types of risks that the organizations face. For example, Annamalah et al. (2018) found that use of ERM reduces operational, market, political, safety and environmental risks in organizations. Furthermore, several studies focused on the US (Florio & Leoni, 2017; Eges et al., 2018) and their samples included large size organizations. On the other hand, certain RM studies based on SMEs in other countries (e.g. Brustbauer, 2016) were conducted recently.

Furthermore, in practice, companies developed certain reports and designed websites with special sections on RM (Arena et al., 2010). Implementers also established certain RM communities and organized conferences (e.g. RIMS ERM Conference). As actors on the supply side of management knowledge, consulting firms also established special RM units (Liebenberg & Hoyt, 2003). However, institutionalization is a long process and ERM in both academic and practical realms still has a long way to high institutionalization.

The Future in the Field

Literature review demonstrated that ERM literature was dominated by scholars of certain fields such as accounting and finance until recently. However, since contributions of scholars from other disciplines were crucial for the developments in the field (McShane, 2018), there were some recent calls (e.g. Bromiley et al., 2015) for management scholars to increase their contributions to the literature. Thus, although it can be predicted that the number of ERM articles from different disciplines such as accounting, finance and management would increase, it could be expected that the share of ERM articles by management scholars would also increase. Until now, management studies on risk were at micro level (Bromiley et al., 2015). However, in the future, macro analysis studies could be expected as well as micro analysis studies on RM. For example, Woods et al. (2017) considered the use of neo-institutional organization theory as a crucial opportunity for scholars in the field.

In a similar vein, certain studies (e.g. Florio & Leoni, 2017; Li, 2018) investigated the impact of ERM on corporate financial performance. However, as is known within the framework of Balanced Scorecard (Kaplan & Norton, 1992), organizational performance is a multidimensional construct. Therefore, it can be expected that some studies would focus on the relationships between ERM and other dimensions of organizational performance such as customer satisfaction, internal processes and innovation. In certain studies (e.g. Gordon et al., 2009), it was clearly emphasized that they ignored BSC framework in their studies since its measurement requires several questions. Although the rate of return in surveys that contain several items is often low, researchers should take this risk and measure organizational performance with a more adequate method.

Furthermore, there are some gaps in the relationship between ERM and some types of risks. For example, effect of ERM on reputational risk entails one of these gaps (Krause & Tse, 2016). According to “Basel Committee on Banking Supervision (BCBS)” (2009: 19), “Reputational risk can be defined as the risk arising from negative perception on the part of customers, counterparties, shareholders, investors, debt-holders, market analysts, other relevant parties or regulators that can adversely affect a bank’s ability to maintain existing, or establish new, business relationships and
continued access to sources of funding”. When the exploding interest in reputation management by cities and countries, as well as organizations is considered, it can be expected that the relationship between ERM and reputational risk would be one of the popular subjects in the field.

As stated in the previous section, ERM studies often examined large-scale US firms. However, it is known that SMEs are a crucial part of the economies (Eryılmaz & Dokur, 2015) and they may face different amount and types of risks when compared to large-scale organizations. Thus, it is possible in future that certain studies that focus on RM in SMEs of other countries (for example developing countries) would be conducted. Furthermore, ERM literature mostly focused on industrial organizations. Therefore, certain studies on other industries such as education and health would be crucial since they would improve our understanding about the obstacles and facilitators of ERM implementation in these industries.

Finally, majority of the studies in the field assumed that ERM would always lead to certain benefits for its adopters (Khan et al., 2016). Therefore, studies that illustrate the negative aspects of ERM implementation would be interesting for the field.

In practice, ERM has been largely recommended by consulting companies, scholars, regulatory agencies and other for profit organizations. However, as stated above, every type of organization faces some type of risks. Therefore, it can be expected that ERM would be recommended to managers of other types of organizations such as “Non-Profit Organizations” and it would start to penetrate these organizations. Furthermore, ERM has been largely associated with industrial and banking institutions (Wahlström, 2013) until now. However, it could be expected that it would penetrate other industries as well. For example, although ERM is quite new for higher education institutions (Tufano, 2011; Lundquist, 2013), several HEIs in many countries (e.g. Turkey, USA) were observed to make certain preparations to use ERM. It is quite normal since HEIs may face several risks such as terrorist attacks in campuses, accidents, fire disasters, information security threats, rough endowments, radical changes in higher education policies of governments and allocated HEI budgets, and global competition among HEIs for students and scholars (Tufano, 2011; Lundquist, 2013). In a similar vein, although RM is a common application in healthcare organizations, ERM is still in an initial phase (Etges et al., 2018). Therefore, it can be expected that ERM would increasingly penetrate the healthcare industry in the future. Popularity of ERM implementation among organizations would also change power relations inside the organizations. Thus, it can be expected that practitioners of RM would be more influential or at higher positions in organizational hierarchies in the future.

CONCLUSION

Although it is a rapidly growing field, literature review studies on ERM are rare. Therefore, the aim of the present study was to review the current literature. Thus, the present study could be considered as one of the few literature reviews on ERM.

On the other hand, the present study is a traditional literature review. In the future, “Structured Literature Reviews (SLRs)” (Massaro et al., 2015, 2016) that clarify host countries, industries, methodologies etc. scrutinized in objectively selected ERM studies could be conducted. Thus, the gaps and future directions in the field could be observed better. Furthermore, under the title of “the future in the field”, the present
study endeavored to draw the attention to niche areas in the field. Therefore, future researchers in the field could utilize these recommendations to determine the direction of their studies.

Similar to any study, the present study has certain limitations. First, the current study attempted to focus principally on the most cited studies in the literature. Furthermore, the author attempted to balance older and newer studies in the field. However, there is no doubt that certain valuable studies were overlooked by the author. Second, the present study only scrutinized the studies written in English and Turkish languages. It is certain that there are other comprehensive studies written in other languages in the literature. Thus, the present study did not include these valuable studies.

REFERENCES


GEOGRAPHY
(Human and Physical)
Chapter 21

The Role of Traditional and Regional Products in Rural Development: Case of Balikesir Province (NW Turkey)

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1. Introduction

The term ‘regional products’ implies food products, equipment, and items the production of which are influenced by geographical conditions. These products, their taste, and the way they look are specific to a certain geographical location, and when produced outside of the region, their unique features are lost.

Some of the geographical conditions that create regional products are climate, soil, topography, hydrography, and biogeography, which are physical conditions. The others are social and cultural conditions (human conditions). They survive for long years, are passed on from generation to generation, and are human skills based on customs and traditions.

A great number of regional products are constituted by food products (food and beverages). Some of them are equipment used for various tasks.

The last half-century saw mass production (fabrication and plantation) particularly in developed industrial societies, excessive use of chemical medicines and fertilizers and resulting changes in genetic structure. Accordingly, unique tastes of food products were lost. These products in question even became dangerous for human health. Thus, developed societies started to produce agricultural products called “natural, ecological, or organic products” which are grown in natural settings.

The same situation is present for equipment and items that people use for various needs. Fabrication products largely replaced handicrafts produced with traditional methods. People showed interest in handicrafts produced with efforts. This kind of productions has only been able to survive in mountainous and isolated regions until now. These equipment and items are now within the scope of “regional and traditional products”. The trend towards ecological and traditional products in western societies also emerged in the Turkish society. In Turkey, which is rich in this aspect, many towns (belde) embraced their own regional products. For instance, Safranbolu delight (lokum) became famous as of 1970s. This was thanks to the increasing use of roads leading to Middle and East Black Sea Region from Istanbul. This product, a very popular regional product, lost its quality in time. Soon, the production moved to other settlements on the road, and a number of towns along the road had stores selling this product. This product was awarded a geographical indication in 2006 and was registered.

The term “Geographical Indication” was first used by World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) in “International Convention Task” drafted in 1975 (Yıldız, 2007). Later, in the European Union Conduct drafted in 1992, preservation of regional products was brought up, using the term “designation of origin” and “Geographical Indication”.

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The term “Geographical Indication” was first used in Turkey in the 1st article of Law No. 4113 enacted on 8.6.1995. This article states that the purpose of the law is to “enable the protection of geographical indications”. Based on this law, Statutory Decree 555 was passed by the government on 24.6.1995. One of the purposes of this decree is to protect regional products. It mentions the term geographical indication in two terms. The first one is the “designation of origin”, and the second one is the “protected geographical indication”. The term designation of origin includes products that are strictly specific to a certain area due to raw materials, production conditions, and production styles. The product loses its uniqueness outside of this specific area. However, the term “protected geographical indication” includes products that emerged in a certain area, but later expanded in terms of production location and preserved their uniqueness.

In Turkey, Turkish Patent Institute has the authority to award geographical indications and register products. It was established in 1994 with the Statutory Decree 554. Law 5000 passed in 2003 made it up-to-date.

The first products to be awarded geographical indications were hand-made rugs (1996). There are 788 products (October - 2018) in Turkey that have geographical indications. Those with the indication in Balıkesir include Yağcibedir Hand-made Rug (1997), Ayvalık Olive Oil (2007), Gönen Needle Embroidery (2014), Balıkesir Höşmerimi (2015), Edremit Scratched Green Olive (2015), Gulf of Edremit Olive Oil (2017), Susurluk Ayran (2017), Susurluk Toast (2017), and the Kapıdağ Purple Onion (2018). Those waiting to be awarded the indication are Gönen Baldo Rice, Manyas Kelle Cheese.

It is possible to make this list longer. This study aims to demonstrate the wide regional product variety of Balıkesir, advertise products, explain the geographical bases of this diversity, and enable other products to get geographical indications.

The high regional product variety of Balıkesir stems from cultural diversity and geographical conditions. The first reason being the climate, diversity in physical geographical conditions and historical, cultural, and social richness are also reasons for this.

2. Ecological Conditions of Balıkesir as the Main Factor of the Emergence of Regional Products.

2.1. Climate

Balıkesir province is located in the northwest of Turkey. It covers an area of 14.272 km². It has coasts on both the Marmara and Aegean seas. This constitutes the basis for climatic features of the province. The northern side is under the influence of the Black Sea climate while the western side is dominated by the Mediterranean climatic conditions. The internal part is composed of transition areas under the influence of the continental climate (Sönmez, 2005; Atalay and Efe, 2011). The climatic variety is the basis for the high regional product diversity.

The climate dominating in the north leads to temperate winters (5°C), hot summers (24°C), medium range precipitation (700 mm), and light summer drought (summer precipitation 8%). This climate is very suitable for fruit, vegetable, and cereal agriculture. In addition, it enables a thick vegetation to grow such as forests and meadows. This, in turn, leads to a great potential for forest products and animal husbandry.
Aegean coasts are dominated by Mediterranean climatic conditions. Winters are more temperate (7°C) while summers are hotter and drier (26°C). Precipitation is a little less compared to the northern section (650 mm). Summer precipitation is very little (4%). These conditions create a perfect setting for the olive plant which favors temperate winters and hot summers (Efe, 2000).

Internal parts witness cold weather in winter in the transition climate (4°C). Summers are hot (24°C), and precipitation is less compared to coastal areas (600 mm). Summers are less dry than the western part (7%). While climatic conditions are suitable for certain agricultural products, they are particularly favorable for field crops, mostly cereals. Pastures that turn green in springs and do not suddenly turn yellow in summers are eligible for animal husbandry.

Climatic conditions in Balıkesir are suitable for various agricultural products favoring different ecological conditions. These plants include rice, olive, and citrus fruits. They are also good for bovine breeding (cattle, buffalo) and ovine breeding (sheep, goat). Besides, flowering flora composed of trees, grass, and herbaceous plants encourages beekeeping activities. The rich forest cover of the city (equal to 45% of its area) makes possible various production methods and products based on trees.

2.2. Geological and Geomorphological Properties

In Balıkesir, geological and geomorphological conditions also play a role in product variety (Efe et al., 2014a). Geological features have an effect on soil types, mines, and thermomineral waters. Geomorphological features affect climate change in short distance. Igneous, metamorphic, and sedimentary rocks occur in the study area. Clayed, lime, sandy, acidic, or basic soils emerged upon them (Efe, 1999; 2004). These soils increased agricultural product variety all over the province. Some were used as raw materials for pottery. The province has a number of mineral deposits thanks to the geological conditions. Metallic mines, precious, and semiprecious stones were formed as a result of geological events (Soykan et al., 2008c). However, handicrafts did not develop on the same level as the richness in mineral deposits.

The highest mountain range of the area is the Alaçam Mountains in the southeast. There are also summits higher than 1800 meters. Mount Ulus in the southeast and the Kaz Mountains in the northern section of the Gulf of Edremit are high mountains exceeding 1750 meters. The most important 1000 meters-reaching mountains of the Balıkesir are Mount Madra and Şabla in the west, Çataldağ in the east, and Mount Mancılık in the south (Efe et al., 2007; 2013c; 2014c; Cürebal et al., 2012; 2013).

The mountains are crucial in terms of their effects on climatic conditions. The amount of precipitation on mountains increases based on the elevation while temperatures decrease. Thus, climatic and vegetative elevation steps are created based on the elevation (Efe et al., 2007; Efe et al., 2008). Most of the mountains in Balıkesir are forest areas. Openings and suitable areas are used as highlands. There, cattle, sheep, and goats are grown. Milk obtained is used to make cheese, butter, and yogurt. There are a number of highlands on the western, southern, and eastern mountains of the city. The İvrindi, Edremit, Havran, and Burhaniye highlands are significant highlands and known for their cheese.

Plains take up large areas in the northern section. Gönen, Manyas, and Susurluk plains are important agricultural and animal husbandry areas. Ovine and bovine breeding activities are conducted on plains with meadows. Plateaus in the area are used
as field agricultural areas and animal husbandry areas. Internal plateaus particularly host ovine breeding activities (sheep). The İvrindi, Şamlı, and Balya plateaus are eligible for these activities. Sheep milk is used to make cheese. Manyas and İvrindi cheese is known for their taste.

2.3. Hydrographical Features

Some of them are continental water resources. Others are seas. Continental waters are important in terms of irrigated agricultural products. For instance, paddy farming and rice products all depend on irrigation conditions (Özşahin, 2008). Famous Gönen baldo rice emerged as a product requiring special conditions.

Thermomineral spring waters have the potential to become regional products. However, there are not any mineral waters in Balıkesir which turned into brands. Living and non-living beings in the seas can also become regional products. Marmara mackerel (Scomber colias) is an example. This fish used to be hunted around the Marmara Islands a long time ago. It used to be canned and salted. Salt Mackerel used to be the best salt fish (Deveciyan, 2006).

The main rivers in Balıkesir province are the Susurluk, Kocaçay, Gönen, Havran, Madra, and Yağcılar streams (Efe, 2004; Soykan et al., 2008a; Efe et al., 2011c; Çürebal et al., 2014). All are used for agricultural irrigation. As mentioned above, Gönen Baldo rice is grown with the use of the Gönen Stream irrigation water. Although there are some documents indicating that paddy farming was conducted in Balıkesir in the second half of the 19th century, this kind of agriculture started later in Gönen (Mutaf, 1995). Paddy farming became common after the construction of the Gönen Dam in 1997.

2.4. Biogeography and Local Products

Regional products have biogeographical bases. Their raw materials are composed of products obtained from forests. Wooden materials, forest berries, some aromatic and healthy herbs are about the wealthy vegetation (Efe et al., 2011b; 2013d). There are handicrafts depending on wooden materials obtained from forests in Dursunbey and Edremit regions of Balıkesir. Chestnut is common in the city. “Korucu chestnut” is famous in particular. Thyme species in the form of bushy and herbaceous plants are great in number. Thyme (Origanum heracleoticum) of Mount Madra, the Kaz Mountains, and the Marmara Island is famous (Efe et al., 2012a; 2012b; 2014; Sönmez et al., 2012). The Marmara Island sage (Salvia fruticosa) and Kaz Mountains tea (Sideritis trojana) are well-known herbs.

Forest, bush, and herb communities are rich in species. Therefore, Balıkesir stands out for its honey production and quality. The name of the city is related to the word “bal”, which stands for “honey” in Turkish. It is said that the name denotes “rich in honey” (bali kesir). The Karasi Sanjak yearbooks state that beekeeping activities are important; bee is produced in Edremit and Bigadiç regions, and bee is exported from the Hamidiye (Burhaniye) harbor (Mutaf, 1995). Some of Balıkesir honey is from the Kaz Mountains and the Marmara Island, and is composed mainly of thyme and sage extracts. Some is chestnut (Castanea sativa), yellow azalea (Rhododendron flavum) and tilia honey. “Honeydew honey” is also widely produced in the Edremit region (Efe et al., 2013a).
2.5. Historical, Cultural and Social Features

Settlement history in Balıkesir goes back 5000 years. This indicates that human activities such as animal husbandry and agriculture, customs and traditions, and production methods are very old (Cürebal et al., 2008). Social factors are as important as natural factors for the emergence of regional products. Social factors mean human
geographical conditions. People who have lived in a certain area for ages know its resources like the back of their hands. They have also found out how to use them and produce various products using different techniques. Therefore, the older a settlement in an area, the more unique and traditional products there are.

Communities comprising the ethnogeographical structure of the city played a crucial role in the emergence of different regional products. During the Ottoman period, villages were also considerably populous like cities and towns. When Ahmet Vefik Pasha was the governor of the Hüdavendigar Province (Bursa) in 1862, nomads were subjected to mandatory settlements (Ayhan, 1997). Villages existing before this date were mostly inhabited by people named “Manav in Turkish.” Manavs are people who engage in agriculture and grow fruits and vegetables. Some traditional agricultural products and food types are related to the folk culture of manavs.

Nomads are Yoruchs. They mostly engaged in ovine breeding (sheep, goat etc.). Before being subjected to mandatory settlement, they went on highlands, spent winters in temperate zones called winter quarters (kışlak) and coastal plains. Yogurt, cheese, butter, ayran, and hoşmerim, and also hand-made rugs are related to the yoruk culture. There are widespread Yoruk tribes in Balikesir named Karakecil, Kizilkecil, Gubaş, Hardal, and Yüncü.

The other communities enriching the ethnography of the city are Çetmi groups. They also engaged in animal breeding. Goat and sheep herds were their wealth. Çetmis, too, produced milk and dairy products. The name Çetmi is also mentioned as Çepni. In Balikesir, people refer to them as Çetmi. 1/25.000 scaled topographical maps printed in 1958 show that some villages and areas are named “Çetmi.”

For instance, the Güvemçetmi village near Balikesir city is one of them. In addition, there are settlements named Çetmi in provinces of Turkey.

Turkmens are also another community. There are some areas called Turkmen. They were also nomads.

There is a community named Tahtaci that lives around the Gulf of Edremit and mostly engages in forest work. They are also not Sunni. Tahtacis and Çetmis are different groups (Efe et al., 2014b).

When the Ottoman Empire lost its territories in the Balkans and Caucasus, a lot of Muslims moved to Anatolia and settled in different areas. They are generally referred to as “muhacir (who emigrated).” Balikesir has a considerable number of people of muhacir origin. People from the Balkans brought with them the Balkan culture while those from the Caucasus brought their culture and traditions. Circassians, Abkhasians, and Georgians came from the Caucasus and settled in Gönen, Susurluk, and Manyas. Tatarians migrated from Romania and Crimea. In the Aziziye village of Balikesir (the Mirzabey or Tatarian villages) is inhabited by people who migrated from Crimea in
Immigrants brought with them various agricultural plants, food, beverage culture, customs and traditions. This plays a crucial role in the high variety of regional products in Balıkesir. After the Ottoman-Russian War (1877-78), the Balkan War (1912-13), and population exchange between Greece and Turkey (Greek: Ἑλληνική μητρικη, Turkish: Mımbadele) (1923-25), Anatolia received a number of migrants from the Balkans. A significant number of people settled in various parts of Balıkesir. Balıkesir received the most amount of migration from the Balkans (Aylan 1997; Ağanoğlu 2012). Some of them are people from the Agean islands. All the Muslims on the Crete Island were evacuated. Later, they were joined by those from the Lesbos Island. These immigrants are called “Islanders.” They were people who mastered in olive and olive products. Thus, they were settled in Ayvalık, Edremit, and Burhaniye. Accordingly, they contributed tremendously to the development of olive industry (Efe et al., 2013b). Vegetable and herb dishes and some dishes with olive oil arrived in Anatolia thanks to them.

3. The Main Regional Product Varieties and Geographical Bases for Their Emergence

There are a number of unique and traditional products associated with Balıkesir. These include food, handicrafts, and natural objects.

3.1. Agricultural Products

Olive cultivation has been carried out at least for 2500 years in Balıkesir (Efe et al., 2011a). Edremit offers the optimum conditions for olive production. Olive is grown, processed, turned into oil, and used to make soap by the use of ages-old experience, techniques, customs, and traditions. Today, Ayvalık olive oils, the Gulf of Edremit oils, Scratched green olives, which were awarded geographical indications, are the results of such a long-lasting culture.

There is also a wheat culture like the olive culture. The Misya region was an important wheat production area in the Ancient Age. During the Ottoman period, wheat was produced in and exported from Gönen, Bandırma, Manyas, Susurluk, and Şamlı. Traditional food with wheat is common in Balıkesir, the main one being “keşkek.” Wheat is ground with large mortar stones when there is a wedding or a charity activity. Then, it is crushed with pestles, and keşkek is cooked.
Sesame, an agricultural plant coming from the Middle East, is a traditional plant cultivated in Balıkesir. As an oil plant, sesame (Sesamum indicum) has been grown for almost 500 years particularly in Edremit, Sındırgı, Bigadiç and the central part (Mutaf, 1995; Arslan, 2007). Sesame oil is used to make tahin halva, which has an important place in our food culture and cuisine. Tahini halva production in Balıkesir is traditional. There were guilds of dessert products manufacturers. Traditional tahin halva production is only practiced in Edremit today.

Olive, grown in the coastal areas of the province, is not grown in the internal areas due to unsuitable climatic conditions (Efe et al., 2011d). Thus, in internal areas, an oil extracted from the seeds of safflowers (Carthamus tinctorius) is used for cooking. It is from the Middle East and is called “yağdikeni” or, locally, “aççeĕk.” This is called “safflower oil.” This traditional product has been disappearing; however, its final traces can be found in Dursunbey. The last oil production facility is there. Flowers of this plant were also used as vegetable dye.

Fig (Ficus carica), dating back to thousands of years, first emerged in the Eastern Mediterranean. The Edremit region is suitable for fig production. It became the traditional and unique fruit of this area. Havran, Edremit, and Burbhaniye are the areas where the best white and black figs grow (edible and dryable). Fig here has thin rind, is of medium size, and is very sweet.

Pomegranate, quince, almond, mulberry, melon, watermelon, and grape are the fruits that are old and have a long history in the city. They originated in Asia Minor and Anatolia. Edremit pomegranate is big, juicy, and sweet. It is classified as “large grained pomegranate.” Settlements named “pomegranate” (nar) are quite in number. There were many mulberry groves in Gönen, Edremit, and central areas 500-600 years ago. White and black grape is grown in some parts of Balıkesir. Antandros coins with a grape motif on one side indicate that this plant dates back to at least 2700 years (Efe et al., 2008). Common grape vine (Vitis vinifera) is commonly found in the region. However, “burr grape” is grown in Burbhaniye and Ayvalık regions of Mount Madra (Efe et al., 2011e; 2012c). It has two kinds: black burr and white burr grapes. This grape is very sweet. It has big and round granules and seeds. It is very suitable for eating. Sandy soils of granites and microclimate at a certain elevation are good for its growth. Hacıbozlar in Ayvalık is the main village in the province where burr grape is grown.

Balıkesir is known for its muskmelon (Cucumis melo) and watermelon (Citrullus lanatus). These plants have been cultivated for a long time. The Karasi Sanjak yearbook of 1847 states that these products were mostly grown in the central district. Melon and watermelon, fruits of dry climates, come from the Western Middle Asia and Southwest Asia (Zhukovsky, 1951). They are believed to have been introduced to Anatolia in the 11th-15th century when the Turkmens migrated to Anatolia. In other words, they have been grown in Anatolia for almost 1000 years. Zhukovsky separates Anatolian melons into two groups, Adana and Casaba. The first one ripens earlier. However, the Casaba type ripens later and is common in the west of Anatolia.

Figure 9: Fresh fig (Ficus carica)
He states that the western type (Casaba melons) is common in Balıkesir. The Casaba type melon is white or cream and succulent. They have flat dark-green or yellow-green rind. They are a little bit crumpled. Today, yellow-green lined melons called Kırkağaç or Altınbaş are commonly cultivated in the area (Çelik, 2001). Yet, the well-known melon type of Balıkesir is not this one. It is Hasanbey melon, which is round, sweet, soft, juicy, tasty, and has a dark-green rind. It is common in all parts of the province. Fruits such as quince and almond are also old plants.

Vegetables such as okra and cowpea are traditional. Balıkesir okra is small, round, and tasty. Okra comes from the Southwest Asia. Nergiz (Çiçekpınar), a central village, is known for its okra.

Carrots and garlic of Balıkesir are also famous local products. Good quality carrot is grown in the Köseler Village on the Balıkesir Plain. Zhukovsky (1951) makes good mention of Balıkesir carrots. Çinge, a central village, stands out for its garlic. Both plants originated in the Eastern Mediterranean. Garlic is a 2000 year old plant.

The Kapıdağ Peninsula and Marmara Islands have been very important fishing areas since the Ancient Age. All coins of the ancient city Kyzikos on the Belkis tombolo feature fish figures. “Salt fish” of the region are well-known.

The oldest cereal known, Asian rice (*Oryza sativa*) (unmilled rice), originated in the Southeast Asia (Tanoğlu, 1980). Paddy farming has been practiced in Balıkesir for a few centuries. During the Ottoman period, rice for Istanbul was brought from Egypt via seas. The Karasi Sanjak Yearbook of 1847 states that the Çeltikçi Village near Erdek was a spot where paddy was farmed (Mutaf, 1995). The widespread farming of rice is about water resources and better irrigation techniques. The main water resources of the city are the Susurluk, Kocaçay, and Gönen streams flowing through the northern plains. Besides, the Manyas and Ulubat lakes are fresh water masses. Summers are long and
hot enough for rice to grow and ripen. Soils are alluvial, which means they are suitable for rice growth as they are rich in nutrients.

After the completion of the Gönen Dam (1998), paddy farming took up larger areas in Gönen and its vicinity. The kind of rice grown in Gönen (Baldo) originated in Italy. However, it adapted to the conditions here perfectly. The Po Plain in Italy where paddy is cultivated is on 45° northern latitude. The Meriç Basin in Bulgaria is on 42° northern latitude while the Gönen basin is on 40° northern latitude. Rice farming largely goes beyond 41° northern latitude in Edirne and Sinop (Boyabat) (41°41′ N).

The annual average temperature of Ravenna on the Po plain is 13.3°C. The average of the hottest month, July, is 23.1°C. May is the time when rice growth begins. The average temperature then is 16.7°C while in September when the growth ends is 19.6°C. In Gönen, these temperatures are 14.1°C, 23.6°C, 16.7°C, and 19.3°C. This indicates that Italy-originated baldo rice can grow under better conditions in Gönen. Baldo rice is white, long, and big. It is good in terms of being cooked and soaking water. Thus, it is a sought-after kind of rice. Baldo is not the best kind of rice in Italy. Yet, Gönen’s ecological conditions made it best of its kind, making it famous as “Gönen Baldo.”

Animal breeding activities in Balıkesir have laid the basis for some traditional products. Goats are the oldest domestic animal of the region. Goat figures on coins of the ancient city Antandros show how old this activity is in the history of the city. Cattle farming also date back to the old ages. Horses have been bred for 2000 years. Sheep became widespread probably after the region fell under the influence of Islam. Balıkesir yoruks (nomad) have used the mountains as highlands for ages for sheep and goat herds. Milk obtained from bovine and ovine breeding activities is used to make butter, cheese, and yogurt. İvrindi, Manyas, Edremit, Havran, and Burhaniye cheese is very well-known. “Höşmerim”, a dessert associated with the region, is based on cheese, semolina, and eggs.

Hair and wool of animals such as goats, sheep, and camels are used to make well-known felt, hodden, and wadmal. The art of felting disappeared about 20 years ago.

To sum up, traditional products of the city culture emerged as a result of the geographical conditions and the cultures of the old Anatolian civilizations, Turkish communities that came from the Middle Asia from the 11th century on, and those that migrated from the Balkans and Caucasus in the last centuries.

3.2. Food (Food and Beverage)

Regional products falling into this category depend on the features of the raw materials of the region, production traditions and methods.

There are many bovine and ovine animals. Animal breeding activities are also important. Its climatic conditions are suitable, and pasture lands are great in size.
The cheese dessert called “Höşmerim” is the most important one in this category. “Höşmerim” is known all across the city. Neighbour cities Çanakkale, Bursa, and Manisa are familiar with this dessert.

The name “Höşmerim” is also spelled Hoşmerim, Höşmeri, Höşmelim, Höşmerim, Höşmenim. The word “höş” is a different version of the word “hoş” which stands for “beautiful” or “pleasant”. “Merim” or “melim” means meek, soft, thin, melted, softened, and sloppy in some Anatolian dialects (TDK, 1993).

The common story on the emergence of höşmerim has three versions. Two of them focus on a soldier, while one has a shepherd in it. The person who makes the dessert is in two versions a married, young, and beautiful woman. Yet, it is an old grandmother in the other one. The name is believed to have been derived from the question the woman asked her husband. And this question was “Hoş mu erim?”, which stands for “Is it good, my private?” This phrase gradually changed, becoming “Höşmerim.” This dessert was most probably something the nomadic culture came up with. Its most striking feature is the use of fresh and salt-free cheese. And this cheese is mostly made from sheep or cow milk. Thus, höşmerim made from sheep milk and cow milk are sold separately. Aside from cheese, semolina (or flour), eggs, and sugar (or pekmez) are also used. It is highly likely that it first appeared in western or northwestern Balıkesir. The central parts, Havran, and Balya are mentioned quite frequently. Gönen is also another possible spot. Some oral information points to the Müstecap Village of Balya, stating that höşmerim was invented there.

These areas are prominent for ovine breeding activities (particularly sheep presence). In sum, it is possible to say that a yoruk community invented this dessert. These yoruk communities lived on the mountain range around Havran, Balya, and Gönen comprising the city boundaries between Balıkesir and Çanakkale.

Balıkesir is very suitable for the formation of natural pastures. Therefore, animal breeding plays a key role in the city economy. Some of the natural pastures are meadows, and some are sparse bushes. 15% of the total area of the city is used as pastures. This is close to Turkey’s latest average of pastures. Data from 2012 show that meadows and pastures compose 15.7% of Turkey.

The features of the meadows and pastures in the city are different. Meadows and pastures in the north where the dry summers fade away are green and vivid until summer. These are base meadows including valleys, lakesides, and plains. Others are sparse bushes, and gaps inside the forests. Grass cover in between these areas is physiognomically and floristically different from the other parts of the city. Pasture vegetation becomes dull in the south, middle parts, and west due to the drought in
summers. In these areas, grass remains vivid only in areas of the mountains exceeding 1000 meters. The great number and quality of pastures of the north of the city made it an important animal breeding location. Ovine and bovine animals such as goats, cows, sheep, and buffalos can easily be fed and stay on these pastures. Goats feed on maquis and grass while sheep eat short grass on the ground. These are aromatic, moderately hard grass types containing a considerable amount of water. Cows feed on taller grass.

Goat and cattle breeding dates back to older times. Sheep must have arrived in the area later. The Manyas, Gönen, Susurluk, Bandırma, Karacabey (Mihaliç), Mustafakemalpaşa (Kirmastı) connected plains (and Balya plateaus which can also be added) are crucial animal breeding and agricultural areas. Porous, hard, and salty cheese made from sheep milk and in the shape of big lumps is very famous. It takes six months for this cheese to ripen, which is a long time.

The cheese production in Manyas and its vicinity dates back to the Ancient Age, when “sepet cheese” was made from goat milk. However, with the introduction to and dominance of sheep in the area, people started making cheese by using high-fat goat milk, leading to the emergence of “Manyas kelle” cheese. Manyas kelle cheese is specific to the region. It is the product of a traditional production process, vegetation, plant types, and milk obtained from sheep feeding on these plants.

Olive culture has been present in Balıkesir for at least 2000 years. The coastal areas of this city have suitable climatic and edaphic conditions for olive tree (Olea europaea) growth (Efe, 2005; Efe et al., 2008; 2013e). On the Sea of Marmara shores, Erdek and its vicinity, the Marmara Island; on the Aegean shores, the Gulf of Edremit and Ayvalik (Edremit) are main areas where olive is grown.

However, the optimum conditions for olive are in Edremit. Therefore, olive and olive oils of this area are better in quality. Edremit olive is called “Ayvalık type.” It is mid-succulent, has big pits, hard, and high in fat (24.72%). Other promological features are: 3.6 gr per unit, 85.26% meat, 14.74% pit (Efe et al., 2012b).
Oil obtained from the olives grown around the Gulf of Edremit of Balıkesir are some of the best olive oils in Turkey. They are good in terms of appearance, color, taste, smell, aroma, and acidity. Oils high in acidity are not considered good for cooking. Acidity means the oleic acid of olive oils. For instance, olive oil with 1 acidity level has a oleic level of 10%. If the oleic level is 8%, the acidity is 0.8. In other words, it is $\frac{8}{10}$ (Efe et al., 2011a). Extra virgin olive oils made from the olives of the gulf have acidity levels of 0.8 or lower.
Thus, they were awarded geographical indications by Turkish Patent Institute. The first geographical indication “Ayvalık Olive Oil” is registered as number 88 and was awarded on 18.03.2004. The second one is “The Gulf of Edremit Olive Oils”.

As olive oil is extracted from the fruits of olive trees, it is also possible to use it for eating after some processes. Dark olives are used to make “black olives”, and green ones are used to make “green olives.” These are grouped into salted black olives, salted green olives, scratched green olives, cracked green olives, and stuffed olives (Efe et al., 2012a). It is possible to grow all kinds of edible olives in the region.

Yet, the best olives for creating scratched olives in Turkey are those grown in Edremit. They are of normal size, have slightly big pits, and high fat levels. They are tight, hard, and durable. In Zeytinli, “Edremit Scratched Green Olives” started to be produced with a salting method discovered in the early 1950s. It was widely acclaimed in a short time thanks to its taste, quality, and durability. Also, it was mentioned that it is impossible to obtain this type from those grown in other regions (Efe et al., 2012a).

Figure 22: Basket Cheese is common around Ivrindi and Havran

Figure 23: Cheese of Manyas Kelle

Figure 24: There are about 700 thousand sheep in Balıkesir.

Figure 25: Manyas Kelle Cheese is famous for having holes.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product Name</th>
<th>Origin</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Geographical Indication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Buttermilk Susurluk</td>
<td>Susurluk</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gönen Needle Emroidery</td>
<td>Gönen</td>
<td>Handcraft</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Höşmerim</td>
<td>Center of Balikesir - Edremit -</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lamb Meat</td>
<td>Balikesir</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marmara Marble</td>
<td>Marmara Island</td>
<td>Natural Mining</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olive - Green Scratch</td>
<td>Edremit - Zeytinli</td>
<td>Agricultural</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olive Oil</td>
<td>Gulf of Edremit</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purple Onion</td>
<td>Erdek - Kapıdağı Yarımadası</td>
<td>Agricultural</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice - Baldo (Oryza sp.)</td>
<td>Gönen</td>
<td>Agricultural</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yaşğicbedir Handmade Carpet</td>
<td>Sındırgı</td>
<td>Handcraft</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ayvalık Toast</td>
<td>Ayvalık</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balıkesir Kaymaklıs</td>
<td>Center of Balikesir</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Candle Halva</td>
<td>Center of Balikesir</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carrot (Daucus carota)</td>
<td>Center of Balikesir</td>
<td>Agricultural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Güveç (Casserole)</td>
<td>Bigadiç</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheese</td>
<td>Burhaniye</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheese</td>
<td>Edremit</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheese</td>
<td>Havran</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheese</td>
<td>İvrindi</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Cheese - Manyas Kelle</td>
<td>Manyas</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chestnut</td>
<td>Bigadiç</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Chestnut</td>
<td>Korucu</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buffalo Cream</td>
<td>Yakup and Balıklı villages</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Lokma</td>
<td>Center of Balikesir, Edremit</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Grape - Kozak</td>
<td>Madra Mount</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gügü Amethyst</td>
<td>Dursunbey - Gügü Village</td>
<td>Natural Mining</td>
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<td>Haircloth</td>
<td>Center of Balikesir</td>
<td>Handcraft</td>
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<tr>
<td>Halva</td>
<td>Bigadiç</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Halva, Tahini</td>
<td>Edremit</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hasanbey Melon</td>
<td>Center of Balikesir And Gönen</td>
<td>Agricultural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kidney Bean (Vigna sinensis)</td>
<td>Whole Balikesir</td>
<td>Agricultural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kumru (Sandwich)</td>
<td>Center of Balikesir</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lily Cologne</td>
<td></td>
<td>Refreshment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mackerel Souse</td>
<td>Marmara Island</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okra (Abelmoschus esculentus)</td>
<td>Center of Balikesir</td>
<td>Agricultural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olive - Black Pickled</td>
<td>Ayvalık, Burhaniye, Edremit,</td>
<td>Agricultural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olive - Green Pickled</td>
<td>Ayvalık, Burhaniye, Edremit,</td>
<td>Agricultural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roasted Chickpea</td>
<td>Havran</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tirit (Sippet)</td>
<td>Center of Balikesir</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yoghurt</td>
<td>Havran, Manyas, Gönen</td>
<td>Foodstuff</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Balıkesir cuisine is influenced by the Mediterranean, Central Anatolia, Black Sea, and Balkan cuisines. Vegetable dishes with olive oil are common in Edremit. Cowpea dishes are the foremost olive oil dishes. Cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata*, *Vigna sinensis*) legume present under the Mediterranean climatic conditions is well-known in Balıkesir (Baytop, 1977). “Börülce sallaması”, a kind of salad-like food made with cowpea, is one of the famous cowpea dishes.

Meat dishes are common in the province where animal husbandry activities are important. A wedding dish made with mutton, “tirit”, is well-known. “Bigadiç güveç”, cooked with goat or lamb meat in special pots, is also famous.

Toasts and its likes emerged due to domestic tourism activities, and they are considerably younger. “Ayvalık toast” and “Susurluk toast” are well-known. Ayvalık toast is made with thick toast bread and fulfilling ingredients. The most important ingredient of Susurluk toast is Mihaliç cheese, which is actually Manyas cheese.
Yogurt and ayran are also traditional dairy products in Balıkesir. Yogurt is generally made with goat milk. Havran yogurts are an example. Susurluk ayran is based on yogurt made with milk from cows and sheep. These animals graze on natural pastures of the region. Very fizzy and delicious ayran made from yogurt without any preservatives is well known as “Susurluk Ayran.”

“Balıkesir Kaymaklısı”, a very famous dessert of Balıkesir, hinges on kaymak. It is made like ekmek kataifi. The best kaymak is made from buffalo milk. Buffalo farming is very common in Balıkesir province. Yearbooks state that there were 7403 buffalos in 1903. And, they were mostly in the central and northern districts (Mutaf, 1995).

Now, their number is around 1900. Kaymak in delicious “Balıkesir Kaymaklısı” is authentic and made from buffalo milk. Yakupköy and Balıklı villages are the main areas where buffalo kaymak is made in zones with water. They are still governed by the center and are located on a plain. Balıkesir Kaymağı is placed on tinned plates with lids. It is rolled up and two-finger thick. It is very unique in Turkey in terms of its taste and beauty.

3.3. Handcrafts

Balıkesir is the genuine source of some products (handicrafts) that have survived throughout the ages. The most well-known one is “Yağcıbedir Rug” (Öztürk, 1992). This product was awarded a Geographical Indication (No. 017) by Turkish Patent Institute on 21.06.1996. These hand-made rugs were first made by Yağcıbedir yoruks living in Sındırgı and Bigadiç. They are artworks woven with wool naturally dyed to various colors by men using special methods. They are famous for their dark-blue, red, white colors, and patterns (Türkay, 1979).
Another handicraft is “Gönen Needle Embroidery” (Demircan, 2009). Its production is now an important economic activity in Gönen with a “Needle Embroidery Market” in Gönen. It is mostly produced by housewives. Various needle laces are embroidered with pleasant motifs and are widely used. Gönen is a district where people who migrated from the lost Ottoman territories are settled. These people came from the Balkans and Caucasus from the second half of the 19th century. Therefore, it is possible to say that this art was brought to Gönen by “muhacirs” and related to the Balkan culture. There are still a number of villages in Gönen where needle embroidery are produced (Küpeli, 2000). They are commercially lucrative products. Thus, its fame gradually spread, going beyond the borders of the city and the country.

3.4. Natural Objects

The Geographical Indication registration list of Turkish Patent Institute includes natural objects such as Afyon Marble, Denizli Travertine, Eskişehir Sepiolite, and Mardin stone. They are geological formations. Their formation depends on the geological conditions of a certain area, and they are used for various purposes. They stand out thanks to their superior features compared to others. For instance, marble is extracted in many parts of Turkey. However, marble of the Marmara Island and Afyon is the most sought-after one.
Amethyst minerals in the Güği village of the Dursunbey district in Balıkesir and the Marmara Island marble are well-known natural objects. SiO₂, an amethyst mineral in the quartz group, is a pleasant-looking violet-colored, crystal-structured, and transparent mineral. It is mostly used as a semi-precious ornament (Okay, 1967). It is found in the hydrothermal veins of magmatic rocks.

The amethyst mine in the Güği Village of Balıkesir (andesite, dacite, and basalt) was formed due to the rocks. It is called “Güğü Stone.” There is a vast amount of it, and the quality is good. It is economically operable (Hatipoğlu, 2002; Tufan, 2002).

There are worldwide important and good marble deposits on the Marmara Island run since the Roman period (Efe et al., 2008). The Saraylar village is the area where marble is extracted. Marble coming in blocks is exported or sold domestically. Marmara marble has a grey and white bluish color, striped and sometimes stained structured, big crystals with granoblastic mosaic textures (0.3-1.5 mm). The whiter the marble, the more valuable it is (Erguvanlı, 1971). Marmara marble is durable and was used in many structures in Istanbul. Marmara marble amounts to 25-30% of the total amount of marble produced in Turkey.

4. Conclusion and Suggestions

In recent years, people have shifted to the consumption of fabrication and monotype products abandoning the use of products that are local and made in accordance with customs and traditions. However, these products also started to lose their features, which, in turn, led to difficulty telling the difference between the genuine and phony ones. Therefore, the necessity to award geographical indications to products arose to protect regional originality. Turkish Patent Institute is responsible for this. It is known that this institute has already registered 178 products from different parts of Turkey and awarded them geographical indications. These products include food, items, equipment, and natural objects. There are 204 regional products pending.

Balıkesir is diverse in terms of its physical and human geographical conditions. The north, west, and central part of the city are different from each other in terms of
climatic conditions. This affected the vegetation, soil types, and the variety of water resources. Physical geography led to diverse agricultural products. For this reason, Balıkesir is immensely rich in terms of food and beverage culture, traditional equipment and items, and natural objects (Table 1). However, the number of the registered products is only three, two olive oils and one hand-made rug. Those waiting to be awarded the indication include seven regional products such as Balıkesir Höşmerimi, Edremit Scratched Green Olive, Manyas Cheese, Gönen Baldo Rice, and Gönen Needle Embroidery. Balıkesir Kaymaklısı, Balıkesir Cowpea, Balıkesir Tirit, Bigadiç Güveç, Edremit Tıflı Pasha Halva, and Gügü Amethyst can also be also be added. These products will also have a positive effect on the tourism activities of the region (Soykan et al., 2008b, 2012).

Some regional products of the city face disappearance. Balıkesir Felt is one of them. “Salt chub mackerel” is another one. For these reasons, the city culture needs comprehensive research into gastronomy, handicrafts, traditions and customs, and ethnography. If these values are demonstrated, economic activities depending on domestic tourism will be revived. Values will be preserved, and local population will have new income opportunities.

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May, 2008.


Chapter 22

State of Sericulture Production in Recent Years in Turkey

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1. INTRODUCTION

Since the previous ages, the fact that the beautiful appearance of the silk obtained from the silkworms, which is derived from the softness and brightness of the silk, was considered as a symbol of nobility and elegance, and the human appearance has attracted the attention of the humankind and made it possible for them to benefit from this fabric at every opportunity. Societies’ habit to use silk helped to develop the textile industry and eventually this development contributed to the economy. The carpets, scarves, shags and various kinds of clothes warranted the trade in this business area as the important products of the silk weaving industry and it was instrumental in the formation of the world famous Silk Road starting from China to Europe through Anatolia and the Mediterranean. The transport of the Orient’s silk to the west with the caravans also made it possible for the cultural values to be recognized by the West and the development of trade routes reaching to Europe from China. Thanks to the silk and some other commercial products transported, the settlement units along the Silk Road route gained economic vitality. The silk products used in home textiles and clothing industry expanded their economic importance by gaining access into the furniture and bedding industry in the following periods. Silk and its products are useful for human health because they prevent the formation of bacteria, mold and fungus as well as the fact that it does not contain chemical materials. Besides, the fact that silk and its products have a composition which is suitable for both hot and cold severe climatic conditions has made it the main choice for its use. The fact that the high moisture absorption ability of silk without creating the moist feeling, which also enables the silk to be effective in generating air circulation, has made it a major factor in its use in clothing products (Yurtoğlu 2017).

Silkworm whose motherland is China spread to all over the world from its motherland was brought for the first time to Anatolia between the years 552-560 B.C. during the Byzantine Empire. Sericulture was originally located in and around Istanbul, İzmit, Gemlik, İznik, Bursa and Şarköy and spread over time to the Mediterranean region. In 1432 silkworm seeds were taken from Istanbul to Italy and in 1495 to France (Karaesmen, 1950). Sericulture was introduced to the Ottoman Empire in 1840s; it is known that the silk cocoons produced in the country during this period were popular in the European markets. The lack of silk-spinning factories in the country, the inability to obtain high yields from silk spanned from silk cocoons with primitive tools prevented the silk obtained to be similarly popular in Europe. In 1844, in the newly opened silk-spinning factory, this occupation of sericulture started to spread in the empire thanks to
the masters who learned the art of silk spinning from the masters brought from France. With the support of the Ottoman governments, these trebuchet silk spinning factories, which increased in number in Bursa, began to spin silk more smoothly over time (Shaw & Shaw, 1994). It is mentioned that in the documents of the 15th and 16th centuries, the information about the sericulture and silk business was found in Bursa, Bilecik, Eskişehir (Sultanönü Sancak), Alaşehir, Alanya (Alaiye), Diyarbakır and Tokat (Özgür, 1996). Currently today, in some parts of these places mentioned above, sericulture business activities still continue.

Due to its economic gains, the popularity of sericulture business in many countries of the world including the Ottoman Empire, made silkworm production attractive, and sericulturists, who aimed to generate more income, tried to grow abundant crops in narrow spaces, which eventually led to the emergence of nosemosis bombycis disease in France in 1856. The disease expanded its domain of effect; it was first seen in Italy and then in the Ottoman Empire in 1860 with the purchase of silkworm seeds. Silk cocoon production suddenly fell in the Empire because of this disease. A Silkworm Institute named Harir Darü’t Talimi was opened in Bursa on April 14, 1888, in order to raise the awareness in producing disease-free seeds and educate people in this silkworm production (Yetmen 1944).

The existence of 161 silk yarn factories operating mostly in Bursa and Bilecik as well as in Gemlik, Geyve, Adapazarı, İzmit, Mudanya and Bandırma at the beginning of the 20th century is an indication that sericulture is an important economic activity (Özgür, 1996).

According to the official records of the Duyun-u Umumiye (Ottoman Public Debt Administration) in 1905, the moist silk cocoon production reached the highest level with 18 million 338 thousand kilograms, but the increasing silk cocoon competition in the world led to a decrease in production of silk cocoon crops. However, it is officially known that 9 million kilograms of silk cocoons were exported from the Ottoman Empire territory before World War I (1914-1918). The fact that the silkworm growing regions in Turkey during the period of the War of Independence (Marmara and Aegean Regions) were under military occupation and the destruction of mulberry groves led cocoon production efficiency to decrease as low as 300 thousand kilograms. The occupation of Istanbul by the Entente States and Bursa by the Greeks, which were the main silkworm seed centers of Anatolia, adversely affected silk production in other regions of the country as well. Therefore, in order to encourage the importation of silkworm to be carried out illegally from Istanbul and Bursa regions, it was specified by the Decree 1455 dated 8 March 1922 that silkworm imports would be exempted from all kinds of customs duties (Müderisoğlu 1990).

1.1. Historical Development of Sericulture in Turkey

With the measures taken in the early period of the Republic and by the new silkworm factories established, silk production in Turkey increased, but the expected level of development was not been achieved. The 1930 World Economic Crisis and silk cocoon market in the world affected Turkey as well; moist cocoon prices continued to decline as stability could not be achieved. The mulberry disease which became epidemic in those years also cut off the silkworm production (Üstündağ, 2010). The first cooperatives were established in Bursa, Bilecik and Adapazarı in 1940 in order to protect and increase the silk cocoon production. These cooperatives were united in 1940.
and Bursa Silk Cocoon Agricultural Sales Cooperative Association (KOZABIRLIK) was established. Koza (Silk Cocoon) union, founded in the silkworm production sector with the law numbered 3186 and comprising 3254 producer partners under the Ministry of Industry and Trade based in Bursa is the only organization that organizes all phases of silkworm production from cocoon eggs to the silk itself. This Union is comprised within its body of the Bursa, Bilecik, Mihalgazi, Adapazarı and Alanya Koza (Cocoon) Agricultural Sales Cooperatives (Üstündağ, 2010).

The first years of the Republic was an important turning point in terms of production and consumption of sericulture in Turkey. During this period, especially in Marmara Region, Aegean, Mediterranean and Southeastern Anatolia regions, silkworm cultivation was predominantly carried out. In some regions of the country, mulberry tree saplings were given away to the public free of charge in order to increase the sericulture activity. As the number of mulberry saplings increased and the production of silk cocoon also increased, the production of silk cocoons increased from 936 tons in 1923 to 1 million 905 thousand tons in 1929 (Yurtoğlu 2017).

There was a revival around the country in the production of silk coats between 1935 and 1943, but this did not last long. Due to the fact that the price of artificial silk, which is called "floss silk", is lower and more durable than natural silk made it impossible for the natural silk to compete with the artificial one. Therefore, sericulture in the world began to decline After the World War II as well as in Turkey again (Taşlıgil, 1997) and natural silk-based industry started to lose its importance (Aktar, 1989). The decrease in prices due to the lack of price stability in the markets, attempts to revive the sericulture industry, which entered into the process of depression due to the regression caused by the World War II and competition of chemical fibers resumed with attempts to produce polyhydric seeds. During this period, thanks to the revitalized art of modern weaving, silk cocoons and silk products in Turkey began to be used and processed in the country. While there were 35 silk weaving looms in Bursa in 1925, this number increased to 950 in Bursa and Istanbul together in 1927. Thus, after the silk cocoons were converted into silk, they were used as a fabric and the dyeing, finishing, charging and printing arts were introduced to the country.

In 1933, the production of moist cocoons was 1,889 tons and in 1943 it reached 3,389 tons. Moist cocoon production in Turkey was made the most in this period. In 1933, while the number of families engaged in sericulture increased from 33,640 to 45,628, in 1949 the number increased to 79,268; the number of opened seed boxes was 80,009 with 27,077 tons increase; the existing 1,889 tons production of the moist cocoon reached 3,330 tons with an increase of 1,441 tons. Thus, while the number of families engaged in sericulture was 135%; between 1933 and 1949, an increase of 53% in the number of opened seed boxes and 76% in the production of moist cocoons was recorded.

However, due to the depression experienced in sericulture in 1950, the number of families operating in sericulture business, the number of opened boxes and a significant decrease in moist cocoon production were experienced. While the number of families living on sericulture in 1949 was 79,687, it fell to 69,349 in 1950; the existing 80,009 opened boxes dropped to 62,927 boxes; the moist cocoon production, which was 3,330 tons, decreased to 2,501 tons. Consequently, within one year, the number of families engaged in sericulture decreased by 14%, the number of opened boxes by 27%, and the moist cocoon production by 33%. These figures were important as they were the
indicators of the extent of the sericulture depression (Yurtoğlu, 2017). Moreover, this depression also corresponded to the period when the competition between artificial fibers and silk and its effect began to appear in Turkey (Figure 1).

![Figure 1: The opened boxes and moist production as of periods in Turkey (TSI: 1933-2016)](image)

The production of moist cocoons of 1250-1750 tons until 1979 reached 2000-2200 tons due to vacuum stemming from the political turmoil in the world. The production of moist cocoon, which was 2171 tons in 1990, dropped to 782 tons (a 64% decline) in 1992. The number of households engaged in sericulture that did not go below 35,000 in any period in the 1970-1990 period decreased to 17707 in 1992 (Özgür, 1996).

Lagging behind the development of other economic sectors such as tourism, agriculture and industrialization, the sericulture business came to the point of disappearance from 1992 to 2016. Besides, the fact that many of the traditional handicrafts started to disappear also caused the decline of the sericulture industry. The production, which was 782 tons in 1992, declined to 271 tons in 1995 and to 60 tons in 2000. With the support given at the beginning of the year 2000, production increased to 157 tons in 2005, and the production decreased again to 126 tons in 2010 and to 103 tons in 2016.

1.2. Natural Environment Characteristics

Silkworm is a creature sensitive to the temperature and humidity conditions in its natural habitat. In order to be able to fully accomplish its physiological activities, it must have a temperature of 20-28 °C during the development periods (April-June) and a relative humidity of 70-80%. Looking at these values, it is possible to conclude that it is difficult to carry out this business activity in many parts of Eastern Anatolia and Southeastern Anatolia. The leaf quality of mulberry trees, which is the only food source of silkworms in the basin base and large plateau areas, especially in the southern part of the Southeastern Anatolia region, where temperatures suddenly rise and the relative
humidity decreases by 50% (Özgür, 1996). Even though silkworm breeding in recent years is carried out in the 29 provinces in Turkey, 80% of the total moist cocoon production is implemented in the provinces of Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir, Bursa, Diyarbakır, Eskişehir, Hatay, İzmir, Muğla and Sakarya.

Many families that are engaged in sericulture in Turkey try to make their living by breeding 4-5 boxes of silkworms per year. In silkworm breeding, after a very short production period of 35-40 days, a moist cocoon of 26-30 kg per box can be obtained. Silkworm breeding can be implemented everywhere where mulberry leaf is available and it is a great advantage that a large part of Turkey has a proper climate for mulberry cultivation. However, there are massive deaths due to pest control in areas where urbanization is intensive and in areas of extensively agriculture.

In mid-climate regions where the mulberry trees are grown for their fruits and leaves, they are used in sericulture cultivation. In practice, the climate and soil conditions in which grape leaves and figs can be grown are also suitable for mulberry. Regarding Turkey's total production of 75 thousand tons of mulberry fruit production, the very first region in question is the Upper Euphrates. This area meets 31% of total production in Turkey. Apart from this concentrated region, from the Iğdır Karasu grooves in the north of Erzurum-Kars region extending to the groove of Artvin provinces obtained 10% of the total production of mulberry fruit in Turkey. Another region (20%) where the mulberry fruit production is carried out along the Black Sea coastline stretches from the Adapazarı plain to Artvin. In the Upper Sakarya portion of the Central Anatolia region around Nallihan, Beypazarı, Güdül extending between Sündiken and Kapıorman mountains, 8% of Turkey’s mulberry production is obtained (Figure 2-3).

Even though mulberry trees are grown in almost every region in Turkey, the regions where they are grown are mostly in the Upper Euphrates section, Black Sea coast, the Sakarya basin and the Southern Marmara section. In 2016, the Kulp district located in the Southeastern Taurus part of the Upper Euphrates, with the total number of 422,360 trees, this region ranks first in Turkey. The districts of Arapkir (48050), Central Elazığ (49390), Baskil (24054), Çermik (36500), Keban (22200) and Battalgazi (21075) are in the first place in terms of number of trees. However, in other district except the district of Kulp, sericulture cultivation is no longer implemented. From 1991 to 2016 there was a decrease, though not significantly, in the number of mulberry trees. The areas where there was a decline was especially were the Lower Sakarya valley, the Southern Marmara Section (Bursa and its surroundings) and Alanya-Gazipaşa and its surroundings where the silkworm breeding was abandoned (Figure 4 and 5).
Figure 2: Mulberry production and the number of Mulberry Tree in Turkey (1991-2017)

Figure 3: Distribution of Mulberry Production in Turkey (1995-2014) (Durmuş & Yiğit, 2014).

Since the silkworms are fed with mulberry leaves, sericulture and cocoon breeding predominantly depend on the presence of mulberry trees in Turkey. However, when we look at the distribution of Mulberry fruit production, we clearly see that silkworm breeding is not implemented in areas where its production is intensive. Therefore, in order to be able to carry out silkworm breeding in a region, it is necessary to have the climatic conditions under which the mulberry tree can grow. Even though the mulberry tree can stand up to -15°C in the winter months, the temperature must be between 13-38°C for the buds to wake up and bear fruit. If the annual amount of rainfall in the
mulberry field is over 600 mm, it makes it easier to grow mulberry trees (Institute of Sericulture Research, 2001).

Figure 4: Distribution of Mulberry Trees in Turkey (1991).

Figure 5: Distribution of Mulberry Trees in Turkey (2016).
1.3. Human Environmental Characteristics

The only food of the silkworms is the mulberry tree leaves, and for a box of silkworms, approximately 500 kilograms of mulberry leaves are needed. The mulberry garden to be selected for the silkworm breeding activity should be away from the area where the agricultural products are disinfected, industrial facilities and access roads and the leaves should not be close to the dusting. Moreover, places without irrigation and poor arable land are not suitable areas for the sericulture activity. The most suitable areas in terms of sericulture are the “Closed mulberry gardens” where leaf harvesting and maintenance of mulberry trees are made easily.

It is very important that the environmental conditions for the care of the silkworm are appropriately clean. Before the seed is purchased, both the place where dehiscence (hatching) is to be implemented and the cocoonery where feeding and maintenance are to be carried out and the materials to be used for feeding should be repaired, cleaned and disinfected with formaldehyde at 25 °C. In order to protect the silkworms from the most important harmful creatures such as birds, mice and ants, the environment is prepared for the feeding of the silkworms after the clefts and cracks in doors, windows and walls have all been repaired. In recent years, Kozabirlik (Bursa Silk Cocoon Agricultural Sales Cooperative Association) has been helping to disinfect the cocoonery sites used by producers in order to help and support the producers and increase cocoon production (Başkaya, 2013).

2. DISTRIBUTION OF SERICULTURE ACTIVITIES IN TURKEY

When we examine the 25-year period from 1991-2016 in Turkey, the decline in all livestock industry except the beekeeping is most evident in the sericulture and silkworm economy. In 1991, the sericulture breeding activities available in 78 districts, 1635 villages and 29,689 households decreased by 38% in the number of villages and by 40% in the number of households in the following year. Within the period of the last 25 years, the number of villages dealing with silkworm breeding decreased by 65% and the number of households by 93%. Despite the annual fluctuations from the Republican period to the present day, the decline after 1990 is even much sharper.

The production of moist cocoons, which was 2171 tons in 1990, decreased to 90% in the short period of five years until 1995 and decreased to 271 tons. Raw silk production also decreased to as low as 50 tons due to the decrease in cocoon production. In fact, the industrialization in the Marmara region where the silkworm breeding was the most intensive and the housing brought by this industrialization as well as the insensible and excessive use of agricultural pesticides (the toxins left on the mulberry leaves) and the terrorist acts in the Southeastern Anatolia region also negatively affected the silkworm breeding in this period. Furthermore, the low price of silk cocoons led to a decline in sericulture by removing mulberry trees from the mulberry gardens, as producers switched to the production of other fruits and vegetables, which were more profitable in agricultural activities. By the year 2000, the production of silk cocoon declined to 60 tons and the production of raw silk to 10 tons. After the year 2000, the efforts to prevent the disappearance of silkworm breeding were successfully concluded due to the increase of the state support in silkworm production. In connection to this effort, silk cocoon production in 2005 increased to 157 tons and raw silk production to 27 tons (Figure 6).

The fact that cocoon production decreased to 126 tons and raw silk production
decreased to 22 tons in 2010 indicated that this increase did not persist much and production tended to fall again. Between 1991 and 2016, there was a very serious decline of 92% in the production of silk. Furthermore, in the production of moist silk, only in 1991-1992, a period of one year, there was a decrease of 42%, a decrease of 45% in the number of opened boxes and a decrease of 40% in the number of households operating in the sericulture business. The production of moist cocoons which was 1353 tons in 1991 became 782 tons in 1992, decreasing even further in 1995 to 271 tons and the period of minimum production was 2001 (47 tons). After this period, even though silkworm breeding continued to be carried out by the farmers as side income through the efforts of the state and support of Kozabirlik, it lost its former significance. Nevertheless, thanks to the support given, the increase in production in 2005 (157 tons), which was about 120-130 tons, reached its lowest level in 2014 (80 tons) (Figure 6).

![Figure 6: The number of Boxes Opened and cocoon production by years in Turkey (TSI (TÜİK), 1991-2016)](image)

The changing economic activities and decrease in the traditional silk handicrafts are the most important factors in this decline. When we evaluate silkworm breeding in the scale of regions, there are very severe decreases in other regions except the Southeastern Taurus region.

Silkworm breeding in the Marmara Region has always been an important business activity. Region has very little value in terms of elevation in Turkey. The settlements carrying out this breeding activity usually have elevation values below 1000 m. The same region also corresponds to the place where this activity has had the most obvious decline. The city where the silkworm breeding has most declined in the region is the province of Bursa. The production of moist cocoon, which was 711 tons in 1982, decreased to 166 tons in 1992. In the case of Bursa, the decline in the period of only 10 years was 77%. Bursa has been an important city where silkworm seeds and silk cocoons have been produced for centuries, where silk commerce has been carried out, and where silk fabric and velvet, which are important amongst the traditional Turkish handicrafts, are woven and where, at the same time, the silk products have been
exported to Europe. This decline was more evident in the 1990s. Excessive rise in silk cocoon prices caused a switch in the industry to the synthetic fabrics (Özgür 1996).

Figure 7: The Distribution of Moist Cocoon Production in Turkey (1991)

Figure 8: The Distribution of Moist Cocoon Production in Turkey (2016)

Decrease in the export of silk carpets, which is one of the most important areas where silk is used; high competitiveness of China due to the height production and low cost which increased its share of world production 70% after 1990 (75% in 1992, 79% in 1994); besides, the rapid development of industry in Bursa and the migration of those interested in silkworm breeding in the rural villages into cities have led to the rapid collapse of sericulture in Bursa.

However, as a result of the climate characteristics of the region, the trend towards
higher revenue generating agricultural products pushed back the silkworm breeding. The situation is the same in other parts of the region. Despite the decrease in production between 1992 and 2003, Bilecik province ranks first in sericulture activities in Turkey. The silk production, which was 350 tons in 1991, decreased to 43 tons in 2003. The decline between the years 1991 and 2016 was 88% in the province of Bilecik. Other places dealing with silkworm breeding in the region which are the provinces of Balıkesir, Kocaeli and Sakarya, reflect the general tendency both in the country and in the region (Figure 7-8).

Despite the decrease in moist cocoon production until the 1991-2006, the Marmara region has always been in the first place in silk production in Turkey. In 1991, in 1026 villages and in 19231 households in the region, silkworm breeding was implemented. The number of boxes opened was 35649, while silk production was 956 tons. This period corresponded to the 71% of in Turkey’s total production. When the period of 25 years in the region is examined, it is easily evidenced that the number of villages has decreased by 90%, the number of households by 99%, the number of opened box and moist cocoon production had decreased by 98%. The first severe decline in the region was observed in 1992. There was a decrease of 364 tons compared to the previous year. The second decline period was in 1997, the production of moist cocoon in the region fell below 100 tons (89 tons). The third period of decline in the region was in 2000 (27 tons). This is the period when the silkworm also came to a halt in Turkey. After this period, despite the start of the incentive period to continue the silkworm breeding activities in the country, an increase was observed in 2005 (67 tons) but the activity identified with the region was now in danger of extinction (Figure 9-10).

![Figure 9: Moist Cocoon Production in Turkey by region (1991)]
Silk production, which was 15 tons in 2016, indicates the danger of extinction of the silkworm breeding in the region (Figure 11). In 1991 silk production was carried out in 78 districts over 1 tons in Turkey. 58 of these settlements were located in the Marmara region. Söğüt, with the highest moist silk production, ranked as the first district with the production of 187 tons in the region. Even though it ranked in the first place in the following year, the production amount dropped to 70 tons.

Mustafakemalpaşa, which was in second place in production on district-basis, decreased to 26 tons from 92 tones, Geyve from 49 tons to 60 tones and province of
Central Bilecik from 45 tons to 30 tons. This sudden decline in these districts also reflects the general situation of the country. In 2016 the number of districts producing over 0.5-1 tons in Turkey was 21. Seven of these are located in the region. Moist cocoon production was as follows in the districts in question: İnhisar (5 tons), Akyazı (3 tons), Mustafakemalpaşa, Söğüt, Büyükorhan, Geyve and Karapürçek (1 ton) (Figures 7-8).

Especially in Central Anatolia region, the provinces of Ankara and Eskişehir corresponding to the Upper Sakarya section, met 12% of Turkey’s production. In 1991, sericulture activities were carried out in 117 villages and at 2830 households in the district. The number of boxes opened is 5807 and 158 in silk production. The number of boxes opened was 5807 and silk production was 158 tons. It followed the Marmara region until 1995; it ranked 3rd in the period between 1996 and 2004, and has receded to 4th place between the years 2004-2016 in the region. Even though silk production was tried in the Nevşehir, Konya, Sivas and Kayseri provinces in some years, it was not successful. The provinces of Nallıhan, Mihalıççık and Sarıcakaya, which are located in the Upper Sakarya valley in the region, are intensive silk production areas. When we examine the 25-year period, the first the sudden drop corresponded to the year 1992 as it was the case in Turkey at large. The district of Sarıcakaya, which had the largest cocoon production (77 tons) in 1991, production dropped to 30 tons in 1992, 3 tons in 1995 and 1.5 tons in 2016. The district of Nallıhan which ranked second produced 50 tons of silk in 1991, 23 tons in 1992, 16 tons in 1995 and 8 tons in 2016. Despite the general decline in the region, Nallıhan is still the most important district where silkworm breeding is actively implemented. In Mihalıççık, since the economy of district moved to different areas, silk production has gradually declined (25 tons in 1991, 5 tons in 1995, 0.9 ton in 2016).

There was a decrease of 76 tons compared to the previous year. The second severe decline corresponded to 1995 (25 tons). 2001 was the period when the silkworm breeding reached the extinction point (7 tons) within the region. Until 2016, activity in the region was observed to be declining. Furthermore, there was a decline of 92% in cocoon production, 91% in the number of opened boxes, 78% in the number of households engaged in the trade and 45% in the number of villages (Figure 12).

The Mediterranean region has a great potential for sericulture in terms of climate and topographical conditions. It was identified that the region was an important breeding center of silkworms in the past, where the mulberry gardens were destroyed, lost their former importance due to economic reasons, and the households came to the point of giving up breeding business as it was a side source of income for them. Furthermore, it was found that the breeding was not implemented according to the proper conditions and technique, resulting in product losses and producing low quality silk cocoons. We can say that breeders did not recognize most of the silkworm diseases, have enough knowledge about the silkworm diseases and breeding, and sustained this means of existence only with the traditional methods.

While the region ranked third in terms of production in Turkey between 1991 and 1994, it ranked second between 1995 and 2003. Between 2004 and 2006, the region's production decreased to the 3rd place and by 2014 it was resettled to the 2nd place and that year, it ranked first with 24% production. It ranked in second place after the Southeast Taurus region until 2016 (Figure 12). The decline rate of the moist cocoon production of the region in the 1991-2016 period was 81%.
Figure 12: Sericulture Breeding in Central Anatolia Region by years (TÜİK 1991-2016)

The number of opened boxes decreased by 72%, the number of households sustaining the sericulture activity by 83%, and the number of villages decreased by years, but the number of villages which were 140 in 1991 decreased to 61 in 1994 and to 39 in 2001. The number of villages especially around Alanya and Gazipaşa, which is a tourism region, engaged in silkworm breeding in the region increased with the support given to traditional silk fabric and rose to 154 in 2012 and 81 in 2016 (Figure 13).

Generally, moist cocoon is produced in 10 districts in this region. Alanya is the province where moist cocoon is produced the most in the 25-year period. Production in the province was 35 tons in 1992, 26 in 1995 and 13 tons in 2016. Alanya is the second province in Turkey where moist cocoon was produced the most in 2016. In Gazipaşa, moist cocoon production was 16 tons in 1991, 12 in 1992, 5 in 1995 and 3 tons in 2016. Gündoğmuş, Samandağ and Yayladağı are the other districts where production, even if little, is made. In addition to this, since 2009 moist cocoon production has been carried out in an increasing amount in Köycegiz (In 2016, with 3.3 tons it was in the 5th place is in Turkey) (Figures 7-8).

The fact that the terrain is rugged in the region restricts agricultural lands where fruits and vegetables can be grown and increases the importance of silkworm production as an alternative source of income. Sericulture in Antalya as in other areas of Turkey began to decline. Even though the impact of many factors are involved in this decline, the fact that tourism activities became more prominent in the region after the 1980s led to shift of the population to tourism activities and decline of the population engaged in sericulture. Despite all these factors, Alanya and its surroundings will continue to be an important area where traditional cocoon production activities are implemented. A large part of the silk produced in the province of Antalya is sold as moist cocoon. Very few part of the silk in question is used in silk fabrics produced for touristic purposes in the Alanya province.
While sericulture, before 1991, was carried out intensely in the districts of Central Hatay, Samandağ, İskenderun, Dörtyol, Yayladağı, Hassa and Kırıkhan in the Hatay province, after 1991, silkworm breeding is now carried out only in the districts of İskenderun and Samandağ. In Hatay, in 1980, while 792 families in 32 villages engaged in silkworm breeding produced 308 tons of moist cocoon, in 1998 this amount decreased to as low as 1 ton (Şahinler & Şahinler 2002). Moist cocoon production, which was 5-13 tons between 1991 and 1995, varied between 0.8 and 1 ton in 1996-2004. In the period 2004-2006, moist cocoon production ranged from 2 to 5 tons and in 2008-2011 it decreased to 300-400 kilograms. The most important reason why the silkworm production in Hatay is still maintained, even if it has decreased, is the production of traditional silk fabric, especially silk mantilla (In Central Hatay 600 kg in 2016, Districts of Yayladağı 200 kg and Samandağ 46 kg).

Aegean region, as of 1991, meets the 5% of the total production in Turkey. During this period, 62 tons of silk was produced in 142 villages with 2256 boxes in 2386 households. The area where production was most concentrated in the region was Küçük Menderes runnel. 84% of the production in this region took place in Ödemiş (52 tons). However, people's tendency towards vegetable production and industrialization in Ödemiş led to decrease in moist cocoons production (760 kg was produced in 2016). Between 1997 and 2009, the activity was almost disappeared and the production of moist cocoon was between 0.2 and 4 tons. After 2002, breeding activity was promoted by distributing mulberry tree sampling and cocoon seeds. After 2006, moist cocoon started to be bred in Sultanhisar (1.2 tons in 2016) and Beydağ (1.3 tons in 2016) two districts located in the south of the Aydin Mountains (Figures 7-8). Since this region which corresponded to an important agricultural area in Turkey, the farmers’ switch to agricultural products with higher economic benefits (tobacco, figs, grapes, and olives), agricultural disinfection, the presence of industrial facilities and switch to organic farming in recent times has caused the farmers in the region to abandon these sericulture activities.

Between 2010 and 2014, 10-17 tons of production was observed in the region, but
in 2016 it began to decline again. Incentives given to the sericulture activity had a role to play in the increase of production. When the 25-year period in the region is examined, the number of cocoon production decreased by 92%, the number of opened box by 66% and the number of household by 90%, while the number of villages engaged in sericulture, due to occasional incentives, decreased from 142 in 1991 to 4-12 in 2003-2009. After 2014, it is not possible to see the increase in production despite the increase in the number of households and the number of boxes engaged in sericulture after the number of villages in the region started to increase (Figure 14).

In Eastern and Southeastern Anatolia regions, sericulture is implemented on the slopes in the districts of Kulp, Lice, Sason and Silvan facing the south of the Southeastern Taurus Mountains. The Southeastern Taurus corresponds to the mountainous block bordering between the two regions. While Batman and Diyarbakir's districts of Kulp, Lice and Sason administratively belong to Diyarbakir and Batman which are located in Southeastern Anatolia region, the aforementioned regions are geographically located in Eastern Anatolia region. Therefore, the Southeast Taurus was considered as territory instead of the region when an evaluation was made. It is because the sericulture are intensively implemented in this unit. These areas receive more rainfall (700-1200 mm) than the basin beds extending to the south. In 1991, there were 671 household engaged in sericulture activities in 61 villages. The number of boxes opened was 1634 and moist cocoon produced was 34 tons. Sericulture activities declined in the region between 1997 and 2002, and then started to increase again after 2003. In terms of national production with 24%, as of 2004, the region moved into second place after the Marmara region. This situation continued until 2006. Between the years 2007 and 2014, with the value changing between 32-40%, this regions was the area where sericulture activities were carried out the most in Turkey. The region ranked first with a value of 47% in 2016 (Figure 15).

Between 2004 and 2016, Diyarbakir (specifically the district of Kulp) was the
province where sericulture was carried out the most in Turkey. In 1991, silkworm breeding activities were carried out in 41 villages of Diyarbakır (37) and Batman (4) provinces (22 of these village were located in the Kulp district). The number of households engaged in sericulture the activity (492 in Diyarbakır and 42 in Batman) was 534. The number of boxes opened was 1454, the amount of moist cocoon produced (Diyarbakır 31 tons, Batman 1 ton) was 32 tons (the Kulp district ranked first with the production of 18 tons). With these figures, the region could only meet 2% of the national production. The production of moist cocoon in the region decreased to 1% in 1992. In 2000-2001, no production could be carried out due to the safety concerns in the region. In 2016, the Kulp district province ranked first in terms of national production with a production of 43 tons. Hazro district followed the Kulp district again with a production of about 2 tons. 46 tons of the 47 tons of production harvested in both regions were carried in the districts located on the mountainous parts of the Southeast Taurus (Figures 7-8).

Figure 15: Sericulture Breeding in Eastern and Southeastern Anatolia Regions by Years (TÜİK 1991-2016)

Elevation values and relevant temperature and humidity conditions in the Eastern Anatolia Region make it difficult to conduct these activities in many parts of the region. However, it is known that since the region itself differs within itself in terms of altitude-climatic conditions, this activity has been carried out in the provinces of Malatya, Elazığ and Tunceli, which correspond to the chain of depression. In 1991, sericulture activities were carried out in 12 villages of Elazığ, 6 of Malatya and 1 village each of Erzincan and Tunceli. The moist cocoon was produced in Central and Sivrice provinces of Elazığ with 1 ton. In 2016, only one village in Akçadağ was engaged in sericulture, but there was no moist cocoon production. When we look at the distribution of mulberry fruit, in this depression corresponding to the Upper Euphrates section, 31% of Turkey's total production was carried out. In this regard, the presence of mulberry trees only is not sufficient for silkworm breeding. This region corresponds to the area where Turkey's the average temperature is the lowest and elevation level is the highest. Due to
the fact that Malatya and the surrounding area in this region meet near 60% Turkey's apricot production, that there is concentrated mulberry fruit production in Elazığ and the surrounding area and preference of more revenue-generating products for the development of viticulture activities completely destroyed the sericulture activities that this region had a say in throughout the history. While Harput was an important center of sericulture in the last days of the Ottoman state, the relocation of the Armenians in 1915 and the fact that the Armenians who were engaged in these sericulture activities left the region eventually led to the abandonment of these intensive activities carried out especially in the lowland villages around the province of Elazığ. Until the 1990s, point lace was still an important traditional handicraft in Elazığ. This cultural element has also begun to be forgotten increasingly due to the decrease of the elderly population and the abandonment of this handicraft.

Although the production levels in the Kulp, Lice and Silvan districts, which were the centers of sericulture breeding, has been decreasing, silk fabrics such as handkerchiefs, beakers and point lace products are still produced today. The handicrafts and the silk obtained following sericulture activities in the Eastern and Southeastern Anatolia regions play a significant role in the development of cultural tourism. The motives that cause tourists to buy local authentic merchandise at the destination cause the cultural tourism to develop and the products in question help the sericulture activities to continue their existence even if these activities decrease. In this sense, the silk products in these regions are still produced in different styles in many places.

![Figure16: Sericulture Breeding in the Black Sea Region by Years (TÜİK 1991-2016)](image)

Although coastal part of the Black Sea region has suitable temperature and humidity conditions for the activities of sericulture breeding, the cultivation of agricultural products such as tea, hazelnut and tobacco, which have significant production value both in this country and in world, this traditional culture is not established in the region, and these products require a lot of labor force have caused sericulture to fail to develop. Even though the activities were tried the inner sections of the region in the provinces such as Amasya and Tokat, they were not successful.

When the 25-year is examined in the Black Sea Region, no production has been
observed as in other regions. Nevertheless, the number of villages engaged in the activity in the region and the number of boxes opened decreased by 81%, the number of households decreased by 87% and the number of age cocoon production decreased by 89%. The production of moist cocoon, which was 29 tons in 1991, was not realized in 2007. In the following periods, the productions varied between 3 and 7 tons. In 1991, moist cocoon production was carried out in Central Amasya (14 tons) and Bolu Göynük (11 tons). 1-2 tons of production was carried out in Taşova, Tirebolu and central Ordu. In this period, 650 households were engaged in sericulture activity in 149 villages in the region. In 2016, even though this activity was observed in 10 districts and 36 villages, the total production of the region was 3 tons. 2.6 tons of this production was carried out done in 17 villages in the Göynük district (Figure 16).

3. CONCLUSION

Sericulture with its 1,500 years of history in Turkey, as a secondary activity, among other agricultural activities, is an activity that is usually implemented on a small scale and does not require considerable investment. Sericulture breeding is an agricultural activity implemented in places away from the industrial areas, not suitable for agriculture, with fragmented terrain and mostly in mountainous areas. Silkworm breeding consists of raising mulberry seedlings, the only food source of silkworms, producing silkworm seeds, care and nourishment of silkworms, cocoon production and stages of reeling silk from cocoons, and a short production period of 35-40 days in total.

Silkworm breeding in Turkey, ensuring the rural development in terms of its contribution to employment and income, is an important agricultural activity in terms of its contribution to the economy and national income, protection of cultural heritage and genetic resources, and in this context, it is necessary to ensure the continuity of production.

However, even though Turkey is one of the suitable countries for the mulberry trees and silkworm breeding in terms of climate, since the 1990s, sericulture in the last 25 years, has experienced significant decline across the country due to low-price competition, the structural problems of the companies, changes in the social structure and interactions, the more revenue-generating agricultural products precluding the sericulture activities.

On the other hand, the fact that the moist cocoons and raw silk production in Turkey does not meet the demand, failure to produce quality products due to lack of modern silk-reeling facilities where cocoons produced domestically can be processed, and due to the high cocoons and silk production costs, Turkey relies heavily on foreign raw silk. Despite all of these drawbacks, sericulture is still an important economic activity for low-income producers in areas where agricultural areas are scarce, inefficient, sloping and difficult to access and where alternative sources of income are lacking. The silk carpet business, the locomotive of sericulture in Turkey, further increases the importance of moist of cocoon production given the high tourism potential and export of products.

It was found that that silkworm breeding, traditionally carried out over the years and with great potential in Turkey, has turned out to be a business in which the silk producers have encountered various problems, and sericulture gradually declined and eventually lost its in recent years. In parallel to this, it was revealed that mulberry gardens were destroyed, the silkworm breeding was not carried out under suitable
conditions since silk lost its economic importance with the declining number of breeders, and product losses experienced and degradation of the product quality.

Consequently, when the sericulture activities of the last 25 years between 1991 and 2016 in Turkey is examined, it is observed that production, though not on a regular basis, increased only in the Southeastern Taurus region. Severe decline in the Marmara region which occupies the central position in Turkey’s silkworm breeding and silk industry indicates that the silk industry has come to a halt in the country. The number of villages and families engaged in silkworm breeding in the region for years has decreased and the reasons for this decrease are the increase in the non-agricultural sectors, plantation of more revenue-generating agricultural products by uprooting the mulberry trees, and the increase in the artificial fiber production with the development of the industry, etc.

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Chapter 23

Rural Settlements in Japan as an Industrial Country

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INTRODUCTION

Japan is an example of modernization in a non-western country. The process which transformed the country of the peasants growing rice into an industrial giant was started in 1868 by a handful samurai who decided to establish a powerful and modern country. In a time less than fifty years, Japan performed the greatest economic miracle of the world. This country, which lived closed to exterior effects and strictly attached to its traditions for more than three hundred years, was born again from its ashes after the Second World War excitingly and also changed the economical geography of the world considerably. Today Japan is among the most developed countries worldwide, enjoying a place at or near the peak with respect to all indicators associated with welfare or success. Furthermore, it also plays important role in the rapid change and development in the Pacific region.

Japan is the primary country worldwide where industrialization and urbanization have adverse effects on the rural population and agricultural land. While urbanization attracts young population from the rural areas to the cities with negative effect on the work labour, the industrial facilities and housing invade the agricultural land. And the conventional difference between the rural population and the industrialized urban population diminished rapidly. Today each Japan farmer has a TV set, refrigerator and washing machine. In fact, there are primarily two factors which change life style in the rural. Firstly, the government supports the farmers and guarantees to purchase the crops at a price higher than minimum \( \frac{3}{4} \) times the world prices. Furthermore, although the government meets almost half of its food need by way of import, it limits import of agricultural products such as wheat, rice and sugar. On the other hand, despite of political pressures on reduction of the rice prices in the cities and import of food materials from Korea, Taiwan or China mainland, the agricultural revenues are under guaranteed by means of support purchases of the rice by the government.

And, secondly, the industrial facilities which seek cheap worker and land commercially invade the rural areas and increase the agricultural revenues. In 1980s, about 90\% of the Japanese men living in the farmers worked for these facilities on part-time basis, primarily in the assembly plants. Today more than half of the income of the farming families comes from non-agricultural activities. Fields which are mostly cultivated by the women and, on the weekends, by the men and the close family bonds which the statesmen show as the most important thing for preservation of Japanese culture and values are messengers of spatial changes in the villages.

Traditionally, a Japanese family had three children: one for sale of the crops (one girl), one for maintenance of the family (the first boy) and the other as reserve (second
boy). The people living in the villages were relatives to each other by way of marriage and they worked altogether to take care of and maintain irrigation and drainage systems. Maintenance of the proper harmony and order in the villages was considered as a need and task. However, invasion of the rural areas as well as population growth and modern education and training destroy these conventions. As early as the beginning of 1950s, greater part of the Japans living in the rural areas flowed to the cities in order to take advantage of job opportunities provided by the urban life and to have access to other facilities. This immigration still continues and ratio of the rural population in the total population increases every year.

**RURAL POPULATION IN JAPAN**

Today it is an indisputable fact that Japan is a robot kingdom, having a voice in the technological and economic fields worldwide. However, 80-90 years ago, the same Japan was country where 8 of each person lived in the rural and 6 of each 10 persons earned from agriculture and forestry (Özşen, 2011).

**Table 1: Rural Population and Its Ratio to the Total Population in Japan**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Rural Population (million)</th>
<th>Ratio to the Total Population (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>45.886</td>
<td>81.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925</td>
<td>46.840</td>
<td>78.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930</td>
<td>49.006</td>
<td>75.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>46.588</td>
<td>67.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>45.537</td>
<td>62.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1947</td>
<td>52.244</td>
<td>66.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>52.749</td>
<td>62.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>39.544</td>
<td>43.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>34.622</td>
<td>36.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>31.853</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>29.237</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>26.972</td>
<td>24.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>27.873</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>28.160</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>27.968</td>
<td>22.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>27.561</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>27.061</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>17.916</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>12.138</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>8.267</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>7.711</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^1 Except Okinawa population

Source: Japan National Institute of Population and Social Security Research.

In 1920, about 82% of the total population lived in the villages. However, the demand for labor increased as a result of the war industry which grew stronger during the First World War and immigration of the rural population has noticeably increased from the 1020s on in a great pace. While the agricultural production power has increased from the Meiji period on (in parallel with the technological developments), the population growth increased and balance of the society was destroyed in terms of
nutrition and employment. As a result, a noticeable problem started to occur in the overcrowded rural population, making it inevitable to immigrate to the cities. Just before the Second World War (in 1944), However, during the war, considerable reverse immigration occurred this time both due to destruction of the plants and halt of production in the cities; while ratio of the rural population was 623% in 1940, it reached to 66.9% in 1947 (Fukutake, 1964; Timor, 2004; Özşen, 2011).

It is a fact that versatile and radical changes occurred in Japan from early 20th century so far (although traces of the traditional social structure are still noticeable today). After the war, Japanese society has underwent a process of change historically unprecedented along 1950s both qualitatively and quantitatively, and started to experience great changes in the fields of social life and production. A clear indication of this transformation is the change in the number and ratio of the farmer household. In about 20 years after the Second World War, it became one of the biggest economic Powers worldwide and considered as a technological giant. This change, so-called Japanese Modernization affected both production size in the rural areas and social aspect as well. The Japanese rural areas have, especially during 1980s, started to transform into a semi-urban society. Obvious indication of this fact is change in the number and ratio of households of the farmers living in the villages. In 1955, there were about 150,000 villages in Japan dealing with agriculture. In this period, one village is approximately consisted of 52 households, 39 of which were farmers household and 13 households engaged with non-agricultural works. By 2000, villages reduced to 135,000 in number. And number of average households increased 4 times, i.e. 213 households. However, While 23 of these 213 households were farmers, the remaining 190 households engaged with non-agricultural works. In other words, it now has such a structure that only 10% of the villagers dealt with agricultural as means of livelihood (Özşen, 2011).All these developments also led to reduction of the rural population and its ratio to the total population in the country. From 2010 on, the ratio of the rural population to the total population went below 10%. And this reduction has subsequently continued in a great pace as well. Today only 7.7 million of the national population, i.e. above 127 million, live in the rural areas; ratio of the rural population went down to 6% roughly.

**PRIMARY CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RURAL SETTLEMENTS IN JAPAN AND THE CHANGES OBSERVED**

Radical spatial arrangements were considerably made after the 1868 Meiji Revolution. In fact, the rural appearance basing on the rice agriculture has been dominant in the country for very long years and the striking element was the pedi fields. However, Jōri system, a forced application in 645, during the period called Taika Era), is accepted as one of the first arrangements. With this system, the cultivated fields of Japan, mostly consisted of pedi fields, were divided into land units in form of square so-called sato as separated from each other by means of paths, roads and irrigation channels. One edge of each sato was 6 çö (1çö=654.5 m) and it has total area of 36 çö (43 ha).And each cho was divided into sections, so-called tsubo, covering an area of 1.2 ha and each tsubo was divided into 10 smaller sections (tan). Each tan was in form of rectangular, sizing 109 X 10.9 m (Nagaçi type) or 54.5 X 21.8 m (Haori type).

Rural appearance basing on Jōrisystem is still apparent around the ancient capitals (with advanced agricultural technology and high productivity), along the shores of
Inland Sea and on the plains located at North of Kyushu. However, it discontinues at east of Kinki region. The southern border corresponds to the South border of the domain of Yamato Empire Palace, and the northern border to the border separating the living space of the Yamato people dealing with wet rice agriculture who had developed the settlements called Kiko from the Ainu people who are hunters-fishers.

Settlements which have originally developed in form of collective villages in general have gradually left their place to the discrete farms. There are many types of rural settlements in this country, depending on the regions and locations. For example, in Yamato Basin, considered as the “cradle of the Japanese civilization”, the original type of settlement in form of collective village, as adapted from China, covers a wide span of area, including part of the plains of Kyoto, Biwa and Osaka and a limited area of Kobe. The villages are consisted of minimum 20 and maximum 80 households, but mostly 60 households. This typical collective village, locally called kaito, with excessively dense houses has a check-like pattern in rectangular surrounded by a fence and ditch. As kaitos are of a very dense structure, they give sort of an urban appearance. The long tradition in Japan according to which the inheritance is passed to the oldest son has been very effective in protecting existence of kaitos (means “inside the walls” in Japanese). Kaitos, below the contour line of 100 m, are counted as 225 in number, 90& of all village settlements in Yamato Basin (Hall 1931, 1934, 1959).

When looking at the village from outside, only the outmost walls are seen and when passing through the narrow streets in the village, only the closed and locked doors of the houses and the walls running uninterruptedly are seen. The ditch surrounding the villages has come with spread of Buddhism with a long travel from India; however, it has lost its primary function basing of a type of production in the course of time. The improved transportation and marketing facilities have reduced importance of fish production for domestic need as well as the value of the ditch. And development of irrigation possibilities to the greatest scales led to elimination of the ditch completely for a long time. Ditch is now completely invisible if you happen to come across its trace somewhere around the edge of the village. However, in the beginning, the ditch had restricted number of houses to be built inside.

When the oldest son, inheritor of the family, remains within the Wall, the little brothers had to go beyond the Wall. And this occurred in two ways: Firstly, by developing new kaitos adjacent to the original kaito; and secondly, by forming de kaitos (meaning “outside part of the one inside the walls”) just beyond the Wall and along one of the roads coming from the village. De kaitos are located on high areas where rice was cultivated one century ago, but now covered by mulberry trees predominantly. And other de kaitos date back later times which have developed along a road passing through a settlement which is intersected by a railway or in-city line.

While the villages have developed in this way in this part of the country, collective villages had been created by feudal lords in Satsuma. In early times of the feudality, each lord had a castle and he had sovereign power on any decision for use. Satsuma is still mentioned as “land of 120 castles” in the legends and songs. In the development of the settlements in Satsuma, Osumi and the neighbouring Hyuga, that Satsuma having a subtropical climate, a hilly structure and located at the very centre of the big typhoon route was cut off from other parts of Japan by means of Kumakii mountains intersecting Kyushu running east to West, thus creating an insulated location played important role in the past.
Figure 1: A collective village from Yamato Basin (Nara Province).

These castles were destroyed after rise of the Shimazu family and conquest of Satsuma by the Shogun forces, leading to complete domination of Shimazu. On the former “sites”, walled village called fumoto were built and occupied by new people put into a social system in accordance with the purpose. New people were settled in these villages adapted to the social system. These were “go-samurai”, that is farmer-warriors” which were indebted to Shimazu for their existence and kept under control in the same way with other parts of Japan which were administered by Shogun. The castle has, of course, attracted the rural people to itself; and new fumoto did the same thing. Eventually, a series of cabins roughly in form of concentric rings were built around the fumotos located on the mountain slopes. Some fumotos were commercial communities called maći and they had settled in length of one-two kilometres along the stream in the same way with the German Strassendorf (Kodera & İwamoto, 1939), i.e. roadside type of settlement. Today very few fumoto preserved its original structure; now most of them are used for other purposes.

In another part of the country, in the Echigo plain, another type of rural settlements started to appear under the effect of the natural structure. In fact, the complex delta plains surrounding the Japan Sea, particularly the plains of Echigo, Takata and Schonai, have the same characteristics. The plain of Echigo is the largest delta plain, dry and
dominated by active dunes and here there is a type of housing and a certain type of property adapted to the local conditions. Floods are primary problem here. The biggest and richest land owners as well as the most serious agricultural problems of Japan appear hear. The general pattern of the settlement is in form of “shoe lace”. The roadside villages have developed most in this part of Japan.(Sato, 1930; Hall, 1931).This type of settlements often runs more than 1.5km uninterruptedly 90% of the collective settlements in Echigo Plain have developed either along the roadside or near to it. And most of them constitute the seed of the current cities or towns.

Figure 2: Roadside villages in Echigo Plain (Niigata Province)

And the type of settlement which adapted itself to the extensive cultivation and long winter season of Hokkaido and developed in the Tokachi Plain, a coast-delta plain, is called “Tokachi type”. However, this type is not homogenous. In this part where people settled by immigration from all around Japan, each new immigrant reflected his cultural material elements on the space. Although relatively large sables and discrete building appear as local characteristics compared to other regions, types of houses are very different to reflect a great number of effects. In addition, you may see in some rural parts of Japan even the effect of North America (especially in form of log houses).

The pattern of collective settlement in the rural parts of Japan is replaced by discrete settlements in the north of Hokkaido and mountainous and hilly inner parts of other islands. In the northern part of Hokkaido where people settled latest, the land is ample, farms bigger and separate from each other, running uninterruptedly instead small lots. Mountainous inner parts are not completely lack of agricultural villages; however,
single farms away from each other are much more prominent than the plain areas. Relationship between the rough land and discrete settlement is especially noticeable in the hilly region of Chugoku to the southwest of Honshu.

Figure 3: Rectangular-pattern road in Tokachi Plain, Hokkaido and diverse farms.

And, recently, there are discrete settlements on the lands reclaimed from the sea along the outer edges of the plateaus with relatively new agricultural activity (and settlement) and some inclined alluvial plains and deltas such as Hinokawa and Toyama on the side of Japan Sea. Discrete settlement in some parts of them is, of course, related to new economic activity. The discrete structure combines with the late settlement in the steep alluvial fans with frequent and severe floods, and the farms were set up relatively away from each other and on high lands (Tümertekin and Özgüç, 2017; Timor, 2004).

In Japan which has industrialized quickly, now entering into a postmodern era, these types of settlement we have outlined above undergo a rapid change. Additionally, it has been stated for long years that continuous reduction of rural population and decrease in the agricultural production together with it would even cause the rural to lose their function completely. And, as a result, many social policies have started to be formulated since 1980s with attempts to put them in practice through a variety of organizations. The most known of it is the action started in Oita Village under the slogan One Village, One Product Action (İsson İppin Undo). As the slogan shows, this action has aimed that each village should become prominent with product proper to it, thus contributing to the economic development. By 1990s, rural development projects have further changed dimension, become deeper and extensive. Especially by means of events such as City-Village Interaction Project (Toshi-Nouson Kouryuu) or Rural Tourism, efforts have been made to attract the urban population to the rural areas to create another economic means of income (Özşen, 2011). In fact, Japan is a country which took significant steps in the way of rural development through new tourism
policies. Interest in the rural life has increased from early 1990s and the Japanese government has encouraged *rural, farm and green tourism* including agriculture, forestry and fishery since 1992 (Çeken et al., 2007).

In the scope of the project mentioned above, one of the most popular activities in Japan is *Rice Terrace Ownership System*. In this system, the urban people lease a rice field no longer used in the village for a certain period and cultivate rice in the field, and pay a rent fee to the land owner. In theory, it would ensure production on the idle fields and interaction of the city and village dwellers and, most importantly, create an economic means of income for the villagers, resulting in the rural development. However, it is questionable how these actions have solved the rural problems. After a period of more than thirty years, there is no evident example indicating that such projects and activities have completely achieved their targets (Timor, 2004; Özşen, 2011).

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

As a result of the process of rapid economic development started in 1950s, the Japanese rural encountered with economic and social problems by 1970s. Today it is clear that the sustainability problem started to become chronic in social and economic terms. It is a fact that the increasing parts of the conceptual approaches and social policies for formulation of the future of the rural population and rural settlements do not comply with the current realities. In this context, a versatile and new perspective should be adopted for sustainability of the Japanese rural (from the demographic structure to the daily aspects of the rural life or from the daily relations with the cities to the determination of the social mobility). Furthermore, another points which determine (but mostly neglected) future of the rural is related to the economic structure. Investigation of non-agricultural means of income, without being restricted to the agriculture only, bears great important for discussion of the problem on a wider plane (Özşen, 2011).

It is observed that the projects or various activities put into practise in order that the Japanese rural do not lose their functions and production power have not given appropriate results completely. Looking at the nature of Rice Terrace Ownership System and what it means for sustainability of the villages actually shows this reality evidently. For this action, hardly 1% of cultivatable lands chosen as example and leader for development in Japan was used. Additionally, sustainability of daily life is the most important problem for the Japanese villages. The relevance of such development policies and activities with the people living in the villages and with their daily problems has not been observed concretely. For example, they have no contribution as a solution to the concrete and current problems such as care of the elders, shopping and transportation. Consequently, when considering the rural population and rural settlements in Japan, it is strongly felt that the projects and scientific studies on sustainability should be built on such a perspective on basis of this reality (Özşen, 2011).

The traditional pattern of life where the Japanese villagers use all their environments carefully and sparingly due to their incredibly plain life standards and limited land is not available any more. A villager used to express his life philosophy and order as “wake up early for rice, work to the late hours; cultivate as much as you need; avoid from luxuries of the city; bow and celebrate the Empire Place two times a day, attend the ceremonies in the temples regularly” (Chamberlain, 1936) now, like all
Japanese villagers, has access to many luxuries provided by the urban life (Stradford, 2000). And what’s more, they will presumably disappear in the following years because they will be combined with four or five neighbouring villages to make into a single and new settlement with higher population.

To conclude, Japan is a proper example to observe both formal and functional change in the rural parts. In fact, in recent times, both villages and farms have started to have urban appearance in functional way. And this situation causes some researchers to state that “today a pure farmer free of any urban element is almost extinct.”

NOTES

1 Japan is divided to 47 provinces called todufuken and these provinces are in turn divided to 627 gun. However, although guns continue to be social, economic and geographic units, they have lost their administrative functions since 1926. Local traditions go together with guns. The Japanese are proud of being a member of a certain gun. But the subsections of the province are mura, maçiandși since guns has ceased to administrative units. Mura is generally “village” and maçi is “town”. Air mura is consisted of small sets of houses called “buraku”. And maçi is a bigger set of settlement and may contain a number of buraku. Shi is used for urban settlement having a municipality and population above 25,000-30,000. Mura (unlike maçiandśli) is a rural administrative unit; and each mura has a common head, administrative office, school and Shinto temple. A separate, economic and geographic unit in mura, each buraku has its own head; habitants of buraku act in cooperation in connection with some actions such as funeral ceremonies, festivals, road and bridge construction and repair (Timor, 2004).

2 Actually the concept of village is defined by many words in Japanese and this sometimes cause confusion. For example, village is defined as Mura in administrative term; however, Shûrakuus preferred geographically and Sonraku is used from a sociologic, anthropologic and ethnology a whole of individual and organizational relations in a geographical space. And the word İnaka is preferred in daily life to mean homeland, location and occasionally underdevelopment in economic and systemic term. Although it is expressed that different terms are used for different aspects of village, this difference is in fact valid in the scientific world as well. Here we should emphasize that most Japanese, including Japanese bureaucracy could not understand or grasp difference of the concepts written above. However, the meaning of “our village” in the sentence of “that person is not from our village” for the individuals does not mostly correspond to the content and borders of a village as an administrative unit. And the real problem comes from it.

Today the most frequently used word for village is Mura. And, actually, this concept also has two separate meanings. The first is the term village which means an administrative unit defined by some criteria set by the government such as population density and geographical conditions, which is mostly used by most people. And the second is the term which is generally used by the scientific people in the field of social sciences to signify a social structure where the social life, social organizations and basic structure, property share, production relations and structure have formed naturally in the historical process and not bound with geographical or administrative borders and, in contrary, a social structure where sense of belonging to a community is fundamental (Özşen, 2011).

REFERENCES


INTRODUCTION

The term “natural source” refers to the items that are beneficial for anything in general. These may be animals, vegetables, minerals, a place or any type of labor force. The sources may be concrete objects as well as abstract concepts like aesthetics. This term requires the existence of a beneficial value for certain purposes or certain places. The thing that constitutes a source is explained as “a relative concept who definition varies according to the purpose or viewpoint”. Again, natural sources are defined as “the sources that may be renewed such as forests, water, wildlife, soil, etc., and non-renewable sources such as coal, petroleum and mining cores, etc.”. In this context, natural sources consist of many sources that vary in terms of dynamics and activities specific to them (Yılmaz, 2002).

As a result of the fast population increase and urbanization in the world, natural sources have been used with a great intensity. In this way, the use of many ecosystems in an unplanned and uncontrolled manner has destroyed many natural, cultural and historical values, and brought with it many environmental problems that vary in terms of dimension and number (Sever & Bekdemir, 2007). Today, mountains have an important role and importance in the discussions about development and environment, because mountains constitute 24% of the land areas of the Earth, and 10% of the world population live on them. They are also important sources of water, energy and biovariety. Mountains also have key roles in terms of mines, forest products, agricultural products and recreation activities. For these reasons, geographical research has been conducted on mountains in the past as well as today (Somuncu, 2004).

Environmental disruptions occur in mining as well as in any other activities on natural sources due to the nature of these activities. Environmental disruptions occur like the disappearance of mountains in order to find and use minerals, the ecosystems on mountains being disrupted, and some residues that remain after mining activities pile of like mountains. In addition to these, local people experience damages due to mining activities, which eventually leads to social disruptions and social problems. It is estimated that only in the last quarter of twentieth century, 156 million hectares of land were disrupted in mining sector (Tümer’tekin & Özugüç, 2012).

All components in the environment are exposed to the effects of mining activities, and these activities cause great changes in the environment when compared before and after such activities, which is a visual result of these activities. This artificial view occurs on purpose or without knowing. It generally covers a very wide area and it is
nearly impossible to recover the old vision in such areas. Under these new environmental conditions, it may be considered as a beneficial activity to create new landscapes provided that ecological variety is the defining target. After mining activities, interventions are needed to find out in which way the land management may be made in a better manner for ecological, functional and social effects (Dulias, 2010). The basic responsibility and duty must be the performance of mining activities with least topographical disruptions, reclaiming the mining area to the nature when making the economy benefit from important minerals and industrial raw materials (Kulaksız, 2012). Otherwise, it will be inevitable for future generations to face disrupted, destroyed and dull environment with an artificial view rather than a natural environment. As a result, unless adequate precautions are taken, the areas in which natural and ecological sources are protected will decrease mainly in undeveloped and developing countries, which is the case throughout the world, and eventually, these areas will disappear slowly in the future. In this respect, great care must be given for sustainable natural source management and for establishing a well-balanced protection-usage balance.

**MATERIAL AND METHOD**

This study was designed to determine the effects of mining activities in Damar neighborhood located in Murgul Country of the city of Artvin, on residential and natural environment. The natural and human characteristics of Damar neighborhood and its surroundings were determined by making use of the relevant literature. The study was conducted based on travel-observe and interview methods. Field works were performed in the study area in different periods, the data were collected from relevant institutions, and scientific observations were performed in the study area. With the findings obtained from the field works, the purpose was to examine the effects of copper mining activities, which continues in the area, on natural and human environment; and to make recommendations on decreasing the pressures on the environment, recovering the disruptions on the natural environment with new organizations, decreasing visual pollution, transforming the mining areas and ponds into recreational areas.

**THE POSITION AND GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STUDY AREA**

Damar is located within the boundaries of Murgul County of the city of Artvin in Eastern Black Sea Region (Figure 1; Figure 2). It is 27 km far from Borçka county and 59 km from Artvin city center.

In geological terms, the area was developed on Çağlayan Formation of Upper Cretaceous, and stretches mostly as basalt lava and pyro clasts. Again, Kızilkaya Formation of Upper Cretaceous is also widespread in the area, and there are dacite-rhyodacite lava and pyroclasts as well as several Kaçkar Granitoids. Around the Kabaca Stream, there are Upper Cretaceous-Eocene Bakırköy, Kızıleck and Ağillar formations and brownstone, marn, and argillaceous limestone. Copper (Cu), zinc (Zn) and lead (Pb) mineralization are observed generally in these formations (Yılmaz et al., 1998).
When the study area is considered in geomorphological terms, it is observed that the area consists of Sisine, Lepüskür, Kurtluk, Damar and Kabaca Streams stemming from Alacadağ (2844 m), narrow and deep-furrow valleys, hills and mountainous areas and sharp crests. The slope values and precipitation is high in the area, which makes active and passive landslide areas observed frequently. The highest mountain in the study area is Alacadağ with 2844 m, and hills such as Aşıkosman (2712 m), Kerçen (2876 m), Karcan (2887 m), Kilise (1970 m), Kumlu (1317 m), Ardıç (1303 m) and Kızılkaya (1690 m) and Kara (1678 m) follow it as important high points (Koday et al.,
The study area is located in the Black Sea Climate region, and with the influences of planetary and geographical factors, and with very high precipitation rates, relatively high summer temperatures and mild winters, the Eastern Black Sea Climate is observed (Erinç, 1969). Since there are no meteorological stations in Murgul County, the data were obtained from Borçka Meteorology station, which is the nearest station to the study area. In this context, the annual temperature values of Borçka, which shows similar climatic characteristics with the study area, is 13.5°C. The hottest months are July and August with 22.6°C, and the coldest month is January with 4.1°C. Average annual precipitation is 1175.4 mm. The season with the highest precipitation is winter with 432.4 mm, and the season with the lowest precipitation is summer with 161.1 mm (Data received from Ministry of Forestry and Irrigation Affairs, General Directorate of Meteorology, 2015). The main stream of the area, which is rich in hydrographic terms, is the Murgul Stream. The most important branches of Murgul Stream are Kabaca, Kokolet and Başköy Streams. The most important smaller streams of Kabaca Stream are Eğrisu and Köprüten Streams, and they drain the study area and its surroundings run to Kabaca Stream and then to Murgul Stream and to Çoruh River. These streams stem from Balıklı, Güldağı, Otluca and Alacadağ. There are many lakes and water sources on these mountains. The study area hosts three types of soils. The most-widely spread soil type is red-yellow podzolic soils, brown forest soils, and after 2200 m elevation, high mountain meadow soils (Koday et al., 2015).

The city of Artvin constitutes an important part of Caucasus ecological area in terms of biosphere potential. In this respect, Murgul County attracts attention in terms
of its flora. Starting from the valleys and stretching to 1000-1250 m altitudes, there are forests with latifolia trees (alder (Alnus glutinosa), and generally oriental beech (Fagus orientalis), chestnut (Castanea sativa), lime (Tilia platyphyllos), maple (Acer campestris and platanoides), elm (Ulmus campestris and montana), ordinary hazel (Corylus avellana), alder (Alnus sp.), black hornbeam and oriental hornbeam (Carpinus orientalis and betulus), turkey oak and durmast oak (Quercus sessiliflora and pedunculata), birch (Populus alba) etc.; and after this altitude, mixed forests start to be observed, and among the latifoliate, pinales, oriental spruce (Picea orientalis), fir (Abies nordmanniana) are also observed. Approximately up to 2000 m altitude, there are mixed forests with shrubs, grass types, bushy sub-forest formation (rhododendron (Rhododendron), brier rose (Rosa canina), wild service tree (Sorbus torminalis), ruscus aculeatus (Ilex aquifolium), prunus laurocerasus (Prunus laurocerasus), huckleberry (Vaccinium uliginosum), tamarix (Tamarix), rhamnus (Rhamnus catharticus), blueberry (Ruscus hypoglossum), belladonna (Atropa belladona), iscum album (Viscum album), swordfern (Pteridophyta), spurge (Tithymalus burn), black berry (Rubusfruticosus), wild strawberry (Fraparia vesua) etc.). After approximately 2500-2700 m altitude, alpine meadows start to be observed. The most important plant species of this area are Helychrsum graveolens (amaranthus), Geranium cinercum (herbs robert), Trifolium polypheyllum (trefoil), Gagea sp., Lolium rigidum, Astragalus vicifolius, Thymus polytrichus (thyme) and similar other plants (Atalay et al., 1985). In terms of fauna, the study area and surroundings host extremely rich wildlife; and some of them are bears, pigs, coyotes, foxes, wolves, rabbits, deer, mountain goats, woodpeckers, sparrow hawks, quails, nightingales, and black eagles (Koday, 2000).

Murgul is based on mining, and in economic terms, it comes to the forefront with service, mining and agricultural sectors. In addition to these, commercial activities and forestry activities have important place. The development of Damar and the increase in its population occurred due to the existence of copper company. According to 2016 TUIK data, there are 11 neighborhoods in the study area in Murgul County center, and 6.987 people 3.595 of whom are male and 3.392 of whom are female live in it. The neighborhood with the highest population is the Damar Neighborhood with a population of 1.096 in 2014, 426 people in 2015, and 482 in 2016, and 489 in 2017.

MINING IN DAMAR AND ITS ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS

Mining is one of the oldest activities of human beings. Mining is not only exclusively limited to the use of certain minerals, but it also covers certain cultural levels (Stone age, Copper age, Bronze age and Iron age) (Tüürertekin, 1972). It is predicted that copper has been used as an important mineral for 6000 years (approximately since B.C. 4500). It was used to produce pots and pans in the past; and in modern industry, it is used in electricity and electronic devices industry (Doğanay & Altaş, 2013). Copper has a wide area of use and is easily processed and is a conductive metal. It may be found in pure form in nature, and it may also be combined with other compounds (Karabağ & Şahin, 2014). Copper ores are mostly found in volcanic and in sedimentary rocks under the ground. The majority of the copper reserves of the world, i.e. nearly 65%, are in the form of ore, in other words, they are from volcanic origin (Doğanay et al., 2011).

It is observed that the Black Sea Region ranks the fourth among the other regions in terms of the companies acting in the field of mining industry in Turkey (Ünal, 2010:
70 thousand tons of copper were found in 2009 in open and closed companies. There are 122 licensed copper mining areas. According to 2014 data, concentrated copper production in Turkey was 112 thousand tons, run-of-mine coal copper production was 7.11 million tons in 2015, smelting copper production was 35,000 tons in 2014, and refined copper production was 70,000 tons (Ünal et al., 2016).

Mining started with primitive methods in Turkey in historical periods, and western capital entered to the country in 19th Century because of the need for copper in western countries; however, companies were in small scale and some were abandoned in time. The duty of mining examining the underground minerals in the country for national economy was given to Mineral Research and Exploration (MRE) institute, which is a state institution, during Republican Period after the year 1935 (Güngördü, 2011). The opening of Damar copper mining area was approved by this institution, and the right to operate the area was transferred to EtiBank in 1937, and the institution was operated by EtiBank as of 1951. EtiBank transferred the mining area to its combined partner Karadeniz Bakır İşletmeleri Inc. (K.B.I. Inc.) in 1971. It was purchased by Cengiz Holding in 2006. Eti Bakır Murgul Tesisi (Eti Copper Murgul Plant) operates within the borders of Murgul county in the city of Artvin. The copper ore obtained in the mining area in Murgul is converted into copper concentration, and transferred to filtering and drying plant in Hopa with 2 pipe lines (Çakmakkaya-Hopa Pipeline). The concentrated copper is exposed to filtering and drying processes and taken to stock area to be sent through Hopa Harbor. In addition, the Hydro-electric Power Plant (HEP) in Murgul Plant has the capacity of 24.2 MW, and is operated within the company that has the production license. Eti Bakır Murgul plant produces 3,500,000 tons of Run-of-mine coal copper ore and 130,000 tons of copper concentration a year (ETİ, 2015).

The city of Artvin has an important position in terms of metallic mining areas. As a result of the investigations made by Mineral Research and Exploration (MRE) General Management, 72 metallic mineral and 9 industrial raw material mines were detected (MTA, 2017). According to the Artvin Mineral and Energy Sources Report of MTA (2010: 1), metallic mineral deposits are classified as volcanogenic massif sulfide type (Cu-Pb-Zn), vessel-type (Pb-Zn), epithermal type (Au) and skarn type deposits. According to the Black Sea Copper Company data, the most important gold deposit in the area is Cerrattepe-Kafkasör. 4 gr/ton Au, 140 gr/ton Ag (oxideore); 1.2 gr/ton Au, 25 gr/ton Ag (sulfidicore) were determined in this deposit, and there are 8,200,000 tons of oxideore reserve, and 3,900,000 tons of total reserve of sulfidicore. The most important copper-lead-zinc deposit is located in Murgul County. According to their importance levels, these are ranked as follows; Murgul Main Deposit includes 1.594% Cu tenor and has a reserve of 18,000,000 tons of visible/possible reserves, and the deposit is currently operated. Another deposit in Murgul is the Murgul-Çakmakkaya copper-lead-zinc deposit with 0.99% Cu tenor, and has 16,618,000 tons of visible/possible reserve. As of 2005, 4,800,000 tons of ore reserves are left in these two deposits. Murgul-Çarkbaşı copper-pyrite deposit has 0.85% tenor and 1,289,365 tons of visible reserves. Cerrattepe-Kafkasör (Artvin/Center) area has 5.2% Cu (1.2 gr/ton Au, 25 gr/ton Ag values are known) tenor and has a total of 3,900,000 tons of ore. Artvin copper mines are mostly represented by Murgul and its surroundings. Aside from these, Bakirköy (3,900 thousand tons) and Seyitler (2,465 thousand tons) are among the other important copper reserves of the city. In addition to Artvin, there are similar mineral reserves in cities like Çanakkale, Elazığ, Giresun, Kastamonu, Rize, Siirt, Sivas and
Trabzon (Doğanay & Çavuş, 2011).

With the decrease in the annual production in Murgul, and with the licensing a private company to perform mining activities in Artvin Cerattepe, it is planned that the quality copper and gold ores will be operated in Murgul. There are important problems among the people of the area, environmental protection associations and NGOs. This area has one of the oldest and biggest festivals, which has been celebrated for nearly 30 years in the Black Sea region. According to the Kafkasör Tourism Encouragement Law with the number 2634, the area was declared as tourism center in 1991, and has an area of 625 hectares. In addition to these, the Hatilla Valley, which is close to this area, hosts untouched vegetation and animal species and is one of the most beautiful natural areas not only in Turkey but also in Europe (Koday, 2008). According to the EIA Report of Cerattepe Copper Mine Project with the License Number 201200222 (2013), the plant that is planned to be established in the area will produce 500,000 tons of run-of-mine coal ore a year. The plant will work for 10 months, 30 days a month, 16 hours a day; produce 1.670 tons of mineral a day, and transport the ore with trucks to the plant in Murgul, Damar for the purpose of enrichment. It is expected that the trucks will shuttle between the plant and the mines for 80 times a day, carry 1670 tons of ore in one single travel, and each truck is expected to weigh nearly 50 tons with its 42 tons of load. In addition to 40 loaded and 40 empty trucks a day, other transports like iron-cement and similar loads, there will be heavy truck traffic on the road between Artvin-Murgul highway and this will occupy this road. The routes specified in EIA Report are defined as follows; Cerattepe/Hatila Deresi/Y. Mezra/ Lepiskür Deresi/Murgul Damar Plant 45 km, Cerattepe/Hatila Deresi/Çoruh Marina/Borçka/Murgul Damar Plant 80 km, Cerattepe/Artvin Köprübaşı/Borçka/Murgul Damar Plant 77 km and Cerattepe/Zeytinlik/ Artvin Köprübaşi/ Borçka/Murgul Damar Plant, 100 km (Eryılmaz et al., 2013).

Mining activities not only affect the socio-economic structure of the rural residential areas, but they also create employment in this field, prevent migration and receive migration, and may even cause that a rural area gains the status of being a provincial function (Aydın, 2006). 118 technical staff and 2090 employees were employed in 1967 in Murgul Copper Plant, which belonged to Etibank in 1951, and 9,640 tons of copper, 23,052 tons of Sulfuric acid was produced, and 140,351,000 TL gross revenue and 66,692,000 TL net revenue was obtained from the copper and acid production. The total amount of workmanship paid the employees was 21,268,066 TL. Nearly 2 million TL were paid as gas (smoke) compensation to the people living in 1,100 houses in 10 villages nearby the copper plant. Murgul was called as the “Small Germany” because of the lively industrial life in those times (Artvin Almanac, 1973: 205-206). According to the data of Murgul Plant Management (2004), 16 officers, 101 nonpermanent party, 103 private security, 1363 employees, in total 1583 people were employed in Murgul Plant in 1993. In 2004, 4 officers, 27 nonpermanent party, 25 private security, 475 employees, in total 531 people were employed in Murgul Plant. In this context, when the share of the industrial revenues of the city of Artvin within the GNP is considered, it is observed that there was a 69957 billion TL (with current prices) of industrial sector revenues in the city in 2001, and it had a share of 14,3% share in the GNP of the city. The manufacturing sector has a share of 52% in the industrial sector in the city, which is the highest share, mining and quarrying follow it with 28%; and electricity, gas and water industries follow it with a rate of 20% (Öztürk et al., 2005).
Minerals, which are natural sources, are presented to the economy for human welfare; however, the great damage and disruptions of these on ecological environment are mostly ignored. In areas where activities are performed, especially in areas where open-company method is applied, the topography, geologic structure, relief, water regime, climate and landscape change completely after the works are completed in these areas, and the vegetation also destroyed (Varol & Başpınar, 2011). One of the most important problems caused by mining activities is the destruction of forest areas, and serious environmental problems that threaten human health (Şafakçı, 2016). Among these, the problems like the destruction of the surrounding forests to cover the need for mine posts, the changes on the use of fields because of the occupation of certain areas for mining activities, the sea pollution that occur due to the transportation of the ores through sea, the destruction of water sources and agricultural areas due to underground processes, and the problem of prohibition of purchasing private property in the area (Özdemir, 2012).

The local environmental pollution in the Black Sea Region is mostly observed due to homely heating systems; however, factors that pollute the air are also observed in the areas where industrial plants are located like Murgul (Garipağaoğlu, 2015). The SO₂ gas, which was released by the plant from 1951 until 1993 damaged the vegetation in the surrounding area, culture plants, animals and the people living in the area. The areas that were highly affected by the gas were Murgul, Damar, Kabaca, Özmal and Ardiçli. The gasses that were released from the plant damaged the trees in an area of approximately 9.125 hectares (Koday, 2000). In 1993, K.B.İ. Inc. prepared a report to determine the damage given by the gasses released from the Murgul Copper Mine Smelting Plant to the plants in the surrounding villages. According to the report, the amount of the compensation paid to the farmers who grew corn, vegetables, wheat, honey, fruit and tobacco was 7,377,636,620 TL (Koday, 2000).

As the demand for the minerals increased, deposits with low values are also operated, and the plants start to be established in smaller areas that are sensitive about the environmental issues (Tümertekin & Özgüç, 2012). Both Cerattepe mining area and Damar mining areas are close to the touristic areas that are important in terms of natural characteristics and to the National Park area. Especially, Damar copper mining area and the plant have been expanded with each passing year (Figure4). Depending on this expansion, pressures on residential areas and natural environment have increased. It is possible to reach Karagöl in two different routes, the one through Eti Bakır Murgul Plant and the other one via Damar route. Both of these routes are stabilized roads, and therefore, the transportation to the lake is difficult. Especially the transportation network that was expanded from the forest area in the mining plant and to Karagöl, the works of heavy vehicles in the area caused many damages on the residential areas and led to the destruction of the natural environment and the vegetation; and eventually, the wildlife fled away from this area.
For long years, the wastewater of Murgul copper plant was sent to Murgul Stream, and for this reason, the stream flows with a yellow color as if it is mixed with mud (Koday, 2000). In later periods, precautions were taken to eliminate this problem and the wastewater of the plant was purified in a purification plant established in the mining area and the water that was needed by the plant in order to operate was covered from an artificial pond (Figure 5); the wastewater of the plant is now accumulated in a hollow area that is isolated from its surrounding (Figure 6a; Figure 6b:).

The wastewater causes environmental pollution in the area. Possible leakages pose a great threat for underground water sources and for the residential areas nearby. Depending on the flow of the underground water sources and the accumulation of rain water in these areas, lakes with relief or lake-like water bodies appear frequently in such areas. These areas may be made use of as recreative activity areas, fisheries, handline fishing plants, for swimming, water sports, water ski activities, etc. (Dulias, 2010).

In addition to these, the gold, which is one of the minerals of the Cerotype mining area, is planned to be processed with chemical processes in the plant located in Damar, which has caused great reactions in the area.

In years when the copper smelting factory was active, the SO₂ gas released by the factory damaged the people, plants and animals living in the area and also caused huge damages in the buildings that were built nearby the factory, the effects of these damages
There is a short distance between the residential area and the mining area, which is 50 m-500 m. The distance between the farthest house and the mining area is approximately 1 km. The roofs of the buildings that are covered with iron sheets are completely rusty, the plaster and paints of the façades of the buildings are destroyed because of the dynamites exploded in the mining area (Figure 7a), there are cracks on the walls (Figure 7b; Figure 7c), shortly, the physical image of the town has been destroyed. In addition, since this plant is established in the valley, the gasses released by the factory are trapped in the valley, and cause more damage to the humane and natural environment because these gasses do not go away in a short time (Koday, 2000). Furthermore, the road construction works and mining activities that stretch as far as Karagöl, and the wastes being left nearby the lake have also led to environmental and visual pollution (Koday et al., 2015; Figure 7d).

After the plant was closed in 1993, the majority of the governmental buildings
(local governor’s office, county agricultural management, etc.) were moved to the empty buildings of the plant. The restoration of the buildings was started in 1998 and completed in 1999, and they started to serve the public actively ever since (Koday, 2000).

A good operation design and application are required in order to decrease the damage that occurs due to mining activates, and to prepare the soil for later use. These activities must be planned and conducted simultaneously with the production and realization process. Recycling is only then realized with less time losses and in a more economic manner. No matter what the method is during mining activities, it is known that there are negative effects; and it is also clear that open mining activities have more environmental and visual damages than the underground mining activities (Atmaca, 2001). The expansion of mining activities that are operated as open mining area towards Karagöl, which is one of the natural wonders of Murul, and which is not well-known yet, does not only threaten the lake, but it will also destroy the natural environment as a result of the mining activities spread to wider areas.

Today, legal practices and applications, which exist in many countries, make it compulsory to reclaim and restore the mining areas after the mining activities are terminated in such areas; such regulations and laws also encourage these activities. According to the results of the applications intended to repair the nature, it is possible to reclaim the natural landscape, which is disrupted with mining activities, with repair and restoration works (Ulusoy & Ayaşligil, 2012). Stabilizing an area, which has been destroyed due to mining activities, in terms of environment is compulsory for us in order to transfer a clean environment and natural sources to future generations. However, when the disrupted areas are left to their destiny, it takes longer durations for such areas to regain its former shape and repair itself. During such processes, human aids are needed to repair and reclaim an area. For this purpose, repair works after mining activities are the activities that aim to regain the aesthetical, ecological and economic values of the area and the fertility of the land (Cındık & Demirel, 2014). Open mining activities that will be performed in areas that are in the forefront with their natural characteristics may lead to damages that will destroy the natural balance and cause irreversible damages. In this respect, in present situation, it is not possible for Karagöl and its surroundings to regain its former ecological wealth and natural beauty when mining activities are terminated in the area. The traces of mining activities will not be cleared away for long years. The activities of mining areas which have less tenor rates are still ongoing. It is planned that the gold and other minerals that will be found in Cerattepe will be transferred to Murgul copper plant through rope railway, pipeline or via highways. This situation will be influential in the present factory to keep its importance. The concerns of people on Murgul and Cerattepe plants are extremely high. It seems that the basic factors that led these concerns are the intention of local people to protect the nature and living areas and to decrease the activities that lead to misuse of the nature to the lowest level; while the concerns of the companies are to use more and consume more (Koday et al., 2015). However, the copper plant, which was established and started operation in 1951, was left much behind the modern mining concepts that are applied in our present day, and the lack of planning for future activities has been influential in the emergence of many abovementioned problems.

The roads made for transportation in mountainous areas, the activities in queries and other mining activities trigger the degradational changes in the mountainous areas.
Unplanned and uncontrolled road construction works and the other works that affect the natural environment in a negative manner lead to visual pollution around Karagöl (Figure 8a; 8b). This situation will cause that the expectations of the visitors, who come to the area to see natural beauties in nature tourism activities, are not met; and will also cause great disappointments.

**Figure 8:** View of the damage on the nature (a), and massive movement of the soil that occur due to road works (b) around Karagöl.

The excavations collected in the lower part of the pond overlooking Kabaca Valley, the construction of HEP, which is still ongoing, and the related activities are considered as human factors that cause the disruption of the natural environment. These negative effects have reached such a level that one of the valleys has been filled with these excavations, which is seen in Figure 9 (Koday et al., 2015).

**Figure 9:** View of mining excavation area and HEP construction in Kabaca Valley

Multiple planning concept cares for social, environmental, economic and political factors. A dynamic and systematic planning concept can easily adopt itself to the requirements of modern age. Planning must not be stable, and it must have a structure that renews itself continuously, and new requirements must easily be added to existing plan. Topics that emphasize that planning must be society-centered and holistic are important in that it reveals the scope of the planning. In society-centered planning concept, communication is established with the society, and the values of the society are taken into the center. In this manner, social endurance, which is the subject matter of social bearing capacity, is also developed. The most important element of planning is its being success-centered and perfectible. A planning concept, which does not take people to success and which is impossible to complete, is missing and meaningless (Tokmak, 2008). In order to cover all of the demands, preparing a usage planning methodology is the most important point in rural development works. This methodology must include rural residential areas with various size and the agricultural areas that surround them, forests and meadows. In this manner, a planning may be made for systematic area use depending on the hierarchical structure of rural structure. For this reason, producing a solution that does not oppose the hierarchical order of the nature is wise for the reclaiming of these areas that lose their values both in economic and ecological terms.
although such areas have the highest potential in terms of natural sources; and this process must be based on the notion that the solution is in the problem. Because, it is inevitable to experience economic-ecologic collapse and to face losses in sources in areas that are used in a manner that exceeds their potentials (Somuncu et al., 1993). The prevention of these degradational changes observed in the mountains of Eastern Black Sea and even retrieving the losses are the most important debt to future generations. In this context, future works must be focused on with a sustainable environment idea in the Mountain Areas Management (MAM) both for this area and for all of the mountains of Turkey (Gönençgil, 2009). In this context, the relation between minerals-natural environment must be established well in natural source management. The importance of revealing and operating the minerals that are important in strategical terms and which will save our national resources from being dependent on foreign countries is equal to the importance of the protection of the natural environment where these minerals are found and made use of. For this reason, it is necessary that mining must be performed with a manner that will not cause important destructions while producing for national economy and that will be performed with modern methods, and the negative aspects that have been experienced in Murgul copper mining area must be resolved. Otherwise, the destruction caused on the mining area, which is observed not to have a planning, will reach major dimensions. For this reason, the development of a mining area from the early days and during the operation time must be audited with constant auditing mechanisms (Koday et al., 2015).

The potential that exists in the upper zones of the Eastern Black Sea Mountains seems to be an ideal example for general mountainous areas. These areas have water, biovariety, minerals, tourism and similar natural sources and a potential of being a laboratory in which climate changes may be observed, and for this reason, they are extremely important in environmental protection process (Gönençgil, 2009). For this purpose, research for more efficient, active and continuous use of mountainous areas have gained importance in recent years. This importance has been emphasized with the declaration of the United Nations Organization for 2002 as “World Year of Mountains”, and with the bringing of this issue to the world agenda. This topic has an importance in terms of activating the potentials of mountainous areas in Turkey (biovariety, forests, clean water, energy, tourism, animal husbandry, etc.) and to benefit from these sources and in terms of integrating with the world in the process of European Union membership, and makes it compulsory for Turkey to take action in an efficient manner (Bakirci, 2005). In addition to these, it is necessary that planning must be made based on ecological characteristics in order to protect the natural environment (Koday et al., 2013). It is already known that the unplanned and unaudited changes and developments in rural areas cause irreversible destructions in the natural balance (Sarı, 2007). According to International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), protection and sustainability of areas that have ecological, biological, cultural and scientific values ad different characteristics is of vital importance (IUCN, 2015). For this purpose, the primary target is to protect and sustain important land and sea scenery that are related with the values crated by natural environment-human interaction, ensuring a balanced interaction between culture and nature, contributing the protection of cultural sceneries in a wide aspect, creating opportunities for entertainment, happiness and socio-economic activity through tourism and recreation, providing natural products and environmental services, ensuring that the society takes active roles in protecting the
nature and cultural heritage, encouraging the agricultural and aquatic ecosystem and activating sustainable models. However, in the light of the developments occurring in the world, the activities aimed to protect natural sources with defined national strategies and policies, and economic revenues that will be obtained from present or potential protection areas are used for the protection of such areas (Alkan & Korkmaz, 2009).

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

The danger of extinction of the sources in the world after being polluted has increased the environmental conscious on natural borders. Today, the countries in the world try to ensure sustainability of the environment while using it and try to be more respectful to the natural sources, and perform the planning and architecture works with this conscious (Ovalı Kısa, 2007). Benefiting the potential in areas that have less economic values in terms of mining activities for nature tourism and recreation will be more rational for tourism. Accelerating the investments on tourism, which is defined as “the industry without chimney”, and considering these activities are more solutioner approach (Koday et al., 2015).

The natural source management that does not damage the sustainable environment must be performed. It is necessary that plans that are sensitive on environmental issues are made, activities are performed in coordination with relevant institutions and scientific community, and alternative tourism must be emphasized among other economic activities (Sarkım, 2007). Firstly, the draft law on Protecting the nature and Biovariety stated that “It is compulsory that, in case the activities that are considered as being important for the development of the country, for the superior public benefit or that are strategic are within the borders of absolute protection areas, these activities must be performed under the supervision of certain rules. The permissions that will be given for these activities are guaranteed with the permission of the Ministry”. The terms “for the development of the country” and “for the superior public benefit” are extremely open for comments. Today, although there are many areas that may be opened for use by considering “the superior public benefit”, the majority of these attract attention as mining areas, sand quarries, HEPs, the majority of which are located in natural areas (Cengiz et al., 2014). With the fast laws and regulations in recent days, our forests, wetlands, streams, lakes, underground water sources, olive groves, national parks, agricultural areas, meadows, residential areas, coastal areas, flora, fauna, archeological and sit areas have become under great threat and danger (Oruçkaptan & Sarıhan, 2014). Since 1940s, the steps taken in the field of protecting the nature are far from being able to carry the natural and cultural heritage to the future. The natural and cultural sources free the threats they face (mining, HEP, encouraging tourism, etc.) and legalize the revenue-oriented use on these values (Cengiz et al., 2014). The protected areas, forest areas, areas that are owned by the state, and relevant laws and other regulations constitute the efficient factors in the planning process. For this reason, the missing/wrong expressions in the current laws and regulations must be corrected, and the works that legalize the destruction in natural and cultural source values must be prevented (Cengiz et al., 2014). As a result of this, the plans written on paper, applied criteria and the conflicting situations that appear during practices cause great problems. The most important step that will eliminate such problems is the exclusion of conflicting practices. Integrated Natural Source Management is a term that has emerged as a wide-spread management on a basis of preventing the destruction of fertility and
sustaining agricultural fertility and sustaining the land, water, forest, and biological sources (including genes). Integrated Natural Source Management is a conscious process that is related with the realization of the purposes of rural area people on certain issues (for example food security, profitability, risk decreasing, etc.); and aims to integrate wider social aims (such as decreasing poverty, welfare of future generations, protection of the environment in a sustainable management system, etc.) with different sides of natural source use (bio-physical, socio-political or economic factors) (Yılmaz, 2002). Although the development of the country is an important subject, the issues like protection-use balance in benefiting from the sources of the country, sustainability and transferring them to future generations have the same importance. While considering the benefits of public sector, the people or private sector, the sustaining and expectations of the nature, which hosts any types of living organism, from living creatures, must also be covered. Otherwise, the fight between the nature and human will produce many positive or negative results.

If success is desired in sustainable development, sustainable environmental management, sustainable forest management, and in biovariety, the problems on the management of the protected areas must be resolved definitely. In this context, it is necessary that the potential protected areas are defined and analyzed in a rational manner instead of declaring natural parks, nature parks or under any other names without defining the source values and without conducting required studies on these areas. Such definitions and analyses that will be performed before such areas are declared as protected areas will prevent that the protection only remains on paper documents (Alkan & Korkmaz, 2009).

Landscape architects have the duty of decreasing the damage of the destructed areas, increasing the values of such areas, integrating these areas with the environment and people, and ensuring aesthetical and visual living areas for the use of humans instead of only planting trees and reclaiming land in such areas. The purpose of works that will be performed in an area that is in renewal process and that has negative characteristics and where mining activities have been terminated is reclaiming new areas according to the natural and cultural landscape characteristics, and socio-economic and cultural structure of the environment. For this reason, when reclaiming activities are planned, firstly, the usage of the area before the destruction must be determined. The direction and form of the reclaiming activities must meet the expectations of the people in the areas and the environment, cover their needs in the first order, and eventually, the area must be reclaimed for the nature and environment (Cındık & Acar, 2010). It is inevitable that source losses and economic-ecological collapse are observed in areas that are forced to be used for purpose other than their actual potentials. For this reason, area use planning must have sound and safe structure for a sustainable rural development. In this context, the area use planning must be based on realistic, adequate and reliable source inventory and analysis works in physical, social and economic aspects (Somuncu et al., 1993). It is beneficial that the rehabilitation works are started in the mining area because economic revenues are decreased in this area and the tenor rate is low, which will cause environmental problems in case it is continued to be operated in such a condition. With the beginning and completion of the rehabilitation process, we believe that the natural touristic sources of Murgul county are directed to nature tourism despite the fact that these sources have not been benefited with the full meaning of the word since old periods.
Parallel to this, the two valleys (Kabaca & Kokolet), which have high ecological importance in Damar area, and the existence of Karagöl near the mining plant, are the most ideal potential eco-tourism areas that may be used for nature tourism (Koday et al., 2015). One of the steps that have top priority to resolve the environmental problems that appeared due to mining activities in Karagöl, Kabaca alley and Kokolet Valley, which are very close to the mining area, is the declaration of these areas as nature protection areas.

With the changes caused by human beings in various ways in relief, destructions occurred in natural vegetation and in hydrography, large-small hollow areas and hills have been formed, and in some places, lakes have been formed (Efe, 1995). Sustainable environment means the reclaiming, protection and development of the sources, and all environmental values that constitute the environment of the generations of both today and future, which will be needed by future generations, without putting the existence and quality of them in danger in every field (social, economic, physical) (Erkul, 2012). In this context, scenarios must be fictionalized for the repair of the landscape areas, the most proper one among them must be determined, and areas in which all living creatures can live safely must be created. After the repair activities, the necessary monitorization and maintenance activities must be performed for the area (Cındık & Acar, 2010). The open mining areas whose activities have been terminated must be reclaimed for the nature. Before such works, re-forestation works must be started in these areas. Protection and use balance must be established for these areas, which have rich natural beauties and cultural heritage, and they must be reclaimed by tourism with an environmental approach, and thus, contributions must be made to rural development; and on the other hand, the natural structure must be transferred to future generation, which are extremely important issues in this context (Elmacı, 2010; Deniz, 2008). In this respect, in case protection-use principles are not organized in a sustainable manner and in such a way that does not consider present activities, it will be impossible to talk about the existence of a protection-use balance (Gökalp Alıca, 2012). In case this thin line is not taken into consideration, the disappearance of lake areas is among the inevitable consequences. Mining activities having been carried to upper layers on mountains show this treat in an explicit manner. For this purpose, no matter the mining areas that are given licenses cover wider areas, and no matter how much these areas cover natural beauties and ecologically important areas, these areas must be taken under protection. By doing so, the protection-use balance will be ensured. In addition, the auditing of the mining areas will be performed at a high level in a closed mining model, which we believe will be more accurate. The mining area, which is being operated in open mining model near Murgul, show that the seriousness of the situation and some other factors are not cared for at an adequate level. Because, when the mining area is observed from a hill overlooking this area, the disruptive effects of humans on the natural environment are clearly observed. This situation is also clear in mining areas (Koday et al., 2015).

Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) is a sustainable development factor, and is perhaps the first and most important step in preventing all the environmental deterioration, because EIA refers to not destroying the environment, and not causing any negative effects of the environment rather than eliminating the effects after the destruction in the environment. In this context, EIA is a precaution that must be handled as the first order of business and must be emphasized with importance. For the purpose
of protecting the environment, EIA Report must be prepared when the investments are in the project stage or when the development projects of a certain area are being prepared. In this way, it will be possible to perform the investments in a manner that will not damage the ecological, socio-cultural and natural environment by considering the current ecological and socio-cultural values. A EIA work consists of (Kahraman & Türkay, 2012): The preparatory works and the definition of the problem, Determining the elimination, scope and effects, Determining the current status of the environment, Quantitative estimation and evaluation of the environmental effects, Determining the required environmental protection measures, Evaluation of the Project options and preparation of the recommendations, Preparation of the environmental effects evaluation report, Decision-making process, Monitorization and evaluation stages after the Project.

In the context of Activity Plan of Artvin Regional Forest Management, 9.066 m² abandoned mining areas, which consist of 3 in Artvin city center, 4 in Ardanuç, 3 in Arhavi, 1 in Savsat, and 3 in Yusufeli, 14 in total, whose operation types were as open, closed or casting style, will be rehabilitated between 2014-2018, and these works will be performed in 431.441 m² area, which cannot be rehabilitated with current methods, and 440.507 m² areas, which can be rehabilitated for public benefit (Mining Areas Rehabilitation action Plan Draft 2014-2018, 2014). In EIA Report, which was prepared by Environmental Services Branch Management, 1 (one) application was made to the provincial management in 2013 in the scope of the reclaiming the disrupted mining areas by nature. Since the wastes dam in the plant (which belongs to Eti Bakır A.Ş. Murgul) is currently used, no rehabilitation projects were applied. The amount of the wastes in the form of disposal-storage method (2nd Class) in Et, Bakır Inc. Murgul Plant coming from the mineral enrichment plants in Artvin in 2013 was 3,451,028 tons/year (Artvin, 2013 Environmental Status Report, 2014). In brief, main recommendations on the precautions required to resolve the problems experienced in the mining area and to prevent environmental damage in and around Damar may be as follows:

In order to decrease the damage on the environment caused by the mining activities, the activity area must be downsized, and its expansion towards sensitive ecosystems must be prevented.

The roads must be protected against the damage caused by heavy trucks that travel between the county center and Damar and roads with high standards must be made.

The damage caused to the environment and to the plants by the dust produced by the heavy work vehicles both in the county center and mining areas must be prevented.

Solid wastes that pollute the environment must be cleared and new wastes must not be produced.

The mountainous area which is damaged due to mining activities must be organized as terrace set and trees must be planted in such areas.

Mining with open operation method, drilling and dynamite explosion methods, which cause increases in landslide, leads to mass soil activities and damages residential areas, must be avoided.

Environmentally sensitive mining activities must be applied in and near Damar, which comes to the forefront with its natural environment characteristics.

Mining area must be planted with green plants and it must be given its previous shape with landscape organizations.
Mining activities must be continued; however, environmental organizations must also be made to ensure coordination.

The areas that are in the forefront with natural and environmental characteristics (Karagöl, Kokolet Valley and Kabaca Valley, etc.) must be accepted as protected areas.

Damar Bull Fight Festival area, which is very close -even inside its borders-, off-road area and Karagöl must be declared as the off-road area and must be protected.

Ponds and landscape works must be made in the mining area and these areas must be designed as the recreation area of the mining area.

Planning must be made well in physical, socio-cultural, economic, and touristic fields in and around Murgul.

During planning stage, viewpoints of local administrations, non-governmental organizations, associations and institutions that are interested in this field, scientists, specialists and local people must be received.

The methods that will be applied in the planning process must be well-known, and must be in international standards.

Investments for Murgul intended for activating the economy and economic activities that are respectful to the local people must be encouraged and the protection-usage balance must be cared for in activities such as ecotourism that are sensitive to the environment.

REFERENCES


Chapter 25

Moscow: Journey From Past to Present

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INTRODUCTION

Moscow has always been the economic, cultural, politic and governance centre of the country in the historical process ranging from the Czarist Russia to the super power of USSR and Russia today. The history of settlement of Moscow is very old.

The city located at the banks of the Moscow river was founded or its name first cited by Yuri Dolgoruki, but actually its past to goes to Neolithic times. It became of the Russian Empire in the 15th century and kept this tide up to 1712, when, St Peterburg became the “new capital”. During these centuries Moscow to be a commercial and religious center of the country and today’s circular city pattern was first devised at that time. The city became capital of the USSR in 1918 and most important characteristic of this city which discriminates it from most of the cities of the West, is the absence of squatters and suburban quarters around the city. This is due to impredimenting internal migration to the city and also initiation of new industrial cities in large scale in order to draw this migrant population and state control of foundation of new residences.

However, upon breaking up of the USSR in 19th August 1991 and beginning of new constructional period, so called “perestroika” gave momentum migration to the city especially Caucasians. Today, the outlook of the city has changed incredibly by population that has reached 12.166.000 people and commercial houses, most of which are founded by capital of the western World.

Archeologic Site and Building of the City

According to the findings obtained from the archaeological excavations, the primitive communities settled in Moscow in the Neolithic era (Okladnikova, 1953) Settlement traces dating back to 3000 BC were found in the Lyalovo village and along the bank of Klyazma River. That the communities living here made a living from fishery and hunting is also understood from the implements made of stone and bone (Mongait, 1955) In the Bronze age, the tribes, representative of Fatyanovsk culture, had engaged with stock-raising. Although the settlement units in small and discrete communities maintained their existence in the Iron Age, the foundation of the first settlement of the modern dates back to the Fin peoples such as Muroma and Mescher that settled along the rivers of Klyazma and Moscow in the VIIIth and IXth centuries and to the Slav peoples that stared to settle around the city from Xth century on. However, having great importance for establishment of the Great Russian State in the Russian history, the city of Moscow was built by Prince Yuri Dolgoruki in 1147 (Kurat, 1987). And the name Moscow was first uttered by Prince Yuri Dolguriki at the same date when he said “Come here, brother, come to Moscow” when he invited Svyatoslav,
his friend and allied, to the city.

It is known that the city was named after the Moscow River flowing near the city. And the term Moscow, which was first given to the river and then to the city was derived from the old Slaving verbs “moknut – get wet” or “byt – “immerse”. In fact, in the modern settlement area and its surroundings, many springs – 800 wetlands and marshes as well as small brooks and tributaries not less than 150 were detected to have existed.

Built by Yuri Dolgoruki as a border post or fortress to protect Suzdal (Suzdal or Vladimir Suzdal territory, middle and lower course of Oka river, middle part of Volga, basin of the rivers Klyazma and Moscow) against other princesdoms (Kurat, 1987), Moscow was a small city which engaged with artisanship and trade in the late XIIth century. In form of a small triangle, the city was surrounded by wood walls and there was a small pier at the river bank. The city developed rapidly because it was located at the junction pint of the roads running from the North Russia to South Russia and from Novgorod to Ryazan, the trade made through the rivers Volga and Don reached to the city through the Moscow river and the Russian people immigrated from the south settled in Moscow (Kurat, 1987).

**Development and Functional Characteristics of the City of Moscow in the Czarist Period**

As the city continued to extend toward the Moscow River between XIIth and XIII centuries, the walls surrounding the city were demolished 5-6 times and rebuilt. Although the city showed a rapid pace of development during the same centuries, Moscow, a small city of artisanship and trade, was exposed to invasion by the Mongols-Tatars and was heavily destructed during these raids with significant reductions in its population. However, as the Moscow princes built good relations with the Golden Horde (the sate established along the Lower Idil in 1232 and kept the 2 Turkish-Mongol domination in Russia) and the princesdom started to expand after 1302 and Great Princesdom to form the seed of the Russian Tsardom was transferred to the Moscow Princesdom encouraged the flow of population to the city again (Zaïckin,.Poçkaev 1992). The city started to grow and develop as a result of the increased population, and the artisanship (forging, casting, jewellery, leather, shoe making, etc.) as well as trade were the primary economic fields in the city as the city was located at the junction point of the important river tributaries and roads.

Quick development of the city in terms of population and economy increased the active role it showed in the political arena and the Metropolitan Bishop (Russian church) in Vladimir moved to Moscow in 1300. Started to act as religious capital of the Russian people in this way, the city gained a significant political effect by the support of the church. However, in 1382, Tokhtamysh Khan (Mongol) advance to Moscow and besieged the city and, besieged for several days, his soldiers entered the city and plundered the city with a reportedly casualty of 24,000 persons in this second invasion of the city (Voronina, Jukov, 1980). Despite of adverse conditions such as assaults by Tatar Khan in 1408 and Kazan domination in 1445, the city population reached to 30-40 thousands.

In late XIVth century and first half of XVth century, settlement of many persons engaging with artisanship and trade settled in the city, residence of the priests in the city caused expansion of the triangle piece of land northward, creating new settlements like
Kitay-gorod, Zarece, Zaneglimene, etc. in fact, the city population reached to 100,000 persons in the said period with number of houses to 41,500 (Kurat, 1987).

In the end of XVth century, Moscow became the capital of the Russian State at time of Ivan III and declared as the third Rome by the Orthodox (first Rome, second Constantinople – modern Istanbul) Kurat, 1987). Once declared as “holy city” in this way, the city became more important and many merchants came to Moscow from Italy, Germany, Poland and Hungary. The products made by the artisans in Moscow by using the goods these merchants brought for commercial purpose (weapons, woven fabrics, leather, crockery, jewelry) strengthened commercial identity of the city and it has caused formation of a big market in the modern Red Square (Krasniyos had, Red Square; there are two difference conviction about this name given by the people. One of them is that the Czar removed the market here in 1679 and rearranged the square and thus the term “Krasniy”, meaning “beautiful, nice” in ancient Russian, was started to be used for this square. And the second one is that a riot against Great Peter I in the autumn of 1698 was quelled and the rebels were executed in the Red Square and the term meaning “red” in the modern Russian language was used referring the flow of blood). Maintained its existence up to 1679, this market was removed by the order of the Czar Fedor Alekseyevic and the first steps were taken to give the modern appearance of the Red Square (Frolkin, 1987). As there were wooden houses build along the narrow streets except for Kremlin (Kreml means fortress) surrounded by high and thick walls, the city was greatly affected by the fire in 1547. However, as it maintained its position as a commercial and religious centre, it played important role on the short recovery and development of the city with the city borders extending to the place of Sadovoe Kaltso. In fact, when compared with European cities of the Middle age, Moscow as bigger than London, Florence and Praha and equal to Paris in size.

The circular plan of the city appeared early XVth century is interesting as it constitutes the core of the modern city plan of Moscow. And the same years are important as they also created the basis of the cultural function of modern Moscow. In fact, collection of authors, painters, and scientists at a centre, building of the first printing house (1553) and architectural developments (Pokrovski church or Vasili Blajeniy – church to be symbol of Moscow) are primary developments in this respect (Voronina, Jukov 1980).

Although invasion of the city by Crimeans in 1571, great famine causing death of 127 thousands of people in the period 1601-1603, transfer of the capital to Petersburg in 1712 and finally, death of 57 thousands of people in the black plague in 1771 (Vidro, 1976) all have created short-term stagnation in the development of the city, they do not prevent the city from maintaining its status as a commercial, economic and cultural centre for the entire Russia with its population reached to 217 thousands in 1784. By late XVIIIth century, radial city plan of radial structure completed towards the end of XVIIth century and the houses were built of wood except for the palace, monastery and churches.

Although the capital was moved to Petersburg in 1712, Moscow continued to develop by establishment of the first academy in 1687, opening of the schools of mathematics, architecture, medicine and engineering, start of the first theatre in 1702,
Figure 1: Development of Moscow city

Publication of first newspaper (Vedomosti) in 1703, opening of the first Russian University in 1755 (today he building of Istoricheski museum (historical museum). And
the first steps were taken for city planning when stone houses were built in the streets and blind streets outside Kremlin in 1704, construction of new bridges instead of old wooden bridges in the same period and installation of a simple water network in 1781 (Voronina, Jukov 1980).

In 1811, the city population reached to 275 thousands and it went down to 10 thousands upon siege of the city by Napoleon in 1812 and abandonment of Moscow or for support of the army by its residents. When the armies of Napoleon retreated in September 1812, they set the city on fire resulting in destruction of the 3 city. The city was rearranged by a commission set up after this date and the Red Square got its modern appearance as a result of central plan made by famous architects.

Presence of workshops dealing with textile products, leather (especially shoes) and metal processing with 250 workshops in number in 1812 is important with respect to the steps taken by Moscow in the way of industrialization. In fact, by the late 19th century, Moscow became the second centre after Petersburg, showing important developments in the textile filed. Around the same dates, in parallel to the steps taken by 4 the city in the way of industrialization, the increased population caused expansion of the settlement around almost in all directions and thus the settlement area went beyond Sadovoe koltso, but in accordance with the circular city plan. Development of the economic life and settlement area of the city caused some arrangements in the transportation, communication and cultural services. Formation of new roads in the city, first use of horse carts in 1872 and of tramway in 1899 for transportation, installation of the first telephone station in 1882, first trunk call in Petersburg in 1898 as well as opening of the technical schools and construction of 9 train stations in the period 1903-1908 making it possible to reach to various regions of the country by railway, all these developments, accelerated the population flow to the city. While today the settlement area of the city extended in northwest direction by Dimirovsk road and to northeast by Syolkovsk road, it also extended to east by Zntuziastov road and to southeast by Leninskiy prospect (avenue).

In the early XXth century, there were considerable small and medium scale industrial facilities in Moscow, which was almost equal to St. Petersburg as an industrial centre with the textile industry ranking first which accounted for 67.5 of the total industrial workers. Furthermore, the organizations of electronics and chemical industry which are in the course of developments were built completely by foreign capital, especially by investments made by the Germans. City regained its circular plan again in 1917 and the city population reached to 2,017,000 with a city area of 176.7 km². As to the settlement texture in the said period, it was characterized as 1-2 storey houses with large gardens occupied by the rich and aristocrat people in the centre and, around this centre, wooden houses with quite unhygienic conditions occupied by the workers and poor people.

**Development and Functional Characteristics of the City of Moscow in the Socialist Period (1917-1991)**

New economic, politic and cultural life started in 1917 in Moscow which became the capital of USSRS on March 11, 1918 has been the factor in the development of the current city plan. Basic elements in the city plans of the socialist societies have been the factors in determining the city development. Taking of all resolutions by the government from acquisition of houses to the organization of the industrial and
commercial zones or even to keeping the population under control to remain in a certain growth limit all are main factors of the city plans peculiar to the socialist societies. With the socialist era, housing acquisition operations were launched quickly in Moscow. To this end, especially a type of housing acquisition appeared by distribution of the houses formerly owned by the rich people (called “kommunalnaya kvartira” (communal houses). While hard economic conditions caused by the World War I and 1917 Revolution were effective in adopting such type of acquisition, the common life mentality declared by the communist manifest has also been equally effective. In fact, in line with this thought, the giant mansions having many rooms formerly owned by the Russian bourgeois were transformed to “communal houses” where 2 or 3 families lived in their own room with the kitchen and toiled used jointly. These houses were especially in the downtown (former Arbat, Kaltso Boulevard, Ostajenka, Volhonka, etc.). And another type of housing was “gosudartsvenava kvartira” (government houses), which were considerably similar with the “communal house”. Mostly located at the areas of vacant or old houses given to the working class families, these houses were completely owned by the state. However, the most effective type of housing in the development of the settlement area of the city are cooperative houses called “kooperativnaya kvartira”. They were first built between the years 1924-30 and the most distinguishing characteristic of these houses was that they had a certain standard (Keleş, 1990). As common characteristics of these houses, they were multi-storey (10 and above), with average size 30-60m² and mostly built by prefabricated building materials.

With a population reached to 3,633,000 in 1933, the city plan prepared in 135 responded to the housing demand of the people. Actually, an area over 3 million m² was assigned to the housing construction and thus the settlement area advanced in small spots towards the highways (Yaroslavkoe, Leningratskoe (St. Peterburg), Minskoe, Kievskoe, Varşavskoe, Volgogradski and Znutuziastov).

In the hard times of the World War II, the population reduced (2,500,000) as most of the Moscow dwellers went to the war and some of them immigrated to the eastern parts of the country. Because of this fact, the settlement area of the city did not changed much in the period of 1939-45. However, construction of the collective housing areas in 1957 using the prefabricated building components for the first time has been effective in the rapid development of the settlement area of the city. In fact, with addition of 17 new districts in 1960, the settlement areas approached much to the circular highway (its construction started in 1856 and opened to traffic in 1962), which was called “Moskovskoy kaltsevoj avtomobilnoy dorogi” forming the city borders. Efforts to stop the city population at the level of 5 million, actually being 6,053,000 persons, and limit it have not been effective (Keleş, 1990). Prohibition of immigration movement by the state or even need of visa (a document showing the destination city, duration and place of stay) when moving from one city to another and widespread small and 5 medium-scale cities across the country could not achieve to restrict enlargement of Moscow. And this occurred as a result of decisions implemented by the new state. However, as the dwellers of Moscow generally worked in the state fields of business (university graduates, public service, top level management in the industry and business) and it required hiring workers from other parts of the country to work as unqualified hand, particularly in the construction works and the students were reluctant to leave this city after they graduate as the city offered relatively higher opportunities to them and the people coming from all other parts of the country for various reasons got married and
settled in the city (the government always gives house to the married couples), all of these factors had led to the population growth. As the incoming people were never allowed by the government to build house by their own means on the city area owned by the government, it was the primary factor in preparation of new city plants and to this purpose widespread construction of new cooperative housing from 1960 on. According to the city plan issued, the city was divided into 8 zones (centre, north, east, southeast, south, southwest, west, northwest) and each zone had its own centre, each with a main transportation artery connection with a population of 600 thousands – 1 million.

Planning operations started in 1935 for the central zone include restoration of the buildings in Kremlin and Sodovoe koltso by keeping their original architectural structures, widening some avenues and streets and rearrangement of the squares and boulevards.

And development of other zones on the areas contouring the city which were mostly owned by the villages was accelerated after 1960 as described above. The houses started to be constructed in the 1960s in the west zone (Borodinskaya) and southeast zone (Industrialnaya zona) extended to the south zone (Kolomenskaya zona) in 1970s and to southwest (Lomono zona) and to the east zone (Izmaylovskaya zona) and northwest zone (Himkinskaya zona) by the end of 1980s. The circular city plan of the same character with the circular highway drawing the city border in the past years was degenerated due to the settlements crossing the border and extending in direction of north (Dimitrovskoe) – northwest (St. Petersburg and Volokolamskoe highways), southwest (northwest of Kiev highway), south (Warsaw highway) and east (northeast of Ryazan highway) by late 1980 in form of small spots.

Among the standard characteristics of these zones, which were divided into ‘Microraiions’ (small districts) are that they are consisted of apartment blocks of collective housing style, varying between 10-20 storeys, with their forest surrounding definitely preserved and mostly used as children’s ground and recreation areas, presence of one or two supermarkets for shopping and facilities for sports, healthcare and training services.

And the business areas in the city are relatively different from those of the western countries and Turkey which are characterized by the concentrated and noticeable Central Business Area. The business partly concentrated in the city centre are devoid of competition as they are owned by the state and they are in form of stores, not having any attractive features for to stimulate shopping (and the population in the city are, opposed to those of the western countries) are not members of a consumption society). Among these stores, the store named “GUM” which was opened as business centre in 1893 and then transformed to state-owned universal store (gosudarsivenny universalnıy magazin) in 1922 has a special place.

In addition to the two-storey giant business centre built on an area of 7,500 m² to provide service for periodical needs, there are stores called “TSUM” (Tsentralnıy universal magazin) operating to address to the daily and periodical needs and multi-storey stores addressing to the children’s needs such as “Getskiy Mir” (Children’s world), “Dom Iruski” (Toy House) located in the downtown.

In addition to this giant business centres in the city centre, there are big stores, mostly two-storey, called “Univermag” (universalnıy magazin) spread over various districts of the city where electric home appliances, clothing, gift articles, glassware,
electronics and food products are sold, “Gastronom” (stores where milk and milk products, meat, bread, canned goods and similar products are sold in separate departments), “Produktiy” (stores selling vegetables and fruits), all of them built in the said period across the city.

In the period 1917-1991, the primary function dominants in the city were general administrative services and manufacturing industry. In the beginning of the XXth century, Moscow showed development especially in the textile industry where Moscow Public Economic Commission (MKH Moskovskoe kommunalnoe khozyaystva) played active role by making economic plans towards the end of 1930 for industrial development. The purpose of the commission reports, issued in form of five-years plans, was to transform the industrial branches called as “light industry” to heavy industry in the city and, furthermore, rearranged the industrial facilities started to operate prior to 1917 for increase of production and to open new industrial organizations.

The most important industrial branch in Moscow are the organizations which manufacture machinery and machinery parts, having great share in the gross national product and total number of employees. Out of these organizations, particularly the organizations which manufacture transportation vehicles take a majority place in the Fourth Five-Year Industrial Plan covering the period 1946-50. The car plant Lihacyou Moscow manufacturing passenger cars and trucks, Lenin car plant manufacturing automobiles of Moskovic brand have considerable share among these organizations. As the period 1940-45 coincided with the World War II, it created important change in the industrial character of the city and it was effective in the development of industrial branches that manufactured war equipment (16,000 war planes, several thousands of tanks, 35 million weapons, 287 million ammunition and other war materials).

The most importance of the Fifth Five Year Industrial Plan covering 1951-55 for the city is the completion of the development plan in 4 years 4 months due to switching to automatic production to a great extent. In the same period, the production potential increased very much (automotive industry 30%, transformer production 50%, electric hoisting production 75%, textile products 10%) and the finished products were sold to 55 countries (Voronina,.Jukov, 1980).

Having close links with the machinery and textile industries which are great value quantitatively in the city, the chemical industry (especially car polish and paint and fabric dye) showed big development after the decisions taken by the party in the period 1959-65. The most important development in the chemical industry, which also carried out production of perfumery and medicine, was the organization that operated in the petrochemical field. After the industrial branches producing machinery and machinery accessories in the city, the organizations employing the greatest number of workers are plants which operate in the field of knitwear woven products. Furthermore, there are industrial facilities in the city which produce food and construction materials.

And the infrastructure services in the city showed considerable developments in the said period. The transportation services providing in-city connection have great importance among these services. For in-city transportation, taxies also provided service in addition to buses, tramways, trolleybus and subway. In addition to the buses started to be used in 1924 for the first time and the trolleybuses started to carry passengers in 1933, the subway in length of 11.6km was constructed in 1935, making Moscow one of the most developed cities in the field of public transportation in the
1940s. Bus and trolleybus lines developed in parallel with the expansion of the settlement area of the city as well as the subway consisting of 132 stations and running on 10 lines have considerably solved transportation problem in the city where heavy weather conditions are dominant.

Connection of the city with other cities and countries is achieved by Moscow railway (St Petersburg and other stations) and four airports one of which being international (Seremetevo opened in 1965) in addition to the orbital motorway started to be constructed in 1956 and completed in 1962.

In the city, public services such as installation of electricity, energy, water and gas distribution and sewerage system, planting, waste treatment and garbage collection were systematized during the said period. Electricity was supplied to the entire city in 1925 and the rivers Yaytza and Mosvow were taken into channel in 1937, natural gas network was created in 1950s and central heating system and hot water distribution was provided to almost all houses to count some of the urban innovations.

A world class science and culture centre, Moscow has the prestigious organizations of “Sciences Academy” which was moved from St. Petersburg to Moscow in 1934 and Moscow Lomonosov University established in 1755. Moscow State University was founded by Mihail Vasilevic Lomonosov, which later moved to its new place in a modern campus on Lenin hills in the period 1950-70, covering 164 hectares. Consisting of three faculties when it was first founded (medicine, law and literature), the university currently has 16 faculties. Foreign students from 122 countries including the Asian, African and Latin American countries study in the university.

**Development and Functional Characteristics of the City in the Perestroika (Restructuring) Period**

With dissolution of the Soviet Union on August 19, 1991, some changes occurred in Moscow as the capital of the Russian Federation in connection with new economic and politic life. Adoption of the free market economy and participation of foreign capital as a result of new economic decisions taken by the country has been the primary reason of this change. In this period, the most important change in the city compared with the socialist period is observed in the business field. In fact, the central business area which did not show an intensive and distinguished character in the socialist period gained a difference appearance compared to the former period with the increase in the number of the multi-storey shopping centres and retail stores on the ground floors of the buildings, especially in Sadovoe koltso, the former city centre. Western countries, especially Germany and USA purchased or leased for long terms some buildings owned by the state to create multi-storey hypermarkets to the appeal of the Russian people. The most important characteristic that differentiate the stores selling completely import goods against US dollar or Euro from the state stores selling against Ruble is that you do not have to wait for in the long line when purchasing any product. And the state-owned GUM store which was the giant business centre of the socialist period where domestic goods used to be sold for periodical needs transformed into a shopping centre which contain German, France and Italian cosmetic and clothing companies. Another noticeable characteristic of the business life in the city is creation of a type of market where any kind of goods including sale of fresh vegetables and fruits (books, canned goods, clothing articles or even pets such as cats and dogs) upon start of free market economy. The markets of such type are frequently seen almost in all districts of the city,
especially 7 in the most populated places of the city such as main streets, underpasses, subway stations, bus and trolleybus stops.

In this period, distinct changes were observed in the population character of the city. Upon elimination of the visa practice almost completely which contained authorizations required to be taken from the government agencies to go from one city to another which had been strictly implemented in the Socialist period to keep the population growth in certain limits, the city became crowded by the people coming from Ukraine, Belarus and Caucasus. Primary factor underlying this flow is to find a job in Moscow which provides higher chance of employment compared to other parts of the country. However, economic problems of the country removed change of finding job. Because of these reason, the “markets” of such type as mentioned above were created in this way, sowing the first seed of marginal sector in a sense.

Furthermore, the economic problems of the Russian Federation has considerably reflected on the development of the industrial and construction sector in the city, leading to great recessions in these field. In fact, today, structuring of the city in the field of construction is undertaken by the Western countries, especially Turkey. In the period covering the years 1994-94, some surplus plants stopped their productions and production volume was estimated to be 0.9% in the said years.

CONCLUSION

Like all cities strictly planned by the city planners in the Soviet Union, the city of Moscow underwent a rapid change against the economic realities in the post-Soviet period. However, the Soviet city plans were not eliminated in the raped changed experienced in the settlement texture of the city. Existence of the city planner who desire to maintain the traditions of the seventy years of awkward Soviet Union has been important factor in maintain the Soviet city structure. In fact, as the city plans created by the Soviet planners were formulated according to the public need (green areas, public transportation, healthcare, etc.), they are the most appropriate city plans in some respects. Actually, there are “microraiions” built at the outer contour of Moscow.

On the other hand, like all Soviet cities, Moscow do not have unplanned city traces or, in other word, slums or ghettos unlike the less developed countries. The Soviet city plans play important role in the fact that no unplanned settlements are created. The reason is that the Soviet city planning never allows illegal housing. Instead, settlement areas were formed in the 1980s and 1990s around the city as planned and built by the state in connection with the economy and local policy. However, particularly after dissolution of the Soviet Union, new expensive and individual projects occurred in Moscow like in many cities from the 1990s on. These are housing areas which are mostly financed by Gazprom and other big companies and commissioned to the planners.

Today a rapid change occurs in most part of the old settlement areas of the city. Transformation of the old housing areas to the office buildings, elite boutique stores and new high rise buildings for the rich (with some property costing USD1,000,000 in some parts of Moscow) and new corporate buildings are result of this rapid change in the city. In fact, 5-storey buildings located in the streets of Dejneva, Profsoyuznaya, Rusakovskaya, Narodnogo Opolcheniya, Yablochkova, Koçtoyantsa, Pavlova, Yartsevskaya, Generala Karbševa and in the avenues of Jukova and Leninskiy are intended to be demolished. Covering an area of 25 million m² and housing 25 million
persons, these buildings will be demolished and 14-, 16-, 18- and 22-storey buildings will be constructed instead of them in order to provide housing for much more families. Instead of this five-storey buildings made of adobe, mostly built at the time of Khrushchev, modern multi-storey buildings will be constructed with smaller living spaces, but allowing more families to live in these giant buildings. Furthermore, it is intended to renew appearance of the city by providing of brand-new apartments to the people formerly lived in the adobe houses. In addition to it, personal residences and office towers are constructed in many areas of the city. However, transformation of the public areas reserved to the public for parks and squares secretly causes protests by the city dwellers.

In the post-Soviet period, modern and private houses started to be constructed for the rich around the Moscow (Podmoskovye) and hence the peripheries of the city also took its share from this change and they are denationalized rapidly. This new type of settlement consisting of prestigious houses are mostly constructed on the flood plains or recreation areas such as forest in an illegal way or by taking advantage of gaps in the legislation. These newly developing houses are mostly areas completely fenced and protected by private security officers 22 hours to keep the “unauthorized persons”.

In the post-Soviet period, the functional structure of the city also underwent changes. While Moscow stood out with its industrial function in the former periods, it is in the process of renewal in industrial respect like many old Soviet industrial cities. For example, although many old plants still exist, ZIL truck plant was moved from Moscow. In recent years, a function, presumably more important than the industry, is transformation of this socialist city to a finance centre. The biggest renewal in this respect is construction of high rise business centres consisting of offices and chosen retail business centres over an area of 2 million m² on the bank of Moscow River to the west of the city centre.

Another function that Moscow gained in the post-Soviet period is tourism. Rich cultural, historical and natural works of the city allowed development of the culture tourism. In fact, the foreign exchange inflow from this functional characteristic lead to protection of about 220 touristic buildings by the government. And the neighbouring cities of Moscow, i.e. Sergiyev Posad, Zvenigorod, Serpuhov and Kolomna have also attract higher number of tourists each year.

Closed to the external world in the period Soviet Union, today this legendary capital has been transformed to a great business and congress tourism hub where congresses, forums, festivals, industrial exhibitions and fairs are organized.

The functional characteristics that the city has gained as well as new settlement areas led to immigration of workers from many Russian cities and many cities of other former USSR countries to the city. In fact, while the landscaping works are provided by the Tajiks, construction works are performed by Moldovan, Belarus or Turkish workers. Today none of the former USSR countries has ethnic ghettos or slums unlike Latin American or Asian cities; however, it may change in near future. Furthermore, life in the city with its population of 12,166 becomes increasingly difficult for the residents of Moscow and as the share taken from the cake gets smaller, xenophobia increases.

Industrial development around the city caused increase in the water, air and soil pollution. Old sewage, heating and power system originally formulated for different types of production now become insufficient due to the increased burden and they frequently break down. The city services, cheaper formerly, now become expensive.
For example, electricity and garbage collection prices increase higher than the inflation rate (between 20% and 30 annually).

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Chapter 26

Distribution of Tourism Activities in Portugal

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INTRODUCTION

Located at the Iberian Peninsula in the southwest of Europe, Portugal is the westernmost country of the Continental Europe. Being neighbor of Spain in the north and east, Portugal is surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean in the south and west.

Portugal has a favorable position for development of tourism thanks to its coast line of 1794 km along the Atlantic Ocean. There are magnificent beaches and surfing locations along the long coast. In addition to their natural beauty, the beaches along the coast are also noticeably clear. Portugal has 314 blue-flag beaches and ranks 5th following Spain (579), Turkey (436), Greece (395) and France (379) (http://portugalresident.com). Madeira and Azores Islands in the Atlantic Ocean also make contribution to the country tourism. Furthermore, Portugal has 21 locations consisting of central, archaeological sites, nature parks and cultural places, which are included in the UNESCO World Heritage List. With all these features, Portugal has significant potential for development of tourism.

Most developed tourism activities are in Lisbon, the capital. Apart from Lisbon, the cities such as Porto, Sintra and Cascais with a variety of attractions, Algarve region in the south which is famous with sun-sea-sand and golf tourism and Madeira Island are among locations where tourism activities concentrate. Developed as “sun-sea-sand” tourism for long years, the tourism industry in Portugal continues its development by different types of tourism today such as healthcare, sports, culture, business and green tourism (Duarte, 2015; Özgüç, 2017).

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TOURISM ACTIVITIES IN THE COUNTRY

Transformation of the tourism activities in the country to an industry realized after the country became a member of the European Union. Joined the European Union in 1986, Portugal has informed its transportation infrastructure such as roads, railways and airports by using the funds received from the European Union. Improved infrastructure has benefited most to the tourism industry, leading to development of the tourism activities in Portugal. Thus Portugal has left behind its isolation and economic protective status which lasted hundreds of years and entered in a well-planned development period. Low labor prices in the country allowed increase of tourism investments ( Özgüç, 2017; Milheiro, 2004).

In 1973, 4 million tourists visited the country. In 1975, one out of four tourists visiting the country was Spanish. The Spanish were followed by the British and German tourists (Diem, 1979). While number of tourists was 1.7 million in 1978, it reached to 5.4 in 1986, after being a member of the European Union, and to 12.1 million in 2000, making Portugal among the first 20 countries attracting most tourist worldwide.
However, the economic crisis in the subsequent years has caused reduction in the number of incoming tourists, from 6.8 million in 2010 to 7.4 million in 2011 and 9.3 million in 2014 (Table 1). Number of tourists exceeded 10 million again only after 2015, reaching to 12.7 million in 2017 (UNWTO, 2017; Statistics Portugal, 2018). Terrorist actions increased in France, Turkey, Egypt and Tunisia in recent years have been important factors in the orientation of the tourists to safe country of Portugal (Alfaia et al., 2017). According to the Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report issued by the World Economic Forum, Portugal ranks 14th among 140 countries in terms of environmental sustainability and security. And this fact also stimulates demand to the country and encourages development of tourism activities in the country (World Economic Forum, 2017).

Table 1: Number of Incoming Tourists of Portugal and Changes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Number of Tourists (million)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Incoming tourists of Portugal was 12.67 million in 2017. The largest group of foreign tourists visiting the country was from the United Kingdom (22.3%). It is followed by Germany (13.6%), the neighbor Spain (9.7%) and France (9.5%) (Statistics Portugal, 2018). Portugal is the second country in which the British have gone the most after Spain. The most powerful reason that the British visit Portugal is that they can purchase package tours at favorable prices (Özgüç, 2017; Statistics Portugal, 2018).

In 2016, 78% of 53.5 million overnight visits in the country was made by the foreign tourists and 22% by the local tourists (UNWTO, 2017). The British is leader among the foreign tourists on overnight basis, followed by the German, Spanish, French and Dutch (Table 2). In 2017, number of tourists (local-foreign) who spent at least one night in the tourism facilities almost doubled the national population, reaching to 20.6 million. In 2017, with 57.5 million overnight, the average stay term per tourist was 2.79 nights (Statistics Portugal, 2018).
Table 2: Number of Overnight Accommodation by Foreign Tourists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Number of Overnight Accommodation by Foreign Tourists (million)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Portugal is also a country of a rapidly developing domestic tourism. Number of domestic tourists was 7.96 million in 2017 (Statistics Portugal, 2018).

Tourism is the biggest sector in the Portuguese economy (OECD, 2017). Tourism revenue of Portugal exceeded USD14 billion in 2016 (Table 3). Tourism revenues accounts for 10% of the gross domestic product (GDP) of the country (UNWTO, 2017; Statistics Portugal, 2018).

Table 3: Tourism Revenue of Portugal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Tourism Revenue of Portugal (million US $)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>10.077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>13.808</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>12.705</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>14.036</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Revenue generated by the hotels along the Atlantic coast only, including the domestic tourism, was 3.4 billion Euro (USD 4.20 billion) in 2017 (https://www.reuters.com). In addition to the revenue it generates, the tourism also contributes to the national economy by means of employment opportunities it creates. 10% of the total employment in the country accounts for the employees working in the tourism industry (UNWTO, 2017; Oliveira, 2014). According to the Portuguese Association of Hotels and Catering Companies (AHRESP), tourism is the sector which has created the biggest employment growth in the country in the last five years (www.ahresp.com).

MAIN TOURISM AREAS

Tourism destinations in Portugal are located along the coast line, and mountainous locations and islands.

Coastal Locations

The locations in Portugal that attract tourists most are the low areas along the coast. We may examine these coasts by categorizing them under four groups: Costa Verde, Costa da Prata, Costa Libsoa and Algarve. Costa Verde has green appearance with its lush forests. Although precipitation allowing such green landscape also restricts the tourism, the development of tourism activities goes on. In this part of the country, Porto is the city with the highest tourism activities. Porto is the second big city of the
country following Lisbon. Included in the World Heritage List by UNESCO, the city is also an important industrial centre. Although Porto appears rather a riverside town, it is actually a big city. While Port wine, specially produced at the wine plants located on the banks of Douro River, is a significant means of revenue of the city, it is also an important attraction for tourism as well. The city, where rich Portuguese cuisine products are offered at affordable prices. Located on the bank of Douro River in the city, Ribeira region attracts attention with its cozy town atmosphere and recreational activities. Porto also draws attention with its historical works. Among them are Ponte Louise Bridge, the symbol of the city, Aliados Square, Se Cathedral and Clerigos Church. While Porto allows tourists to enjoy the beaches along the ocean and a rich cuisine accompanied by Port wine, it has also an active night life (Galeria de Paris and Ribeira region). Furthermore, the countryside with beautiful beaches around the city also makes the city attractive for the tourists.

Coast of Costa da Prata runs from Espinho in south of Porta to Estramadura. The coast is flat, but occasionally surrounded by lagoons and salt marches. They are discharged through a series of channels; for this reason, the city of Aveiro likens Venice. The most important historical city inland is Coimbra. It is the third biggest city of Portugal and one of the oldest university cities of Europe. Despite the long sandy beaches along the coast, the resorts are quite small and scattered. The climactic conditions bear characteristics of the Atlantic Ocean, rather than Mediterranean. These coasts mostly serve for the increasing domestic tourism (Özgüç, 2017).

Costa Lisboa actually forms a wide transition zone towards the Mediterranean climate. The most important tourism centre along this coast is Lisbon, a port city. Being the capital and biggest city of the country, Lisbon has a settlement site dating back to the pre-Roman period (Özgüç, 2017). Built on an estuary created by the Tagus River on the Atlantic coast, Lisbon was the capital of Portugal which had sovereignty over a vast geography spanning from Brazil to the Philippines in the 15th and 16th centuries. In fact, Lisbon, the capital of the country since 1260, enjoyed its most magnificent period at the time of Portugal Empire in 16th century. With great cultural and historical assets it has, Lisbon is the city where all grandeur of the powerful ancient Portugal Empire shows itself. Today, being a business and commercial centre, the city is also the most significant tourism centre of Portugal thanks to its cultural and historical wealth (Alfaiate et al., 2017)

Located at the estuary of the Tagus River, Lisbon is the city where the tourism has developed most with its appropriate climactic conditions (average temperature is 22°C in the midsummer and 117 sunny days annually in average (2799 hours of sunlight) and average precipitation of 708mm) as well as magnificent landscapes, beaches, unique historical and cultural resources. Tourism activities in Lisbon are supported by the sun and sea tourism as well as cultural festivals, sport organizations and business tourism (Özgüç, 2017; Duarte, 2015).

Lisbon ranks 8th among the cities mostly visited worldwide (https://www.lonelyplanet.com). The city is mostly visited by the British, German, French and Dutch tourists (Alfaiate et al., 2017). With a revenue of about €6 billion, the tourism sector accounts for 14.5% of the GDP of the city in 2015, providing direct employment for 80,000 persons (BNP Paribas, 2015; Alfaiate et al., 2017). Having 40% of five-star hotel capacity in Portugal, Lisbon is generally preferred by elite tourists. Lisbon tries to adapt itself to the increased number of foreign tourists by increasing
number of hotels and rooms. Occupancy rate in the accommodation facilities in Lisbon reached to 74% in 2016 (UNWTO; 2017; Özgüç, 2017). With its steep street and pastel-painted houses, Lisbon is called as San Francisco of Europe. Among the mostly visited sites of the city are the historical downtown called Baixa, Lisbon Cathedral dating back to 12th century, Praço do Comercio (Business Square), Nossa Senhora da Conceição Velha Church, Rossio Square, Restauradores Square, Elevador de Santa Justa (city lift of Neu-Gothic style), Jeronimos Monastery, Belem Tower, Padraodos Descobrimentos (Discoveries Monument) and Carmo Convent. Furthermore, Lisbon is an important tourism city with its museums. They include Ancient Art National Museum, Gülbenkyan Museum, Portuguese Azule Mosaic Museum, Lisboa Oceanography Museum, Belem cultural Centre, National Carriage Museum and Pharmacy Museum. Lisbon is also one of the important European cities for cultural and art events. Especially concentrated in the months of autumn and winter, the art events are performed at Teatro Nacional de Sao Carlos, Belem Cultural Centre, and D. Maria Theatre (www.turizmgazetesi.com, 2018).

Lisbon is also the busiest cruise port along the Atlantic coast. Four passenger terminals at the port provide service to over 400,00 passengers each year. While a greater part of the incoming tourists are British, they are followed by the German and Italian tourists (http://www.cm-lisboa).

Coast of Lisbon runs straight in a series of long beaches. Some parts of it address to both long-term stay and daytrips for tourists. For example, Cacis (Estoril) has casino-night life and a variety of sport facilities. Troia is a modern centre for golf and water sport facilities, restaurant and hotel complexes. In this part of the country, apart from Lisbon, there are many historical places easy to access like Sintra, Queluz and Mafra. More than 30 percent of the tourists visiting Portugal directs to this region which provides sun and sea opportunities in addition to a great variety of cultural attractions (Özgüç, 2017).

Spanning in the south of Portugal, Algarve coast dominates tourism industry of the country. Almost half of the national accommodation capacity is here and majority of the foreign tourists prefers it. Although its neighbor is the Atlantic Ocean, it bears characteristics of Mediterranean climate. It has long, hot and dry summers, receiving no precipitation in the months of July and August. Although average temperature is lower than that of the Mediterranean, the maximum temperature reaches to 28°C in the summer. Thanks to the appropriate climactic conditions in the region tourism season lasts long (from May to September). Algarve coast has sandy beaches of great beauty. In addition to their natural beauty, the beaches also attract attention due to their cleanliness. Out of the total 314 blue-flag beaches in Portugal, 88 beaches are here. Additionally, for marinas of the region (Vilamoura, Albufeira, Portimão and Lagos) also have blue flag (http://portugalresident.com).

Algarve region has important part of the national accommodation capacity. In addition to great number of hotels, the region also has a variety of accommodation facilities such as holiday apartments, apart hotels, guest houses and pensions. In the region, high-rise hotels, villas and apartments cover the entire coast. Hotels are mostly in Portimão and apartments in Albufeira and Loulé.Lagos and Villa Real, at opposite ends of the coast, have many camping places. Accommodation facilities in the region were adjusted according to the budge of the British tourists. However, all these developments as well as unplanned and rapid growth of resorts have caused
environmental damage. In 1992, the government has put into effect a strategic plan to review the hotels stock and image of Algarve (Özgüç, 2017).

Faro is an important tourism destination along the coast of Algarve. In addition to its appropriate climatic conditions (temperature does not exceed 28°C in the summer; number of dry months is more than three and precipitation is 453 mm), Faro is a quite attractive city with its magnificent beaches, historical downtown surrounded by the ancient Moorish walls and shopping centre. Boat tours setting out from the city marina and visiting Ria Formosa National Park and the quietest beach in Algarve further improves charm of the city. That Praia de Faro, the main beach in Faro, is 5 minutes bus travel from the airport also attracts attention of the tourists. In the region of Algarve, Faro is also the primary transfer centre for transportation activities (airway, railway and bus).

Another important tourism centre along the coast of Algarve is Lagos. Located at the west end of Algarve, Lagos has sandstone rocks and wide beaches. While Lagos has the best beach of Algarve, Dona Ana, there are rift formations of Ponta da Piedade along the coast. Besides its natural beauties, the city draws attention with its historical assets (castle, churches and former slave market, etc.). And daily tours from Lago to Sagos, a small fishing village, and Algarve hills are also attractive for the tourists.

Mountainous Areas

In Portugal, tourism activities are also seen at the mountainous areas in addition to the coasts. Although the mountainous parts of Portugal are not very high (Minho 780m; Trasos Montes above 1500m), they provide interesting landscapes. While Minho, covered by virgin forests of pine trees, is very appropriate for hiking and mountaineering, Trasos Montes is in form of a straight plateau occasionally disrupted by deep valleys. Beira plateau rich in pine and chestnut trees and Alentejo plateau draws attention by its completely agricultural appearance. In the mountainous parts, there are many virgin historical settlements like Estramoz and Portalegre as well as towns like Evora surrounded by ancient walls and dating back to the 12th century and taking place in the list of UNESCO World Heritage, but they draw little tourist (Özgüç, 2017).

Islands

Madeira and Azores islands are also among places where the tourism activities are widespread. Tourism activities in Madeira Islands are more developed that those of the Azores. Canary Islands are to the south of Madeira Islands and Morocco in the east and with the Azores in the northwest. Islands so-called Madeira archipelago are completely settled. There are settlements only in the islands of Madeira and Porto Santo. Dominated by the subtropical climate conditions, Madeira Island has an area of 737 km². Madeira, a volcanic island, is 57 km from east to west and 22km from north to south. A greater part of the island is covered by mountains and the coastal part of it is very humid and rocky. With their blue sea, green flora, rare birds, fishes and other endemic living beings, two thirds of Madeira and Porto Santo islands are under protection (Özgüç, 2017; www.tursab.org.tr).

Thanks to its temperate climate, natural beauties and low crime rate, Madeira Island has attracted the tourists for 200 years. Madeira attracts visitors throughout the year and it is rather visited by foreign tourists. While mostly Spanish and Portuguese tourists visit the islands in summer, they come from other parts of Europe, especially

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from Scandinavian to enjoy the sun in winter. While the foreign tourists are largely English and German, they are followed by Scandinavian tourists. Connection of the British with the island is based on Madeira wine. In 18th century, wine merchants built manors here for use in winters. Throughout 20th century, the islands were used by the European, especially British, celebrities as resorts and modern tourism activities started in 1960 upon construction of Funchal airport (Özgüç, 2017; www.tursab.org.tr).

Madeira serves the tourists with opportunities of sea, mountain, forest, bird-whale observation, gastronomy, history, arts and cultural features as well as urban and rural landscapes with their intact traditional architecture. The most frequently visited place in the island is the historical downtown of the capital Funchal with its history dating 500 years back. Here Sago Tiago Castle, Sao Lourenço Palace, Se Cathedral and Lavradores market are among the most frequently visited places. Additionally, Monte Hill, Picos de Barcelos observation point and Eiro do Serrado Valley with its magnificent landscape, Garden of Monte Palace and Orchid Garden for botanic fans are also among the attractive spaces for the visitors. And, with its natural beach in length of 7 km and house and museum of Christophe Colomb, Porto Santo Island is rather preferred by the visitors for resting purpose (www.tursab.org.tr).

Although Madeirais among the favourite destination points in the international tourism, it encounters with some problems, particularly lack of water, due to the dry climate and increased demand. Furthermore, its topography and insufficient length of runway of Funchal airport also affect growth of tourism negatively. Despite of these problems, Madeira is the third important region with its tourism activities in Portugal, following Algarve and Lisbon.

In Portugal, there are also tourism activities in the Azores Islands located in the Atlantic Ocean, further north from Madeira. The entire Azores are consisted of 9 islands with Sao Migue Island being the biggest one (slightly bigger than Madeira). Being more humid, windy and colder than Madeira due to its geographical position, the Azores have not developed much in tourism as it is difficult to have access to them by airway. More than 70 percent of the visitors are Portuguese people coming by the domestic line (Özgüç, 2017).

CONCLUSION

Portugal is one of the important tourism destinations in Europe. Appropriate climactic conditions, natural resources (beaches, forests, mountain landscapes) and historical and cultural heritage make it a popular tourism centre. In the country, the tourism activities are largely along the coast, islands and mountainous areas. Lisbon, Porto, Algarve coasts in the south and Madeira Island are among the places mostly preferred by the foreign tourists. In 2017, the places mostly visited by the tourists were Lisbon (14.3 million) and Algarve (19 million).

In Portugal, the revenue generated from the tourism activities has a significant share in the national economy (10% of GDP). In addition to the revenue it provides, tourism also makes contribution to the national economy though employment opportunities. However, as the tourism activities are seasonal, both the tourism-generated revenue and employment opportunities are in turn seasonal. In order to have a structure to get revenue throughout the year in the tourism industry, the tourism activities largely basing on sun and sea should be diversified (healthcare, sports, culture, business and green tourism, etc.). Furthermore, formulation of a sustainable tourism
industry is also very important for future of the national tourism. In the tourism planning to be made, it is quite important to enable flow of tourists throughout the year; uniform distribution of tourists among the tourism regions across the country; protection of national and cultural heritage when developing the tourism activities; improvement of competitive power; engagement of the local people in the tourism activities and trained and qualified personnel for employment in the tourism (graduates of vocational high schools and universities).

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Chapter 27

The Evaluation of Site Selection in Kanal Istanbul (Istanbul Canal) Project Area in Terms of Topographic Features (NW Turkey)

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INTRODUCTION

Defined as the activity of transferring people, goods, news, etc., from one place to another (Taaffe et al., 1996; Curl and Davison, 2014), transportation is considered one of the most important indicators of development in modern societies (Headicar, 2009; Black, 2010). Transportation activities play an important role in building the relationship between separate places and regions and in measuring this relationship or shaping the geographical view (Tümertekin, 1987; Doğanay and Deniz, 2014). Today, a considerable part of global trade is sustained through the seaway. Thus, natural or artificial straits and canals that enable the flow of goods and passengers across the world are a significant power center in sea transportation, both in geopolitical and geostatic terms (Koday et al., 2017). This is because these critical waterways have indispensable value in commerce, military, and logistics. However, some problems can occur, especially due to concentration, in any kind of transportation activities carried out in these areas. Thus, some initiatives have been carried out for the resolution of such problems in recent years (Efe and Cürebal, 2011). Plans based on natural and human environment are especially needed to avoid risk in these areas (Özşahin and Eroğlu, 2017). Through such action, problems can be identified in advance, and necessary measures can be taken. The present study aims to evaluate the master project area of the İstanbul Canal and its surroundings, in terms of topographic features. A study considering significant data about these features including elevation, inclination, relative relief, and geographical formations is important in terms of illuminating the planning and use of the site.

STUDY AREA

The study area is the master project area called Crazy Project, which covers the İstanbul Canal route and the surroundings and is expected to serve as an alternative to the Bosphorus (Figure 1). This site with an area of 22,800 hectare (the master project area of the Canal) has strategic importance because two different, large masses of water join at a second junction. It is estimated that the total project costs for the Canal, which is expected to have a width of approximately 150m, a depth of 25m, and a length of 45.2 km (Figure 1), are up to $100 billion. Construction, which will start in 2018, is set for completion within 5 years, and similar examples can be found across the world (Eroğlu et al., 2018).
Figure 1: Location map of the study area
With the completion of the İstanbul Canal Project, it is estimated that significant changes will occur regarding the use of the available area. Thus, the changes in the land use and land cover that will emerge across the site both during the project term and after the completion of the project will be observed directly on the topography surface. Thus, it is necessary and important to understand the topographic features on the site more accurately. Therefore, the nature of the site can be understood better, and investments and plannings can thus be more productive.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

The present study has been carried out using the Digital Elevation Model (DEM) with 5m resolution. The explanation of the topographic features based on a data set with a considerably high resolution enabled the researchers both to obtain data that is as close to reality as possible and to interpret the natural processes regarding these factors more accurately. The more resolution the DEM data has, the better it reflects the reality. In the study, topography maps of different scales have been employed. The data have been obtained through the findings based on the DEM analysis, and afterwards, they were checked and edited through site works. The analyses carried out and the thematic maps drawn within the scope of the study have been supported using Geographic Information System (GIS) techniques. The findings obtained at the last stage were interpreted from a geographic perspective.

**RESULT AND DISCUSSION**

The master project area that covers the İstanbul Canal route and the surrounding areas provide diversity in terms of topographic features. These features are also key factors that lead to costs and some problems that might occur after the completion of the project (Figure 2; Table 2). However, some anthropogenic changes that might potentially occur in the natural and human environment during the establishment of artificial constructions can trigger erosion, sedimentation, or natural disasters in the near future (Tarolli and Sofya, 2016; Cao et al., 2018). Therefore, the explanation of the main features regarding elevation, inclination, relative relief, and the geographical formations that make up the topographic features in the study area might help to estimate the problems that might occur during both the implementation and the completion of the project. For this reason, the characteristics of the study area are explained below using visual and mathematical data (Figure 2; Table 2).

In the study area, with an average elevation of 67.32m, the elevation levels of 0-50m cover a relatively larger area (Figure 2; Table 2). This situation indicates the fact that topographic features similar to those at sea level are prevalent within the study site and played a role in decreasing the project costs as well.

The inclination features that offer significant clues regarding the general features of the topography are characterized mostly by moderate slope (10-20%) both in terms of the mean (10.52%) and the spatial size (32.95%) (Figure 2; Table 2). The elevation values (Figure 2) that increase towards the northern part of the project area have an effect on the termination time as well as increase the project costs.

Providing data regarding the extent to which the ground surface disintegrates through external forces, relative relief (m) value points to the measure of variability in a unit area in the topography according to the minimum and maximum altitude in any area (Das et al., 2016). The relative relief in the study area is 60.68 m on average, while
it is 50-100 m across the largest site (58.66%) (Figure 2; Table 2).

**Figure 2**: Maps showing the parameters that make up the main topographic features used in the study
Table 2: Areal distribution of the parameters that make up the main topographic features used in the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Area</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Area</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Altitude (m)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Slope (%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-50</td>
<td>9358.51</td>
<td>41.05</td>
<td>Flat (0-2)</td>
<td>5333.44</td>
<td>23.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50.01-100</td>
<td>6927.36</td>
<td>30.38</td>
<td>Ramps (2.01-5)</td>
<td>1689.86</td>
<td>7.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100.01-150</td>
<td>5736.68</td>
<td>25.16</td>
<td>Gentle slope (5.01-10)</td>
<td>4857.91</td>
<td>21.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150.01-200</td>
<td>777.10</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>Moderate slope (10.01-20)</td>
<td>7513.53</td>
<td>32.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200.01-250</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>Steep (20.01-40)</td>
<td>3202.14</td>
<td>14.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>22800</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td>22800</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative relief (m)</td>
<td>ha</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>ha</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-50</td>
<td>7967.56</td>
<td>34.95</td>
<td>Landforms</td>
<td>3519.50</td>
<td>15.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-100</td>
<td>13374.92</td>
<td>58.66</td>
<td>Plateau</td>
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<td>21.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100-150</td>
<td>1277.17</td>
<td>5.60</td>
<td>Plain</td>
<td>14245.48</td>
<td>62.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150-200</td>
<td>165.97</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>Slope</td>
<td>92.40</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200-234.97</td>
<td>14.38</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>Artificial filling</td>
<td>92.40</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>22800</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>22800</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, the topography surface will be dug more than 50m during the canalization process, which will lead to the accumulation of a significant quantity of excavation materials. Nevertheless, construction plans include creating 3 group islands on the Marmara Sea with the excavation extracted from the project site, according to the updated news sources. It is also estimated that some of the excavation materials will be used to fill in the coast of the Black Sea and for building a new coastal line on the region in which Lake Terkos is situated (Öztürk, 2018).

Geographical formations directly related to the area’s topographic features help to understand the characteristics of the site as well as reflect its outlook. The project site is located on the Thracian Plateau pass, mainly along sloped areas due to its special location (Figure 2; Table 2). This presents a very favourable situation regarding the use of the lowland and plateau sites, providing good conditions in terms of the more productive inclination features. However, it is essential that serious measures be taken against the movement of all types of masses, especially landslide, which can occur in sloped areas. This is because a number of different types of landslide have occurred in parts of the canal route, especially towards the Marmara Basin, according to the Istanbul sheet of Landslide Inventory Map of Turkey (Duman et al., 2006).

CONCLUSIONS

As a result of the study, it has been determined that the Istanbul Canal project is designed as an artificial waterway, planned to be built according to its topographic features. In this regard, the master project site has been determined in sloped areas with an inclination of 10-20%, where the elevation is generally around 50m. According to the findings, the inclination, relative relief, and geographical characteristics of the site lead to an increase in the project costs, whereas the only effect of the elevation factor was quite the opposite. Furthermore, it should be taken into account that various movements of masses can occur in sloped areas where the inclination and relative relief values increase in the project site. Thus, it is especially important that the conditions in
the canal route be evaluated as closely as possible to prevent new potential problems. As a result, the Istanbul Canal master project area is the most convenient study site within that region, because it is a route that is expected to cause very few problems both in terms of cost and topographic features.

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INTRODUCTION

Linear erosion features (gully and rill) are some of the most visible forms of soil erosion. Clark (1980) considers them signs of severe erosion in any region of occurrence. As a matter of fact, gully erosion-induced soil loss rates account for 10-94% of the total sediment yield caused by water erosion (Poesen et al., 2003). Gully and rill erosion has intrigued a number of researchers as it is one of the most impactful land degradation processes in the world (Bathurs et al, 1998; Billi & Dramis, 2003; Boardman et al., 2003; Bocco, 1991; Casali et al., 2000; Croke & Mockler, 2001; Crouch & Novruzzi, 1989; Govers & Poesen, 1988; Nachtergaele, 2001; Osborn & Simanton, 1989; Poesen, 1989; Seginer, 1966; Torri & Borselli, 2003).

In order to fully assess this problem, there is a need for land surveying tools and methods that produce quantitative results. There are numerous land surveying tools and methods researchers use to measure the amount of erosion induced by gully erosion and to monitor the course of gully erosion. These include photogrammetric methods such as Terrestrial Laser Scanner, LIDAR, INSAR, and drones (Rengers & Tucker, 2015; Daba et al., 2003; Alma, 2017), dendrogeomorphological methods (Malik, 2008; Ballesteros Cánovas et al., 2012), radioisotopic methods that make use of radionuclides like $^{137}$Cs (Li et al., 2003), and direct land survey techniques and materials such as erosion pins, scour chains, sediment traps, and microtopographic profile gauges (Kumar Ghimire et al., 2013; Wilkinson et al., 2018). All of the survey methods mentioned here come with certain advantages and disadvantages.

Different versions of microtopographic profile gauges, which are tools used in direct land surveying, have been wielded in various studies since the 1970s in monitoring gully and rill erosion occurring particularly on badlands. Although microtopographic profile gauges are employed in many erosion studies, there is no research on the design, use, advantages, and disadvantages of the tool and suggestions for the minimization of error sources.

The main reason behind the use of microtopographic profile gauges is to reveal changes that take place in transverse profiles of gullies and rills over certain time frames. The tool is placed on iron sticks that are nailed on both sides of the rill and gully, and then the profile of the area where the tool is lodged is constructed. The iron sticks on which the tool stands are left in the field, which is revisited after a while to build up another profile of the same area. Results obtained are converted into charts on a computer, and changes in the profile of the gully are interpreted. Microtopographic
profile gauge is simpler and cheaper than photogrammetric, radiometric, and
dendrogeomorphological methods. Erosion measurement studies conducted with
photogrammetric, radiometric, and dendrogeomorphological methods incur certain
equipment-related expenses. In addition, a considerable amount of expertise and
experience is required for taking samples and lab analyses. For this reason, performing
erosion measurement with microtopographic profile gauges can seem like a much easier
way. Despite looking simple on the surface, however, this task can become more
demanding when the element of perception comes into play. First of all, a
microtopographic profile gauge is not a ready-made device sold everywhere; if
researchers need one, they either need to make it themselves or get someone else to
make it for them. If they choose the latter, they then have no choice but to give precise
instructions to the person who will make the tool. In some cases, in fact, researchers
may have to draw the demanded object. At this stage, they must also obtain the required
components from different suppliers. When the right person to make the tool is found,
he or she may have great difficulty if there is no sample prototype. Furthermore, the
deployment of the device in a field, user errors in gauging, and problems with the
interpretation of results may lead to additional setbacks. Hence, researchers who start an
erosion study on the premise that using a microtopographic profile gauge is simple end
up facing a vast number of unforeseen difficulties. On top of this, they may have doubts
about the usefulness of the device and feel disappointed when it comes to interpreting
the obtained data. Drawing on the author's personal experiences, this study discusses the
use of the gauge from its production to employment in field studies on erosion and
assessment of results, focusing on its advantages and disadvantages and offering advice
to minimize the latter. The study is intended to inform possible users of the tool about
the problems they are likely to face.

The microtopographic profile gauge we built on our own was wielded on areas of
gully erosion that occur on different lithologies in Western Anatolia. This paper is
based on the author's experience of gully erosion research conducted with a
microtopographic profile gauge on gullies and rills that developed on detrital
sedimentary lithologies, tuff, and limestones near Selendi-Kula, and in the
Tmollosschutt deposits (also known as the "Bozdağ deposits") stretching in the north
and south of the Bozdağ Mountains. Considering the importance of quantitative
measurement and evaluation methods in geomorphological studies, it was decided that a
microtopographic profile gauge was necessary for data collection on the gully erosion
in the field. To that end, microtopographic profile gauges in the literature were duly
examined. After that, we built one on our own based on the technical properties of the
version preferred by Desir et al., (2005). Upon field studies and reviews of the studies
that make use of microtopographic profile gauges, it was found that the tool had several
downsides. Knowing how crucial a role land survey methods play in geomorphological
studies, we then felt the need to write a review on the design and use of the device
based on our own experience.
HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE TECHNIQUE AND DESIGN OF MICROTOPOGRAPHIC PROFILE GAUGE

The microtopographic profile gauge is a tool employed in a great number of international studies on erosion (Sancho et al., 1991, Benito et al., 1992, Sirvent et al., 1997, Curtis & Cole, 1972, Mosley, 1975, Joshi, 2014, Leatherman, 1987, Desir & Marin, 2007, Desir et al., 2005, Karimov et al., 2015, Maliov & Ilieva, 2017). The design and technical properties of the microtopographic profile gauges used in studies are strikingly distinct from each other. While older versions are of a primitive nature, later gauges are more sophisticated. Karimov et al. (2005) used a microtopographic profile gauge composed of 110 fiberglass sticks with a space of 1 cm in between each, whereas Benito et al. (1992) and Desir et al. (2005) reported using a microtopographic profile gauge consisting of 51 aluminum sticks with 2 cm spacing. The platforms built to hold the sticks together are wooden in some microtopographic profile gauges (Joshi, 2014) and aluminum in others (Desir et al., 2005). It is worth noting that Desir et al. (2005) and Benito, et al. (1992) drew horizontal lines with 2 cm spaces in between behind the panel they used and wrote the cm values on the left side, which is a detail making it simpler for us to understand the profile values of the land (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Examples of various microtopographic profile gauges used in international studies (a: Leatherman, 1987; b: Benito et al., 1992; c: Desir et al., 2005; d: Joshi, 2014; e: Karimov et al., 2015; f: Maliov & Ilieva, 2017)

The dimensions, materials, quality, and number of sticks of the microtopographic profile gauges chosen for different purposes by researchers vary greatly. As the tool has no standard structure, researchers may use different gauges for the very same gully,
which naturally leads to varying results. If, for instance, Desir et al. (2005) had employed the same microtopographic profile gauge as Maliov & Ilieva (2017), the results would have inevitably differed. This is because Desir et al. (2005)'s gauge had 51 moving sticks and numbers on the left side of the gauge that allowed the researchers to see the height of the moving sticks, while Maliov & Ilieva (2017)'s microtopographic profile gauge had only 20 moving sticks with no figures provided for researchers to tell their elevation from the ground. As a result, Desir et al. (2005)'s gauge enabled a more precise survey of erosion, and the results would have been different if Maliov & Ilieva (2017)'s microtopographic profile gauge had been used instead (Figure 1).

Various studies that drew on microtopographic profile gauges were reviewed, and a gauge similar to that of Desir et al. (2005) was created based on the features the authors provided. The design of the microtopographic profile gauge made for our own field studies is given in Figure 2. The tool comprises three main parts, which are the rectangular panel that have horizontal lines with 2 cm spacing, 51 aluminum sticks moving freely up and down and making it possible to develop a profile of the ground, and the legs on which the tool is placed and which is struck on the both sides of the gully (Figure 2).

![Figure 2: The design of microtopographic profile gauge which we made on the basis of examples in the literature.](image)

The microtopographic profile gauge is a 110 cm wide and 90 cm high tool made up of an aluminum profiled frame and moving sticks. Behind these aluminum profiles is a hard plastic panel that features painted horizontal lines with 2 cm spacing. The panel must be made of plastic material hard enough to resist bending. There is a 110 cm long
grooved aluminum profile along the lower horizontal section of the panel; this profile has holes with a space of 2 cm in between. Along the holed section, 51 pieces of up and down moving aluminum sticks with a 4 mm diameter demonstrate the changes in the topography. Another holed horizontal profile put in the frame enables these sticks to move. There are two legs mounted on the profilometer that gives the researchers the accurate figures of the ground when the profilometer is put down on the ground. These legs allow the tool to be placed on the iron sticks that are fixed to the ground. The iron sticks on which the profilometer stands are left in the field for other surveys. A camera is used to record the findings. Data analysis is carried out with a program that helps draw charts based on the figures shown by each aluminum stick (x, y) in the microtopographic profile gauge. In this respect, the program is similar to Microsoft Excel (Sancho et al., 1991; Benito et al., 1992; Desir et al., 2005). Light but durable materials are a must so the tool can be carried over the rugged terrain, which is the reason aluminum and rigid plastic components are preferable. For accurate measurement, the microtopographic profile gauge must always be positioned fully parallel to the ground. To that end, a balance establishing apparatus just like those on “bubble spirit level apparatus” was placed on the microtopographic profile gauge. The lack of this apparatus, which is not present in the other gauges in the literature, was noticed during our field studies, and it was later added to our microtopographic profile gauge. The apparatus enables the microtopographic profile gauge to be sensitively positioned in a fully parallel way to the ground with no tilting back and forth or left and right (Figure 3).

Microtopographic profile gauges can be effectively used on gullies and rills on loose badlands like sedimentary lithologies. Microtopographic profile gauges were employed by Benito et al. (1992), Sirvent et al. (1997), Desir & Marin (2007), and Joshi (2014) along with erosion pins to measure erosion rates on badlands. Malinov & Ilieva (2007) used a microtopographic profile gauge to measure the amount of erosion on anthropogenic gullies caused by vehicle wheels on earth roads. Karimov et al. (2015) used a microtopographic profile gauge to monitor the development of ephemeral gullies formed by precipitation and surface runoff on agricultural lands.

**MEASUREMENT OF EROSION IN THE FIELD AND ASSESSMENT OF THE MEASUREMENTS**

Even though the technical properties and materials of the microtopographic profile gauges chosen by researchers to monitor gully erosion are markedly different from each other, they have similar working principles. The same profile is developed at different times with a microtopographic profile gauge placed right in the middle of two the slopes of a gully. The profile is photographed; profile data obtained at different times are converted into charts, and the historic transformation of the horizontal profile of the gully is interpreted (Figure 3-4).
Figure 3: The installation stages of the microtopographic profile gauging station are as follows: 1-2). The iron sticks on which the gauge will stand are struck on both sides of the gully. 3) The microtopographic profile gauge is placed on the iron sticks lodged in the ground. 4) The aluminum sticks of the gauge are loosened to develop a profile. 5) The legs are left in place so measurements can be performed on the same site later on. 6) A “bubble spirit level apparatus” is employed to position the tool fully parallel to the ground.

It is not possible to establish a station on extremely large gullies because the width and length of microtopographic profile gauges have certain limits. It is thus necessary to first identify the most suitable gullies and rills in the study area where the device can be made use of.

The exact location of the longitudinal profile of the gully where the tool will be positioned is also a matter of great importance. The source, body, and deposit areas of the gully should be duly considered, and all measurement stations in a study should be located in the same sections of the gullies. A review of the studies drawing on microtopographic profile gauges reveals that only Joshi (2014) placed his tool near the
sources of every gully he chose to monitor. Keeping in mind that the points where a gully is most eroded are the source and near-source areas, mounting the microtopographic profile gauge in these areas leads to the quickest results and is therefore a logical approach.

Once the areas where the gauge will be mounted are determined, the iron sticks upon which the tool will be placed are nailed on both sides of the gully in a transverse profile. The tool is then put on top of the legs, and the 51 aluminum sticks are loosened to develop a profile. At this stage, it is imperative the tool be positioned fully parallel to the ground, with zero possibility of tilting left and right or back and forth during each measurement. To that end, a water gauge apparatus is attached on top of the microtopographic profile gauge. After the tool is properly positioned on the land, the results are photographed. The values shown by the 51 sticks - obtained from the profiles at the very same point on two different dates - are entered into software such as Microsoft Excel and made into a chart. The elevation figure of the 51 sticks on the second date is deducted from the figures recorded on the first date, and their average is calculated, which gives the average difference (Figure 4).

![Figure 4](image)

Figure 4: Charting of the measurements performed with a microtopographic profile gauge on different dates and obtained results.

No calibration work was found that demonstrates the frequency of measurement errors caused by a microtopographic profile gauge. However, Benito et al. (1991) points out that their gauge had measurement errors of over 2 mm.
ADVANTAGES, LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The advantages of microtopographic profile gauges are:
- Portability (weighing between 2 and 4 kg).
- Cheapness (The gauge costs around $300 though this figure may vary based on the quality of the components and labor costs).
- Simple use in the field. No need to receive any training prior to use.
- Practical and easy assessment and interpretation of field measurement data. All it takes is to measure a gully at different times with a microtopographic profile gauge, enter the data along with profile photos into a computer software program that can create charts (e.g. Microsoft Excel), translate the results into a chart, and, finally, interpret them.

On the other hand, there are some limitations of the microtopographic profile gauge. The limitations of the microtopographic profile gauge are:
- Field measurements take time. A period of minimum six months is required so the two measurements performed at different times can yield varying results.
- During this period, the legs left in the field may disappear or be damaged by humans or wild animals. Even if just one leg disappears or gets damaged, that measurement station becomes dysfunctional.
- As the two legs on which the microtopographic profile gauge is placed are left in the field, measurement stations cannot be established on agricultural or pasture lands that are prone to external factors.
- Tuff-like lithologies that get eroded over a longer period are also not suitable for the use of microtopographic profile gauges.
- The intervention by the users during the placement of the stick and the mounting of the tool on the legs give rise to squeezing and cracking particularly on loose lithologies, thereby damaging the natural structure of the ground.
- As the width and length of the tool has certain limits, it fails to measure extremely large gullies.
- There are no standards for the production of the tool and assessment of the measurement results. There is no standard for microtopographic profile gauges that are in use. Some of the materials can be wooden or aluminum, meaning they vary greatly. The number of sticks and the dimensions of the panel may differ. Therefore, obtaining the same results is not likely even if different microtopographic profile gauges are used under the same conditions.
- There is no calibration.

The advantages and disadvantages of the microtopographic profile gauges are summarized above. Several suggestions to minimize the drawbacks are given below:
- Choosing an area that is as far from human intervention as possible reduces the risk of the legs being removed or damaged.
- Researchers should be careful not to damage the natural structure of the ground and should avoid stepping on the land to be measured. Additionally, performing the first measurement after about 3-4 months following the placement of the legs may further reduce the risk of damage.
- Perhaps the biggest disadvantage of the microtopographic profile gauge is that there are no standards for its production, which resulted in different types of tools serving the same purpose. It is necessary to launch a project to set certain standards for the production of this tool and the measurement in the field.
Once the standards are established, the tool should be calibrated and the margin of error should be determined. Surely, any measurement done with a microtopographic profile gauge has a margin of error. After setting the standards for the tool, the results obtained with it should be compared with those acquired with a more precise system (e.g. 3-D laser scanners) so the numerical margin of error can be identified.

CONCLUSION AND COMMENTS

This study offers assessments on the effectiveness of microtopographic profile gauges in measuring gully erosion that have been used in various studies since the 1970s. As with all erosion measurement methods, microtopographic profile gauge has its particular advantages and disadvantages. Researchers willing to use this tool should be aware of its advantages and disadvantages if they do not want to be disappointed and waste their time and efforts.

The most salient advantage of microtopographic profile gauges is that they are cheap, easy to use, and yield objective results. The main disadvantage is the lack of standards and calibration. Setting the standards and calibrating the tool can make it both more common and help researchers obtain more accurate scientific data. If the tool is calibrated and its margin of error is identified, researchers thinking of using it in their own studies can compare it with other measurement methods and decide whether to employ it by looking at the margin of error. If the standards are agreed upon, measurement results will eventually become more accurate. Different results induced by non-standardized microtopographic profile gauges are eliminated; researchers’ microtopographic profile gauges become one and only, and results from different studies can be compared properly.

While implementing the microtopographic profile gauging method is economical, practical, and simple, it yields less accurate data compared to other methods such as laser scanners. Despite all these, it is a convenient quantitative method for gully erosion measurement projects with limited funding and can therefore be preferred by students.

Microtopographic profile gauges are suitable for use on badlands that develop on loose lithologies and get eroded relatively fast.

Even if the same measurements are performed by different researchers in the same gully erosion, different results are likely. This is because there is no standard for making the tool, and the dimensions, number of sticks, and type of materials of microtopographic profile gauges differ. Therefore, measuring gully erosion with misdesigned and flawed microtopographic profile gauges unmistakably leads to errors in basin management and land planning.

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Chapter 29

The Importance of National Parks in the Development of Environmental Awareness and Environmental Education in Turkey

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INTRODUCTION

People who are stunned by environmental problems created by industrialization-urbanization and wrong production-consumption models have begun to take refuge in nature for reaching the peace they long for. The humans destroyed, exploited nature with factory wastes, and noise pollution etc. until the 21st century and now they are looking for ways to escape what they did and find peace in nature.

Especially in the last quarter-century, nature has become a concept that has increasingly complex and multidimensional meaning, perception and definitions. For example, there is a "tourism space" that includes nature, entertainment, recreation and recreation features, and a "usage-consumption space" where underground and aboveground resources are irresponsibly consumed. It is a "protected place" where its aesthetic, value, beauty, historical-cultural and biological resources are liberated from human repression. Thus, the concept of nature of the XXI century has transformed into a "use-protect-share" scene in which conflicting terms, meaning, and conceptual confusion arise, such as aesthetics, conservation, healing, and regulation. The nature from which we consume the air, water, soil, fish, fruit, plants and mines and the national parks we try to protect are what I’ve always tried to protect as well as the consumption-production, sharing-gain, and adoption-ownership-protection. The humans are in such a profound dilemma about the opposite concepts “using” and protecting”.

When the resources get exhausted, the waters get dirty, the animals get extinct, and the whole ecosystem is destroyed, the humanity got scared and started to think about their grand children’s future. Therefore, some questions started to pop up on the humans’ minds accordingly: Am I the one responsible for the pain and suffering of nature? Will this contrasting relation between me and nature continue like this? What should I do after that?

Nature is being polluted, destroyed and is on the edge of disappearing. Thus, the main task of the humanity must be to protect the nature from the people that are uncivilized and lack culture. People started to develop the modern protected areas systems in the last quarter of the 21st century in order to protect the remaining clean lakes and rivers, undisturbed flowers and mammals, forests, shores, plains, the ecosystems, the undisturbed historical-cultural heritage. With the development of nature
conservation cultures in the area where these systems exist, these places turned into areas of love, respect and protection. The "use" and "protection", which are opposite concepts to each other, have been tried to be reconciled in these places. Officially protected areas are tried to be protected by law, sanctions, penalties, borders, concrete walls.

**Concept of existing Protected Areas and Protected Areas in Turkey**

Dried lakes and marshes, polluted rivers and shores, cut forests, disappearing vegetation and animal species, communities have started to embrace what’s happening and started to protect them. The wild nature that quickly disappeared or reduced in number began to be valuable and precious. As a result, special legislation and specially protected areas have started to be prepared for the polluted and destructed ecosystems. Humans started to protect nature. The ecological culture of communities and environmental awareness has begun to be compared with the number of protected areas. Today, the national love of nature and environmental sensitivity is proportional to the prevalence of national parks in that country. Hence, the society’s desire to preserve the environment and to preserve nature has come to reflect the levels of culture, civilization, morality, and consciousness.

The International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) was established in 1948 and is a member of the IUCN (2017). Protected areas according to this organization can be defined as follows:

“These are primarily marine or land areas that are governed legally or by other effective means to ensure biodiversity and sustainable conservation of natural and cultural resources (IUCN, 2017).”

The International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) categorized protected areas in the world in ten categories in its 1978 report, "Protected Area Categories, Aims and Criteria" (Erdoğan, 2003: 258):

- Scientific Reserves (Absolute Nature Reserve)
- National Parks
- Natural Monument
- Nature Conservation Reserve (Managed Nature Reserve)
- Landscape Conservation Area
- Resource Reserve
- Anthropological Reserve (Natural Biotic Area)
- Multi-purpose Area
- Biosphere Reserve
- World Heritage Sites

In 1992, at the capital city of Caracas Venezuela "4. National Parks and Conservation Areas" Congress, a new classification was put together with new updates in line with changing conditions. According to this new classification, the protected areas on our planet are grouped under six headings according to management purposes (Erdoğan, 2003: 258):

- Absolute Nature Reserves and Wildlife Area.
- National Parks
- Natural Monuments
- Habitat and Species Management Area.
- Marine or Land Landscape Conservation Area
Managed Resource Area
We can summarize the purposes of "conservation" and "use" of these protected areas operating on a global scale as follows (Erdoğan, 2003: 258):

**Conservation**
- Protection of species and genetic diversity,
- Protection of biodiversity,
- Protection of ecological balance and maintaining it,
- Protection of natural and cultural values,

**Using**
- Tourism and recreation,
- Scientific research,
- Artistic and educational activities

As we can see from the above explanations, today's protected areas are not designed as pure, undisturbed areas. From scientific researches, one can infer that there are now agricultural activities such as education, sports and cultural activities, floriculture, beekeeping, forestry and many economic activities such as tourism and recreation activities available today (Uludağ National Park, founded in 1961, is a great example of this). In other words, in these protected areas, while protecting species and genetic diversity of those areas, trying to preserve and maintain the natural balances in that ecosystem, people's profitability, rest-holiday, research and development, production-consumption, education-sports needs are tried to be met. Thus, in protected areas such as national parks and nature reserves, the clash of "protection" and "use" concepts becomes inevitable.

The geographical location occupied by Turkey, diversity of civilizations developing in Anatolian lands, richness and diversity of underground and aboveground resources, provides Turkey with a diversity of ecology, culture and tourism sources and flora and fauna resources and various forms of landforms, climate, vegetation cover, soil and hydrographic resources. Turkey is one of the countries with the world's richest flora and fauna. For example, the European continent has a total of around 12 000 flora diversity, while Turkey alone has 9000. In addition, about 3 000 of these plants are in the group of endemic plants. Thus, Turkey is still the country with the most endemic plants among European countries (Keleş, 1998: 133). However, it is difficult to say that this rich geographical and ecological potential country is very well appreciated and promoted in the international arena.

Scientific and administrative studies have been going on especially since the 1950's, in order to leave clean national and global, natural and cultural heritage of Turkey to future generations. Article 25 of the Forest Code 6831, which entered into force in 1956, made it possible to establish certain places as national parks. The "National Parks Law" number 2873, which entered into force in 1983, provided a legal ground for the protection of nature and the establishment of national parks. The concepts of "National Park", "Nature Protected Areas", "Natural Parks" and "Natural Monuments" are defined and explained with the 2nd article of this law. Outside these areas, "forest rest areas" and "wildlife protected areas" are also included in this protected area group (Türkiye Çevre Vakfı, 1998: 335). Later on, the number(table 1) and variety of protected areas were increased by adding "Conservation Forest (58 units)", "Natural Site 1273 units", "Special Environmental Protection Zone", "Ramsar Zone", "Biosphere Reserve" and "World Heritage Site" (Milli Parklar, 2017).

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As a result, the purpose of this law is; national parks, nature parks, natural monuments and conservation areas with national and international values in Turkey are preserved and developed for the benefit of future generations without deteriorating their characteristics.

For the above-mentioned protected areas are needed to comply with the following principles (Türkiye Çevre Atlası, 1997: 120):

The natural and ecological balance of these areas and the value of natural ecosystem cannot be degraded.

The flora - fauna and wildlife in these areas cannot be destroyed.

Any operation that may cause or result in the loss or alteration of the properties of such protected areas may not be carried out, which could lead to soil, water and air pollution and other environmental problems.

From the first national park built in 1958 until 2017, there have been a total of 1806 areas including 42 national parks, 203 nature parks, 31 sanctuaries, 112 natural monuments, 81 wildlife development areas and other protected areas in Turkey (Table 1).

The study carried out within the scope of the “Turkey's Protected Areas Information System" prepared by the Forestry and Water Affairs Ministry, General Directorate of Nature Conservation and National Parks revealed that Turkey's terrestrial protected area size is 5 million 647 thousand 568 hectares.

Table 1. Number of existing Protected Areas in Turkey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conservation Area Status</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Parks</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature Parks</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature Conservation Areas</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Monuments</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wildlife Development Fields</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservation Forests</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Sites</td>
<td>1273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Environmental Protected Area</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramsar Zone</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biosphere reserves</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Heritage Sites</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>1806</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: T.R. Forestry and Water Affairs Ministry, General Directorate of Nature Conservation and National Parks

As well as the interest and importance given to conservation areas in different continents and countries, the number of protected areas and the proportion within the country's surface area also change. As can be seen in Tables 2 and 3 above, protected areas are at different rates in many countries. In Madagascar, which has large and rich tropical forests and high biological diversity, the share of protected land (4.97%) is well below the world average. For example, in Brazil, the world's second-largest forest land after Russia, the total forest area is 551 million hectares and has the world's largest tropical rainforest. In this country, however, about 13 million hectares of forest were destroyed each year during the 1990-1995 period. Brazil, which is rich in forests, has become the country with the greatest loss of forests in the world (Tümertekin and
In addition, Brazil has allocated only 2.6% of its surface area to protected areas in the 1990s. This is a sign of environmental awareness and environmental awareness in the country. Today, Brazil’s total protected areas have risen to 28.6% (UNEP, 2017).

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Table 2: Countries with the most protected area in the world.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Area (x1000 hectare)</th>
<th>Ratio in C Country Area (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>496,701</td>
<td>53.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>10,894</td>
<td>53.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monaco</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>53.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhutan</td>
<td>19,171</td>
<td>47.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turks and Caicos Islands</td>
<td>451.74</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liechtenstein</td>
<td>19.94</td>
<td>44.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brunei Darussalam</td>
<td>2,794</td>
<td>44.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seychelles</td>
<td>204.94</td>
<td>44.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>461.76</td>
<td>41.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greenland</td>
<td>886.45</td>
<td>41.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was late for settlement and human activities as Canada and Australia. In sparsely populated industrialized countries, the share of protected land is close to the world average of 13.2%. In countries such as Chile, Botswana, Bhutan and Panama, which are not large in size, these values are above the world average (15.4%) and vary between 17% and 30%. The number of countries that took more than 30% of the country’s territory under protection is 29 and the countries with the highest rates are shown in table 2 (UNEP, 2017).

In summary, there are many factors that determine whether a small or large portion of the country’s surface area is included in the status of protected areas. These include: 1)surface area 2) geographical location and physical geography features,3) natural resources potential,4) flora and fauna richness5) plant and animal species under the threat of extinction 6) natural assets and resources of the world heritage,7) world heritage historical-cultural values and resources, 8) environmental sensitivity of the public and managers and environmental awareness.
Table 3: Countries with less protected areas in the world

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Area (x1000 hectare)</th>
<th>Ratio in Country Area (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macao</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sao Tome ve Principe</td>
<td>289.42</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>San Marino</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barbados</td>
<td>5.64</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>3,437</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>534.08</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>6,745</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>673.16</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For example, in India, the world's second-largest country in terms of population, the share of protected areas in the country's surface area is only 4.95%. However, 1256 plant species and 137 animal species are in danger of extinction in this country. In Germany, the world's third largest economic power, protected areas account for 26% of the country's surface area. Only 16 plant species and 11 animal species are in danger of extinction in this country (Brown, Flavin and French, 1997: 35). In this respect, the area occupied by the countries, the population size, the levels of development, the threatened species and the share of protected areas are generally not parallel to each other.

**Concept of National Parks and National Parks in Turkey**

The National Park is defined by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) as: These are scientific and aesthetic that has natural and ecological, geological, geographical features, and are land and water areas with archaeological, ethnographic, anthropological, mythological, historical structures. In addition, these are land and water areas of at least 1000 hectares wide, with national and international designations for scientific, educational, aesthetic, sportive, recreational and recreational activities (IUCN, 2017).

According to the National Parks Law No. 2873, which entered into force in 1983, the national park is defined as "natural and cultural resource values in terms of scientific and aesthetic national and international scarcity and natural parts with protection, rest and tourism areas". According to Keles and Hamamcı (1998: 130), "national park is an arrangement made in order to protect natural and cultural resource values which are rare in general".

According to Gürdal (2001: 523), "the areas protected by the state and having natural, historical, archaeological, geological and touristic values are called national parks."

Çepel (1995: 128) presents two different definitions of national parks:

- "These are long-term natural and cultural sites secured with strict protection laws."
- "These are private and operated areas reserved for people to relax."

As seen in the above definitions, the concept of "national park" is perceived differently by different writers and scientists, and is differently defined as a result. For this reason, it seems that there is no single definition that is unquestionably true about this concept.

According to Keles and Hamamcı (1998: 13), the characteristics that determine national parks can be listed as follows:

- There are natural assets that allow the physical structure to be undisturbed by
human use, with environmental spots, plant and animal species, geomorphologic areas and shelters, scientific, educational values and rest;

Administrative precautions are taken to protect the values of the area;

The areas where the facilities are built to serve people is called a national park.

The first national park in the world, Yellowstone, was founded in 1872 in the west of the United States, in the Rocky Mountains, northwest of Wyoming. Yosemite, the world's second national park founded in 1890, is located within the borders of the state of California on the Sierra Nevada mountain range in the US borders. Europe's first national park was in service in the Lapland region of northern Sweden in 1909.) The Engadín National Park, Europe's second national park, was opened in Switzerland in 1914. However, the first Turkish national park was established in 1958 (Yozgat Çamlığı) and the first French national park was established in 1963 (TÜKÇEV-Tüketici ve Çevre Eğitim Vakfı, 2017).

There is an infinite variety of nature conservation areas on our planet, from the smallest natural reserve unit (biological reserves) to the Greenland National Park which is almost the size of a large country just to protect a single plant. The number of these conservation areas is increasing day by day. For example, the total number of national parks in Europe alone is around 200 (Milliyet, 1999: 128). In 1994, 5.21% of the world's surface area was occupied by 651.5 million hectares of protected area status. In 2000, these values doubled, the number of protected areas exceeded 30,000, and the area of protected lands increased to 13 250 000 km². This area accounts for approximately 10% of the world's surface area (Erdoğan, 2003: 256-257).

In Turkey, the places that are determined to have national park properties, the opinions of the Ministries of Defense, Public Works and Settlement, Culture and Tourism, and opinions and support of other ministries are taken and upon the proposal of the Ministry of Environment and Forestry, it is determined as National Park with the decision of the Council of Ministers (Görmez, 1997: 153). Yozgat Çamlığı, located in the province of Yozgat province, was founded in 1958 and is the first national park of Turkey. Karatepe-Aslantaş, which was founded in the province of Adana in the same year, and Kuş Cenneti, which was founded in Balıkesir in 1959, are the oldest national parks of Turkey (MilliParklar, 2017).

The largest national park in terms of area within the borders of Turkey is Ağrı Dağı national park which is located within the borders of Ağrı province and has a surface area of 880148 hectares. The smallest national park in terms of surface area is Yozgat Çamlığı national park which has only 2.669 hectares.

Some of the national parks in Turkey have a national role and importance in terms of history and culture. Some of them have a national role and importance in terms of gene and species diversity. Some of them have a national role and importance in geographical-geomorphological sense. Some of them have national role and importance in hydrographic or archaeological aspect. For example, Boğazköy, Nemrut, Termessos, Gelibolu and Troya national parks have historical and archaeological importance. Kazdağları, Yozgat Çamlığı, Spil Mountain, İlgaz Mountain and Uludağ national parks both have national importance and function with rich and endemic flora and fauna as well as recreation and tourism potential. The Altunbeşik Cave, Saklikent, Goreme, Köprüli Canyon, Altindere Valley and Karagöl-Sahra national parks draw attention with their natural geomorphology as well as their natural vegetation and tourism potentials. Moreover, almost all of the national parks in Turkey have great potential in
terms of both domestic and international tourism. However, as the tourism sector is an economic factor that promotes, elevates, precious and profitable national parks, when it is carefully planned and its development is not monitored, it becomes the destroyer that pollutes and destroys the same national parks.

**Major Problems of Our National Parks**

The primary purpose of the establishment of national parks is to protect its unique archaeological, geomorphological, hydrographic, historical-cultural values, species and genetic diversity, endemic flora and fauna. However, while trying to preserve these natural and human resources, they benefit from the highest level of respect for recreation and tourism, and they cause "protection-use" conflicts to achieve maximum gains from these protected areas. The fact that people build more hotels, roads and try earning more money and taxes, which are called “Bright advantage” contrasts with the creating a greener, cleaner nature, healthier ecosystems and happier animals. This results in "non-bright disadvantages" such as noise and crowd, damage to nature and environmental problems.

The increase of tourist facilities within the national park boundaries has led to an increase in the number of hunters, visitors, tourists and motor vehicles. In addition, it caused problems such as noise pollution in the wild, air pollution, classical environmental problems such as soil and water pollution, waste and garbage problems, flora and fauna and destruction of historical and cultural values. Thus, national parks established for conservation have prioritized places where economic activities such as "timber production", "winter tourism", "sea tourism", "hunting", "beekeeping", "mountaineering" are performed and thus natural elements such as flora, fauna, water and soil resources end up being less important. Thus, negative changes occur in the importance and function of the national parks, in the ecological texture and aesthetic appearance that cannot be fixed. The tourism-national park conflict, which is an extension of the human-nature conflict, is transforming into the preparer of new ecological crises.

All in all, due to human-centered thoughts, endless social ambition, and desires, we see in national parks that "profit, profit and sharing" are prioritized over "environmentalism and protectionism", thus, nature is commodities. The head of all these anti-ecological attitudes and behaviors is the "uncivilized person" who lacks environmental awareness and environmental morality.

Turkey has the richest geographical, historical, cultural and ecological resources of Europe. However, the number of national parks in Turkey proves otherwise. The functioning and management of these parks should be questioned again as it is necessary to increase the number of national parks. National parks in Turkey should be allowed to be turned into picnic and recreation areas. Surface Area and features of national parks must be taken into consideration and transport capacities of visitors and motor vehicles should be determined, human pressures should be relieved, nature education and ecotourism should become a priority. At the entrance of national parks, tourism bureaus should be established and in these bureaus, introduction booklets and maps should be given to visitors. Tourist groups visiting national parks should be guided with the area guides.

As a result, the main problems of national parks can be summarized as follows:

Administrative and legal problems, Planning, use and development problems,
Technology, aesthetic and architectural problems, Problems of transportation and motor vehicles, Recreation and tourism-environment conflict, Dense housing, crowding and pollution problems, Promotion, advertising and informational problems, Attitudes-behaviour and environmental moral problems caused by the visitors.

**Conceptual Framework of Environmental Awareness**

The most important elements that determine the point of view of people in their social and natural environment, their interest and sensitivity to environmental problems, their attitudes towards nature and their behaviors are as follows: Abstract factors such as environmental education, environmental ethics, and environmental awareness. In other words, the love and respect we show to the elements of nature is determined by our sensitivity towards environmental problems, the interest and compassion we show to plants and animals, our point of view towards global ecological problems, the attitudes and behaviours we have in our relationships with animals and humans, the system of consciousness, morality and values.

Environmental awareness shapes the relationship between the individual and the "external environment" in realizing, perceiving, recognizing and knowing the individual's social and natural environment. In addition, it takes on the functions of understanding, perception, "inner environment" of the mind's own inner world through "introspection". Thus, environmental awareness encompasses the whole of the ability, awareness, perception, comprehension, intuition, thoughts and mood that shape the relationship of the individual with both the "inner periphery" and the "outer periphery". In summary, environmental awareness is the ability of the individual to perceive, understand, feel, recognize and know both himself, society and the nature. In other words, "environmental awareness" includes both the self-awareness and the "objective consciousness" towards the others (Güçlü, Uzun, Uzunand Yolsal, 2003: 232). In addition, environmental awareness can change depending on different factors such as space, culture and time.

There are different perspectives on the environmental consciousness of different scientists. As a result, they have perceived and defined this concept differently. For example, Çepel defines "environmental awareness" as: "This is the behavior, attitude, and thought necessary for individuals or societies to have a balanced relationship with the environment" (Çepel, 1995: 42). As you can see, Çepel emphasizes the environmental thoughts, attitudes and behaviors that people exhibit with human-environment relations while defining environmental awareness. According to some thinkers, environmentalism is the whole of the theories, the opinions reflecting the problems in society-environment relations and their solutions (Osyannikova, Guseva and Yakovenko, 1998: 19). According to Medvedev and Aldaşeva (2001: 25), "environmental awareness" is a complex, self-adjusting system that helps to solve issues such as changing the nature and its elements, as well as determining the approach to some issues and problems that can arise in meeting human needs.

When exploring the environmental consciousness that determines human-nature relations it is beneficial to examine this situation in both ways with the human who is an organism and a mammal and a person who is able to think, be sensitive and knowledgeable. In relation to nature, sometimes the needs and needs of the organism are priorities and its animal instincts dominate; on the other hand, a person as a thinking, sensitive and moral-cultural entity can suppress the instinctual desires of the
organism and this proves the fact that people are way different than other beings. Unless these two different matters are considered together, the environmental awareness that human beings reflect in relation to nature cannot be fully assessed. The individual's thoughts, attitudes and behaviours related to nature and nature elements; the elements of nature and the forms of awareness and interaction; the ability to perceive, feel, understand and know the social and natural environment; Values, moral norms, knowledge and perception level that guides his environmental relations reflect his environmental awareness level.

Factors affecting the environmental awareness levels of individuals are the level of knowledge, sensitivity and morality related to the environment. This is because there is a relationship between environmental awareness and environmental awareness, and a similar relationship is observed between environmental awareness and environmental morality. In short, environmental culture, environmental ethics, and environmental consciousness that individuals have and reflect in relation to nature carry a complicated but integrative structure.

**National Parks and Environmental Awareness**

Environmental Awareness is the awareness that differentiates us from other living things, and it shows that we are able to think, be sensitive and moral; this makes us human beings. It is the awareness that makes us grasp that a human cannot hurt or kill another living creature; that he cannot pollute the water, air and soil he uses; that a human is capable of being tolerant and sensitive unlike other creatures; that a human should use the science and technology for the nature’s and planet’s good.

A person who is incapable of realizing the power, richness and importance of nature, who is incapable of accepting that he is not a privileged creature in nature, and who is unable to understand the beauty, depth and spirit of nature is a person that lacks environmental awareness. It is quite natural that the conservation area and national park consciousness have not been developed in the communities where these individuals are in majority. In this context, national park awareness is an extension of environmental awareness.

The importance and value that a nation gives to nature, the love and respect it has towards the environment reflect the education, culture and social structure of that nation as well as its aesthetic, ethical and psychological values. The social and political interest shown to national parks, the preservation, expansion and the increase in the number of these parks, their use, function and national importance, the adoption and ownership of these parks in terms of society are directly related to the environmental awareness level of that community. In this context, it is expected that the widespread use of conservation areas with global or national significance and attractiveness in a country, the increase in the number of national parks will be parallel to the high national environmental awareness in that country.

**Result**

When the above explanations and comments are taken into consideration, the following conclusions can be made by relating the terms "environmental awareness" and "national park" (Medvedev and Aldeșeva, 2001; Searle, organized in 2004).
Environment and National Park Consciousness differs given the individuals and societies.

Environmental consciousness levels of different historical-cultural evolving societies living in different geographies, with different traditions and customs, may differ from each other. While the issues of drought, hunger and poverty do not mean much for a high-income businessman in London and Paris, the poor peasants living in Somalia and Ethiopia are more sensitive and more conscious about these issues. Ice, frost, and snow awareness of a Yakut living in North Siberia is higher than a Bedouin living in the Great Saharan desert in Africa. Thus, the desert and sandstorm awareness of the Bedouin, living on nomadic livestock is higher than the Yakut living in Siberia. "Protectionism" is another form of environmental exploitation, using nature for high industrialized societies.

In this context, the level of interest, love and sensitivity that Kenyan and Tanzanian poor villagers show to the national parks is lower than Japanese and German people with high prosperity levels. For Africans facing drought, hunger and epidemic problems, environmentalism is a luxury so National parks have meaning and importance if they provide benefits, income, food or income. Protecting and expanding national parks for rich and industrialized European and Anglo-American societies are equivalent to expanding the use of sports, recreation and amusement; forestry, mountaineering, hunting, rafting and trekking; and is equivalent to presenting the children and the grandchildren with plenty of oxygen and clean lakes and rivers, more forests. Hence, the foundations, objectives and expectations of protectionism and national park policies are different in societies with different levels of development and culture; the hopes and needs of the communities concerned with protectionism and national parks are also different.

The environmental awareness of those living in areas with severe ecological problems is higher than those away from these problems. For example, the people living in Soma and Yatağan have a higher environmental consciousness than those living in Konya and Niğde in terms of thermal power plants and air pollution. In summary, environmental awareness varies according to the level of development and education of the societies, according to the social, political and cultural characteristics of these societies and the geographical location in which they live. However, it is also true that in societies with higher education-culture do not always have higher environmental ethics, environmental awareness compared to the societies with lower education-culture levels. For example, it is known that European immigrant invaders, who see themselves as more cultured, more civilized, see a high environmental awareness and a sense of nature that they cannot understand in the Indian communities they met when conquering the American continent.

The concepts of environmental awareness and environmental ethics in the unmanned land are meaningless.

Aesthetic approaches, concepts of values and moral norms, utilities-interests and profit-earning expectations, concepts that are meaningless and valid for human beings that are not present in the "unmanned nature". There are no useful and useless, moral-immoral, beautiful-ugly, cute-horrible, necessary-unnecessary or harmful-harmless plants and animals in the land. In ecosystems that form the greatest parts of nature and its parts, there are only realities, balances, conflicts of interest, and inevitable interactions. In this case, the person who creates the classifications mentioned above
perceives and evaluates the elements of nature according to his level of consciousness and morality, within the framework of his own point of view and values system. It is also important to remember that all these assessments that are true or false, useful, or useless are determined by the person. In sum, a person who creates values can defend or criticize them by reflecting their own perspective.

In interactions within ecosystems, in the relations between living things rights, freedom, morality, values and consciousness cannot be mentioned. Because nature has its own laws, rules. Forest fires due to lightning can burn the trees in the forest or as a result of the heavy rains; the river may overflow and drift all the things on its way. When the lightning strikes onto an area, there is no way that the plants or the soil won’t get damaged and due to heavy rainfall, the fact that the rivers will overflow is inevitable. The lions can never become herbivorous and the giraffes can never stop eating the leaves on high trees, because the behaviors, needs and desires in the lion and the giraffe genetically exist in them. The fact that a lion eats an antelope cannot be interpreted as an unconscious, insensitive or immoral behavior, since that behavior is instinctive. In short, values, sensitivity, consciousness and morality are concepts that do not exist in the natural environment but exist in the "humanized nature". Therefore, searching for and discussing these concepts, which are meaningful only to humans, in the "unmanned nature" is nothing but an effort to humanize nature (Medvedev et al 2001: 52-56).

In this context, national parks can be defined as the humanized, cultivated ecocities of nature. Humanization, culturalization and human oppression bring about the problems that the nature is unaware of such as: garbage and solid wastes, noise pollution, wrong use of the land, forest fires due to campfires, exhaust fumes, flatlands and pastures destroyed to build new ski tracks and animals killed for the sake of hunting. Thus, the human-made concepts such as protectionism, sensitivity, and consciousness are nothing but the protection of nature from humans, the cleansing of humanized nature and humanitarian elements.

Throughout the history, the maturity and emergence of concepts such as consciousness, value and morality have been achieved through the attainment of choice in relation to man's own kind and other living things. In this context, concepts such as consciousness, tolerance, value and morality are getting faded and even meaningless in living conditions where people have no right to choose. An example of this is the feeding of humans with their own kind’s meat (cannibalism) when they are hungry. In short, the existence of an electoral right provides for the emergence of two important behavioral situations in human-nature relations: prohibited and not prohibited, selection and non-selection. These situations constitute the conceptual, moral and psychological bases of human-nature relations. One should not forget that the "environment right" which does not exist in the unmanned environment is a meaningful concept that is unique to humans. In the case of non-selection and inevitability, this right is either meaningless or totally non-existent.

The change of choice or preference in human-nature relations causes changes in concepts such as consciousness, value and morality. For example, in a highly industrialized country with high prosperity levels can allocate more money and political support for the restoration, improvement and protection of national parks. National parks can be more organized and planned, more beautiful and well-maintained. The staff working in these parks and the plants and animals in these parks can be much
better served. Because the economic conditions of the country can provide sufficient opportunities and support for it. But the same positive picture does not apply to poor countries. In these countries, the concepts environmental ethics and environmental awareness remain in the background due to poverty, desperation and lack of choice, and the indifference and insensitivity of the society and politicians.

As a result, the living organism that has the widest choice in the biosphere is human. However, "unmanned nature" does not have such a choice-preference (Medvedev, 2001: 53). In this context, since national parks are regarded as "humanized natural spaces", one should not forget that the choice-preferences for the establishment, development and management of these protected areas are under the responsibility of the humans, and that natural elements do not have such a right. Since “the right to live” is affected by concepts like benefit and interest, it is no surprise that humans’ interests in national parks to be held above the interests of nature.

It is impossible to talk about the neutral environment in National Parks.

When the human-nature relations are examined, it is observed that the concepts which are intertwined with each other are concepts of value, sensitivity, consciousness, morality, right and desire. People who want to constantly improve their living standards tend to use more food and energy to get more comfortable and spacious houses, more expensive technologies, and more luxurious automobiles, therefore they destroy the balance of the nature (Cürebal, Efe, Soykan and Sönmez, 2014). On the other hand, other people want a greener, healthier nature, recreational and holiday opportunities integrated with the nature. Thus, national parks and other protected areas are being transformed into “nature-use areas” created by humans to serve them. In short, in the nature of man lies three indispensable features: to defend his life and his interests, to satisfy his basic needs and desires, and to improve his living conditions. Therefore, individual desires and needs of people inevitably conflict with the interests of nature. The rights of plants and animals in national parks are inevitably contradicts with the interests and rights of vacationers and woodmen, hunters, skiers. Hence, it is becoming harder to reach a compromise regarding the nature rights and human rights.

When we look at it from this point of view, it cannot be expected that people will give up their vital rights (nutrition, education, health, relaxing, holiday, etc.). To give up these rights is to give up living and being and how far people's vital rights extend and where nature rights begin is a difficult question to answer. In this context, concepts such as environmental awareness, environmental ethics, tolerance and sensitivity are becoming faded and sometimes completely insignificant in terms of the national parks which are under the influence of the conflict between human rights and nature rights, because the humans are expected to be objective in the nature-human conflict. However, when it comes to their own desires and interests, being impartial is out of the question. Thus, the concepts of consciousness and morality become controversial and even become insignificant (Medvedev, 2001: 53).

Discussion and Suggestions

The transformation of individual environmental consciousness into mass consciousness, social consciousness into planetary consciousness depend on people's will, people's desires and aims, people's presence and cognitive-affective nature. The ways to achieve this depend on the nature and consistency of the values system we
build, moral norms, attitudes and behaviors. Because mankind has finally realized that the only way to protect their families, compatriots and countries is to protect the nature. As it is not a selfish, non-moral approach, the principle “We need to preserve the nature in order to survive, and we need to preserve the nature in order to protect ourselves” should be adopted by many people of this century.

Mankind has also acknowledged that environmental awareness is a whole with global society and planetary consciousness, and that there is a need for fundamental reforms in the understanding of ethics and consumption, management, law, economy and education system. In summary, environmental awareness is a necessity, a necessity for nature and the planet to exist. Because if it does not exist, the means that help maintain the life and development of the human beings also vanish (Osyannikova, Guseva and Yakovenko, 1998: 26-27). If there is no environmental awareness billions of plant and animal species including humans are to become extinct. Without it, the protected areas and the existence of national parks become insignificant. In fact, our unique planet is bound to end due to all these.

The function and significance of environmental awareness, a concept created by people and only meaningful to humans, will be proved to be significant in protecting the planet and humanity before the end of this century. National parks, which are among the most restricted areas of human activities, are places where urbanization and industrialization, environmental pollution and ecological problems occur the least. The reproduction of these "green spaces" is not only important in terms of reflecting protection, global ecological culture and environmental awareness but also important in terms of the existence or disappearance of the planet’s population.

Today, all nations, all religions, civilizations and countries share the same ecological destiny, the same global threat, the same fear of death. Thus, human consciousness and sharing the same fate inevitably unite. Because all people are citizens of the same planet, they depend on the same world. Therefore, we must improve and protect our planet and biosphere. Realizing the fact that we share the same fate is the key to understand world citizenship, to understand that we are a part of nature (Morin & Kern, 2001: 207-211).

Therefore, we have to create nature-centered national parks that, not human-centered national parks. We should build and develop protected areas for the ecosystems and nature, not for the interests and desires of the people. We must interrogate and reconstruct the ethical framework of human-nature relations in national parks. We must protect the values and resources in the national parks not because they are important to man but because they have their own essential values. In other words, we should prove the idea “Something that is not worthy to man is worthless for nature.” wrong by implementing positive and constructive practices to the national parks. Thus national parks and other protected areas will become places where there is tolerance, sensitivity and environmental awareness and where the individual and social desires and interests are sacrificed for the sake of nature.

In this context, ecological culture, level of environmental education and environmental ethics of the designers, protectors and visitors of national parks determine their environmental consciousness level. Especially in schools there is a need for the environmentalization of lessons and integrated educational activities. In other words, there is a need for new curriculum programs, new teaching methods and new textbooks that will give children a sense of environmental awareness. In this regard, if
the level of ecological culture and environmental education of teachers, parents and students is not increased, it is obvious that the environmental awareness of the people will not reach the desired level.

REFERENCES

Chapter 30

Living Cuisines as an Example of New Practice in Hotel Cuisines

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INTRODUCTION

Today, both destinations and businesses show great efforts to receive more share from contributions that are created by tourism movements and thus try to stay competitive. One of the features of today's tourism establishments that makes them distinctive among their competitors is their ability to present new and different products. In this regard, different product innovations are experienced each passing day in tourism establishments (Demir & Demir, 2015). Practices such as a standard room service, an ordinary menu, a known tour organization, food-beverage services presented according to generally accepted patterns are the elements which can be managed almost by every tourism establishment. However, it doesn't seem possible for the hotel establishments to stay competitive today by presenting products which are similar to each other. On the contrary, it is known that tourism establishments which are able to create distinctiveness compared to their competitors may obtain competitive advantage. Thus, when considering the demands and expectations of today's tourist profile to have different experiences, it can be stated that innovative practices are inevitable in tourism sector.

Although there are many elements affecting the travel experience and pleasure of tourists, the gastronomy element has an important role particularly on satisfaction of tourists traveling for recreational purposes. Considering that the tourists traveling for recreational purposes spend most of their time in the hotels they stay during holiday, it can be stated that the eating and drinking experience they had in such places is effective on general satisfaction. The case is more complicated for tourists who prefer the same destination and hotel in their holidays. It is normal that those tourists expect some new and different products from the hotels they visit again. In this regard, it is witnessed in recent years that many hotels are in search of distinctiveness in their cuisine practices and thus show effort to make their guests live new experiences. One of the new eating and drinking concepts created due to such demand of distinctiveness from hotel establishments is the ‘living cuisine’ practices.

In this study, it is focused on the living cuisines in hotel establishments. In the

* This study was presented at the Gastronomy Tourism Congress organized by Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University in Çanakkale, Turkey on 21 – 23 September 2017.
relevant literature, although many cuisine trends are subject to intense discussions, studies focusing on living cuisine phenomenon are still quite limited. Even it can be said that the empirical studies related to the subject are scarcely any. Therefore, it is necessary to establish the theoretical foundation of living cuisine phenomenon and discuss the subject in a multi-dimensional way. In this conducted conceptual study, it was tried to reveal what the living cuisine is, from where and how the concept emerged and which practices the hotel establishments include in respect of living cuisine. This conceptual study is expected to shape the researchers who may be interested in the subject in the future at the point of making new tests.

1. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF GASTRONOMIC TRENDS

Eating and drinking phenomenon is the most important need of human being which is required to maintain his life since the early times humanity has existed. When examining the states of people to meet their eating and drinking needs during the period from the past until today, it can be said that this adventure which has started with hunting and collecting has undergone a fast process with development of agriculture and most importantly, with the invention of fire (Kılınç & Çavuş, 2010: 1).

That people have become sedentary in conjunction with starting agriculture allowed them to obtain food and beverages which have different tastes and nutritional values by way of trade and improvement and try new cooking methods by combining those ingredients (Gökdemir, 2012: 1).

In formation of the prepared food and beverages; people's lifestyles, habits, geographical and climate conditions, products raised in that region, customs and traditions, migrations and even technological developments have played a considerable role. Besides; cuisines at national, regional and even local level have emerged (Kılınç & Çavuş, 2010: 1; Gökdemir, 2012: 1; Düzgün & Özkaya, 2015: 41).

The cuisine concept is generally descriptive in terms of cultural and physical aspects. While the cuisine in terms of culture is a term containing the eating-drinking cultures of nations, it is described in terms of physical aspect as the place where any kind of food and beverage is prepared and consumed according to the concept of the enterprise (Aktaş & Özdemir, 2012: 3–4). According to Özgen (2016: 1), the cuisine is not only limited with tariffs of food and beverages peculiar to a nation, in addition to that, a term that includes preparation of such food and beverages, methods to serve them, the used tools and materials and traditions. Cığerim (2001: 49) considers the cuisine phenomenon in terms of social and cultural aspects and defines it as a branch of art which people connect with each other, have fun and meet their social needs.

The food phenomenon has been considered as a symbol of prosperity, wealth and having a status in society, played the leading role in formation of social traditions and increased its such role each passing day as the evidence of people's efforts for civilization (Özgen, 2016: 2). Thus, it can be said that the food phenomenon played a major role also in meeting the social and psychological requirements of people as well as their essential needs (Okech, 2014: 4). In other words, food and beverages have an important role for people to have fun, enjoy themselves, socialize and obtain different experiences (Trihas et al., 2015: 1). Besides; economic developments, rapid developing technology, sociological changes have deeply affected the development of cuisine phenomenon and brought along the creation of different cuisine trends based on such changes (Karamustafa et al., 2016: 33).
With the publishing of book called "the French Chef" by François Pierre in 1651 who was working as professional chef, a revolution was experienced in the cuisine which led the appearance of today's gastronomy phenomenon (Kırım, 2006). Gastronomy is defined as the science and art of cooking and eating good food (Özşeker, 2016: 3). With François Pierre's book, eating-drinking activity took different roles apart from being a compulsory need, and played a role in the increment of specialists in this field. Again with the book "the French Chef", the refined cuisine which has been dominated before by Italy was replaced with French cuisine that would rule three and a half centuries (Kırım, 2006).

When the years of 1920s arrived, fast food trend emerged as people had insufficient time due to intensity of business life and factors such as rapid growing of technology and globalization, and became quite a popular consumption case today. This trend which is named as fast food or fast ready food system, is a food system which provides eating-drinking service for a large number of people in a short time by producing and selling food made in certain standards (Yazıcıoğlu & Koç, 2013: 36 – 37). The drive-through restaurant which was opened by Richard and Maurice McDonald in 1948 in California was recorded as the first fast food restaurant (McDonald’s) (Özdoğan et al., 2014: 1 – 3). In Turkey, the first McDonald’s restaurant began to serve in 1986 in Istanbul Taksim (URL 1). Fast food trend is one of the fastest growing sectors of today's food industry and anticipated that it will also continue to be an indispensable consumption habit for the people in the future (Sormaz et al., 2007: 1213).

On the other hand, the pioneer (avant-garde) trend started to take effect and innovations made during that period were named as pioneer (avant-garde) cuisine trend (Aksoy & Üner, 2016: 8). As the pioneer trend appeared in the cuisines, different approaches were adopted against the art of cookery in cuisines and using different techniques in the field of cooking became widespread (Kırım, 2005). Particularly by the effect of increasing globalization, the cuisines exceeded national boundaries and reached to a global extent and led to appearance of fusion cuisine trend in the field of cuisine. With its broadest definition; fusion cuisine is to offer at least two different cuisine cultures in the same plate to create different and unique tastes as a result of conscious efforts, provided that none of those cuisine cultures shall dominate the other (Doğdubay & Saatcı, 2014: 42). With the tourism movements increasing in recent years, fusion cuisine practices have an important role for tourists in terms of meeting with different cuisine cultures in the region they visit as well as being able to find food which are close to their culture. In addition to this, it is stated that fusion cuisine practices have an important role for businesses to stay competitive, providing their recognition and increase their customer satisfaction (Staiff & Bushell, 2013: 138).

In the relevant literature, another cuisine trend which has become prominent in recent years is the molecular cuisine trend. The molecular gastronomy, which was created during the 1980s by Oxford University physics professors Herve This and Nicolas Kurti, is a trend that brings together physics and chemistry sciences with cuisine practices. And the molecular cuisine is a cuisine trend which aims to offer its customer food and beverages with different tastes, textures and views by changing the structures of food and beverages (Vega & Ubbink, 2008: 375 – 376). Most of the restaurants which are chosen every year by "Restaurant Magazine" that determines the best restaurants of the world usually have molecular cuisine practices in their menus.
These restaurants include El Celler De Can Roca (Girona, Spain), Noma (Copenhagen, Denmark), Eleven Madison Park (New York, America), Mugaritz (San Sebastian, Spain), Dinner By Heston Blumenthal (London, England), Gaggan (Bangkok, Thailand) (Karamustafa et al., 2016: 34 – 35; URL 2).

Besides, another trend appeared in cuisine field in the year 1986 is the slow food trend. Slow food is a trend which was suggested by Carlo Petrini as a reaction to fast food and fast life style, disappearance of local traditions; decay of interest in what people eat, where the food they eat come from, how it tastes and how the preference of food affect future generations (Bucak, 2014: 21; URL 3). The purpose of slow food is to increase consumption of local food and fresh, seasonal products; to extend the use of local seeds by protecting traditional production methods, to promote local cooking techniques and use of local markets and make the life even more beautiful by spending time on food consumption (URL 3).

2. EXAMPLES FROM LIVING CUISINE PHENOMENON AND PRACTICES

Along with being a compulsory requirement, today's eating-drinking habit also began to be regarded as a leisure activity with the developing eating-drinking industry. In other words, people do not intend to participate outdoor dining activities only to eat food but also to enjoy the view, atmosphere and other conditions and to experience the feeling of pleasure (Yüncü, 2010: 28). Living cuisines combine recreational activities with cuisine to offer their guests a new and different service and give them a different dining experience. In this cuisine trend, guests are considered as a part of the cuisine and giving a different eating-drinking experience is intended by combining cuisine and recreation phenomenon (URL 4).

The basic reason in occurrence of cuisine trend is the tourists' expectations from hotel cuisines to have a good time, have fun and get different experiences beyond eating only. This trend is regarded as a new alternative system to uniform eating-drinking system which has been brought for long years by all inclusive system into hotel cuisines (Erdem & Akyürek, 2017: 117). In other words, living cuisine trends are acknowledged as an important alternative in changing the patterns of all inclusive system which has quite a wide area of use in our day, particularly in resort hotels. It is emphasized that there is an opinion regarding that the all-inclusive system offers cheap and poor quality service, that it leads to formation of low income tourist profile to make holiday in such hotels and thus generally that all inclusive system applied negatively affects the quality perception in hotels. Again as a consequence of that, it is stated that tourist groups with higher income are seeking for new products which they can feel themselves special and prestigious. Indeed, as the hotels operating based on full pension system usually offer the same products to every guest, this leads to a failure to meet all needs and requests of the guests. Besides that, all inclusive system causes tourists to spend most of their time without getting out of the hotels they stay during their holidays and consequently limits the expenditures of tourists in the destination which reduces the share that the local people get from tourism (Üner et al., 2007; Bozok & Çalışkan, 2009). When considering the said negative aspects of all inclusive system, it seems inevitable that hotels will develop new alternatives as a solution for this problem. The living cuisine practices which have started to be included in some hotel cuisines in recent years can be given as examples of such pursuit of innovation.
The basic philosophy of living cuisine trend is to satisfy the eating-drinking requirements of guests in their spare times as well as allow them to have fun and spend a good time (Bölük, 2015). Some of the living cuisine practices applied in hotel establishments can be listed as follows (URL 4):

A *live broadcast practice*: By means of a live broadcast practice, a visual communication network is established with the guests and they are offered to have opportunity to make food with the chefs at the same time. Thanks to this practice, guests coming to hotel are having the excitement to prepare food on air during their holiday and even after they go back home after holiday.

![Figure 1: Live Broadcast Practice](URL 5: http://www.yasayanmutfak.com.tr/aktivite-canli-yayin.html)

*Chef's one day practice*: In the chef's one day practice, daily excursions are organized for guests staying in the hotel to local markets, food production areas and agricultural fields located in regions close to the hotel. With such short programs, local people and local products are presented and guests are encouraged to make shopping from those areas. On the other hand, the products that the visitors bought are prepared in the hotel with the visitors accompanied by expert chefs.

![Figure 2: Chef’s One Day Practice.](URL 6: http://www.yasayanmutfak.com.tr/aktiviteler-sefle-bir-gun.html)

The purpose of this practice is to make the guests better know the local people and local products and enable them to have a difference experience.

*Food preparation practice with children*: With this cuisine practice, it is aimed to allow guests to make cuisine practices in different styles and contribute children's improvement as well as increase the pleasure of children's families.
**Figure 3:** Food Preparation Practice with Children  

*Kitchen food contests:* Such contests are cuisine practices which include the food preparation contest of chefs working in the hotel between themselves in order to allow the guests have a good time in their spare times and gain a different eating experience. In this practice, guests are informed about the pre-determined point scoring categories and the chefs who show their skills live to guests are again evaluated by the guests.

**Figure 4:** Kitchen Food Contest  

*Food festivals:* These are the activities that include many small food activities (such as starter festival, dessert festival) within the hotel in order to give different presentations and experiences to the guests.

Some of the living cuisine practices in hotel establishments are attempted to be explained above by means of photos. The basic philosophy of living cuisine consists of product presentation by considering recreation and cuisine phenomenon together. In this regard, it is possible to diversify such kind of practices.

**Figure 5:** Food Festivals.  
*Source: URL 8: http://www.yasayanmutfak.com.tr/meze-festivali.html/*

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3. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Today, the change and innovation phenomenon also affect the tourism sector deeply like all sectors. By the effect of improvements in transportation field based on the development of technology, ever increasing income and education level of tourists and curiosity motivation; the demand in tourism movements show increase each passing day. This case increases the competition between countries and establishments who are in effort to get more share from tourism and leads to formation of a strong competitive market in today's tourism market. In this regard, it is observed that tourists are deeply affected from innovation phenomenon during their decision making process for destination choice (Erdem & Akyürek, 2017: 104).

As the sense of innovation becomes even more important day by day, it is seen that different products appear each passing day in food-beverage field as well. As the result of relevant literature review, it is observed that gastronomic trends such as fast food, fusion cuisine, molecular cuisine, slow food appear and develop and are used as innovative products in menus and marketing activities of establishments. Apart from that, it is also noted that the number of food-beverage establishments serving in different concepts i.e. themed restaurants, green restaurants are on the increase. In this regard, it may be anticipated that also living cuisine practices will become more widespread in the following years in food-beverage sector. Within this scope, practices which appear particularly in hotel establishments under the name of ‘living cuisine’, appeared as a result of searching for such different goods and service. With living cuisine practices, it is possible to satisfy different expectations of people they want to get from eating activity and their desires to obtain different experiences.

Innovation has an important place in terms of development and sustainability of tourism sector. It is observed that a lot of countries and businesses in fact tend towards innovative practices to overcome the economic crises they encounter (Demir & Demir, 2015: 7). When the crises experienced in Turkish tourism sector are generally considered, it is undeniable that innovative practices should be increased. In this regard, it is considered that the Turkish Tourism, which is based on all inclusive system especially in hotels, should increase innovative practices such as living cuisine to be able to appeal people having different income level.

In a research conducted by Erdem and Akyürek (2017) in hotel establishments active in Bodrum region of Muğla on cooks and food-beverage department managers who are aware of living cuisine practices, it was identified that the opinions of sample group about living cuisine were quite positive. In the findings obtained from that study, it was detected that cooks and food-beverage department managers working in hotel establishments consider that living cuisine practices were effective in creating customer satisfaction, allowing customers to have good time and different experiences. On the other hand, it was also identified that the sample had quite positive opinions on living cuisine practices for increasing the number of regular customers, profitability and competitiveness of the establishment. In this regard, it is anticipated that living cuisine trend will become even more widespread during the next period and be an alternative to remedy the deficiencies of all inclusive system in hotels in terms of food-beverage services. Besides, it is considered that living cuisine practices will make contribution in better presentation and development of Turkish cuisine.

In conclusion of this study, the suggestions to be offered to relevant tourism shareholders on living cuisine practices may be listed as follows:
Hotel managers should support cuisine chefs to make such unique practices and encourage them for such practices.

In marketing strategies of hotel establishments and even destinations, unique and innovative services such as living cuisine practices should be focused on and travel agencies should be informed more effectively on such kind of services.

Food-beverage establishments which are in business out of hotels also should be made to include living cuisine practices and thus unique alternatives should be created for tourists to spend good time outside the hotel. Such activities should be supported by organizations and institutions in the region and facilitative opportunities should be formed during the process of both taking tourists to food-beverage production areas and to local markets and villages.

Living cuisine practices should be included in gastronomy tours to be organized by travel agencies.

In formal and non-formal educational institutions providing cuisine training, different product creativity should be developed and encouraged.

Finally, practices offering different products at the level of public and private sector i.e. living cuisine should be identified and establishments using such practices should be supported by the relevant person or institutions.

Limitations and Suggestions for Further Researches

Since conceptual and empirical studies conducted on living cuisine are quite limited in the relevant literature, examples related with living cuisine practices in this study remained limited with current literature information. Thus, more theoretical and empirical studies to be carried out on living cuisine shall contribute to the relevant literature. Particularly when considering the role of eating-drinking activity on both tourism sector and human life, it is thought that academic studies for this field should be increased in order to make such kind of innovative cuisine practices become widespread in the sector.

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Chapter 31

Evaluating the Social and Economic Aspects of Mega Events from the Perspective of the Tourism Industry

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INTRODUCTION

Social events have emerged as a result of social beliefs in the historical process and have become social rituals that have been continuous in time. Older societies have organized religious ceremonies and rituals on behalf of the gods, believing that sickness, health, success, or failures come from God. Later period, events have transformed into tourism and recreational activities with the development of modern science and the renewal of the socio-cultural paradigms. With these changing perspectives, events are defined as performed to share a common experience by participants at specific dates and time intervals, social, sporting, cultural, economic, environmental, or leisure-based organizations.

Events by size can be categorized as mega, featured, regional and local. When the mega events are evaluated in terms of economic, social and cultural contributions in the host destination, they are emerging as the most potent type of events. Mega events are events that are carried out in a certain time, heightened awareness and increasing attractiveness of the destination with regard to tourism in the short and / or long-term.

Today, the Olympic Games, Formula 1, FIFA World Cup, France Bike Tournament, Wimbledon Tennis Tournament, European Swimming Championship, World Athletics Championships, and University Games are the most popular mega events. For an event to qualify as a mega, it requires to over 1 million visitors and a capital cost of at least $500 million. Hence, mega events cause economic renewal and increase of touristic and recreational events against the flash demand by attracting investments and resources in the host destination.

From past to present, events have an economic, social, politic and technologic influence on society. The events have an important influence on the development and promotion of the host destination. Mega events are both an income source and an investment tool in the matter of tourism industry. Such extensive events have the power to significantly influence the national economies and the socio-cultural identity of societies.

In this section, firstly, the concept and features of event will be mentioned. Then, the differences between mega events and other events will be discussed. Finally, the economic and socio-cultural impacts of the mega events will be argued with regard to tourism industry.
CONCEPT AND TYPES OF EVENTS

The concept of an event is used to celebrate a special occasion and to express special rituals, demonstrations and celebrations planned to reach various social, cultural, economic goals and objectives (Tokay Argan & Yüncü, 2015). An event can also be described as an experience that is carefully designed to manifest an impact on the participants (Silvers, 2004). According to another definition, an event is a celebration to which people are invited only once per year or less frequently for a limited time (Getz, 1991). An Event is used to describe activities designed for different purposes. These activities may be related to arts, sports, tourism, social activities, or may be large scale events carried out by larger, more professional and formally organized organizations (Argan, 2007).

Events are the achievement of social or individual needs as a result of people acting together, reaching common goals as a group and organization which cannot be achieved individually, sharing a common feeling or thought, and becoming a social entity in social life, etc. (Ekin, 2011). Events are evaluated non-routine actions or participation that differs from normal daily activities to achieve leisure, cultural, personal, work and business goals. The purpose of events is to direct, entertain, celebrate or educate a group of people's experiences (Tokay Argan, 2013).

Events differ in type from mega events to socially focused festivals depending on their size and content (Getz, 1989: 125). Being able to combine activities with a wide range of themes, including food, wine, art, music, sports, religion, history and culture, around a single definition covering all genres is quite difficult due to differences in the size and theme of the events (Getz, 1991: 71). Therefore, event is commonly used to describe many celebrations.

Events are a developing phenomenon both globally and in terms of popularity. Studies on the effectiveness of events are usually focused on large-scale events. While there are many features of the events, their main features can be listed as follows (Getz, 1991; Jago & Shaw 1998):

- Limited duration
- Occur once or infrequently
- Out of the ordinary (outside daily routine)
- Open to the public
- Celebrate a specific theme or display
- Not having a fixed structure (building, facility, etc.) (except sporting events)
- Hosting many activities separately in their programs
- Performing all activities in the same areas in general.

A general classification of events is not possible because it is a field that develops every day, is reproduced and manifests new and different species (Tokay Argan & Yüncü, 2015). However, some researchers and authors have made some classifications considering the contents and size of the events.

In the classification of events on a scale, the size and scope are not only geographical; they are also about the number of participants, the media, infrastructure, cost and generated benefits. According to the scale, the events are basically divided into two groups as small and large scale events. Large scale events are divided into mega and special (hallmark) events (Jago & Shaw 1998).

Small scale events are activities where the number of participants is low, usually in rural areas or small settlements with low media interest. Any event that is about the
cultural features of a nation or takes place in a narrow geographical area falls into this category. The Apricot Festival in Malatya and the Mesir Paste Festival in Manisa can be illustrated in this classification. Such events have an extremely low level of economic impact on host destinations compared to major events (Tokay Argan & Yüncü, 2015: 11).

Large scale events are activities with a high number of participants, usually held in big cities or on a nation-wide basis with high media interest. Large scale events include Mega events which are high-level events that take place in the short term and “mainly once” like the Olympic Games and take place on an international scale, have high media attention and tourist expenditures are made and which require major infrastructure investments and expenditures at the destinations (Hiller, 2000: 439).

Special (Hallmark) events are planned in the short or long term and organized once or repeated in a limited time period, usually to raise awareness about a tourism destination, make it visible, and generate profitability. Mega events and hallmark events are similar. However, it can be said that special events are specific to certain destinations while mega events are carried out at different times at different destinations (Babacan & Göztaş, 2011).

Another key variable to consider when classifying events is the theme and content of the events. These are special events like festivals, carnivals and religious events such as cultural celebration celebrations, arts and entertainment events, sporting events, business events, educational and scientific meetings, recreational events, as well as special events such as political events and wedding parties (Getz, 1997: 7).

DEFINING MEGA EVENTS

Event is often used to describe something that is important or extraordinary, while the mega is used to emphasize its size. There are different definitions in literature about this concept. Mega event is defined as a one-off or recurring limited-time event that has been fundamentally developed to increase awareness, attractiveness and profitability of a tourism destination in the short or long term (Valentino, 2011). Many countries generate mega events to gain prestige, attract attention to tourism or open up to global influences (Getz, 2008).

In 1987 the concept of mega event was defined by Ritchie and Yangzhou as activities that are held in a certain time period and generate high awareness and attraction for the region of a tourism destination in the short or long term. The most large scale events qualify as mega events. Such activities usually involve major events designed in a competitive framework. Olympic Games, Paralympic Games, FIFA World Cup, World Athletics Championships and World Fairs and Super Bowl are categorized under this event category (Tokay Argan, 2013).

In order for an event to be evaluated as mega it has to have an extraordinary influence on tourism for the host country or city, it must be prominent in the media, prestigious and its economic contribution should be major. Mega events require the promulgation of a capital cost of at least $ 500 million, pointing to a volume of over 1 million visitors (Getz, 1997). Such events have a high participation rate, strong financial impact, are portray a long time in the media and concentrated political, economic and social impact. Mega events are one of the major profit-making event types and they are the most studied events in terms of impact on tourism because they have significant effects on the image of the host destination. Mega events are the most profitable event
types of tourism. Therefore, criteria such as regional tourism volume, number of visitors, infrastructure, organizational development, interest of the media are examined in measuring the effect of mega events (Karagöz, 2006: 15).

Roche (1994) describes mega events as short-term events with long-term outcomes. This definition clearly demonstrates the economic, political, social and cultural motives that convince cities and countries to host events such as the Olympic Games and the Football World Cup. Mega events are a tourism potential which is a significant factor in encouraging cities to host such events. The fact that the mega events have tourism potential is directly associated with the attraction of international and domestic visitors as spectators and participants. Furthermore, the future repetitions of visits by the new visitors can also be viewed as a more long term contribution (Baum & Lockstone, 2007).

In this context, the characteristics of mega events are as follows (Babacan & Göztas, 2011, Toksöz et al., 2014):

- Large crowds are drawn (over a million participants).
- Major costs are generated.
- It results in urban renewal.
- It gains prestige and distinction for the relevant region.
- Requires a political approval process to be implemented.
- Increases the demand for services such as food, beverages, accommodation and transport.
- It is held together with festivals and other events.
- Attracts major investments and resources to the region.
- The scale is international.
- It is on a major scale.
- It is a must see event and quite reputable.
- It is organized in developed regions with proficiency in terms of infrastructure, superstructure and facilities.
- It attracts the interest of the media and the press worldwide.
- Due to high costs, a strong infrastructure and expertise are needed.
- It is an opportunity for countries to introduce themselves and establish a positive image.
- It is realized within a specific time frame and periodically.

Mega events have a significant impact on the city, region and country in which they are organized (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006). Generally, host cities and countries have a unique opportunity to introduce themselves to the world through activities they carry out on this scale (Gratton et al., 2006). Mega events have key implications such as reshaping the city image and raising its global reputation, promoting urban economic development, promoting urban development and innovation, contributing to infrastructure development, building public facilities and providing social capital for long-term urban development (Zhang & Wu, 2008).
ECONOMIC AND SOCIO-CULTURAL EFFECTS OF MEGA EVENTS IN TERMS OF THE TOURISM SECTOR

Mega events, as big budget events addressing millions of people, affects host destinations in many ways, both positively and negatively. These effects can be grouped into economic, political, socio-cultural, psychological and environmental (Quinn, 2013). Nowadays, it cannot be said that mega events are only economic influences in the host destination. At the same time, the local population is affected by numerous factors in the pre-mega event period, during the event as well as after the event and socio-cultural differences are observed in the local structure. In this regard, the economic and socio-cultural impacts manifested by mega events in terms of tourism in the host destination will be examined in detail.

Economic Effects of Mega Events in Terms of the Tourism Sector

Tourism is an activity that is mainly addressed from an economic perspective. Tourism is considered as an economic approach because of its significant income generating and foreign exchange earning features for the relevant countries. As a matter of fact, the positive effects of tourism which has become an economic and massive phenomenon on the country and regional economies has put more emphasis on its economic aspect (Kozak et al., 2015: 77). The fact that tourism combines other businesses in the service sector and has direct and indirect links with the other sub-sectors of the economy further increases its importance. Furthermore, mega events organized internationally are important tourism activities.

Many destinations in the world want to host mega events in order to gain international recognition and economic income. In addition, mega-events help to keep tourists within the region, as well as creating a tourist attraction for destinations, thus preventing loss of income (Getz, 1997: 52). Thus it can be said that there are many positive and negative contributions directly or indirectly to the economy of the host destination where mega events are held. Table 1 examines the economic effects of mega events in the host destination in general:

Table 1: Economic Effects of Mega Events

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>Direct/Indirect increased expenditure</td>
<td>Price inflation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Economic benefits in from of tax revenues</td>
<td>Increased local tax (to construct facilities needed for the event)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Additional trade and business development</td>
<td>Mismanagement of public funds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employment opportunities</td>
<td>Real estate speculation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marketing of the host region as a tourism destination</td>
<td>Short-term contract work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>New opportunities for potential investors</td>
<td>Inflated price of products, services and amenities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increased property value due to regeneration</td>
<td>Unequal distribution of wealth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Induced development and construction expenditure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Organizing a mega event in a destination requires investment expenditures to be made in the destination. This includes the construction of the physical infrastructure and superstructure where the investment expenditure will be regulated, and the development
of existing facilities. The contribution of Mega events to a destination is not only the generation of income and employment but also the support of the formation of new investments required by the local people.

Investment expenditures within the scope of mega-events lead to spending-income flow within the economy, creating an income that exceeds the initial investment expenditure. Therefore, every increase in total tourism investments in a destination causes an increase in national income (Tokay Argan & Yüncü, 2015: 28) as it can also affect the total actual (active) demand. Infrastructure or facilities required by mega events, investment in manufacturing factors which are used in the construction of superstructures such as hotels, motels, restaurants, etc. generate income for themselves. The investment expenditures made within the scope of the mega events include primarily the employees who are planning and scheduling the mega event, landowners, employees employed in the investments, producers and sellers operating in the construction sector, public administrators and local administrations. Thus those who generate income from investment expenditures made in mega-events save some of that income and spend some of it in the local economy (İçöz, 2005). This generates marginal savings and consumption trends, multiplying the initial investment expenditure by a certain coefficient to increase the total income.

The XXV Winter Universiade-2011 took place in Erzurum and Mediterranean Games-2013 took place in Mersin are mega events which have been organized in Turkey. For the Winter Universiade-Erzurum, a stadium compliant with UEFA criteria, an ice hockey hall seating 3000, ski jumping ramps and ice hockey training halls for 500 persons were built in Erzurum. 365 million Turkish Liras were spent on these investments. Apart from these expenditures, non-sports investments such as accommodation facilities and infrastructure renewals amounting to 48 million were made (Tokay Argan, 2013: 24). In 2013, 54 facilities were opened, including 11 new facilities were readied for the Mediterranean Games held in Mersin and investment expenditures of TL 800 million were made within the scope of the games (Silik, 2014: 45). In both events employment opportunities were generated for the people of the region and the existing infrastructure facilities were renewed.

In the long term, destinations that host mega events see infrastructure investments and urban renewal as important opportunities. The facilities that have been built and hosting mega events is lucrative for communities (Mules & Faulkner, 1996: 108). Apart from the elements directly required for the mega event (roads, communication systems, accommodation, sports facilities, etc.), it also includes different developments. During the construction phase of the infrastructure and facilities, the community that hosts the mega event has an increase in economic activities and employment at the same time (Trost & Milohnic, 2012).

The organization, coordination and planning of mega events are factors that demonstrate the success of the event. The resources to be used are determined in the planning stage of the event. These resources are called operational expenditures (Yüncü et al., 2006). Operational expenditures include expenditures made for the operation such as staffing, advertising and promotional expenses (Faulkner, 2003). With the operational expenditures, the economy of the destination where the mega event will take place is revitalized and employment areas increase. During the construction phase of the Olympic Park in London in 2012, 240 different businesses operated and thousands were employed (International Olympic Committee Report, 2013).
The main purpose of a mega event is to attract domestic and foreign visitors from the country as well as abroad. The domestic and foreign visitors to the destination where the event will be organized will need accommodation, wining and dining, entertainment and shopping. They will be spending throughout the event to meet these needs. Expenditures made by visitors not only contribute to the committee organizing the mega event, but also contribute to the stakeholders. In other words, other enterprises in the service sector, which we call "stakeholders" benefit economically from the organization of a mega event. Hence, mega-events can be described as the economic impact for the host destination, the expenditures they make, and the multiplier effect that the entire event has created in the destination. Figure 1 shows the multiplier effect of visitor expenditures at mega events:

Initially the first expenditures made by visitors at the mega event destination are made for accommodation, eating and drinking and transportation. The local enterprises that earn these expenditures spend a part of the income and generate indirect revenues by saving a part of the income. The increase in the incomes of the local people causes stimulated effects in the economy. Thus, depending on the multiplier effect of the revenues obtained through mega events, the revitalization of economic activities, new business opportunities, personal income increase and the generation of public revenues takes place.

The main expectation of host destinations from mega events is that in the pre-event and post-event period the destinations are given wide coverage by the national and international media and that the promotional activities generate a positive image for the destination (Chalip & McGuirty, 2004). Thus, a destination wants to host a mega-event in order to increase international recognition, improve the image of the destination, increase the number of visitors and generate economic gain. In destinations that host mega events, tourism revenues and the gross national product (GDP) of the country will increase. For example, in the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, gross national revenues were expected to rise to $6.2-7.2 billion, the games created over 100,000 new jobs, and the number of tourists increased with 1.6 million in the long term, Sidney is still known as a major tourist destination known in the world with the 2000 Olympic Games.

Mega events also have negative economic effects on the host destination. After a destination has been determined to host a mega event, the most significant negative impact on this region are sudden price increases in real estate. After revealing that the 2012 Olympics were to be hosted by London the region's real estate prices increased by about 1.4% to 4.6%. In the long term this has caused a large part of the income of the local people to be spent on accommodation. Furthermore, mega events can cause an imbalance in income distribution in the host destination. People who are directly involved with the event experience an increase in income in this process while local people who are not directly and indirectly involved in the event experience loss of income. The main reason underlying this is that the infrastructure and superstructure investments to be constructed for the mega event are countered by taxes.
Mega events are not a continuous activity. Mega events such as tourism are seasonal or are carried out for a period in the destination. A large human work force is needed to make a one-time mega event. Hence, mega-events create a temporary increase in employment in the host destination. However, people who were employed during the mega event become unemployed after it is over (Knott et al., 2015). In order to overcome this negativity, host destinations prefer volunteers for mega events. For example, 50,000 professional and amateur volunteers took part in the Sochi Winter Olympics in 2014 (Sochi 2014 Winter Olympics Final Report, 2018).

Mega events can cause sudden price increases in the host destination. During the mega event, sudden price increases are observed in products, services and other facilities to meet the increasing demand (Silvestre, 2008). The local population is adversely affected by inflated prices which can generate a negative view on the event as well as participants. At the Rio Olympics in 2016, local people declared with many boycotts and demonstrations that they did not want the Olympics to be held in the region and this negative atmosphere was felt by visitors during the Olympics.
Socio-Cultural Effects of Mega Events in Terms of the Tourism Sector

The tourism phenomenon refers to a continuously active period in which social and cultural aspects can be dealt with in different dimensions and where interaction between tourists and local people take place. In order to be able to realize this period efficiently and in a robust way, it is necessary to prepare the physical circumstances and local people for tourism in a socio-cultural sense and ensure that local people engage in tourism activities. Mega events that attract massive crowds to destinations should be considered not only as an income-generating economic activity, but also as an international event that alters the socio-cultural structure of the host population. Mega events have positive and negative socio-cultural effects on host communities. These effects are indicated in Table 2:

Table 2: Socio-Cultural Effects of Mega Events

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Socio-Cultural</td>
<td>Broadened education</td>
<td>Social pollution and traffic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International recognition of host region</td>
<td>Stereotyping of the host and tourist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Breakdown of racial and cultural barriers</td>
<td>Division due to exclusions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Local, community and national identity and pride</td>
<td>Substance abuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social integration and nation-building</td>
<td>Intercultural hostility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increased community participation</td>
<td>Negative influence on traditional family values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Introducing new and challenging ideas</td>
<td>Displacement of tenants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Revitalising traditions</td>
<td>Increase of crime, vandalism and law enforcement strain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expanding cultural perspectives</td>
<td>Commodification and exploitation of culture and traditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Awareness of outsiders’ perceptions</td>
<td>Defensive attitudes regarding host regions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increase of quality of life for higher socio-economic</td>
<td>Reduction of quality of life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Improved cultural and shopping opportunities for locals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Saayman, 2001; Malfas et al., 2004; Kim et al., 2006; Ohmann et al., 2006; Musgrave & Raj, 2009; Allen et al., 2011.

Mega events, such as the Olympics, FIFA and mass spectacles attracting spectators to host destinations, undoubtedly increase interest in local cultures and destinations. Visitors who come to a host destination want to explore tangible and intangible values of the destination. Hence, mega events are an important platform for promoting the culture of host destinations, gain international fame and prestige. In the 1980s, when Korea was declared to be host to the Olympics the nation was not that well known in the world and remained on the agenda of the international press for a long time. With the help of the cultural programs implemented at the 1988 Seoul Olympics, the culture of the country was introduced to the world. In this way, international interest in the country increased, the renewed perception of the country has increased its confidence, and the desire to host new international events has risen to a higher level (Joo et al., 2017). There are also negative aspects of promoting and marketing the culture and traditions of the host destination of a mega event as a product. In the long term, businesses operating in the destination start to view local culture as a commodity and the actual values to be presented or portrayed are degenerated and fall prey to financial
worries (Minnaert, 2011). Although tourism is a service sector, it is perceived as an industrial sector and based on production and consumption relations. Therefore, culture and traditions can be sacrificed to so-called tourism utilization if no developments are planned in the destinations hosting mega events (Kaygalak et al., 2013: 240). Hence, mega events may be contrary to the principles that they would like to bring to the host destination.

While interaction between tourists and local people has positive effects such as exchange of views, emergence of new ideas, intercultural sharing, elimination of racial and cultural discrimination, negative effects such as exclusion because of race, gender and income, security issues such as substance abuse, prostitution, homicide, theft, negative reflections on family and community, eviction of local people from their places of residence and commodification of cultural values also take place (Essex & Chalkey, 1998; Ohmann et al., 2006; Deery & Jago, 2010). When it was announced in 1993 that Sidney would host the 2000 Olympics, urban transformation was initiated in the area. It is one of the negative aspects of mega events that local people are forced to leave their homes with urban transformation and move to other areas.

Mega events are an opportunity for local people to increase their quality of life by developing their values with social and cultural activities in addition to economic gains (Kim & Petrick, 2005: 25). Welfare in the regional economy is reflected on income and consumption. At the same time, local people are proud of hosting mega events and take ownership of the event as a national phenomenon (Heere et al., 2013). As a matter of fact, a study carried out by Kersting (2007) during the 2006 Fifa World Cup organized in Germany revealed that while the national pride level of the local people was 7% during the event this ratio dropped to 1% after the event. This indicates that the enthusiasm that mega events generate in local people is temporary. The organizing committee of the host destination should be able to ensure that this enthusiasm remains active by providing necessary information within the country before the event takes place.

Mega events have an important role in promoting social solidarity and cooperation and social infrastructure in the destination where they are organized (Allen et al., 2011). In the Vancouver Olympic Games organized in Canada in 2010, the authorities gave priority to local people in terms of employment opportunities and ensured that disabled people were employed in appropriate positions. The Olympics organizing committee cooperated with the business community and non-governmental organizations of the country to this end.

Security is the most important element for tourists who travel to an unfamiliar destination. Tourists do not choose an unsafe destination in the course of researching and deciding on their holidays (Yılmaz & Ardiç Yetiş, 2018). Security measures in host destinations at mega events attended by millions are maximum. Patrolling police forces, setting up special security units, and increasing the number of security cameras are some measures taken during the event process (Catterall, 2012). Strict measures before and during the event can prevent the freedom of local people.

CONCLUSION

The mega event is a big-budget, large-scale event that involves millions of people. Having such a large budget and scale ensures that its impact is also great. References can be made to the positive and negative effects of mega-events both economically and
socio-culturally. When evaluated economically, the cost of such activities is very high. It is emphasized that a capital of at least 500 million dollars is required even when the definition is being made. Countries are competing to host mega events although the cost is so high. This is because the cost of events is high and the income is very high. Indirectly, there are many positive economic impacts such as job generation in addition to direct income. On the other hand, events contribute to the destination by introducing the destination where the event is held and drawing tourists at other times as well.

When assessed from a socio-cultural point of view, the positive effect of introducing the destination’s culture to the world is worth mentioning. During the event, interaction between local people and visitors takes place. This interaction increases intercultural communication and tolerance. The locals contribute to visitors in a cultural sense and vice versa. In addition to these positive effects, unfortunately mega events also have negative effects in a socio-cultural sense. The great interaction taking place during the event does not always generate positive results and crimes such as substance addiction, prostitution and theft increase.

It is inevitable that the economic and socio-cultural effects of mega events with a budget of at least 500 million dollars and a capacity of 1 million visitors will be both positive and negative. Income from an investment with a large budget will also be large. It is also quite normal for socio-cultural influences to be found in a situation where 1 million extra visitors are present in a particular region in a given period. Destinations that intend to undertake hosting a mega event will benefit by giving due consideration for the impact of these positive and negative aspects in terms of the destination.

REFERENCES


Chapter 32

The Use of Information Technologies (IT) in Car Rental Businesses

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INTRODUCTION

With the globalization trends, the transformation from industrial society to information society is reorganizing the elements of competition around the world (Funk, Funk and Wind, 2009: 85). Today, businesses are creating their competitive strategies through business processes that they redesign through information technology. IT has changed the manual handling of customer information and accounts, reservation with phones and letters taking too much time, and communication based on limited resources. E-commerce has become possible with information technology that enables these difficult and time-consuming tasks to be done easily and quickly (Buhalis and Law, 2001: 241).

Information technologies include the computers used to obtain and present information, computer networks, printers, national and international wired or wireless communication devices (telephone, satellite communication systems, etc.), written, verbal and visual broadcasting devices (radio, TV etc.) and similar technologies (Sarı and Kozak, 2005: 361).

As tourism is a fragmented and information-oriented sector, the use of IT is very important, and has a major impact on the competitive environment (Buhalis and Laws 2001: 224). In addition, for the last two decades, IT has become a very important competitive power in certain branches of the service sector, including tourism (Buhalis and Laws, 2008: 608).

1. Car Rental Sector in the World

As the car rental industry has organized very well in developed countries, it has achieved more growth in these places. The U.S. has the majority stake in the global car rental industry, followed by Europe and other developed countries. In addition, the sector is growing in developing countries such as India, China and Brazil (Tyya, 2007: 112).

Economic factors such as the constant growth of the travel and tourism sector, the increased demand for entertainment and leisure activities, the increase in urban population and consumer spending power cause the growth in the sector. On the other hand, some difficulties, such as stringent emissions standards set to prevent environmental pollution, prevent the sector from growing (Business Wire, 2013:5).

The volume of the car rental sector reached $74.1 billion in 2016, bringing the compound annual growth rate to 5.7% for the five-year period between 2012 and 2016 (see table 1).
Table 1: Global car rental market value (2012–2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Revenue (million $)</th>
<th>% Growth</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>59,504.0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>61,943.2</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>66,574.8</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>69,876.8</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>74,149.3</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CAGR: 2012–16 5.7%


The car rental market is divided into travel, financial rental and replacement vehicle markets. The biggest of these is the travel market (William and Richard 1995: 84). The travel market is generally divided into airport and non-airport. According to the research by Datamonitor (2010: 10), 44.3% of the total transaction volume belongs to the airport and the remaining 55.7% belongs to non-airport car rental organizations. 60.3% of the market belongs the U.S., 31% to Europe and the remaining 8.3% to Asia-Pacific.

The car rental market is divided into several niche markets, including airport operators and major city agencies for business and leisure travel, replacement vehicle companies and fleet sellers (Raskop, 1994: 44). For example, Hertz carries out 80% of its operations in airports and 20% in city agencies (Bonoma, 1984: 149).

1.1. Car Rental Sector in the U.S.

The car rental sector started in the U.S. in 1918 as a business line (William and Richard, 1995: 84). In the United States, the car rental and leasing industry emphasizes on 50 large companies that generate more than 80% of the total revenue thereof. Major companies include Enterprise Holdings, Hertz Global Holdings, Avis Budget Group, Ryder and U-Haul International. These companies conduct daily or long-term rental of passenger cars, recreational vehicles, trucks and trailers. Many U.S.-based car rental companies have expanded to include international operations primarily at international airports and often through local vendors (Seay and Narsing, 2013: 113).

First, large car rental companies such as Hertz, Avis, National and Budget operated in the sector. With the increasing airline competition in the 1980s, a small number of customers created the business and entertainment niche markets. Alamo and Dollar car rental companies implemented low prices to increase their market share in tourist destinations. The increase in tourist demand has changed the market shares in the car rental sector (Pachon, 2000: 6). In the U.S., market shares of businesses have risen dramatically, as many mergers and acquisitions have diminished. Table 2 shows the number of car rental companies, number of vehicles, number of branches, income and market shares in the U.S.

In the U.S., the car rental sector has become a giant economy with approximately 19.643 car hire locations, more than 2.1 million vehicles and $28,626 billion in revenue.
Table 2: U.S. Car Rental Market Fleet, Locations and Revenue (2017)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Cars in Service</th>
<th>Locations</th>
<th>Revenue (Millions $)</th>
<th>Market Share %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enterprise Holdings (Includes Alamo, Enterprise, National Car Rental)</td>
<td>1,200,000</td>
<td>6,400</td>
<td>16,200</td>
<td>56.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hertz (includes Dollar and Thrifty)</td>
<td>485,000</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td>5,975</td>
<td>20.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avis Budget Group (includes Payless, not Zipcar)</td>
<td>350,000</td>
<td>3,1003</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advantage Rent-A-Car</td>
<td>32,000</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fox Rent A Car</td>
<td>19,000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACE Rent A Car</td>
<td>12,000</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U-Save Auto Rental System (owned by FSNA)</td>
<td>7,500</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Franchise Systems (Rent-A-Wreck of America, Priceless &amp; Nextcar)</td>
<td>7,500</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordable/Sensible</td>
<td>3,700</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independents</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td>5,500</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2,186,700</td>
<td>19,643</td>
<td>28,626</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


1.2. Car Rental Sector in Europe

Europe has a more flexible and free way of car rental. Transportation is easy as the European-based passenger railway lines are much more than highways. Apart from Switzerland, automobiles offer transportation even to the smallest villages (Bestor, 2013:3). In Europe, there are two giant companies in operation such as Europcar and Godfrey which are European companies besides American car rental companies such as Hertz, Avis, Budget, Alamo, Dollar, National, Thrifty and Advantage. Businesses operate a total of 40,000 vehicles in Europe (Pran, 2006: 12).

Avis, the largest car rental organization in Europe, makes about half of all bookings (up to 5,000) through travel agencies. Renting cars with holiday purposes constitutes the most important part of the job with a ratio of 60%. Hertz is the world's largest car rental organization and is an influential car rental business especially in the U.S. business world. In Germany, Hertz has 50 tour operators, as well as co-operation agreements with Lufthansa and Ryanair airlines (Walter, 2010: 17).

According to a regulation on the registration of motor vehicles, car rental companies have been allowed to transfer their vehicles to another EU country without having to re-register their vehicles during the holidays (the ability to use the vehicle used in the coasts through the summer in the Alps as well in winter holiday). Car rental companies have also saved a considerable amount since they can transfer their vehicles to another EU country without resorting to re-registration during holiday periods. Thus, it became cheaper to rent a car for tourists (http://ec.europa.eu).

1.3. Car Rental Sector in Asia - Pacific

The Asia Pacific is one of the fastest growing regional markets for car rental due to the increasing population coupled with transportation issues in the region. Car rental
service is very useful in Asian countries like India, Australia, Cambodia, Japan, China etc. There are many islands in Indonesia region which are the most attractive tourist destination. This helps to grow the car rental market in the Asia Pacific. Eco Rent A Car, Carzonrent, Al-Futtaim Group are some leading car rental service providers in the Asia Pacific (https://globenewswire.com).

The car rental industry in China is in a large-scale development. In 2002, with Hertz, Avis and Europcar entering into the Chinese market and the rental car market opened to the world market. There are more than 400 car rental agencies in China's car rental market. Most of them operate in airports and in the mainland, in small and single cities (Li and Tao, 2009: 265).

In India, a developing market, as airlines are building new flight routes, hotel chains building new ones, car rental companies have opened new offices. Operating in more than 8,000 locations in 143 countries around the world, Hertz entered the Indian market by establishing a joint venture. The language and status of roads are important problems in the region where services are provided with driver and driverless options (Southan, 2011:42). The top income group emerging in India and China provides growth in rental vehicle trade in the Asia Pacific region (Car Rental Business, 2008: 4).

Changes in business model in Taiwan reveal business opportunities for transportation equipment and rental business. In particular, there has been an increase in demand for long-term car rental services that allow businesses to reduce spending. The number of businesses in the sector, which was 140 in 2008, has reached 805 in 2012. The development of the tourism industry in Taiwan has also improved car rental services. The intensive demand for motorcycle renting in the country created car rental companies in the country, as well as motorcycle renting businesses (Wang, 2012: 8).

### 1.4. Car Rental Sector in Africa

There are large international franchise car rental companies and local organizations operating on a regional scale in Africa. In South Africa, Avis is the region’s largest car rental business. It operates in Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mozambique, Malawi, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Managing 60,000 vehicles in financial leasing, the organization is the largest licensee of the Avis Group, with a fleet of about 20,000 vehicles, outside the U.S. market. The organization has a 37% market share in the local car rental market (South Africa Tourism Report. 2010: 27). In South Africa, Kenya, Zimbabwe and Uganda, car rental is available from websites of international companies such as Hertz and Avis (Maswera, Davson and Edwards, 2008).

Among domestic organizations, First Car Rental provides services in all major airports, cities and tourist centers with 6,000 vehicles and 47 different office networks in South Africa and owns 11% of the market. The company offers a diverse range of products and services from economical vehicles to luxury groups at 4,500 rent-a-cars in 100 countries around the world (www.firstcarrental.co.za).

Budget Rent-a-Car is located in Botswana, Mozambique, and Namibia with 60 branch offices in South Africa. The organization has a fleet of 4,500 vehicles and a market share of 14%. It has muscle car retail organization with McCarthy organization and automobile sales, distribution and concession agreements with brands such as Alfa-Romeo, BMW and Peugeot (South Africa Tourism Report, 2010: 28). Addis Ababa, founded by an Ethiopian investor in 2008, rents and tours 40 different vehicles with the Budget Car Rental franchise in the region. In addition, on one of the popular tourist
sites Lake Tana, it provides chartering with a boat with a carrying capacity of 10 people as well as tourist transportation (Tutu, 2011: 12).

1.5. Car Rental Sector in the Middle East

Most of the problems that global tourism has experienced in the last 30-40 years stem from events in the Middle East. The wars, the terrorist attacks, the stagnation caused by the increase in gasoline prices, inflation caused financial losses to tourism entrepreneurs in different parts of the world (Enderson, 2007: 152).

International companies operate on the franchise system in the Middle East market. For example, Sixt car rental operates as franchise in Bahrain, Egypt, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and United Arab Emirates (http://se.sixt.de). The Avis Budget group also has offices in the Middle East.

1.6. Car Rental Sector in Turkey

The car rental sector, which has a worldwide importance, entered Turkey in 1950s (Eksin, 2008: 66). The car rental industry has exhibited a very non-active image in Turkey until 1980. However, after this date, major developments and investments in Turkish tourism have also been reflected in the car rental sector. Another reason why the rental sector has grown greatly in recent years is the widespread use of private airlines (Demirciler, 2012).

Since the predominantly daily renting operations were carried out in the early 2000s, due to tax advantages after this year, long-term renting has started to become the most preferred vehicle financing model by the enterprises due to financial advantages. At this stage, companies have increased their vehicle purchases, making model use more flexible. The purchasing of more vehicles due to this sectorial impact increased the demands on the banking and leasing sector, the insurance sector, the vehicle service sector and the spare parts sector with the effect of reflection (Kesenci, 2010: 130).

During the crawling period the sector gained revenue from spare parts sales and service, insurance and second-hand car sales after the "car rental". Later on, it became a profession with relationships with diversified organizations on the path that leads to the customer in the sector along with banks, consumer finance companies, lube oil companies, tire companies, accessory companies, rental companies, consultancy firms, companies developing customer satisfaction analysis, tracking systems and all kinds of services (İncirlioğlu, 2011: 6).

The fact that the volume of the car rental sector in Turkey cannot be exhibited with monthly and annual statistical data prevents the sector from development and evaluation. The showed significant improvement between 2011 and 2017 in Turkey. By 2017, it reached approximately 365,782 rentable vehicles and 64,181 customers. The same year, the rental income is about TRY 6 billion (See Table 3).

Car rental sector in Turkey has been exhibiting rapid development. Avis, Hertz, Budget and other international car rental companies providing services in Turkey is the most important indicator of this development. The rapid development of the automotive industry in Turkey has also helped the car rental industry to develop (www.dunya.com).

2. The Use of IT in Car Rental Businesses

Information technology plays an important role in delivering the tourism product to transportation business with a mediating role in tourism market, tour operators, travel agencies, hotel sales representatives, unions, meeting bureaus, joint venture businesses,
travel planners, meeting organizers, airline operators, car rental businesses and tourism information units (Gökdemir, 2011: 44). The travel industry also includes a number of organizations that have not yet been recognized as having dependence on travel and tourism, such as airlines, travel agencies, transport operators, restaurants, hotels / motels, souvenir shops (Park, Wang and Fesenmaier, 2011: 407).

The use of information technology in the travel industry has emerged in three successive technological developments. In the first phase, computerized reservation systems (CRM) started to be used in the 1970s. The second phase is the introduction of the global distribution systems (GDS) into the tourism industry in the 1980s and the use of the internet (www) in the tourism industry during the last phase of the 1990s (Ay, 2009: 123). The development of the Internet as a distribution channel for tourism products and services began with systems such as Sabre, Apollo, Pars / data in the United States. Then it continued in Europe with computer systems such as Galileo and Amadeus (Suarez, Diaz and Vazquez, 2007: 454).

Today, the Internet that connects the computers affects the decision-making process of travel as well as influencing the way in which the business causes certain changes in the travel industry as a fact of the tourism industry (Dolnicar and Laesser, 2007: 2). The most obvious change is the emergence of internet travel marketing agencies that do not have a physical agency that offers similar tourism services and products to customers through the internet. These mediators called online travel agencies (such as expedia.com, kayak.com, lastminute.com, orbitz.com, hotelspro, edreams, travelocity.com, booking.com, rentalcars, wal-mart.com, holidayautos.com) exhibited a great superiority to the traditional mediators with great development and they have provided the tourists with the opportunity for airline tickets, hotels, transportation and car rentals on the internet (Li and Tang, 2009: 51). For example, Rosenbluth Travel, a major Philadelphia based agent, can book airline, hotel and car rental from desktop computers via the Wal-Mart's local area network (LAN) (Cheung and Lam, 2009: 86).

The usage of technology in businesses from a strategic point of view, helps controlling the exterior environment, competition, income analyses, demand estimation, information sharing and developing and managing new business models by designing new products. Information technology is crucial in the monitoring and management of strategic business units and selecting which path will be used to enter which market. Information technology has a key role in fleet management and personnel planning, instant service provision, proper vehicle selection and strategic cooperation in car rental businesses. Similarly, information technology governs the complex algorithms in strategic pricing and revenue management to determine the best performance and profitability level (Page, 2005: 260).

Technological advances provide a significant competitive advantage in tourism and transport operations. Technology plays a crucial role in many complex strategic responses to the challenges posed by the competitive environment and in the shaping of the temporary business environment. The use of IT provides competitive advantage to businesses by way of cost leadership, product differentiation and focus strategies as well as cost effectiveness, product / service diversification and the ability to address niche markets, as shown in Table 4 below.
Table 4: Using ITs to develop competitive advantage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Competitive Advantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cost leadership</td>
<td>Use ITs to reduce the cost of costumer suppliers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reduce cost of business processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increase cost efficiency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ensure competitive pricing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Decrease supply cost and ease supply</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maximize resources utilization especially for fixed cost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product differentiation</td>
<td>Use ITs to develop unique products and add value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Differentiate products/services of company</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reduce differentiation advantage of competitors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use information as product itself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus</td>
<td>IT-enhanced segmentation and targeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Develop relationship marketing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aim to develop mini-market segments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enhance the ability to create niche markets</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Hertz, one of the car rental companies, has opened its first website in 1997 that offers detailed corporate information about the fleet and its services, including booking, confirmation and cancellation options for customers and travel agencies. As a result, it became a publicly traded company, making it possible to sell and market via centralized reservation systems, including both the websites and the businesses in Dublin, Ireland and Europe (Tyya, 2007: 123). Lately, car rental has become available online via mobile phone at http://mobile.avis.com. It is also possible to identify the road network, traffic density and fuel station that the customer will need along the way (Lee et al., 2013: 87).

Alamo Rent-A-Car started online check-in in 2005 via alamo.com after making a reservation, the customer verifies the driver's license information with the authentication option and enters the payment information. At the end of these operations, s/he print out the rental contract to be submitted to the business. In this way, customers start to use the vehicles that have their keys at many rental points without waiting (Business and Economics, 2005).

In 2016, Avis Budget group carried out approximately 29% of car rental bookings via their website, 10% via contact centers, 25% via global distribution systems, 14% via online travel agencies, 12% via direct connection technologies and 10% via other distribution channels. In addition, almost all of Zipcar car sharing reservations are done online or through Zipcar mobile applications. Customers use an audio reservation system that allows them to perform certain transactions such as confirming, canceling and changing reservations using self-service interactive voice response technology. In addition to Zipcar mobile applications, Avis and Budget mobile applications and car rental booking management information systems are used for various mobile platforms (Avis Budget Annual Report, 2016: 13).

In the tourism industry; intranet, extranet, office automation systems (reservation, accounting, payroll and procurement management applications), management support systems, decision support systems, management information systems, information management systems, computer reservation systems (CRS), global distribution systems
(GDS) such as Galileo, SABRE, Amadeus and Worldspan, web-based traveling mediators such as Expedia.com, Travelocity.com, Preview Travel, Priceline.com, wireless mobile and WAP-based reservation systems, kiosks and touch-screen terminals are used as IT (Buhalis, 2003; Greuscu, Nanu and Tanasie, 2009).

Park, Wang and Fesenmaier (2011:413) has determined that the most purchased travel products by the tourists via the internet are accommodation (67.7%), plane tickets (65.1%), attractions/events (35%), car rental (11.4%), package tour (10.1%), cruiser trips (6.1%), sports activity reservations and recreation car rentals (2%). The British Travel Agencies Association (ABTA) survey of travel tendencies in 2013 indicated that the demand towards flexible personal holiday packages would increase and tour operators would take steps in this direction (www.turizmdebusabah.com, 2012). Dynamic packaging systems based on the creation of touristic products in the electronic environment through the virtual organization of several ways (railway-airway-road), service (hotel, restaurant, entertainment) and different vehicles (metro-airplane-car rental) have been popularizing over the last years (Dolnicar and Laesser, 2007: 4).

3. Research Methodology

There has been little interest in rent-a-car operations in the literature, as opposed to the great interest towards topics such as hotels, tour operators, railways, food and beverage or gastronomy, airline organizations and destination management. There is limited information about how these organizations are working at the moment and how their future work patterns will be (Maximiliano, 2011: 271). The purpose of this research is to determine the levels of use and benefits of car rental companies' use of information technology.

In the research, questions related to managers' demographic characteristics, information technology usage level scale, contribution of information technology usage to the competition scale and business performance scale were used. The survey consists of 2 scales in total. Information technologies usage level scale was used by Turunç (2006) and Oğrak (2010) and benefit of information technology usage scale was used by Çalışkan (2011)

The quantitative research method and survey technique were used in the research. The data was obtained from 230 car rental management managers in İstanbul, Ankara, İzmir and Antalya between November 2013 and March 2014. Frequency, average and reliability tests on the data obtained were performed in SPSS (22.0) packet program.

4. Research Findings

4.1. Demographic and Business Characteristics

In the survey, 82.2% (189) of the managers were male, 16.1% (37) were female and 1.7% (4) did not answer the question. The role and activities of women in the car rental sector, which is a male-dominated sector, can not be denied. Among 205 directors who stated their marital status, 62.9% (129) were married and 37.1% (76) were single. The majority of the administrators are graduates of higher education with 66.7% (152) associate degree / undergraduate and post-graduate education, 29.8% (68) were high school graduates (secondary education) and a small part corresponding to 3.5% (8) were graduates of eight-year primary education. The majority of the higher education graduates indicate that there are well-educated, professional individuals in the sector.
The majority (59.5%) of the car rental businesses cater to (135) both daily and operational rentals, 30.0% (68) to operational leases only and 10.6% (24) only to the daily rental market. 62.2% (154) of the businesses operate in İstanbul, 14.3% (33) in Ankara, 9.1% (21) in İzmir and 14.3% (33) in Antalya. İstanbul is ranked first with a share of 70% in the car rental sector. In summer, the trend reverses and spreads especially to touristic cities such as Antalya, Bodrum and Marmaris (www.turizmgazetesi.com).

It has been found that the car rental companies have at least 2 and at most 22,000 vehicles, and these vehicle numbers are divided into 4 categories. 2-24 of the car rental businesses have 51 (22,16%), 23-117 have 51 (22,17), 118 have 53 (23,04%) and 601-22000 have 47 (20,43%) vehicles and 28 of them (12,17%) have not provided an answer. It can be stated that the car rental businesses operating in Turkey are small- and large-scale businesses and that medium-scale businesses are in minority. A significant part of the car rental businesses 44.3% (102) maintain their operations only in 1 agency. 29.5% (68) of the businesses that want to grow have 2-12 branches, and 6.5% (15) of them have 13-60 branches. Businesses expand their fields of activity by opening new branches in airports and tourism centers to provide a widespread service network for consumers.

4.2. Findings on the Usage of Information Technologies

In order to determine the level of use of information technologies by businesses, the frequency of use of various information technologies has been analyzed with frequency, percentage and arithmetic means.

The internet, which has gained popularity due to low cost presented to the businesses and users and benefits such as interaction, speed and continuity, is the information technology used at a very high level by the businesses ($\bar{X}=4,37$). In addition to these, vehicle tracking systems ($\bar{X}=3,77$), local network (intranet / extranet) ($\bar{X}=3,55$), mobile applications ($\bar{X}=3,55$), office automation systems ($\bar{X}=3,40$) and data processing systems ($\bar{X}=3,24$) are used at high levels. Management support systems ($\bar{X}=2,68$), management information systems ($\bar{X}=2,68$), decision support systems ($\bar{X}=2,59$), global distribution systems ($\bar{X}=2,40$), artificial intelligence and expert systems ($\bar{X}=2,26$) are information technologies used by businesses at medium levels. Car rental companies’ use rent a car package programs such as RikaSoft, RentACarPro, RentAgent, Driwee and SuperNova.

Car rental companies have reported significant gains in using information technology. According to this, the increase in service quality with the use of IT ($\bar{X}=4,14$), the increase in customer satisfaction ($\bar{X}=4,12$) and the decrease in daily work load ($\bar{X}=4,05$) are the most important gains. Apart from this, increase in competition power ($\bar{X}=3,92$), increase in market share ($\bar{X}=3,92$), increase in sales ($\bar{X}=3,89$), increase in product diversity ($\bar{X}=3,85$), increase in supplier satisfaction ($\bar{X}=3,82$), the expansion of the supplier network ($\bar{X}=3,78$) and the strengthening of relations with suppliers ($\bar{X}=3,77$) are benefits that information technologies provide to the businesses.
### Table 5: Usage Level of IT in Car Rental Businesses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information Technologies</th>
<th>1: Definitely unused; 5: Used very higher level</th>
<th>Mean (X)</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f %</td>
<td>f %</td>
<td>f %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1,3)</td>
<td>(1,3)</td>
<td>(5,7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle Tracking Systems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>34 (14,8)</td>
<td>7 (3,1)</td>
<td>19 (8,3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Network (Intranet, Extranet)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>43 (18,9)</td>
<td>7 (3,1)</td>
<td>18 (7,9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile Applications</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>35 (15,6)</td>
<td>10 (4,5)</td>
<td>29 (12,9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office Automation Systems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>45 (20,5)</td>
<td>9 (4,1)</td>
<td>26 (11,8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Processing System</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>53 (23,9)</td>
<td>13 (5,9)</td>
<td>30 (13,5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Support Systems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>84 (38,2)</td>
<td>15 (6,8)</td>
<td>37 (16,8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Information Systems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>84 (38,7)</td>
<td>14 (5,1)</td>
<td>40 (18,4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision Support Systems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>87 (40,5)</td>
<td>12 (5,6)</td>
<td>41 (19,1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Distribution System</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>102 (49,0)</td>
<td>10 (4,8)</td>
<td>19 (9,1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artificial Intelligence and Expert Systems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>117 (52,2)</td>
<td>12 (5,4)</td>
<td>30 (13,4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s Alpha = .85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 6: Benefits of Using Information Technology (IT)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>1: Strongly Disagree; 5: Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Mean (X)</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f %</td>
<td>f %</td>
<td>f %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0,5)</td>
<td>(3,6)</td>
<td>(5,0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of IT has increased our service quality</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0,4)</td>
<td>(4,0)</td>
<td>(4,9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of IT has increased our customer satisfaction</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1,4)</td>
<td>(5,0)</td>
<td>(4,9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of IT has reduced the daily workload of Staff</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1,4)</td>
<td>(5,0)</td>
<td>(7,7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of IT has increased our competitive power</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1,4)</td>
<td>(9,9)</td>
<td>(7,7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of IT has increased our market share</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0,9)</td>
<td>(10,5)</td>
<td>(8,7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of IT has increased our sales</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0,9)</td>
<td>(10,4)</td>
<td>(7,7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of IT has increased product diversity</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(23)</td>
<td>(8,2)</td>
<td>(9,1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of IT has increased supplier satisfaction</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2,7)</td>
<td>(9,0)</td>
<td>(13,1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of IT has expanded our supplier network</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2,7)</td>
<td>(11,0)</td>
<td>(11,9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of IT has strengthened our relationship with suppliers</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3,2)</td>
<td>(9,9)</td>
<td>(13,1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s Alpha = .92</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

In the case of tourism as a displacement movement, tourists need means of transport to carry out this movement. Transportation is carried out by means of public transport such as airplanes, ships, trains and buses, as well as private vehicles such as private or rented vehicles. Car rental businesses, a complementary feature of tourism products, have become an important sector operating in this area.

In this research, survey techniques of quantitative research methods were used to determine the levels of usage of information technologies in car rental companies and perceived benefits. The research was carried out with the managers of car rental businesses in Istanbul, Ankara, Antalya and Izmir provinces of Turkey.

The internet, which has gained popularity due to low cost presented to the businesses and users and benefits such as interaction, speed and continuity, vehicle tracking systems, intranet/extranet, mobile applications, office automation systems and electronic data processing systems are the information technologies used at a very high level by the businesses. Management support systems, management information systems, decision support systems, global distribution systems, artificial intelligence and expert systems have been determined as the information technologies used by businesses at medium levels.

The most important benefits for car rental businesses with the usage of IT are increased service quality and customer satisfaction and decreased daily workload. Apart from this, competitiveness, market share, sales, product variety, increase of supplier satisfaction, expansion of supplier network and strengthening of relations with suppliers are other important benefits.

Businesses should divide the market by taking into account the resources for competitive advantage, the characteristics of the goods and services produced, and the competition status (İslamoğlu, 2002). The fact that nearly thirty percent of the surveyed businesses work only on operational renting, only ten percent working on daily leasing and sixty percent working on both daily and operational leasing exhibit that the sector tends to cater to the entire market.

As the car rental industry has organized very well in developed countries, it has achieved more growth in these places. The U.S. is the leading country in the sector, followed by the EU countries. In recent years, the developing countries have also made important developments in the sector.

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Chapter 33

Slum Tourism: Wandering Around Poverty, Inequalities and Social Exclusion

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“The slum is the measure of civilization”
Jacob August Riis

INTRODUCTION

Sustainability that is affected by economic, social and environmental conditions and developments also depends on cities and the urban spaces. Thus to sustain, urban planning should not be disregarded (UN, 2014) and not be limited in megacities but also small cities. However, as the number is expected to increase by 2030, it is more crucial for megacities. Besides, the world population is changing every second and today there are 7.4 billion people living on earth. China is the most crowded country in the world with its 1.379 billion people and is followed by India (1.281 billion), USA (326.6 million), Indonesia (260.5 million) and Brazil (207.3 million) (US Census, 2018). This number is estimated to increase 9.8 billion people by 2050 and 11.2 billion by 2100 (United Nations, 2017). And today these people are living in 204 countries around the world and plenty of cities within these countries (US Department of State, 2018).

Tourism involves the movement of people to a different city or countries other than their own residences and has economic, cultural and social attributes (UNWTO Glossary, 2014). These movements have many motivations which form the types of tourism (Usta, 2002; Olalı & Timur, 1988). Among the motivations, questing the real life of destinations and people have gained a significant importance and, tourists are expecting to visit the back stages of cities instead of front stages. Yet, tourists are not only seeking relaxation but also immersing into the destination they visit (Dyson, 2012). Although the poor people living in the urban areas are unrecognized and undervalued by the others (Dyson, 2012), visiting slum areas has a history of 20 years and is criticized because of the commercialization of the poverty as a tourism product and questioned as voyeurism (Mesckank, 2011). Besides, it has controversies on tourism and ethics and exploitation (Dürr & Jaffe, 2012).

International tourists who are the target market of the slum tourism (O’Brien, 2011), are increasingly visiting the slum areas of the cities to see the people in poverty (Rogerson, 2014) which makes the hidden and secret, more visible (Cixous, 1976; cf. Diekmann & Hannam, 2012; Frenzel, 2014). And this is experienced by mostly the citizens of Western countries (Diekmann & Hannam, 2012) as it is accepted as a real-world activity (Frenzel et al., 2015).

What is Slum?

According to the United Nations (2016) places where many people live and work are defined as a city, but the geographical borders of a city are not clear. In 2011 European Commission’s Directorate-General for Regional and Urban Policy, Eurostat
and OECD have agreed on a common definition on the city and defined it as “a local administrative unit where the majority of the population lives in an urban center of at least 50,000 inhabitants” (Eurostat, 2017). Although the term is used frequently, it does not have an international definition, yet, every country has its national and well-suited definition but these definitions are not suitable for a comparison across countries. In the definition, the term mentioned as urban is “larger, denser and more heterogeneous city” whereas, rural is “small, more sparse and less differentiated place” (Peng et al., 2010). Countries use criteria such as population size, population density, and level of infrastructure or combination of these. For example, 101 country use minimum population required for an area to be considered as urban and, only nine countries use population density as a threshold for urban (Deuskar, 2015).

![Figure 1: Urban Population in Regions (1990-2014-2050)](image)
*Source: adapted from United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, (2014). World Urbanization Prospects, the 2014 Revision Highlights.*

As shown in Figure 1, the rate of urban population in the world and continents are expected to increase. In the world, while only 43% of the population was living in urban areas, by 2014 the number has increased to 50% and is expected to be 66% by 2050. The main reasons of urbanization are economic, technologic, politic and socio-psychologic factors (Atatürk Üniversitesi). The economic factors are also named as push factors, in which there is a necessity. The negative conditions of the rural areas are forcing people to move to the urban areas. The low productivity of the land, low wages, limited job opportunities education, health and poverty are some of the reasons. The pull factors are the socio-psychologic factors. The job opportunities, high wages, good accommodation, rich and various foods, social trust and, peace are the examples of pull factors. Also, the cultural, social and sportive facilities are more available in urban areas than in rural areas. The transmitting and political factors are also effective factors to attract citizens to urban areas as they encouraging factors. Making a city that has a strategic location as the capital city or building a city that as the potential to develop makes the city grow and that plays an important role in the development of urbanization in the related area (Keleş, 1992; Kayan, 2012).

Another term related to urban is the one which United Nations have made a definition of an area, a megacity. A city where more than 10 million inhabitants are living is called “megacity”. While in 1990 there were 10 megacities and 153 million inhabitants living, in 2014, 28 megacities have emerged and 453 million inhabitants are
living in these cities. Cities where inhabitants living between 5 to 10 million are defined as “large” cities, and in 2014 there were 43 large cities where over 300 millions of people are living in (United Nations, 2014-WUP). In 2016 there were 31 megacities and most of them are located in the Global South. The most populated five megacities are Tokyo (Japan-38,140,000), Delhi (India-26,454,000), Shanghai (China, 24,484,000), Mumbai (India-21,357,000) and Sao Paulo (Brazil, 21,297,000). Besides, Lahore (Pakistan), Hyderabad (India), Bogota (Colombia), Johannesburg (South Africa), Bangkok (Thailand), Dar es Salaam (Tanzania), Ahmedabad (India), Luanda (Angola), Ho Chi Minh City (Vietnam) and Chengdu (China) are expected to become a megacity in the years between 2016 and 2030 (United Nations, The Worlds Cities in 2016).

Considering the economies of the urbanized areas, the city becomes complicating. As the economy of a city grows around production, consumption of goods and services, the economies of the people starts to vary. Some become wealthier and powerful than the others and that makes them layered (UN, The Challenge of Slums). In this context slum, is a term that is also used with urbanization. Gilbert (2007) characterizes the term “slum” as insulting and a non-definite concept (cf. Dyson, 2012). It is defined in UN-Habitat as “a wide range of low-income settlements and/or poor human living conditions and notes that these inadequate housing conditions exemplify the variety of manifestations of poverty as defined in the Program of Action adopted at the World Summit for Social Development” (United Nations, 2003: 7). In this definition, the term poverty is defined in the Program of Action of the World Summit for Social Development as “the lack of income and productive resources sufficient to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments; and social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterized by a lack of participation in decision-making and in civil, social and cultural life” (United Nations, 1995). Thus, poverty is not only related to physical and economic (Dyson, 2012) inadequacies but also has a social perspective (United Nations, 2003) as in the slum areas (Mesckanck, 2011). The term slums may be confused with shanties. Shanties are unplanned houses that are built on the outskirts of the city and, slums are the old buildings that are devolved and have not adequate public services (UN-Habitat, 2003).

The borders of slum areas do not have a spatial integrity although the term has a meaning of being the outer neighborhood of the city. The slums are the plurality of spaces and, areas of residence that seize or about to seize the city (Etöz, 2000). For Burgold et al. (2013) the slum areas are heterogeneous places as they have different characteristics in terms of economics and infrastructure. They vary according to their socio-economic development to the very poor; and having a well-equipped infrastructure to a disadvantaged.

Recently the word "slummer" is used instead of "gecekondu" in the Turkish language. Slums are considered as places of violence, anarchy, anti-system and a threat to the community (Erman, 2004). Due to the transformation/changes the "gecekondu" in time, the concept has lost its meaning and a new concept is needed to be used instead of it, slums, are started being used instead of gecekondu (Erman, 2004). However, the two words, Western originated slum and Turkish gecekondu, have differences according to (1) appearance and conditions, (2) living conditions and society's characteristics, (3) sustainability and, (4) their conditions in the city (Keleş, 2008).
Although the definition of gecekondu is "a kind of shelter where poor or low-income families live whose accommodation requirements are not met by government and local authorities; which is built divergent of public work and construction on the corporate, public and private lands without the permission and information" (Keleş, 1998), there are different definitions for gecekondu. However, the similarities in the definitions are as follows (Arslanoğlu, 2012; Kara, 2012);

- It is a global concept and a natural consequence of the rapid urbanization,
- Because the government and politicians are not efficient in solving the accommodation problem, citizens are trying to solve the problem by themselves,
- While trying to solve the accommodation problem, they are building constructs to nonregular places where they don’t own,
- These buildings give a negative impression of the city image and community It structure,
- While evaluating the concept, the changes in the society should also be taken into account.

Slums are residential places where located in city centers but lost its importance due to the change of city centers and, which is old and have unhealthy living conditions (Türkdoğan, 2006). The time when the slums were built, they were built as planned, healthy conditioned and, modern buildings, however in time they have changed to places where they are stuck in the city centers of the big cities, lost their credibility as a residence and have a fusty image (Doğan, 1990).

A similar word is a ghetto, where a minority is located in a part of the city and the term is used for nearly a thousand of years (Erder, 2006). Ghettos and slums form the surrounding when compared to city centers. Although slums and ghettos have different geography and socio-cultural characteristics from the city centers, this difference is smaller than the ghettos. The slums are the secondary centers relative to ghettos. Besides, slums are in worse condition than ghettos in terms of cultural, economic and social structures they have (Hocaoğlu, 1998).

In developed countries, the urban development in the last years has moved towards the slums. The abandoned buildings in city centers were occupied by the groups from the lower levels of the society. And, this has resulted in the vandalism, obsolescence and crime increase in city centers; wealth, happiness and family life increase in outside the city centers (Priemus, 2004). One important characteristic of a slum is that the dwellers do not reside there permanently, they are settled and perpetual society (Hart, 1969). This construct is criticized because it caused the monetary sources that are to be spent is canalized to the outer sides of the city. The tendency to this type of slumming is named as suburbanization by Americans (Priemus, 2004). The land use is not effective and expands horizontally (Bekele, 2005).

The size of a slum is not standard, though there are various sizes of slums. The large slum areas need their own public services as the settlements around the area are not enough. Medium slum areas are mostly located near the city and they are neighborhood sized places. They can withstand the efforts that aim to remove or relocate them. The small slum areas are mostly located on lands that are owned by either the government or private. They don’t have their own sewage system as it is expensive to build. They are mostly located near the public services that make them access to these services easily (The Challenge of Slums). Although there are many big slums around the world, the biggest slums are Khayelitsha (Cape Town, South Africa-
400,000), Kibera (Nairobi, Kenya – 700,000), Dharavi (Mumbai, India – 1 million), Ciudad Neza (Mexico City, Mexico – 1.2 million) and Orangi Town (Karachi, Pakistan – 2.4 million) (Hutt, 2016).

**Slum Tourism**

Slum tourism had many definitions as one of them is the guided tours to the poorer parts of the city in the global south (Rolfes, 2010). Thus, slumming is the tourist experience involving visits to the urban parts of the city where there are poverty and violence (Dürr & Jaffe, 2012). As the term slum is symbolized with the words such as dark, low and, unknown; it can be said that these areas are unfamiliar to each other (Frenzel et al., 2015). The concept has a negative meaning such as safari tourism, poverty tourism, negative sightseeing, voyeurism and poorism (Mesckank, 2011). The term has gone beyond the conventional tourism as the distinction of poor and the rich is presented (Dyson, 2012) and connects the different social and economic parts of the community (Dürr & Jaffe, 2012) but it is considered as a one-way interaction (Odede, 2010).

From the late nineteenth century to the end of World War II, the poorer areas of the cities became the attraction for the upper-class citizens not only to experience a romantic visit but also has a philanthropic side for the women of this class as they can make donations to increase their self-esteem (Heap, 2009). Later in the 1990’s the visit to slums has changed its rotation to the slum areas in developing countries, starting from favelas in Brazil (Williams, 2008). But today, it is still a niche market for the destinations that attract visitors, especially in the least developed and developing countries (Frenzel, 2013; Rolfes et al., 2009).

As Dürr & Jaffe (2012) have theorized the slum tourism as a transformation of poverty and violence into a tourism product, for Rogerson (2014) the dilemma of philanthropy or an activity to see the exploitation of poverty arises. And for Burgold et al. (2013) this poverty is the center of the concept yet, making the slums as an attraction and for Freire-Medeiros (2009) poverty becomes a commodity. And in the end, Frenzel (2014) states that this product transforms the inaccessible places into an attractive destination.

Living in a slum area is not as romantic or glamorous as it is expected. The lack of basic services and sanitation is a big problem. However, cultural unique attractions and unity among the dwellers can attract people (The Challenge of Slums, 2003). Mesckank (2011) classified slum tourism as reality tourism as the tourists are searching the real and authentic side of the city. But this reality has its own questions. The tours, what they show and the message aimed is one of the two questions of this reality. The extent they present the reality to be deconstructed is the other question (Dyson, 2012). Thus, the reality has its own presentation and communicating questions and, the tours that are used as a mean for this reality has its own mediating questions.

Slum tourism is presented as reality tourism and the tours to the slums, favelas and, townships are advertised as reality tours (Mesckank, 2011). It provides an opportunity the see where the residents live but, these places are mostly inaccessible to tourists (Dyson, 2012). Because favelas, slums and, townships are considered as places of reality or true life, they are also accepted as places of authenticity (Mesckank, 2011). However, these places are places of inaccessible (Mesckank, 2011). And within this reality and authenticity, the tourist and the dweller find themselves reconstructing the
economic and social difference and inequality (Dürr & Jaffe, 2012). But in fact, this real and authentic visit is a safe and distant one, for the tourist (Diekmann & Hannam, 2012). And for any reason, the traveler is a tourist in the end (Mesckank, 2011).

For some, slum tourism creates its own advantages as it has an educative part in it, by raising the attention of the people to the slums (Rolfes, 2010). First of all, slum tourism creates connectivity between the tourist and the slum dweller as these people are mostly ignored by the society and the area is regarded as a no-go area. By slum tourism, they take their place on the map and they exist (Shepard, 2016) even the tourists do not talk to the dwellers (Odede, 2010). Also, this is supported as it creates income and non-material advantages for the slum dwellers. But the effect of slum tourism is not as high as to alleviate poverty in slum areas. And the question is that, do the advantages of slum tourism make it acceptable and make the poverty valuable? (Frenzel, 2013) and/or entertaining (Odede, 2010)? On the other side, governments are supporting slum tourism as it contributes to the social and economic development and helps to the security improvements in slums. For example, Brazil is utilizing favela tourism as a part of urban tourism policy (Frenzel et al., 2015).

Although responsible tourism aims to “create better places to visit and to live for the people” (www.sustainabletourismalliance.net), and governments and an international organization is considering the slum areas as a problem (Burgold et al., 2013), the term “responsible slum tourism” used by Weiner (2009) can be regarded as a contradiction. Even if the term is consistent in itself, Weiner (2009) has proposed several conditions of visiting slums. These are (Weiner, 2009);

Small is Beautiful. Instead of visiting slums in massive numbers by bus like invaders, small groups on foot are more preferred.

No Photos, Please. Taking pictures of the slum dwellers can be seen as voyeurism and it can create distrust among the local people of the slums.

Funnel Profits Back into the Slums. Although tour operators that make tours to slums are donating some of their profits to create better-living conditions for the residents, it is not enough.

Soft Sell. As the slum tourism is not an adventure tourism, the marketing tools of this type of tourism should be low-key and respectful to its dwellers.

Besides, Monroe & Bishop (2016) suggested the slum visitors interact with the local people even if the visitor does not know the language. However, the interaction should be kept in a level that welcomed by both sides. Wearing appropriate and simple clothing also suggested as it may cause robbery. Also, respecting the privacy and the personal space of the slum dwellers are important as the visitors may be on a holiday but the people are the residents of the area. Last but not least is not giving hand-outs as the visitors may donate to social programs or but handicraft materials.

Slum Destinations

Since 1990’s tour companies are visiting slums of Brazil (Rio de Janeiro), India (Mumbai), Philippines (Manila), Kenya (Nairobi), South Africa (Cape Town, Johannesburg) and Mexico (Mexico City) and every year new slum tourism destinations are arising (Burgold et al., 2013; Frenzel et al., 2015). And today it has grown to a global sector that attracts more than a million tourist (Shepard, 2016).

But not every slum areas have a touristic attraction. The slum tourism needs several conditions to be developed (Frenzel, 2013). And once it is developed, then the
slum tourism gets in the bucket list of a tourist (Frenzel et al., 2015). And in these areas, the presentation and recreation of the experience problem come up (Frenzel, 2013). However, although slum tourism is successfully managed and organized in some slums, not all the slums in a country should be thought as they will succeed like the others. Unfortunately, less well-known slums are failing to succeed and, attract tourists as in predicted amounts (Frenzel et al., 2015).

The slum area tours are not “typical” tours. They vary according to the tourists’ budget and this has a wide range of backpackers to premiums. Besides the tours are shaped by the historical and socio-political conditions of the country. For example, visiting slums in South Africa are related to apartheid politics and in Brazil, it has an exotic and erotic perspective (Dürr & Jaffe, 2012). The slum tours take mostly 2-3 hours of a walk with a tour guide in the slum areas. For accommodation, small houses are used to stay. Bigger houses are targeting the backpackers and serving bed and breakfast (Frenzel et al., 2015).

In India, Mumbai has the largest slum area of the country named Dharavi. It attracts migrants from the poor areas of the country (Melik, 2012). The slum is better in conditions compared to others, although it is for limited hours and uncoordinated, it has water and electricity (Gandy, 2008). It is said to be multicolored and has many activities inside such as schools, temples, tailors etc. These activities generate 700 million dollars in a year (Richardson, 2016).
But today, the slum area is decided to be redesigned. The government aims to divide the area into small sectors and develop it (Jain, 2017) as the area has a high commercial value due to its closeness to the airport and other hubs (Kamath, 2017b). The area will be rehabilitated apart from making infrastructure (Kamath, 2017a) so that the area will be an example of a once slum now planned area with its commercial towers (Kamath, 2017b).
widespread (Skidmore, 2010). Brazil’s 6% of the population reside in favelas which is approximately 11.2 million people (BBC, 2014). In Rio de Janeiro, the capital city of Brazil, there are 763 favelas in the city and 2% of the city population resides in favelas (Phillips, 2013). Rocinha is the biggest and oldest slum among the others and according to the official numbers, 69,356 people live there (Terrero, 2014; The Telegraph, 2002) or more than 250,000 people as estimated (Monroe & Bishop, 2016).

Especially in the early 1980s as the government moved to democracy, the country became the center for international drug gangs (Skidmore, 2010). And the major drug gangs are operating mainly in slums. Not only drug but also theft, vehicle break-ins are also happening in the slum areas (OSAC Brazil Report). Today, the favelas have high levels of poverty and such violence and because of this, the state government had taken measures by implementing police forces to several favelas (Gov.UK). Since 2008, the pacification happened in 35 favelas, Santa Marta is the first to be pacified (Phillips, 2013). The UK Government has identified the favelas as risky places in terms of violence and warns the visitors to be cautious for any uncertain conditions (Gov.UK). But despite the undesired conditions in the slums, Rio de Janeiro is not ashamed of its favelas (Phillips, 2013).

Motivations

The visits to the disadvantaged areas are not a new type of tourism, but its diversity and popularity are the reasons for being unique. As the tourists look for unique and interesting experiences (Freire-Medeiros, 2008) so does visit slum areas is an individual experience, which makes it subjective (Dyson, 2012). People participating in slum tourism have the main reason of a basic interest in the country’s culture and the lifestyle of its local people (Rolfes, 2010; Rolfes et al., 2009) as it is considered as the place of the “other” (Frenzel et al., 2015). In other words, people are searching for the real and authentic lifestyle of the residents. But the reality in slums, is needed to be accepted as the real image of the city? (Dyson, 2012). The daily life of a slum people is considered as an interesting experience. They want to see the poverty and that poverty is connected to poor conditions. Lack of clean water, sewage, private toilettes can be the examples of this poor living conditions. And the authenticity of the slum area is also considered as the real life of the city and this is located in a non-touristic place that is also a not easily accessed place for the tourists (Mesckank, 2011).

Some tourists are experiencing slum tours as an educative experience so that they think this experience has broadened their vision. But this authenticity should meet the expectation and the ideas of the tourist (Mesckank, 2011). In slum tours, the tour guide tells the tourist about the daily life, working conditions and how people live as they walk (Diekmann & Hannam, 2012).

Tourists are also motivated by the film shot in slums and want to see the slum areas. Mostly mass media images are presenting the slums in a negative way and tourist wants to compare the media images and the real himself (Mesckank, 2011). The images produced by the media are hut that is very closely built, sewage and children in the middle of the rubbish mounds (Burgold et al., 2013). But not only to compare the real and the staged, also the aestheticized form of the slums is also becoming the attraction, yet it is the deprivation itself is the consuming product (Dürr & Jaffe, 2012).

There are many movies shot in slum areas of the cities. The most popular one is the Slumdog Millionaire. The movie is about a young man, Jamal (Dev Patel) from the
Mumbai slums competing in the Indian version of the Who Wants to be A Millionaire show and winning 20 million rupees. He is accused of cheating on the show as he wins and explains how he won the money. He tells the slum life where he grew up (www.imdb.com). The movie had 152 awards and 126 nominations. In 2009 the movie won eight Oscar awards including best motion picture of the year (Christian Colson), best achievement in cinematography (Anthony Dod Mantle), best achievement in directing (Danny Boyle) and best achievement in film editing (Chris Dickens). It also wins several other awards such as BAFTA, AAFCA, European Film Awards (www.imdb.com-2 ). Another slum movie is the City of God that tells the story of two boys growing in Rio de Janeiro. While one of the kids becomes a drug dealer, the other becomes a photographer. The movie had 66 awards and was nominated for 42. It won four Oscars, including best director (Fernando Meirelles) and best film editing (Daniel Rezende) (www.imdb.com-3). Although the number of visitors to slums has increased dramatically after the movies, for Diekmann & Hannam (2012) the tourist experiences a more sanitized and safer version of the slums as it may not be the real life of a slum.

However, the presentation of these parts of the cities is also questionable for who is to be trusted to show the lives of the poor and is this presentation moral (Dyson, 2012)? Besides, the slumming activity can be regarded as something briefly experienced and escaped from. So it is thought to be a short moment activity which the tourist turns back to his “real” life (Odede, 2010).

CONCLUSION

Today, many people are living in slum areas and they lack healthy food, education and, basic services in their areas. Although not every dweller is poor, a slum area is considered as a reflection of poverty, inequality and, social exclusion. Besides, these areas are disregarded by both local and central authorities. However, in some regions of the world, these “invisible” areas form half of the “visible” urban areas. For example 56% of Sub-Saharan Africa, 31% of the South African urban population living in slums in 2014 (UN Slums of the World, 2003).

After the slum themed movies released in 2000’s, the concept of slum which has always present, and visits to slum areas has grown very quickly as a tourist activity (O’Brien, 2011). This type of tourism is classified as “reality tourism” due to its reflection of the reality which aroused with the search for reality and authenticity (Meschank, 2011). However, when poverty and tourism combines, this situation is considered as controversial. Herein, the question is that the “touristic” slum areas and their problems are special to the region or not. To answer this question, the slum tours need to show that the areas visited have similar and common problems with any other slum areas in the world (Dyson, 2012).

Besides, although slum tourism provides an economic benefit for the dwellers and influences the sensitiveness of the visitors (O’Brien, 2011), as the poverty becomes interesting and presented to the wonders of tourists, the problem of creation and presentation of poverty arises (Frenzel, 2013). But perhaps the most important question is that does poverty should be presented to tourists or not? (Holst, 2015).
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Chapter 34

An Application to Determine the Factors Effecting the Hedonic Consumption Behavior of Foreign Tourists in Fethiye

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INTRODUCTION

Consumption phenomenon is shaped according to the changing expectations of consumers, the structure of the market and changing world order. The basic characteristics of consumer culture in developed countries are explained by materialist concepts (Annamma & Wallendorf, 1996). In consumer culture, consumers are becoming satisfied by taking their selectivity into the forefront. Hedonism is an opposite approach to utilitarian consumption theory. Hedonism is defined as a lifestyle that is one of the determining factors of consumer behaviour and dedicated to the pursuit of pleasure (Hopkinson & Pujari, 1999). The concept of hedonic consumption understanding, on the other hand, is related to the expected or experienced pleasure. Hedonic consumers shop on the basis of lack of economic elements and logic, such as role playing, entertainment, individual satisfaction, adopting new trends, physical activity, social experience, and communication with similar social groups, status and authority. Unlike the Homo economicus approach described in the utilitarian theory, consumers only choose the way of consumption that will give them more pleasure, unlike the logical behaviour of benefiting from them (Doğan et al., 2014). In the study, it is aimed to determine what is the target consumption habit of foreign tourists coming to Fethiye and to determine the factors that affect the target consumption behaviour. In this context, a literature survey on hedonic consumption behaviour and some statistical analyses were carried out to determine the hedonic consumption behaviour of foreign tourists coming to Fethiye.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Consumer Behaviour and Hedonic Consumption Behaviour

Undoubtedly, there is no mention of a single view and experience that applies to all tourists all the time, and it is a fact that this view is shaped by society, the social group and the historical period (Urry, 1999). In this context, when it comes to consumer behaviour, the issues that we face in the relevant field literature and that need to be emphasized are the factors that are motivation and its components. Motivation, in its broadest sense, is defined as "an important force underlying human behaviour" (Page,
The factors that motivate tourists to purchase the products and services offered are considered in the literature under two main headings as driving and attractive factors (Hsu & Huang, 2008). In this context, in order to understand the behaviour of tourists, motivation plays a critical role in analysing people's travel reasons.

Cooper (2005) discusses consumer decision making at four important stages. These stages consist of: 1) factors that stimulate demand; 2) factors that determine or affect demand; 3) decision-making process and the role of people who have initiative in this matter; and, finally, 4) factors that have a motivational effect on demand. Decrop (2000), on the on the hand, discusses the concept of motivation by emphasizing four different components within the context of tourism: motives, needs, desires and benefits. The concept of motivation, which is described as a determining factor in determining or deciding the relevant destinations of tourists, has been addressed by many authors from different perspectives (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Kozak, 2002; Beerli &Martin, 2004; Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Nicoletta & Servidio, 2012; Chen & Xiao, 2013; Hudson, 2000). There are many factors underlying the complex purchasing behaviour of consumers. In this context, it is necessary to examine in detail the fact that human needs are based on heterogeneous desires and that they have consumption cultures that differ from each other (Deniz & Demir, 2017).

The concept of consumption is divided into two, utilitarian and hedonic, and this concept is mainly examined in two groups, intrinsic and extrinsic, which induce purchasing and / or consumption impulse. While utilitarian consumption motivation expresses a habit of providing maximum economic benefit on behalf of meeting a specific need, shopping with hedonic motives is aimed at increasing consumer tastes and habits in an emotional sense (Doğrul, 2002; Doğan et al., 2014). The term “hedonic" originated from the Greek word *hedoné,* and the meaning of this concept is known as happiness, joy and desire (Mees & Schmitt, 2008). The concept of hedonic tourism is shown among the types of tourism and has shown its original development in Europe since the 19th century in Paris (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007). Since the second half of the 20th century, hedonism has emerged as a form of consumption that shows itself more in the field of consumption (Karakurt, 2011).

In the research carried out by Tauber (1972), the reasons for shopping for consumers were determined in 2 different groups. These groups are personal and social reasons. The personal reasons group includes role playing, distraction, personal pleasures, physical activities, learning new trends, and sensory stimuli. The social causes group includes social experiences, friend group activities, communication with others, bargaining pleasure, status and authority. In another study, Arnold and Reynold (2003: 80-81) stated that there were 6 main reasons for consumers to do hedonic shopping. These fundamental reasons are as follows: the purpose of adventure (the feeling of being in another world), social purpose (to have fun while shopping with family and friends, to socialize), relaxation purpose (to reduce stress), the purpose of acquiring ideas (to see new products), the purpose of to make others happy (excitement during shopping for others) and value orientation (the consumer to do the shopping for the purpose of obtaining a value).

According to Hirchman and Holbrook (1982), hedonic consumption approach describes the behaviour of the sensory, fantasy and emotional aspects of the experience after the product is used. This hedonic consumption approach emphasizes the need to
realize consumption, not only in order to have products and meet their need, but also in order to get pleasure (Baş & Samsunlu, 2015). Hedonic consumption is considered one-dimensional in most studies (Babin, Darden & Griffin, 1994; Jones, Reynolds, & Arnold, 2006; Ladeira, Lubeck & Araujo, 2013) however, in recent years, we have seen the following table as the studies dealing with different dimensions of the concept of hedonic consumption.

**Table 1: Authors, Purpose of the Research and Findings**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Purpose of The Research</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Miao et al. (2014)</td>
<td>To analyse the experience gained by tourists in the hospitality sector in the short-term spring semester vacation period and their pre-purchase, purchase and post-purchase processes within the framework of hedonic consumption experience.</td>
<td>The results obtained from the study are holistic in terms of the essence of the consumer experience. In addition, it is emphasized that the understanding of the hedonic experience should not only focus on the consumption process, but also the effects of the hedonic experience that may occur before and after the consumption.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hwang and Ok (2013)</td>
<td>To examine the relationship between three important service qualities (physical, interactive and product-based quality) in the light of hedonic and utilitarian attitudes through a theoretical model.</td>
<td>The results of the study revealed that the difference between the three important components determining the quality of service in question was significant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwun et al. (2013)</td>
<td>To examine the effects of several important consumer motivations, such as hedonic and utilitarian values, on loyal behaviour in the light of explanatory approach, in the context of eating in restaurants and looking for something different.</td>
<td>Findings show that the motivation to eat in restaurants has a different effect on the loyal consumer behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ryu et al. (2010)</td>
<td>To examine the relationship between hedonic and utilitarian consumption behaviour, customer satisfaction and behavioural dimension in the restaurant industry, which offers fast and healthy foods?</td>
<td>It has been determined that hedonic and utilitarian consumption behaviour has a significant effect on customer satisfaction. In addition, the effect of customer satisfaction on behavioural attitudes has been observed at significant levels. Besides, the effect of utilitarian motives on customer satisfaction and behavioural attitude is more effective than hedonic motivation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miao (2011)</td>
<td>In the context of purchasing impulse, to understand the effective emotional buying</td>
<td>Although purchasing impulsivity leads to cognitive and emotional instability, emotional instability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Findings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wang et al. (2000)</td>
<td>To examine the effect of hedonic impulses on the consumption habits of Chinese youth by taking into account the income levels of individuals.</td>
<td>The results of the study show that consumers with high hedonic motives tend to be more oriented to foreign brands, but the hedonic motives show that weak consumers are more likely to have utilitarian consumption habits. In addition, these consumers, whose hedonic instincts are relatively weak, have low tendencies towards foreign and expensive brand products.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jun et al. (2014)</td>
<td>To examine the ethnic identity and cultural interaction of Korean consumers who live in the United States in the context of the target and utilitarian consumption trend of the products of their ethnic origin.</td>
<td>The findings obtained from the study showed that cultural interaction had a negative effect on ethnic identity, while it was emphasized that it had a positive effect on utilitarian and hedonic consumption habits. In addition, cultural interaction has a positive and direct effect on hedonic consumption behaviour.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: It was compiled by the authors by taking advantage of the relevant literature.

Another point that should be emphasized that, as in other industries, the tourism industry cannot be considered independent of the communication and information exchange process in the global sense and the role of mass media and media is important in terms of the impact it will have on potential tourists (Klancnik, 2006). This aforementioned study aims to examine the effects of hedonic consumption or shopping behaviour in the context of the motivating factors.

Some studies in the literature aimed at determining the effect of demographic variables on the concept of hedonic shopping are listed as follows: Consumers from different cultures or countries can perceive shopping differently. For example, Russians can perceive shopping as a business rather than a pleasure. At the same time, people may shop in order to achieve more than one goal during shopping. Besides, the ways in which men and women participate in shopping also differ from each other (Özdemir & Yaman, 2007: 83-84). In the study conducted by Aydın (2013) in Eskişehir, it was concluded that women are more involved in hedonic shopping behaviour than men and the consumers who have low income status make shopping with the aim of utilitarian shopping. In the study conducted by Kırgız (2014), it was found that women behaved in a more hedonic way than men. Saracel et al. (2002) found that women are more effective in domestic shopping, child clothing, cleaning and furniture products shopping, but men are more effective in automotive, home, insurance and bank...
selection shopping. Çakmak and Çakır (2012) in their study on young consumers in Kocaeli, determined that young people behaved with hedonic consumption in clothing, food and electronic goods shopping. Güler (2013) examined the targeted shopping behaviour of customers who are shopping online and concluded that the targeted shopping behaviour of customers differs significantly according to age groups. Accordingly, it has been determined that customers with high age groups are less willing and indifferent to shopping.

3. METHOD OF RESEARCH

The aim of the research is to reveal the hedonic consumption behaviours of foreign tourists coming to Fethiye and to determine the factors affecting these behaviours. For this purpose, survey technique was used as data collection method in the research. In the research, the hedonic shopping scale prepared by Babin et al. (1994) was used. For both time and cost reasons to reach all the foreign tourists coming to Fethiye district, sampling method was selected in the research. It is stated that the sampling size should be at least ten times the number of variables used in the study (Hair et al., 1998; Kline, 2011; Altunışık et al., 2007). Since the number of variables used in this study is 23, 230, which is ten times the number, is determined as the minimum sampling size. Data were gathered from 250 foreign tourists coming to Fethiye by convenience sampling method however, due to the missing and incorrectly filled surveys, the analysis was carried out on 230 tourists. The obtained data were analysed in the SPSS 22 package program.

3.1. Findings of the Research

The distribution of foreign tourists surveyed were consisted of 55% (126) women and %45 (104) men. When the age of the tourists is examined, it is observed that about 29% of them are in 25-34 age group (67), 25% are in 35-44 age group (57) and at least 2% of the sampling group consists of people 65 years and above. When the educational status of foreign tourists is looked at, it is seen that 37% (85) of them are undergraduates, 36% (82) of them are high school graduates and 11% (25) of them are associate degree graduates. When the marital status of the participants is looked, it is seen that about 53% (121) of them are single and 47% (109) of them are married. When the professions of the participants are looked at, it is seen that about 41% (95) of them works in private sector and 38% (88) of them works for the government. The smallest group in the sampling consists of retired people (20). When the monthly average income of the participants is looked at, it is observed that about 30% (70) of them have incomes between 2001 – 3000 Euros. The smallest group in the sampling group, 6%, consists of participants with an income of and 5001£ and above.

Table 2: Tourists’ Demographic Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Educational Background</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>54,8</td>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>45,2</td>
<td>High School</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>35,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly Income</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Two-year degree</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000 £ and Under</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>13,9</td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1001-2000 £</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>26,5</td>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>10,4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.2. Travel and Hedonic Consumption Statistics of Tourists Coming to Fethiye

In this study, frequency of foreign tourists coming to Fethiye, numbers of their visits, and the frequencies and percentages of the cases of hedonic consumption and postponing their needs due to the hedonic consumption were calculated.

Table 3: Travel and Hedonic Consumption Statistics of Foreign Tourists Coming to Fethiye

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency of the going abroad</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Once a year</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>42.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twice a year</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three times a year</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four times year and above</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The numbers of foreign tourists coming to Fethiye</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Time</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Times</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Times</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>19.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four times and over</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hedonic Consumption Situation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>19.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>44.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>36.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Postponement of Needs Due to Hedonic Consumption</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>56.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows the statistical data for travel and hedonic consumption of foreign tourists coming to Fethiye. Accordingly, when the frequency of the participants going abroad was examined, it was found that 43% (98) of them went abroad for the first time, 30% (68) of them went abroad for the second time, 17% (38) of them went abroad for the third time and 11% (26) of them went abroad for the fourth time and above. When the numbers of foreign tourists coming to Fethiye are examined, it is determined that 33% (76) came for the second time, about 32% came for the first time, 19% (44) came for the third time and 16% (37) of them came for the fourth time and above. When the hedonic shopping cases of tourists coming to Fethiye were examined, it was
determined that 44% (102) made occasional hedonic consumption, 37% (84) made hedonic consumption all the time and 19% (44) never made any hedonic consumption. When the participants’ postponement of their other needs due to hedonic consumption was examined, it was determined that more than 50% (130) occasionally postponed buying their needs, 23% (53) postponed buying their needs all the time and 20% (47) never postponed buying their other needs due to hedonic consumption.

3.3. Reliability Analysis and Factor Analysis

The Cronbach Alpha coefficient was taken into consideration for the reliability analysis of the scale applied in the study. As a result of the reliability analysis, the reliability coefficient was determined as ",948". For the scale to be structurally reliable and valid, the reliability values must be above 0,70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994:265). Therefore, in this study, the reliability values were determined to be above 0,70.

According to the factor analysis, which takes into account the factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 without any change in the factor number and according to Kaiser Normalization, it was determined that hedonic consumption behaviour has a 5-factor structure. As a result of the factor analysis of the study, the total variance percentage was calculated as 72,843. This ratio is higher than 50%, which indicates that the analysis is valid (Scherer et al., 1988). Table 4 indicates that the community values and the value of any expression on the scale should not be less than 0,4 in factor analysis (Field, 2000: 434).

Table 4: Factor Analysis for Hedonic Consumption Understanding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements Concerning Hedonic Consumption Understanding</th>
<th>F. Loads</th>
<th>Variance %</th>
<th>C. Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shopping for adventure</td>
<td></td>
<td>18,640</td>
<td>0,928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because shopping is exhilarating</td>
<td>,802</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because shopping is interesting</td>
<td>,800</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping makes you feel better when depressed</td>
<td>,798</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The difference shopping creates and consumers’ feeling of being strong</td>
<td>,709</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because shopping is the best way relieve stress</td>
<td>,635</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because shopping is an adventure</td>
<td>,585</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going for shopping when in need of being happy</td>
<td>,578</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping to follow trends</td>
<td></td>
<td>15,209</td>
<td>0,908</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going shopping to follow the latest products on the market</td>
<td>,817</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going shopping to be aware of the latest trends and preferences</td>
<td>,802</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going shopping to follow the latest fashion trends</td>
<td>,800</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going shopping to try out new things</td>
<td>,740</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going Shopping to Follow Discounts</td>
<td></td>
<td>13,381</td>
<td>0,825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going shopping to benefit from the advantages of discounts</td>
<td>,829</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with searching and finding discounted products</td>
<td>,808</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The pleasure of finding the discounted products before others</td>
<td>,764</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling measurement: 0.918 and significance level: 0.000.

Factor analysis shows that this is confirmed. In addition, as a result of the reliability analysis of each factor, it is observed that the reliability levels of the factors are in good levels.

It has been determined that the most important factor affecting the hedonic consumption behaviour of foreign tourists coming to Fethiye is “shopping in order to have an adventure” and this factor accounts for 18.640% of the total variance. The second important factor that explains 15.209% of hedonic consumption behaviour is “shopping to follow trends”. The factors that explain 13.381% of the total variance were “shopping to follow the discounts”, which explained 13.261% were “socialization shopping” and 12.352% were “shopping to make others happy” were also found to be the factors that explain the behaviours of the hedonic consumption. It has been proven by studies in the literature that consumers exhibit hedonic consumption behaviour due to reasons such as consumer’s feeling excited when shopping, seeking adventure, spending time with friends and relatives during shopping, feeling relaxed by relieving from stress and problems, desire to follow fashion and trends, following discounts and enjoying buying a desired product with a discounted price and doing shopping for others to make them feel special and having pleasure from it (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Khan et al., 2005; Fettahıoğlu et al., 2014; Doğan et al., 2014). In this study, which was carried out to determine the hedonic consumption behaviour of foreign tourists coming to Fethiye, qualitative results that support the studies in the literature were found.

4. CONCLUSION

Like many things in the world, there are also a number of changes taking place in people’s consumption habits. In addition to the purpose of meeting the needs of the shopping, it is assessed that consumers are engaged in shopping because of being part of social groups, happiness, social pressure, passion for different experiences, or abstract feelings.

In terms of marketing science, it is important for consumers to understand what, why, How, when and where they buy, what they are affected by, and how they are affected by the purchase. Although the needs and desires of consumers show similarity, they are affected by different processes and factors during their satisfaction as a result
of the needs. In today's world, consumers are wanted to be dealt with individually, however it is not possible and therefore consumers are considered as groups (Yücel, 2017: 63).

In the study, the following results were obtained in order to determine the hedonic consumption behaviour of foreign tourists coming to Fethiye and to determine the factors that affect these behaviours. It has been determined that the majority of the foreign tourists coming to Fethiye travel abroad at least once a year and 33% of them came to Fethiye once before. When we look at the statistics related to hedonic consumption, it was found that 44% made hedonic consumption from time to time and more than half of them delayed their needs due to hedonic consumption from time to time. On the other hand, five factors influencing the hedonic behaviour of foreign tourists coming to Fethiye have been identified. These are shopping to have an adventure, shopping to follow trends, shopping to follow discounts, shopping to socialize and shopping to make others happy. These factors have been determined to be the most important factor affecting the hedonic consumption behaviour of tourists. These results support the studies in the literature. For example, Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Khan et al., 2005; Fettahlıoğlu et al., 2014; and Doğan et al., 2014 stated in their studies that the factors affecting hedonic consumption behaviour were shopping to have an adventure, shopping to follow trends, shopping to follow discounts, shopping to socialize and shopping to make others happy.

REFERENCES


Chapter 35

Cultural Effects in Tourism: Cultural Shock and Acculturation

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INTRODUCTION

Today, tourism has become one of the most important sectors for the developed and developing countries in the world. According to the latest UNWTO World Tourism Barometer report released by the UN World Tourism Organization, the number of people travelling worldwide has reached 1.322 million in 2017, which is estimated to have grown by 4-5% in 2018 (www.turizmajansi.com). Following the strong increase in international travel movements in 2017, the tourism sector appears to have started to play a very important role in the growth of the global economy. The tourism sector, which is one of the fastest growing sectors in the world, consists of many different components. Culture has a very important place among these components. Culture is the whole of the common beliefs, views, traditions, customs, behaviours and values that individuals form as a consequence of their interactions with each other and with the groups forming the society (Van Gorp, 2007). Culture may differ from community to community (Hofstede, 1999). Culture: immigration, global media, developments in information and communication technologies, and dynamics such as commercial and touristic tours have experienced a change in time. There are two different movements that allow different cultures to interact with one another. The first one is the travel movements to other countries and the second one is the migration to different countries, where people often live for a longer period. As long as they live in another country, no matter for a long time or a short time, people have to interact with the new culture to maintain their daily lives and to perform various behaviours as consumers in these countries (Gilly, 1995). Tourism can be defined as a temporary visit that is performed by a person in order to accomplish his/her purposes out of the places where they have a routine life (Medlik, 2003). Tourism has increasingly become one of the most common forms of intercultural contact. The contact between culturally different tourists and countries can lead tourists and the local people to getting to know one another’s cultures and developing a positive attitude towards each other. It may be possible for two cultures that get contact to develop a more positive or negative attitude towards one another. As acculturation happens as a consequence of positive contact among cultures, the contact may also lead cultural shock as a consequence of negative contact among cultures.

Today, people live in culturally dynamic societies. As people move from one culture to another, they also bring their cultural values and norms to the places where they go, which in turn may lead to cultural change. When travelling to a country with a
different culture, travellers may expose to cultural change. Acculturation, which is one of the dimensions of cultural change, starts with the contact with the culture of the host society.

The contact of the cultures of the tourists and the host society, correspondence and gifts can result in the improvement of personal relationships and friendships among people from different cultures. On the other hand, the theme of the host society and the visitors with different cultural backgrounds is the most superficial form of contacts among cultures (Hofstede, 1997). The perceptions of tourists and host communities regarding one another are very complex. The host societies recognize the perceptions of tourists with some symbols such as food, behaviour, music or clothes, and tourists can eventually have a general idea about themselves with the help of the mutual commercial exchanges and behaviours. Ward et al., (2001) found that individuals who are subject to intercultural exposure and contact are divided into two categories:

• In the first category, there is a multicultural nation or the residents of a community formed as a result of the intercultural contact when an individual goes from one country to another for a specific purpose.

• The second category includes cultural visits, such as tourists, refugees, international students and businessmen and short-term travels between societies and cultures.

As two cultures come into contact with one another, the traditions and values of each culture start to be exchanged. The nature and duration of the contact depend on the characteristics of the individuals, their purpose of visits, the context, the individual exposed to interaction, the differences between the individuals and their societies. Generally, those coming from less wealthy societies are more likely to be influenced by the cultures of those who are from more affluent and influential societies. For example, those coming from developing countries are more likely to be affected by the cultures of tourists coming from developed countries. Cultural influence can result in both positive and negative consequences. As a result of this influence, people can get on well better and lead to a degree of change in people's way of life. Sometimes both cultures can get similar to one another in time. As the number of travellers in a destination increases and communication between hosts and tourists is constant, it may be necessary for the members of the host society to adapt themselves to the needs of tourists more permanently. Values, norms and standards are permanently changed, and they are transferred from one generation to the next generation. The entire process of cultural contact occurs through acculturation.

1. CULTURAL SHOCK

Culture has been conceptualized as the whole of people’s beliefs, knowledge, and technology that they share and transfer to future generations (Ott, 1989). Engel et al., (1990) define culture as values, ideas and symbols that help the individual to communicate, interpret and evaluate certain behaviours and events as members of society.

The cultural shock is one of the most common difficulties encountered by visitors to a foreign culture (Adler, 1975; Bochner, 1982; Oberg, 1960; Taft, 1977). Cultural shock is experienced by an individual experiencing a different culture. This is a shock resulted from overloading with unrecognized stimuli, encountering different forms of life and ways of doing work, the way of asking questions and understanding the replies
or having difficulty in getting to know foods that are needed (Rogers & Steinfatt, 1999). Cultural shock is expressed as an unpleasant surprise or shock faced with an odd, unknown or unusual thing. Cultural shock occurs during short-term contacts with other cultures because the expectations of visiting individuals do not match with the reality in the new culture. There is a shock when it comes to coping with a new cultural environment, responding to a foreign stimulus, encountering different ways of doing things, asking questions, getting to know the answers or even learning about the foods. Individuals who visit foreign cultures are shocked when they are not aware of differences in the visited foreign cultures, how they should behave in a new culture, and when they experience negative attitudes such as "loss of familiar signs and symbols of social relations" or "loss of balance" due to the difficulties in adapting to a new environment. When many people from different cultures travel and meet with a new culture that they do not know, the term of culture becomes an ordinary word for them.

Those experiencing cultural shock and reverse cultural shock are culturally effective because they are aware of the differences between themselves and others and their own feelings, and they can actively adapt. Experiencing a cultural shock is a part of successful adaptation process to a new culture, and it can significantly facilitate the process of acculturation and assimilation.

1.1. Symptoms and Types of Cultural Shock

Cultural shock has a negative influence on intercultural interaction and communication. In the intercultural interaction, it can be interpreted as anger and frustration against others. The greater the cultural differences between the participants and the visitors are, the greater the cultural shock experienced are, and the cultural interaction observed is generally less. Table 1 shows some important symptoms of the cultural shock. In a foreign culture, visitors behave like a child who has to learn simple things. This situation naturally leads to feelings of helplessness, disorientation, distress and hostility towards the new environment. Due to the cultural shock, a large number of visitors to a foreign country may experience physical or mental discomfort (Hofstede, 1997). Oberg (1960) emphasized that common symptoms of cultural shock are the excessive washing of hands, excessive drinking of water, trouble with local food and bed cleaning, and lack of appetite. The other symptoms that are associated with cultural shock are the excessive desire to be with his/her own citizens, getting angry very quickly even when faced with minor problems, having great anxiety about minor skin irritations and excessive longing for home (Reisinger & Turner, 2003).

According to Jandt (1998), the symptoms related to the cultural shock can be put into two categories; psychological and physical. Physical symptoms include stress on health and safety, fear of physical contact with anyone in the new country, alcohol and drug abuse, concerns about cleanliness and a decline in the work performance and quality. Psychological symptoms include insomnia, tiredness, self-isolation, loneliness, and frustration, criticism of the new country, nervousness, self-doubt, depression and anger.

In the light of the expressions regarding the cultural shock, we can list the types of cultural shock under five headings: role, language, cultural tiredness, transition and recovery. The shock behaviour may be observed due to the lack of information regarding the rules (Byrnes, 1966). The shock experienced as a consequence of lacking a language is triggered by language related problems and inadequate communication
skills (Smalley, 1963) cultural fatigue resulted from the need for a new cultural adaptation and tiredness (Taft, 1977). The transition is due to the inability to interact effectively in the new cultural environment, to adapt to a new orientation, and to react negatively (Bennet, 1977). The return shock is due to the emotional and physiological difficulties experienced after returning home (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963).

Table 1: Some Symptoms of Cultural Shock

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symptoms</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Insomnia</td>
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<tr>
<td>Frustration</td>
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<tr>
<td>Criticizing the new country</td>
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<tr>
<td>Loneliness/Depression</td>
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<td>Emotional and intellectual withdrawal</td>
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<tr>
<td>Disorientation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Excessive washing of hands</td>
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<tr>
<td>Extreme concern over drinking the water, eating local food</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fear of physical contact with anyone in the new country</td>
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<td>Fear of socializing</td>
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<td>Loss of appetite</td>
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<td>Feelings of being rejected by the members of the new environment</td>
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<td>Negative feelings toward hosts</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fatigue</td>
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<tr>
<td>Terrible longing to be back home</td>
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</table>

Sources: Adapted from Resigner (2009), Bochner (1982), Brislin & Pedersen (1976), Oberg (1960) and Taft (1977).

1.2. Cultural Shock on Tourists

There is a misperception that tourists are less likely to experience cultural shock than those with long overseas experiences, such as diplomats, guest workers, and business people. In reality, most behaviours of tourists who visit foreign cultures are no different from those of the other foreign travellers. When many tourists travel to a foreign culture, they face a cultural shock when they face taxi drivers, front desk staff, shop staff and customs officials. Tourists and hosts do not know what they expect from each other. Hosts usually exhibit strange behaviours for tourists, while tourists behave in the ways that are not interpreted by the hosts. The same behaviour may be appropriate for a culture, but it may be considered an inappropriate and strange behaviour for a different culture.

Tourists often do not know how to greet others in other cultures, how to speak appropriately and how much tip to leave for a waiter. Many social situations confuse their mind and make travel more difficult. For this reason, tourists have to comply with local rules, traditions and values in order to ensure a successful interaction with the hosts of the foreign community. In addition, not only tourists but also hosts experience cultural shock. As new values and behaviours are encountered, it can be stressful for both tourists and hosts.

Going abroad or working internationally places the distinctive effect of cultural shock on an individual. According to Oberg (1960), cultural shock has four stages. The first stage begins with admiration and optimism. All the experiences of tourists in the destination are exciting, positive and encouraging. Living in a new culture is seen as a way of socializing and enjoying life as it offers new learning opportunities. Tourists are open and curious, ready to accept whatever happens. They do not judge anything and do
not care about minor problems. Tourists in this group focus on beautiful things to do, see and experience, such as country, people, landscape, food. The second stage is hostility. This stage is expressed as the development of negative attitudes of tourists towards the destination. New things, rules and traditions make tourists uncomfortable and make them feel uneasy. Tourists are unwilling to adapt to all the new elements of a foreign culture. There is frustration and it is not desirable to be integrated into a new culture. In general, only close friends are chosen to contact. The third stage is the readjustment stage. At this stage, the ability of tourists to manage his/her life in the new culture is increasing. Visitors begin to learn and understand new ways of life. The final stage is the regulation stage. This final stage is explained with the acceptance and arbitrariness of the new cultural environment. Visitors are comfortable and safe in the new environment.

Another model of cultural shock similar to the one described above was made by Gullahorn & Gullahorn (1963). Four stages of cultural adaptation or satisfaction are in turn; optimism, frustration, adaptation and progressive recovery. A further step, called U-Curve, is extended to the W-curve as shown in Figure 1 (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963; Trifonovitch, 1977). The stages of cultural shock, exchange and adaptation can be summarized as follows in the light of the above;

1. Honeymoon Stage: In this first stage, tourists prepare themselves for travel. They have the excitement and optimistic attitude of visiting a new culture. Expectations are too high.

2. Hostile Stage: In the second stage tourists have reached a new culture and they have started to experience the new culture. As they cannot solve the newly emerging problems in the ways that they are familiar with, they discover the differences between their own cultures and new cultures, and they become stressed and frustrated. Tourists refuse new culture and search for the people from their own culture.

3. Humour Stage: At this stage, tourists adapt to new cultures, accept differences, start to appreciate new culture, learn local language and behaviour, start spending less time with the people from their own countries, and even start joking in the foreign language Tourists have already adapted to the new culture.

4. At Home Stage: In the fourth stage, tourists look forward to returning home, regret that they have to leave the new culture, and are happy to return to their homes at the same time.

5. Reverse Shock Stage: At this stage, tourists live their shock experience after returning to their own culture. They think that their own culture has changed and feel depressed.

6. Readjustment Stage: At this last stage, tourists are now learning how to deal with the problems in their own culture.

Cultural and reverse cultural shocks show a shock; culture is not only influential on human behaviour but also it is a very useful learning experience. By experiencing cultural shock and reverse shocks, individuals gain an important understanding of more than one culture. Thus, cultural differences are better interpreted, and they are better prepared for a new experience (Rogers & Steinfatt, 1999).
Another issue that needs to be mentioned in relation to cultural shock is the Irritation index of Figure 2 developed by Doxey (1976).

The Irritation index is the best-known theory that shows how local people and tourists interact directly. According to this theory; when there is no touristic activity in a region, the local people are curious and concerned about tourists not visiting (Euphoria); at this stage, the local community is ready to welcome tourists and the excitement of tourists arriving in the destination. As the number of tourists increases,
this situation disappears accordingly (Apathy). Communication between tourists and individuals becomes more formal and the local community becomes indifferent to tourists. When the number of tourists reaches the maximum level, the development of tourism reaches the stage of saturation (Irritation); tourists are perceived as distress, worrying about hosts, price hikes, bad behaviour of tourists, and deterioration of cultural texture and increasing crime rates. When tourists blame themselves for being a source of all the negativity in the host society and when their human values are seen as incomplete, the hosts are hostile towards them (Antagonism). The hosting individuals start to believe that tourists will exploit their region. In the end, the hosts are looking for actions that would make up for the negative effects of tourism (Reseigner, 2009).

1.3. Density and Duration of Cultural Shock

Although many people experience cultural shock as a short-term experience in a foreign environment, the effect of cultural shock can be longer and deeper for some people even if they are less in number. Tourists who experience intense despair, anxiety are exposed to cultural shock more effectively. The intensity and duration of the cultural shock depend on the cultural differences between the tourist and the host culture, the cultural knowledge of the individual, the ability to adapt, the frequency and motivation of travel abroad, the number of friends, type of travel, length of stay in a foreign country. For example, if there are a lot of cultural differences between tourists and hosts, the felt cultural shock may be severe.

Some tourists may experience cultural shock at the first stage, while some others may still feel the stage of enthusiasm. Tourists can only get excited about new experiences when the length of their stay in a foreign culture is very short. On the other hand, some tourists may continuously feel confused. In addition, those who constantly visit other cultures can easily cope with the cultural shock. Those with better social and linguistic skills are quicker to adapt to the new culture. However, even this group of individuals with good communication and personal skills regarding their own cultures find it difficult to cope with and adapt to a foreign culture in a foreign environment.

Individuals who remain in a foreign culture for a short time can experience all the stages of cultural shock. Those who stay longer in a foreign culture can experience each stage of the cultural shock for a longer time (Taft, 1977). Those involved in this group can adapt, be fully acculturated or be assimilated. Visitors to many cultures within a short period of time may experience a constant cultural shock due to the fact that they have very little chance to adapt to the new culture. Those who have friends in the culture they visit are less likely to experience cultural shock compared to those without any friends.

However, not all tourist-types experience cultural shock. Tourists travelling in large groups through tour companies do not experience any cultural shock. Travels organized in travel packages with holiday guides protect tourists from stress and anxiety in the new culture. On the contrary, a tourist who wants to live a new culture and who is looking for contact with the host society can face more cultural shock.

Cultural shock is not a weakness or failure. Contrary to what is known, it is quite normal to experience all forms of cultural shock. Those who experience cultural shock and reverse cultural shock are culturally active because they are aware of the differences between themselves and others and their own feelings so that they can adapt to the new culture. Experiencing a cultural shock is a part of successful adaptation
process; Cultural shock can greatly facilitate the process of acculturation and assimilation (Reseigner, 2009).

2. TOURIST ACCULTURATION

Studies on acculturation are being conducted to investigate what happens when individuals come into contact with a culture that is different and new to them (Martin, 2005). Park et al. (2003) defined the process of acculturation as a long-term process in which acculturated individuals changed or abandoned certain aspects of their original cultures while adapting to the new cultural patterns. Tourism can significantly affect the changes that take place through contacts between societies with different cultures. The interaction between local people and tourists can cause significant changes in cultural value systems. Tourism can be regarded as a tool for acculturation starting with cultural contact. Especially tourism can initiate irreversible changes in the cultures of host communities (Robinson, 1998). Tourists are considered to be a unit of acculturation (Pearce, 1995).

Acculturation is a cultural adaptation process and is thought to have an effect on the behaviour of individuals when they act as consumers (Cornwell et al., 2008). As individuals who travel for a long or short time integrate with the values of the host culture, they gradually incorporate new cultural values and behavioural patterns into their norms and lifestyles (Reisinger, 2009). Acculturation is the process of adapting to a new cultural context and is related to an individual's attitudes, behaviours, and changes in the learning process. Tourists are in contact with host culture and society, which may lead to acculturation during certain periods of their visits.

The choice of cultural elements between two or more cultures depends on various factors such as being a short or long travel, increasing the number of marriages from different cultures, consumer culture and the globalization of the media. These factors contribute to the construction of multiple identities with different cultures and meanings. Despite the differences in the definition and formation of multiple identities, they are believed to have been created with the help of daily interactions, occupations, consumption activities, tourism and travel experiences, etc. in different cultures as well as various social actors and cultural items in different areas. The original culture of tourist is very important in getting and maintaining the experience at the destination. During the acculturation and construction of the identity of the tourists, individuals can build their identities through different socio-cultural norms and a combination of multiple ethnic groups. As a result of this process, two or more cultural identities emerge. This means that the individual has multiple identities. For this reason, multiple identities in today's society have a complex structure. Because multiple identities are meant to be exhibited by individuals, belonging to different communities, and acquired through the collage, integration and assimilation of various cultures. The collage process allows new cultures to generate different cultures, allowing individuals to use the unique elements of different cultures creatively and skillfully. Because of the structure of multiple identities, the identity of the individual is flexible and complicated because s/he will use certain cultural elements in the tourist destination to match his/her socio-cultural structure. The multi-identities that emerge as a result of tourists’ acculturation in the destination culture are shaped by the established and dominant culture. For example, France has a rich and strong history and is considered to be the leading tourism destination in the world. Approximately 83 million tourists arrived in
France in 2016 (www.hurriyet.com.tr). French culture has been shaped by the factors such as geography, climate, fashion, cuisine, cinema, art, language, culture, historical events. French culture is defined as a superior culture in the world. French lifestyle, French cuisine, French nobility, French language and French cultural identity are the basic components. In order for a tourist coming to France to experience France as a French, it is necessary to perceive, win and acculturate these things in a multi-identity construction (Harris et al., 2004).

2.1. Tourist Consumer Acculturation

Penolaza (1994) defines consumer acculturation as a general process of transition and adaptation to the consumer acculturation environment in the country where people from other countries come to. This process takes place in three stages. Transition, transformation and adaptation. The transition stage involves the physical movement of an individual from one country to another. The transformation stage involves encountering and learning a number of new behaviours related to the culture of the country in which the foreign individual comes from. Finally, the adaptation stage covers the change in the behaviour of the individual from the previous culture to the new culture. In the transitional stage, Penolaza (1994) stated that a person coming to the new culture may experience cultural characteristics related to nine different consumptions, including the life in the foreign culture, shopping, language, eating and drinking, clothing, communication system, transportation system financial services and the media. These nine cultural features are exposed not only to immigrants but international tourists who travel for a short time. The desire for experimenting with the new culture in this process also determines the cultural history of tourists.

Consumer acculturation aims to understand the process of cultural change of immigrants over a long period of time and short-term intercultural touristic circulation through the consumption related behaviours of tourists (Lee & Tse, 1994; Penolosa, 1994; Wallendorf & Reilly, 1983). Various researches have been carried out in the literature to examine the travels either for a long time or for a short period of time as they are considered to be intercultural encounters, but they also must examine the issue in terms of acculturation. According to Hofstede & Hofstede (2005), although there are timewise differences between immigration and tourism, tourism allows the two cultures consisting of tourists and destinations to learn many things about one another. Many studies have found out that tourists are part of acculturation within the intercultural experiencing process (Penaloza, 1989; Rasmi et al., 2014; Dogan, 1989). For this reason, consumer acculturation provides a good framework for understanding the experiences of tourists while visiting a foreign culture.

Hofstede et al. (2010) explain the factors that cause a change in the emotions of tourists with the acculturation curve in Figure 3. In this curve, positive and negative emotions are seen on the vertical line and time is seen on horizontal line.

1. Euphoria stage is often short. Tourists enjoy the excitement of sightseeing, travelling and seeing new places.

2. Culture shock stage is longer than the previous stage. Tourists have begun to experience the real life and different ways of life in the new culture.

3. Acculturation stage is the longest stage. Tourists learn how to operate the new cultures, adapt to some local values and traditions of the new culture and improve social relations and start to feel more secure.
4. Stable stage tourists are finally determined to have new culture-related feelings. Individuals are highly committed to positive or negative feelings towards foreigners. In this stage, the emotional state develops in three different ways. In the case 4a, if the tourist feels alienated and exposed to any discrimination, the emotional state is negative. In the case of 4b, it can be considered that the tourist is culturally adapted, or, as in the case of 4c, the tourist may have much more positive feelings. In the case of 4c, tourists almost adapt new culture as much as hosts or perhaps even more than them.

![Acculturation Curve](image)

**Figure 3:** Acculturation Curve  
*Source: Hofstede et al., (2010).*

3. **THE EFFECT OF SOCIAL MEDIA ON RELIEVING THE INFLUENCE OF CULTURAL SHOCK AND ACCULTURATION**

Communication is a two-dimensional process of intercultural communication and mass communication in the recovery phase of the cultural shock and acculturation process. Tourists who visit a new culture where they have little or no knowledge about, start to use interpersonal communication as the first means of communication between individuals in order to obtain the knowledge that they need such as behavioral patterns, clothing, shopping places, food, historical attractions. Individuals generally prefer to communicate with the people from their own nation. However, tourists may not be able to learn about the new culture with the help of interpersonal communication due to the problems that arise from the individuals who will give the information that the visitor needs or the people visiting the new culture. At this stage, there is a communication alternative which is even more compatible with the psychological situation of the tourist. At this point, social media, which is one of the prominent mass communication tools due to the rapid development of the internet and internet technology, is important today. We see internet technologies such as social networking sites, blogs, content communities, collaborative projects, virtual social worlds and virtual game worlds.

Communication can make it possible to recognize the cultural patterns of the host community and to overcome the cultural shock more quickly. Many studies examined
various interaction factors in a complex acculturation process. In general, these factors which influence the acculturation levels of individuals are a host and ethnic media use, host and ethnic interpersonal communication, language proficiency, length of residence, and newcomers' demographic information (Hsu et al, 1993). Among the factors affecting the degree of acculturation, media use and social media, which is the most common media tool in today’s world, play an important role especially in the acculturation of tourists.

Mass media makes it easier for immigrants to adapt to patterns of everyday life, such as using the language of the host community and their eating and drinking habits. Studies conducted by DeFleur & Cho (1957) and Graves (1967) found a positive relationship between television use and acculturation in the host culture. These results were later supported by Won-Doornik (1988).

It is seen that media can be an important tool for a tourist in a new culture in acquiring the behaviour related information that the individual should learn urgently in the first place in the process of adaptation to the new culture. Many researchers studying in the field of acculturation also agree that the media is an effective tool in this process (Reece & Palmgreen, 2000).

Social media technology is a tool that both generates and consumes information. This technique supports collaborative writing (eg wikis), content sharing (eg text, video, and images), social networking (eg Facebook, Twitter), social bookmarking (eg ratings, tagging) (Dowsen, 2007; O'Reilly, 2005; Pietro et al., 2012). These increase the potentials of websites combining the interactive functions. Social media is a powerful tool in global markets for tourism, especially through the introduction of local resources (Pietro et al., 2012). Tourists can share their opinions regarding their experiences about their vacation and their experiences on the Internet (Dellarocas, 2003; Pietro et al., 2012). The information sharing process increases the use of social media and increases the sharing of information across borders (Cheng, 2010; Pietro et al., 2012). This virtual and free sharing of information plays an important role in the spread of information among tourists with the ability to influence behavioral intentions (De Valck et al., 2009; Pantano & Servidio, 2011; Pietro et al., 2012) The communication through social networking sites has positive and negative effects on the decisions to be made and judgements to be made in the future (Knights & Willmott, 2007; Pantano et al., 2011; Pietro et al., 2012)

Bond et al. (2012) argue that social media provides an environment for people to share social ties with their friends and that these ties may be either strong or weak. The active users of social media have the ability to consume more of the content generated by their friends than inactive users. Thanks to various social media platforms, it is easier for people from similar cultures to come together and socialize. As a result, people’s cultural values are reinforced by the constant exchange of information through online contact.

DISCUSSION

The tourism industry is a rapidly growing and developing industry all over the world. For this reason, it is important to understand the culture-related behaviours of tourists. Acculturation has been used to describe the adaptation of tourists to different cultures in the most meaningful sense. Tourists experience the experiencing or contacting a foreign culture most intensely, which is the most basic stage of the
acculturation process. For this reason, tourists are the most frequent subjects to acculturation process. When tourists come to a new culture, first of all, one of the most intense emotions they experience is the shock. This is called cultural shock. One of the most important means of helping tourists who are short-time immigrants in helping them get through this shock in the process of acculturation is the media. Particularly in the encountering process with a new culture between tourist and host culture, social media has started to be used extensively today as well as classical media tools in order to learn about the new culture and to make good communication with that culture.

The use of media tools in the process of acculturation, which is a concept that includes intercultural interaction and adaptation in a new cultural assimilation, maintaining resistance to the old culture and new culture has been very important. Having removed geographical and political boundaries, the internet has made it possible to access the internet by transferring the traditional media to the virtual environment of intercultural communication in the world. Social media technology is a tool that both generates and consumes information. The information sharing process has also increased the speed of sharing information that crosses borders with the increased use of social media. These virtual and free sharing areas play an important role in spreading information among tourists with the ability to influence behavioural intentions of others.

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Chapter 36

Obstacles to Participation in Campus Recreation Activities: A Research on the Students of Kırklareli University Faculty of Tourism

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INTRODUCTION

Recreation is an activity they participate with in order to increase volunteer fun, recreation and satisfaction motivation in the leisure time of individuals (Hacıoğlu, 2015: 30). Recreation according to another definition are activities that bring happiness, satisfaction, spiritual balance, character, competitiveness, spiritual calmness, freedom, physical and social activity and intellectual point of view (Parker, 1979 as cited in Gül, 2014: 11). Today, it is assumed that young people who spend constructive leisure and recreational activities provide more developmental inferences than those who relax. Because constructive leisure time assessment activities; to gain and apply various social physical and intellectual abilities, to contribute positively as a part of society, to join a socially recognized and valued group, to build supportive social networks, to live and to cope with difficulties (Kılbaş, 2010: 221). Particularly in this classification Campus Recreation requires a serious installation as well as recruitment of personnel to provide efficient use of these facilities. The most logical use of these facilities throughout the day is important both for the provision of services and for the benefit of university members. Campus Recreation coverage can be categorized as Recreational Sports, Outdoor Recreation, Entertainment and Social Activities, Programs and Services for People with Disabilities, and Community Service Programs; (a) Recreational Sports; tournaments, mini-sports leagues, outdoor recreation hours, sports skills courses, family camps, personal health and hygiene courses, etc. (b) Outdoor recreation; day trips, seminars, mountaineering, camping, mountain biking, etc. (c) Entertainment and social activities; indoor sports venues, social facilities, music festivals, concerts, festivals, entertainment programs, theater groups, dance shows, performing arts, etc. (d) Programs and Services for the Disabled; specially designed facilities and programs, equipment, apparatuses, skill programs, social programs can be applied; (e) Collective Service Programs; assistance to elderly people with volunteer students, assistance to street children, participation in environmental protection programs, participation in disaster volunteers (Kesim, 2009 as cited in Kaba, 2009: 33).

The leisure areas of recreation determined by the preferences of the participants at leisure and other variables, are classified in the following way. These; outdoor recreation, tourism recreation, industrial-business (industrial) recreation, disability recreation, campus recreation etc. (Kaba, 2009: 32). In recent years, significant changes have happened in campus recreation. Recreation facilities have become strategic assets for universities and have helped them fulfill their goals, such as recruiting and retaining
students. This has improved the campus environment and kept campus recreation at the forefront of university experience (Taylor et al., 2003: 85). It aims to contribute to the education, awareness and culture level of the society by bringing education and practices in universities with vocational skills, producing knowledge by carrying out scientific, social or economical researches or applications and preparing responsibilities and duties for young people to live in society. In areas of social and cultural activity in universities for students with different cultural, ethnic and social backgrounds spend a large part of their extraordinary time during the educational process and are also of great importance in terms of social interaction. Universities are established outside the city in areas called "campus" (Erçevik & Önal, 2011 as cited in Göker, 2014:186). Organized recreational activities can be on campus or off campus.

It is within the scope of campus recreation that it is possible to discover and direct the interests of pupils, staff, families, children (Kaba, 2009: 34). Examples campuses in Turkey, Erzurum, which opened in 1956, designed a competition results' Atatürk University. This is followed by the İzmir Ege University in 1958 and the "Middle East Technical University" in 1961, which is the final result of a contest. Karadeniz Technical University, founded in Trabzon in 1955, had a campus in 1963 and 'Hacettepe University Beytepe Campus' was built in 1965. These settlements are the first inter-university campus sites in Turkey (Sözen, 1984 as cited in Kuyrukçu, 2012: 19).

The aim of the research is to evaluate the participation of the students who are studying at Kırklareli University Tourism Faculty to their recreational activities and to find out the obstacles in front of their participation in campus recreational activities. In the light of tasks related to recreation given to universities and city administrators within the framework of laws, it is to develop suggestions on what to do with recreation. The research focused primarily on the literature on obstacles to participation in activities related to campus recreation and campus recreation, followed by the methods, findings, conclusions and recommendations of the research.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Concept of Campus Recreation and Participation of Students in Campus Recreation Activities

Universities continue their lives as a science institution that has developed in the Middle Ages from the 12th century to the present day and the importance in society is increasing day by day. This was a place where the group, which was called "Universitas magistrorum et scholarium" which means the association of teachers and students at the beginning (Kortan, 1981 as cited in Tetik, 2013: 5-6). The campus idea emerged in the United States of America in order to be influenced by the "Castrum" (the camps) of the Roman era, with the purpose of "a unit that repeatedly repeats itself on a common order (Aydemir, 1975 as cited in Kuyrukçu, 2012: 17). The result of increasing interdisciplinary relations and becoming more important is the fact that the universities tend to be more integrated in the late 19th and early 20th centuries than the universities of the 1800s, which is an alternative to the problems of congestion and land shortage of urban universities is seen (Türeyen, 2002 as cited in Kuyrukçu, 2012: 11). In the period after 1940, the progress made with modern architecture has influenced the innovation concept campus designs. In the process from the 1950s to the present day, changes were made on the campuses, similar to the development of cities, parks and residential areas
Nowadays, the word "university" means a higher education institution which has faculties, higher education institutions and institutes that research and teaching at the highest level in different fields. The university also includes words, meaning buildings, members and employees (Ak, 2007 as cited in Kuyrukçu, 2012: 8). According to the definition announced in the Turkish Language Association (TDK) dictionary, a university is a place where it is located in a collective form with all kinds of building and activity areas such as classrooms, student dorms, etc. (http://www.tdk.gov.tr). The campuses in university, which can also be called "small towns," also need the spatial arrangements that a city needs. Firstly, the campuses designed for educational purposes need to organize common spaces where social relations will develop (Sıramkaya ve Çınar, 2012: 62 as cited in Göker, 2014:186-187). Universities can be divided into two according to their location in the city:

- Urban universities: universities and urban campuses established in urban parcels
- Universities outside the city: campuses (Tetik, 2013: 29).

The structure and budget of the Campus Recreation Units vary and become professional depending on the size of the university (Kaba, 2009: 34). Although the universities differ according to their position in the city, this difference is only in physical and structural characteristics and does not change the purpose or function of the university. However, the location of the universities, the city they are in, and the city they are related to, is as important as the quality of the education they give. Because university education is not an education that can only be taken with a book at the desk. Universities are the social and focal point of communication with people from different parts of the society as well as the theoretical and practical education they receive (Tetik, 2013: 30). The Cambridge and Oxford Universities in the United Kingdom continue to operate day-to-day with an architectural tradition of mid-range plan scheme varieties. Oxford and Cambridge Universities are universities that fuse with the city developing in an organic urban fabric and use the streets for common use of courtyards. For this reason, the cities they are in can be called university cities (Kortan, 1981 as cited in Tetik, 2013: 33).

Universities with campus life can organize more recreational activities than other universities and spend more time on these activities. When organizing such events, it is known that a considerable amount of financial resources have been transferred to purchase sports equipment and to purchase materials (Bizati et al.,1999: 33 as cited in Göker, 2014:187). Campus Recreation has an important place in world universities. Campus Recreation needs a professional management structure because of its objectives, benefits, diversity of the programs and services it provides, the age and gender of the person receiving the service, and the size of the financial volume. Campus Recreation Units (Departments, Directorates, etc.), which are mostly considered as an independent unit affiliated to the Rectorate, are managed by a director or department head who is affiliated to the rector's assistant. The subdivisions of the unit are composed of managers responsible for secretarial, accounting, public relations and marketing, research and programming, human resources, sports clubs, tournaments and projects, facilities, materials and cleaning services. Campus Recreation Programs are programs that are planned, realized and developed by Campus Recreation Units, Physical Education Department Presidencies or Sports and Culture Directorates of Health Culture and Sports Department (Kaba, 2009: 36, 41).
In a study conducted by Erçevik & Önal (2011), the campus areas of some foundation universities were examined. Koç University Sarıyer Campus has a student center building where social and cultural activity areas (canteens, cafeterias, stationery, bookshop, bank, shopping center, copy center, all social and cultural DVD rooms, play rooms etc.) a student center where cultural activities are gathered. Academic units and social and cultural activities are connected to each other by pedestrian axes extending to this square. Koç University Sarıyer Campus is located in the student center; there is a main dining room with a capacity of 600 people, 3 canteens, 1 cafeteria, and student club rooms, a billiard playground, TV watching department, English Audi and video-cassette monitoring tools. There is also a hairdresser, dry cleaning, bookstore, PTT office, Tour Company that organizes transport services, supermarket and bank branch in the student center. Campus contains a 2000-seat multipurpose indoor sports hall, 2 outdoor tennis courts, 1 artificial turf football field, 1 open basketball court, semi-Olympic swimming pool (Göker, 2014:187-188). From the point of view of the activities on the university campus, the organization determines the distribution of the activities within the venue, the rhythm and tempo. In addition, the organization controls the place of the events over time. Certain organizations require a particular building, as organizations can reach their goals through the buildings. It should not be forgotten that the organization and its aims are not static (Çınar, 1998 as cited in Kuyrukçu, 2012: 44).

In addition to this, in the campus area of ODTU, there are sports fields (open-closed swimming pool, open-closed tennis courts, carpet fields, basketball fields, football stadium, beach volleyball fields, sports center, American football field, wining and dining areas, dormitories, archival museum, science and technology museum, geology museum, libraries (European documentation center, central library, Muhan social library), shopping spots (books, bazaar, market) (Metu, 2014 as cited in Göker, 2014:188). There are a variety of settlement schemes that effect on-campus activities, organizations and on-campus growth patterns;

- Common type of settlement system,
- Central type settlement system,
- Molecular type settlement system,
- Network type settlement system,
- Cross type settlement system,

The increase in the number of students in the campus over time, the developments in science branches and the discovery of new science branches require the campuses to be designed as viable. The campuses, defined as university towns, also list the functions of open and green areas as follows; (Çorbacı et al., 2005: 25 as cited in Göker, 2014:187)

- Open and green areas,
- Provides the integrity between the structures and the campus,
- Provides the space required for the circulation system,
- Allows outdoor camping to meet campus recreational needs,
- Allows the interaction between the person and the environment within the boundaries of the campus,
- Create reserve areas for physical development of the campus,
- Ensures that the campus contributes esthetically.

Campus Recreation supports the Freedom Spirit of Free Time. Because campus
recreation programs enable the students to exercise their own free will and activities that they choose, self-examine, discover what they need and understand. This freedom concept forms the basis of free time (Munday, 1998 as cited in Kaba, 2009: 34). There are many studies in the literature about campus recreation. Düzenli et al. (2017) found that the outdoor area around the campus and the common recreational areas on campus were the area’s most frequently used by young people as a result of their research on the purpose of use of outdoor campuses by young people. Yağmur & İçigen (2016) examined the factors that are effective in the recruitment of university students in recreational activities and participation in recreational activities. As a result of the research, culture, family and school were identified as the most important elements in socialization process. It was also found that the qualification-skill factor involved in recreational activities was determinant. A series of exchanges of random interaction and greetings from the campaign to participation in extracurricular informal or planned activities constitute derivatives of this interaction. Although the main factor in the campus is education and training, the non-educational activities organized on campus and the gathering of student community members who organize most of these activities, the community rooms they use, as well as the cafeteria, cafes, cafes and green spaces has the potential to produce a student-focused social life (Yıldız & Çil, 2016: 66). In addition to the benefits of physical health and mental health, social skills can be observed and recreational sports programs provide opportunities for students to participate in various social events, and there is opportunity to develop leadership skills for students enrolled in sports clubs or school sports. The social skills they receive from recreational sports have been found to have positive effects on their careers (Wang, 2009: 19). On the other hand, according to Siramkaya & Çınar (2012) determined negative points related to location, year-round use and distribution within the campus settlement of Seljuk University Alâeddin Keykubat campus depending on the characteristics of settlement system in the planning of common spaces for recreational purposes. According to the evaluation results in this area; it is seen that the location selection of these places is of great importance in order to get maximum performance from the common usage places in the campuses. Schmidt et al. (2017) found that factors affecting the effectiveness of campus recreation management in their work ranged from the highest to the lowest; these factors are organizational characteristics, internal environment, employee characteristics, management policies and practices.

**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

**1. The Purpose and Importance of Research**

For many state and private universities in the evaluation of students spend their free time in the campus area, they create spaces that can offer recreational opportunities. These spaces, which are aimed at eliminating the negative factors that cause psychological pressure on the student such as the length of the lessons, lesson stress and tiredness, help students to develop themselves in social, physical and mental terms and to increase their motivation. In addition, activities such as annual spring festivals, concerts, tournaments, dances, folk dances in various sports venues, which are held at universities, can be exemplified as recreational activities within the campus (Göker, 2014:188). In addition to taking into account the benefits of both physical and mental health, campus recreation has positive effects on students’ future career and for developing social skills. However, it was observed that students participated in the
activities to be organized, were reluctant and sometimes later gave up the activity. It is also important to remember that tourism students are future travelers and travel planners and in addition, tourism students' recreation and travel planning skills need to be developed. For this reason, in this research it is aimed both to evaluate the participation of students in recreational activities in the university and to reveal the obstacles in front of their participation in campus recreational activities. For this purpose, it was tried to develop suggestions about what the universities should do in the respect of recreation. The results of the research contribute to the literature and also it provides support for university and city managers planning on campus-city relationship.

2. Research Method and Data Collection Tool

In this study, descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) used in quantitative research were utilized. Some of the questions used in the questionnaire were benefitted from the research of Erçevik & Önal (2011), and were also included questions such as memberships to student communities, participation in socio-cultural visits outside campus, and reasons for not participating in these visits. In the first part of the questionnaire there are demographic variables and in the second part questions about the participation of students in campus recreation activities. Within the scope of the study, demographic variables such as gender and age as well as questions about participation of students in campus recreation activities were applied by questionnaire method. Statistical data were analyzed using SPSS 22.0 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) package program.

The research data were found to be suitable for evaluating the statistics from the questionnaires administered by the Tourism Faculty students of Kırklareli University Tourism Faculty (Kayalı Campus) between 1-17 May 2018, face to face on 425 (total number of students in the year of 2017-2018). Sampling method was applied easy sampling, which is not based on probability. According to this sampling method, everybody in a certain place was tried to be reached at a certain time (Kozak, 2014: 118).

FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH

Students' responses to participation in on-campus and off-campus recreational activities are as follows. Participants consisted of 58.9% men and 40.4% women. Age group distribution is as follows; 92.7% were in the 18-24 age group, 5.3% in the 25-34 age group and 35 in the age group and 1.3%. 90.7% of the students did not find the social and cultural activity areas of the campus to be sufficient, 39.7% of the students stated that they use the social and cultural activity areas before and after the course and 37.7% of the students never used them. For those who say "never" in response to the time of using the social and cultural activity areas of the campus; 29.8% stated that they did not find their activity areas satisfactory. The students who think that they can easily reach the social and cultural activity areas within the campus are 53.0%. The user profile of the activity areas within the campus is only 67.5% of those who mark the students. The proportion of those who benefit from the city for social and cultural activities that are not available on campus is 52.3%. As the reason for not using the city for social and cultural activities that are not available in your campus, 22.5% of the students did not find adequate transportation between the University and the city, while 12.6% of the students who pointed to the other option stated that they had little diversity and that there was no activity in the city. Although there are social and cultural activity
areas on campus, the proportion of students who indicate that they will benefit from the city's social opportunities is 84.1%.

**Table 1: Obstacles to Participation in Recreational Activities in and out of Campus**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Questions</th>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Participant frequency (f)</th>
<th>Participant percentages (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you think that the social and cultural activities of the campus are sufficient?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>90,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When do you use the social and cultural activities of your campus at what time?</td>
<td>Before and after lessons</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>39,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Times when there is no teaching</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>On holidays</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>37,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The other</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For those who &quot;never&quot; answer; Do not use social and cultural activity areas of your campus what is your reason? (Evaluation based on participant student numbers with &quot;never&quot; answer Is made.)</td>
<td>I do not find enough activity areas</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>29,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I do not find the activity areas attractive</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I do not have time to divide events</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I do not have a friend to spend time in the activity areas</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The other</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing Value</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>43,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you have easy access to social and cultural activities on campus?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>53,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>47,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How should the user profile of the activity areas on campus be?</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>67,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students and instructors</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>23,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students, lecturers and urban people</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing value</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you use the city for social and cultural activities that are not available on campus?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>52,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>47,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For those who answer no; What is your reason for not using the city for social and cultural activities that are not available in your campus? (The answer is evaluated according to the number of participant students who are &quot;never&quot;).</td>
<td>University-city transportation is not enough</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>22,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The university has enough social activities to meet my needs</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I do not have time to share social events in the city</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The other</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing Value</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>47,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social and cultural</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>84,1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
activities in your campus even if they are available and sufficient, will you benefit from the city's social facilities?  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No</th>
<th>15.9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Are you a member of the University's student communities?  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>32.5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>67.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Do you attend socio-cultural excursions outside the campus?  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>43.0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>56.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing Value</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If your answer to the previous question is No What is your reason for not participating in the social excursions outside the campus?  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time is not right</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High cost</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination unsuitable</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My friends do not attend</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The other</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing Value</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>33.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gender  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>40.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>58.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing Value</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Age  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-24</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>92.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 and +</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing Value</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While 32.5% of the students are members of the university's student communities, 67.5% of the students are not members of any community. The proportion of those who do not attend socio-cultural visits outside the campus is 56.3%. As the reason for not participating in the social excursions organized outside the campus, 24.5% of the students stated that the time was not suitable, 13.2% of the students stated that the place to go was inappropriate and 11.9% of the students stated that their friends did not participate.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Recreational activities that can be carried out on campus and outdoors are very important for university youth to be able to capture academic success, stay away from stress and bad habits. Recreational activities provide important contributions when students are healthier and successful in exams. In addition, students will be involved with tourism on campus trips and will provide a cultural accumulation. However, it was observed that students participated in the activities to be organized and participated in the student clubs which were active in the execution of these activities, while the students were reluctant and sometimes later withdrew. For this reason it was aimed to reveal the obstacles in front of participation of tourism students in recreational activities in this research. Based on the research results, the following suggestions were
developed;

Most of the students do not find the social and cultural activity areas of the campus adequate and students stated that they can only use the social and cultural activities area of the campus. Likewise, they found that the research they conducted in Kılıç & Şener (2013) was not as good as the chance of positive evaluation of the free time of the students. Likewise, in their research in Erçevik & Önal (2011), urban campus and university students at urban universities find their social and cultural activity areas "inadequate". In the context of recreational tasks and budgets given to universities within the framework of laws, campus recreational activities and areas of activity can be increased.

Half of the tourism students stated that they had easy access to social and cultural activities on campus.

Students are more than half the number of users who want the user profile of on-campus activity sites to be only students. All campus systems must be designed to include urban residents, students, and faculty members, and the urban-campus relationship must be made more active and interactive. Kayalı Dam Lake (in Kayalı Campus) should be used for water sports and various activities on campus.

The proportion of students benefiting from the city for non-campus activity areas also constitutes half of total students. They pointed out that inadequate inter-university-campus transportation, lack of diversity in the city, and lack of activity in the city are the reasons for the inability of students to go to the city for non-campus activities. Similarly, Ekinci et al. (2014) studies include information lack of college students' leisure time, lack of friends, time, individual psychology and facilities / services. For this reason, social and cultural activity areas in the city center should be increased. Movie theaters, a theater halls, a cultural center, a hobby and crafts center, a small shopping center, sports fields, eating and drinking areas (can be increased in variety and number), shopping places, social areas should be for students. Meeting social and cultural needs with cafes alone is not enough. In addition, the municipality bus can be added to city-campus route.

Although the social and cultural activity areas on campus are available and sufficient, the participants who indicate that they will benefit from the social opportunities of the city constitute the majority. The possibilities offered by cities and city centers are very influential in students’ university preferences. Therefore, increasing the social and cultural opportunities of the city will make the city of Kırklareli more attractive destination for the students. In this way, a city will come to life and new employment areas will be born, so tourism will come alive. The most important example in this regard in Turkey is Eskişehir city. The city is a full student city in terms of both socio-cultural areas and on-campus facilities, and it is also the center of attraction for local tourists.

The proportion of non-members of the university student community is more than half. Participation in organized social and cultural excursions outside the campus is half of the students. As the reason for not participating in the social excursions outside the campus, they stated that the time is not appropriate, the place to go is not suitable and the friends do not attend the tour. According to Balcı & İlhan (2006), university students are more likely to participate in passive activities and university administrations should prepare programs that will direct students to more active activities. Similarly, Toprak et al. (2014) found that Dicle University students had
difficulty in evaluating their leisure time, and that their leisure time was being evaluated by participating in off-campus and social events.

As a result, daily and weekend trips to Kırklareli city and surrounding areas are needed, as well as longer recreational excursions, camps and activities. In this context, the city administrators of Kırklareli should provide support to recreational activities and provide transportation opportunities for the individuals. City administrators and universities should cooperate with travel agencies.

Zorba (2008), to reach the level of developed countries in campus recreation in Turkey concept proposes the development of the university. This research is limited only to the students of the Faculty of Tourism. Future research may evaluate campus recreational activities from different units, regions or countries. Besides, it can perform different researches that establish campus recreation and tourism relationship.

REFERENCES


Chapter 37

An Analysis of the Relationship between Destination Marketing and Gastronomy Tourism

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³Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Institute of Social Sciences, Tourism Management

INTRODUCTION

Competition in tourism requires new local sources to be created and their sustainability. Regions protecting local values stand out in the market more than their competitors. One of the most important attractions for tourists among the mentioned local values in tourism destinations is the food culture in the region (Yüncü, 2010). Regional cuisines, which are one of the elements reflecting their culture utterly and resplendently, have turned into a growing tourist demand (Aksoy and Sezgi, 2015). In addition to this, people may have different requests when they take place in touristic activities leaving the permanent residences in order to satisfy the impulses of escaping, relaxing and refreshing. In this direction, they may lean to and experience foods and beverages in their destinations apart from their routine diets. On the other hand, dietary habits of people other than those of their own culture, foods and food cultures may lead people to tourism activities serving as primary attractions. People may, furthermore, would like to participate in activities related to foods and beverages, which may render the gastronomic assets of the destination a part of the local culture and touristic experience (Yıldız, 2016).

Gastronomy tourism transcends a series of dietary features or quality food facilities that include products and experiences embracing unique humane and geographical features of a destination. Gastronomy tourism activities include many activities such as tasting, cooking and searching for foods and searching for, exploring and trying different tastes (Kivela and Crotts, 2006). For this reason, different exploration and consumption opportunities representing the bound between the locality and its community demonstratively must be provided as well as meeting the tourists’ demand for foods (Hillel, Belhassen and Shani, 2013). Gastronomy tourism is important to increase the number of visitors of a destination by the way of introducing the food culture that destination has and preserving and bringing the local food and beverage culture to future provided that the awareness of local community is raised (Acar, 2016).

Destination Marketing

Destinations may be defined as the mixture of tourism products offering integrated experiences to consumers and regarded as well-defined geographic regions like countries, islands or cities. The term destination is; furthermore, increasingly regarded as a perceptual notion that can be interpreted subjectively according to the travel
routes, cultural backgrounds, visiting purposes, education levels and previous experiences of consumers (Buhalis, 2000).

Destination is simply defined as the location visited (Yavuz, 2007). The term destination, meaning ‘the place to be visited, the place of transportation and target’. The word destination is defined as the “the country, locality or place which is the target of tourism activities; place to be visited, point of arrival” (Kılıç, 2007:29). In other words; the word destination can be defined as the target region (destination) desired to be reached and the specific, selected point where a person aims or wants to arrive in as a result of his travel (Yaraşlı, 2007). Tourists prefer destination for different purposes such as work, holiday, friend visit and sight-seeing. A touristic facility, region, country, a group of countries and even a continent may be regarded as a touristic destination (Öter and Özdoğan, 2005).

Destination marketing means rendering a destination identity which is formed in accordance with the core characteristics of a locality attractive for the selected target groups through effective communication studies (Bardaçoğlu and Pala, 2009). Destination marketing requires coherent studies and action of various organizations in a geographically restricted area in order to realize a common goal (Wang, 2008). Also referred to as place or region marketing; destination marketing is defined to be the “entirety of marketing activities carried out to make a place, region or area attractive for individuals or travelling professionals or showing that it is special” (Uygur and Çelik, 2009:892).

From this point of perspective; it is rather uncommon that tourists benefit from a single element during their tourism experiences with the opportunities provided within the scope of destination marketing. A tourist accommodates in a hotel, eats in a restaurant, experiences regional foods, visits historic and cultural places in the regions he visits, which means he buys a final product composed of the combination of more than one element. By this way, tourists are satisfied with the combined services while the local community and all other stakeholders receive what they deserve and a total quality is ensured. Therefore, destination marketing matters a lot (Bahar and Kozak, 2005).

The natural and historical beauties, facilities, accommodation and foods must be preserved and the folkloric elements must be given the highest precedence, all of which will be offered as a part of the marketing activities, in order to increase the attractiveness of the destination. So, a region must have certain characteristics to become a touristic destination and to develop in terms of tourism. Those characteristics may refer to the mixture of some services such as the presence of image, transportation, accommodation, cuisine, parks, museums, archaeological sites, similar entertainment-recreation opportunities and especially attractions. The definition of destination is restricted to a geographical area with determined borders where certain attractions, products and tourism types are concentrated (İlban, 2007).

It is clear that all physical areas having the visiting potential cannot be regarded as a destination. For a physical area to be regarded as a destination, it must possess certain characteristics. Buhalis (2000) lists the characteristics of a destination under six titles, which are;

**Attractions:** Demographics, natural, architectural and special cases,

**Accessibility:** Transportation system, terminals, vehicles,

**Facilities:** Accommodation, food & beverage, transportation means and other
services.

**Planned Tours:** Presence of tours pre-organized by travel agencies.

**Activities:** All of the activities from which a tourist benefits from during his visit.

**Supporting Services:** Services from which tourists benefit from such as banking, communication means, health etc.

According to another categorization established by Kozak (2016); characteristics of a destination are listed as follows;

**Attractions:** Elements making tourists prefer a place to visit over another one. These are natural elements, economic elements, psychological elements and socio-cultural elements.

**Accessibility:** Accessibility refers to adequate infrastructure to allow easy transportation to touristic facilities, which means proper airways, roads and seaway connections.

**Tourism Facilities:** Tourism facilities may include transportation, accommodation, food & beverage, animation, recreation and other enterprises.

**Activities:** Activities refer to collective activities such as festivals, fairs, congresses, carnivals, sports organizations etc.

**Image:** The reasons for being preferred by tourists.

Handling a touristic destination with all the touristic elements, marketing a product requires and expensive and difficult management function to the same extent that it is marketed (Ahipaşaoğlu, 2005). When the marketing elements of a touristic destination are determined and completed accurately, then it is possible to develop marketing strategies of a destination. Marketing elements of a destination vary just as characteristics of a destination do. Those marketing elements can be listed under 4 titles (Terzibaşoğlu, 2004):

**Image:** Destination image is the whole of impressions and opinions of a person or groups about a place, which is composed of perceptional and emotional elements (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999). Image is; therefore, related to what people perceive and how they interpret it during this process rather than what is offered by a destination to a person or group.

**Brand:** Destination brand can be defined as the whole of names, symbols, logos or images that make a destination stand out. Destination brand is an experience that is recorded by consumers in their minds and remembered after their visits (Caldwell and Freire, 2004).

**Positioning:** This refers to the collection of values that are created in individuals’ minds and what it connotes for tourists. The question of how a city is positioned as a tourism destination corresponds to the infrastructure, investment, tourism movement and marketing opportunities (Johns and Mattson, 2005).

**Vision:** It includes the general picture of the targeted future. It is the tourism policy component that unites all of the necessary elements for competition.

**Gastronomy Tourism and Its Role in Destination Marketing**

As stated before, destination have some basic touristic attraction sources. Touristic attractions are the sources that are managed and controlled to allow visitors to have fun, enjoy themselves and be trained and they are affected by the history and culture, handcrafts, historical fabric and additionally the gastronomic structure of a region (Özdemir, 2008). Touristic attractions that emerge in tourists’ minds have also been
affected as a result of changes in demands, needs, trends, pleasures and habits, one of which is gastronomy.

The word gastronomy is formed by the combination of the Greek words gaster (stomach) and nomas (law). However, it is more important to internalize the conceptual meaning of the word gastronomy rather than its origin. Gastronomy in its broad meaning refers to the comprehensive accumulation of information acquired with regards to every subject that concerns human welfare and diet. Persons that are specialized in culinary and service arts are called “Gastronom” while those who have palatal delight and knowledgeable with good foods and a little bit of cooking are called “Gourmand” (Altınel, 2009).

**Table 3: Historical Development of Gastronomy Phenomenon**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Defined by Charles Monselet in the late 19th century as the “art that can be tasted by all ages and under all kinds of conditions”, gastronomy was included in the literature as of 1801 with the work of Joseph Bercholux titled Gastronomie ou L’Homme des champs a Table (Gastronomy or Humans from Field to Table).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>After two years, related literature started to thrive with the publication of Gastronomie a Paris (Gastronomy is in Paris) by Croze Magnan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The first official study about gastronomy was performed by French national Jean Anthelme Brillat Savarin (1755-1826).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“La Physiologie du gout” was published in 1825 and translated into English as “Taste Physiology”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gastronomy was added in the French cuisine dictionary as the “Best Eating Art” in 1835 as a science branch interested in culinary culture and origins from classical civilizations.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Uyar and Zengin, adopted from 2015: 359.*

Gastronomy is a comprehensive accumulation of information related to the human welfare and diet (Altınel, 2009). Ünlü and Dönmez (2008) define gastronomy as is the sanitary, well-organized, pleasant and delicious culinary, eating system and order. Santitch (2004) stated that gastronomy covers how foods & beverages are produced and prepared and how, where, when and why they are consumed. Hatipoğlu (2010) refers to gastronomy as understanding, applying all of the characteristics of foods & beverages with all of the artistic and scientific elements it harbours starting from the historical development and adopting it to the current conditions by the way of improving it.

Gastronomy has proven that it is an inter-disciplinary field by establishing relations with psychology, sociology, economy, chemistry, agriculture, ecology, medical sciences, traditional sciences and modern technologies by guiding people looking for every ingredient that can be turned into food, buying them with affordable prices and preparing them not within the scope of food & beverage (Altınel, 2009; Kivela and Crotts, 2006).

United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) defines gastronomy tourism as “the whole of the recreational and experimental activities related foods & beverages performed in destinations for entertainment purposes”. Gastronomy tourism means visiting food producers, culinary festivals, restaurants and special areas with the purpose of tasting a special food culture or with the basic motivation of experiencing how foods are produced. In addition to that, tasting a special food, seeing different food production processes or eating from a famous chef are also included within this scope (Hall et al., 2003). Gastronomy tourism includes not only the food provision for tourists.
in hotel or holiday villages but also the pursuit for different food and beverages (Rand and Heat, 2006). Routine visits to an ordinary restaurant are not within the scope of gastronomy. Generally speaking, gastronomy tourism is (Yüncü, 2010):

- A part of the local culture consumed by tourists,
- An important element for the development of regional tourism,
- A part of local and economic development,
- An important factor for the marketing of competitive regions,
- Products consumed by tourists.

Gastronomy tourism is a kind of tourism that has the potential of contributing to the economic and social development due to its position in the food & Beverage industry (Wold, 2006). Gastronomy tourism is a kind of tourism that is applicable along 12 months of the year, at every hour of the day and under all sorts of whether conditions unlike other travel activities and attractions. Gastronomy tourism is, for this reason, an important touristic attraction for the marketing of destinations. Gastronomy tourism constitutes an effective alternative for new destinations that don’t benefit from sun, sea and sand tourism and creates a distinctive market (Kivela and Crotts, 2005).

Destinations that intend to develop gastronomy tourism products need to answer the following questions primarily to determine the sources that they have (Wolf, 2006):

- What are the unique culinary values of the destination?
- Is there any food prepared in the region that is peculiar only to the region?
- Are there any types of fruits that grow only in that destination?
- Are there any certain cooking techniques peculiar to that destination?
- How many sources are there in the categories of restaurants, cafes, producers, winery and butchers?

Determinations to be acquired as a result of the evaluations to be made will help to determine which source is required to be developed more.

**Gastronomy Destination Visitors, the Concept of “Gastro-Tourist”**

Those among tourists who travel for different purposes that are knowledgeable with the presentation and service of the foods & beverages of different culture by tasting them and have the opportunity to taste them are called gastro-tourist. Gastro-tourists’ intention is to experience foods & beverages of different culture not only satisfying their hunger (Long, 2003). Gastro-tourists are people who can travel to a country for only tasting purposes and have the free time, adequate budget and aspiration and motivation for that (Hatipoğlu, 2010)

A gastro-tourist is a type of tourist that can cover long distances to visit a famous or a new food & beverage establishment and consider eating festivals by including them in their itinerary (Akgöl, 2012). Gastro-tourists participate in outdoor and cultural activities by revealing their exploration spirit (Öney, 2013).

In gastronomy tourism, it is important to distinguish between the tourists consuming food as a part of their visits and those that make their selections regarding the location based on the food in the destination to be visited. An ordinary visit to a restaurant is not regarded as gastronomy tourism (Akgöl, 2012 as cited in Hall and Sharpless, 2003), while the motivational reasons for a gastronomy visit should be the request;

- To consume a special food,
- To consume a specific product peculiar to a certain region,
To taste some meal prepared by a particular cook.

Based on the survey where the lifestyles of tourists are categorized; gastronomy tourists are divided into four categories which are recreational, existential, diversionary and experimental gastronomy tourists (Kivela and Crotts, 2006).

**Existential Gastronomy Tourists:** They are in search of different ethnic eating experiences along with the request for learning cultural values of foods & beverages. It is not that probable to run across these tourists in a typical, touristic restaurant, in a crowded chain or popular restaurants. Those tourists are after meticulously prepared and traditional, simple and sophisticated local foods and beverages. They are interested in directly participating in the picking of fruits and vegetables by visiting farms where traditional food is produced and directly experiencing production in local food production areas and so forth.

**Experimental Gastronomy Tourists:** Experimental gastronomy tourists come to the front with the fact that they form their interests within the frame of current trends and habits and they make their destination selections based on whether a place offers plenty of boutique dining opportunities. The basic motivation of this group of tourists is formed within the frame of their pursuit of new development regarding food production and experiencing ingredients and recipes. Consuming trendy foods & beverages, visiting places with different styles are a part of their images and prestige. Quality and fashion value of food & beverages are very important as a part of a certain lifestyle. Approaching the gastronomy phenomenon “aesthetically”, this group regards the outer design, employee uniforms, internal structure and utensils as a status indicator and a whole with the food & beverage service. Their holiday souvenirs include cookbooks, kitchen and wine literature and they are also after glassware, chinaware, silverware and kitchen utensils as gifts.

**Recreational Gastronomy Tourists:** Recreational gastronomy tourists are more conservative compared to the other groups. This group inclines to perceive and experience the eating & drinking as a recreational activity. They prefer places where their demands are satisfied to accommodate. They mostly provide their ingredients themselves and tend to realize the eating & drinking activities within their groups. This group avoids the wait staff, fancy restaurants, complicating drinks and extreme food costs by maintaining their routine dining habits during their holidays as well. Ambiances and service style are barely important for this group. Additionally, they don’t show a tendency for unfamiliar food except for those that are a part of their daily lives.

**Diversionary Gastronomy Tourists:** Diversionary Gastronomy Tourists are tourists who want to go beyond their routines and avoid daily life in the food & drink consumption to do that. They should be able to find foods and beverages easily when they are on vacation without making a lot of efforts. They opt for popular and chain restaurants rather than looking for the best restaurant among different options. They actively look for and prefer familiar foods instead of different adventures in such restaurants. They place the importance on the amount rather than the quality. For instance, they pay attention to big meat pieces, jumbo size desserts, homemade wine and big pasta plates. They don’t like exotic foods. So, they prefer places where the service style is casual and a limited dress code is applied and they can make noise and laugh.
Some Studies Highlighting the Importance of Gastronomy Tourism in Destination Marketing

Studies performed with regards to the importance and position of gastronomy tourism in destination marketing approach the issue in different ways. Tikkanem (2007) presents four distinct interaction aspects regarding destinations and gastronomy, which are being (1) a part of gastronomy tourism, (2) an attractive element in destination marketing, (3) using local cuisine for gastronomy experience in the destination and (4) a part of the local culture. On the other hand, the relationship of gastronomy with the dining culture reveals within the context of gastronomy and destination relation. Gastronomy forms an important part of the services offered to tourists in the visited region.

In one of the studies performed with regards to the relation between gastronomy tourism and destination marketing, Güzel Şahin and Ünver (2015) reported that there is a strong image and brand value in the marketing of Istanbul. In their study, they focused on the role of gastronomy to market Turkey and Istanbul and form a brand value and an image and concluded that gastronomy tourism plays an important role in regional development.

In their study, Sánchez-Cañizares ve López-Guzmán (2012) research in a series of restaurants considering the gastronomy experiences of tourists in Cordoba, Spain to reveal their priorities in their destination preferences. According to the research results, it was highlighted that strategies should be designed and developed to encourage gastronomy as one of the primary touristic attractions of the city. It was stated that the application of strategies aiming at advertising through social and economic developments such as the formation of gastronomy routes in the diversification of touristic attractions, good tourism management, turning typical foods in certain areas into marketable attractions etc. may be an alternative.

In a similar study, Aydoğdu et al. (2016) aimed at determining the role that gastronomy tourism plays in destination preferences of the tourists who visit Bozcaada. The results that were acquired were evaluated to indicate that gastronomy tourism may play a role in the tourism demand for Bozcaada and be used as an attraction.

Another point on which the researches performed with regards to destination marketing and gastronomy tourism focus is the effects of gastronomy activities to extend the seasonal demand for the destination and make tourism sustainable by spreading it along a whole year. Hjalager (2002) approaches gastronomy tourism as a new tourism type regarding the efforts to make tourism sustainable by spreading it along a whole year. He highlights that gastronomy tourism can be respected as travels of tourists to taste local foods and beverages, learn about and experience local dining cultures. By this way, it is possible for tourists to include the same destination in their next itinerary. In a similar study, Bucak and Aracı (2013) focused on local activities performed within the context of gastronomy and stated that such activities might contribute to introducing foods peculiar to a destination and extending tourism over the entire year by drawing the attention of the media and tourists and raising awareness.

Studies highlighting that gastronomy tourism have an impact on destination marketing directly as a sustainable tourism type. Scarpato (2002) states that gastronomy tourism might be the primary factor in destination marketing through the proper planning of tourism activities and their proper positioning within the touristic product. Kivela and Crotts (2006) focused on two points in their studies, which are (a) whether
gastronomy tourisms represent a separate market segment of the general visitor market and (b) whether the gastronomy experience is prioritized as a main reason for destination preference. It is clear to see in the results of the study performed in Hong Kong that participants who visited the destination with the gastronomy tourism motivation represented a different market segment and most of them were between the ages of 25 to 35 and 36 to 45, they held bachelor’s degree, their annual household income was between $10,000 – 30,000 and their accommodation duration was between 3 to 5 days.

Finally, the existence of studies highlighting the contributions of gastronomy tourism to branding is known. Diker and Deniz (2017), emphasize that the gastronomic resource and diversity of a region is nested with its cultural identity and make it distinguishable from others. It is clear within this context that the use of these distinguishing characteristics called as gastronomic identification will provide an advantage to brand destinations.

In a similar study, Özaltaş et al. (2015) highlighted in their study that focuses on the effects of the gastronomy culture of Diyarbakır on the marketing and branding of the city that the advertisement of the destination’s gastronomy was deficient and a systematic advertisement-marketing network was required to be created to ensure the sustainability of the demand for the city. Besides that, it was concluded that the gastronomy tourism needed to be boosted with the cooperation of local food producers and sellers with the local authority in order to make Diyarbakır a brand in this field by introducing its cuisine both nationally and internationally.

Nebioğlu (2017) in his study analysed the local cuisine of Alanya destination by relying on the gastronomic identity of Harrington and gastronomic tourism products categorization models of Hjalager. According to the results of the study which was carried out with the emphasize on the content analysis, it revealed that Alanya has a characteristic local cuisine and elements of this cuisine find place in various ways in the first two stages of Hjalager’s model. With reference to these statements, the gastronomic diversity that Alanya destination has is adequate for branding; however, concrete proposals have been suggested to make use of gastronomy in terms of tourism.

**Conclusion and Evaluation**

Destination marketing matters under current market conditions where mass tourism movements are available and intense competition appears. The most effective strategic instrument that can be used for the recognition, image and preferability of a destination is destination marketing. One of the most important characteristics that a destination is required to have in terms of destination marketing is the dining culture and gastronomic diversity that a locality possesses. Gastronomy is an effective factor to create an image for a destination with its historical, artistic and philosophic meanings beyond simple eating & drinking activities. Gastronomy which has turned into a totally new tourism type with the changing pleasures and habits is related to destination marketing in many ways.

It is observed that gastronomic activities contribute to the marketing as the reasons for tourists to prefer a location in addition to the opportunities that a destination has. The quality of the offered gastronomic services, diversity of gastronomic products and authenticity or attractiveness is additional reasons for visits. On the other hand, gastronomy tourism appears to be a sustainable tourism type for destination marketing.
Apart from natural, cultural or geographic characteristics, the entirety of gastronomic diversity and opportunities that a destination has contribute to the popularity of destination as an important travelling motivation and to the destination marketing with this aspect. Finally, differences in the food culture are regarded within the scope of the cultural identity of the region as well as the gastronomic diversity and wealth that a destination has. These characteristics distinguish a destination from others and contribute directly to its branding and marketing.

Gastronomy tourism and gastronomy activities, the importance of which is highlighted in the destination marketing, require proper planning and strategic approaches in management. The food culture that a region has must be included in the tourism demand by being positioned in the touristic product accurately without affecting the sustainability of sources. On the other hand, social, economic and environmental concerns of the local community must be respected while making such efforts and it is required to transfer the gastronomic values to future generations accurately. The strategic approach in question will bring benefit to ensure an advantage in terms of sustainable competition and also avail to create an image for destinations.

REFERENCES


Chapter 38

Gastronomic Identity and Gastronomic Image in Tourism Destinations: A Local Food Perspective.

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INTRODUCTION

The importance of cultural and traditional values in destinations has gained much attention in tourism literature. Apart from the regular tourism activities, tourists are seeking more diverse destinations that support the cultural value added tourism products. As one of the elements of culture, local food and beverages become essential to market and promote the destinations tourism activities. Among the many kinds of food and beverage related tourism activities, gastronomy tourism has the most extensive structure. Tasting the local food or meals can be an essential part of the tourists’ holiday experience (Hijalager and Richards, 2002) and it can be the main reason for travelers visiting a destination (Kivela and Crots, 2006).

The debate about the factors that differ a destination gastronomically significant than the others concentrated on the existential products such as “fine-dining” restaurants, Famous chefs, food and wine routes and the differentiated cuisine (Smith and Xiao, 2008; Guzman and Canizares, 2011). With the efforts of Harrington and Ottenbacher (2006), the concept of gastronomic identity and the importance of local food become important. Researchers tried to investigate the explanatory and experimental products or cuisines by examining the local food supply thoroughly. Revealing the traditional dishes in the dark which may have a strong influence on destinations future tourism sustainability via marketing and promotion of related local products (Comert, 2014; Karaca et al., 2015). On the one hand, gastronomic identity supports tourism by revealing the local food inventories of the destination and let the stakeholders know and use such products.

On the other hand, the gastronomic image is the perceptions of tourists about what a destination supplied or offered about food and beverage products; and especially locally grown products (Sánchez- Cañizares & López-Guzman, 2012). Tourists nowadays usually share their experience with such products through the internet. The uniqueness of the production and presentation forms the gastronomic experience, and online reviews of such experience have a substantial effect on destinations marketing capabilities.

This paper seeks to identify the relationship between the gastronomic identity and image regarding locally grown products. This attempt can be useful to understand the local food’s pathway to become an idea of tourists’ perceptions. It can be a useful tool for chefs and gastronomy tourism planners on the way to create new local dishes or integrate the existing culinary heritage to their business to support the tourism destination’s gastronomy competitiveness.
1. Gastronomic Identity

Food is no longer considered as a physiological need since but the characteristics of a destination and became the logical instrument in branding and promoting a specific destination as a consequence (Lin et al., 2011; Bahar and Kozak, 2006). It is a powerful cultural identity indicator that stands at the core of gastronomy tourism (Hillel et al. 2013). It offers the heritage of the region providing an advantage for the region over the competition, establishes travel motivation by presenting unique food-drink experience and significantly helps invigorate travel activities (Harrington and Ottenbacher, 2010).

The concept of regional gastronomic identity has two main determinants affecting the development of the destination. The environment is a powerful determinant of gastronomic identity which geography, climate and cultural elements such as; religion, history, level of ethnic diversity, innovations, capabilities, traditions, beliefs, and values are essential on prevailing the changes felt consumers related in food and drink (Harrington, 2005; 2008). These changes made the different food become part of the local culture because they have been derived from past incidents that have taken place in different regions and thus have been put into a particular category by the locals and have been consumed more or less on special occasions (Hatipoğlu et al., 2013).

Customers’ cultural needs are often hidden and are deeply connected with the human aspect of production (Contò and Lopez, 2008) and with environmental, historical and cultural assets (Marks, 2011). Traditional food ingredients, the unique way of preparations and cooking methods are also closely related to a culture/tradition, social and cultural values and can be an identifying feature of a region (Oosterveer 2006; Smith and Xiao 2008). Moreover; gastronomic identity and its scope have determined in different ways within the literature, some researchers argue the availability of wine and alcoholic beverages as a form of appellations in the region is significant to the regions gastronomic identity (Harrington, 2005; Brown and Getz, 2005). Most worldwide known appellation systems are protecting and controlling the original products of specific countries. Among those “Appellation d'origine contrôlée (AOC)” of France, “Consejo Mexicano Regulador de la Calidad del Mezcal A.C. (COMERCAM)” in Mexico and “Scotch Whiskey Association” in Scotland are the most remarkable systems around the world. Other researchers focused mostly on identifying local food products and meals by systems (Danhi, 2003; Rao, Monin ve du Rand, 2003, Çalışkan, 2017). These systems are known as Geographical Indication (GI) meaning as a sign used on products that have a specific geographical origin (Giovannucci et al., 2010) such as; Adana Kebabs, Peruvian Potatoes, Oaxacan Mole, Polish Kielbasa. Geographical Indication represents authenticity, cultural heritage and the ability to trace food choices to their origins.

2. Gastronomic Image

Gastronomy image can be defined as beliefs, emotions, and impressions about a destination about food, drinks, food and beverage activities, gastronomy culture and restaurants (Eren and Celik, 2016). It influences the destination choice decision-making process and shapes the behaviors of the on-site tourist experience, satisfaction level, intention to revisit and willingness to recommend (Chen and Tasia, 2007). The Food and Beverages consumed by tourists spread to the others with “word of mouth marketing.” Visitors share their experience by talking to others, writing their comments to various websites.
that are specialized in product reviews, publishing their gastronomy blogs to give information about food and beverages, photo shoot and share on social media (Cheung et al. 2007; Litvin et al., 2008).

The outcomes of spreading the information help the future tourists’ intention to visit the destination by refreshing taste with generating empathy and experiencing the appeal, forming taste awareness with the help of providing photos, delivering knowledge and presenting guides, facilitating interpersonal reaction about social and cybercommunity influence (Wang, 2011). Jones and Jenkins (2002) recommended that food not be only a fundamental need for tourists but also a cultural element that can positively present a destination. Given that food can be used to protect the identity and culture of a destination, food expenditure can be used in the development of a destination image (Quan & Wang, 2004).

Su and Horng (2012) argue that lessening difficulties in having local cuisine is a demanding factor in the design of many destination marketing strategies. Moreover, they advise that using appropriate images of local produce and cuisine emerges to be fundamental for marketing success. Jalis (2016) points out the success of a destinations gastronomic image is preliminarily determined by the government’s regulations and the efforts of local organizations (DMO’s). Such organizations should work tandemly to market the destination to raise the awareness of gastronomic image.

3. Local Food

Local food is the main component of the destinations cuisine and identifying the products in a destination can influence and help to develop the gastronomy tourism by adding new tastes with enhanced dishes and revealing the real dishes to preserve the culinary heritage. The term local food has two distinctive meanings; the first meaning is the product itself and the second meaning is about the cuisine (Takashi and Honma, 2009).

The supply side of gastronomy tourism starts with the local food, which spots the destinations gastronomic identity by representing a place or a region (Timothy and Ron, 2013; Timothy, 2016). Even though there is no collective agreement within the definition of local food, the researchers usually focus on the distance between the production and consumption. The most common distance is 100 miles proposed by Smith and Mckinnon (2009). In their book “100-mile diet”, the others have different distance manners such as: 74km in Iowa, 250km in Washington D.C. (Halweil 2002); 30–40 miles in most of the UK, and 100 miles in London (La Trobe 2002).

To understand and to reveal the local food would be an efficient way to promote the sustainability of food tourism (Scarpato 2002; Smith and Xiao 2008). To do that Hall and Sharples(2003) proposed a route consisting of; identifying producers of food both at the primary and secondary stages, organoleptic quality evaluation of food products, understanding the quality and safety attributes of tourism products and the culinary specialties produced in a region. The first stage of the proposed model examined by Jenkins (2004) implies that local food is an essential component of the sustainable local food system. It has a crucial role in providing an excellent business environment for nurturing local farm growers, local food industries, local restaurants as well as other local sectors, which are indirectly related but linked to local food tourism. Such developments offer new business opportunities and create new employment opportunities for the local community (Kuand and Bhat, 2017).
4. Literature Review

Despite the research taken into the study with the related subjects presented above, little is known about the use of local food in tourism destinations. Research about the gastronomic image was mostly concentrated into positive and negative effects of the image in destinations. The use of photographs on tourism based consumer-generated websites (Horng and Tsai, 2010), destination marketers awareness of the tourism identity and tourism image (Michaelidou, Siamagka, Moraes and Micevski, 2013), perceived destination image (Law and Cgeung, 2010) and food quality of restaurants at the destination (Kim, Lee and Yoo, 2006; Ha and Jang, 2010; Pantelidis, 2010) are the examples some of related research in the literature.

Frochot (2003) conducted a study on the association between regional positioning and its related food images in France. He found that food images can be utilized to exhibit the cultural aspects of a country. As such, destinations can use food to represent its cultural experience, status, cultural identity, and communication.

In a comparative study among two countries where brochures, booklets, and websites are analyzed, Okumus, Okumus, and McKercher (2007) found that Hong Kong is marketed and promoted more international gastronomy and Turkey uses its national cuisine. Researchers explain this result as national cuisine plays a more prominent role than international cuisines in building an image of Turkish tourism destinations.

Karim and Chi (2010) proposed a study of the food image of tourism destinations to reveal the purchasing intentions of travelers in three well-known gastronomically significant countries. The findings of the study inform that Italy had the most favorable food image and the highest potential to be visited in the future. They also noted that the study affirms the positive relationships between destination image and the travelers purchasing intentions.

Chi, Chua, Othman and Karim (2013) have investigated the structural relationships between food image, food satisfaction, culinary quality, and behavioral intentions of tourists visited Malaysia. They found that tourists perceived food image played a role in directly influencing food satisfaction and quality of culinary experience and food image influenced tourists’ behavioral intentions through culinary quality.

Some tourism studies scrutinize the role of local food about identity and image have shed more light on the topic. For example; a comparison based study between Portugal and Britain, Researchers noted there is a wide array of local food products exists in both two countries. However; government regulations, economic reasons and lack of planning cause both destinations gastronomic image undervalued (Beer, Edwards, Fernandes and Sampo, 2002).

Eren and Celik (2016) investigated the gastronomic identity by using the web-based advisory reviews of tourists visited the local restaurants in Istanbul and Antalya. The findings of the study informed that most of the written reviews do not contain the original names of dishes. Reviewers usually like to show the categorization of the meals such as seafood, meat, desserts, and drinks. This research shows evidence that the tourist is not intended to remember the local names of food or the perceived image of local food is not at the desired level.

The studies to argue the gastronomic identity with the local food inventories in Turkey are focused on products and their usage in local gastronomy customs. For example Wild edible plants and culinary herbs (Cömert&Dinç, 2014; Karaca et al.

The existing studies on identifying the local gastronomic products and their categorization through the local cuisine in Antalya are insufficient. A study of the consumption of local food by the restaurants in Kas area, a district located on western Antalya, identified the locally grown products (See table 1 below) and argued the use of such products in restaurants. The findings suggest that there is a lack of information on products and communication among chefs and the local suppliers, the supply side within the local producers are weak, and the relationships among retail stakeholders are not very active (Eren, 2017).

Table 1: Local Food Products in Kas-Antalya

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Types</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seafood</td>
<td>Grouper, Leer, Dentex or Swordfish, Red Mullet, Red Gurnard, Sea Bream, Dover Sole, Conger Eel, Octopus, several types of Crabs, Sea Urchins, Mussels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dairy</td>
<td>Butter, Artisanal Cheese, Goat Milk.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meat</td>
<td>Goat, Veal, Beef</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Game</td>
<td>Quail, Partridge, Duck, Goose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grains</td>
<td>Almonds, Several types of artisanal beans, peas and lentils, Chia and Quinoa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vegetables</td>
<td>All types of Tomatoes, and many other vegetables, mushrooms including Shi-take, Saffron Milk, Chanterelle, Morel, Oyster, Boletus, and Yellowleg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Herbs</td>
<td>Aromatic Herbs such as; Chervil, four types of Thyme, Sage, Rosemary, Dill, Tarragon, Chives, Corriander, Pot Herbs Such as; Leaf Mustard, Mallow, Fennel, Wild Radish, Wild Spinach and Watercress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spices</td>
<td>Black Pepper, Green peppercorns, Cumin, Sumach, Chillies, Nigella, Nettle and Flax seeds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sauces and</td>
<td>Tahini, Pomegranate Syrup, Carob bean Syrup, Grape Molasses, Several types of Jams and Glaze. Olive oil, Almond Oil, several types of Honey including Thyme, Pine, orange blossom, Heather, Clover, and Alfalfa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Another remarkable study has been achieved by Nebioğlu (2017) in Alanya, a district located in the east of Antalya, which revealed not only local food products and dishes but also local customs, traditions related with gastronomy and destinations gastronomic identity. Results of the study informed that the gastronomic identity and the local products of the area are presented scarcely in tourism activities.
METHODS AND MATERIALS

Due to the exploratory nature of this research, the Photovoice technique is used by analyzing the existing photographs taken by the tourists during their dining experience. According to researchers, photographs are vital to successfully creating and communicating images of a destination. They can provide a great deal of information about the images projected of tourist destinations, and they help to gain an understanding of the tourist experience and process by which tourist destinations are present (Jenkins, 1999; Mackay and Cloudwell, 2004).

The main advantages of using photovoice analysis for destination image research are that it allows the respondent to describe the target stimulus in terms that are salient to the individual, rather than responding to the researchers' predetermined image dimensions (Reilly, 1990). Another advantage is that it will measure whether the image of a destination lacks or weak, that is if respondents are unable to respond (Jenkins, 1999).

According to visual research methodology, Investigation of photos can be determined by the researcher (Rose, 2012). The researcher can establish the regulations of photos to analyze. Conditions and settings designated by the researcher help the study about reliability and validity (Margolis and Pauwels, 2011; Holm, 2014). Photos which are open to the public are inspected by using three photo-sharing websites and eight different food and travel blogs. The researcher set the rules as; photos must be taken at the food and beverage establishment (Restaurants, Cafes or food stalls), the food items must be apparent in the plates, the tourists dining in the table must be visible at the photograph. After the setting process, 232 photos are found eligible to be analyzed. All the food ingredients in plates or carts analyzed separately. All food ingredients in plates and dishes are evaluated as one count. Some volunteers who previously worked as a cook and chef in the Antalya region have helped the researcher to identify the types of the products. The photos coded are organized and grouped into the type of meal and variety of products (See table 2).

Table 2: Products Found at the Results of the Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Product Varieties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seafood (349)</td>
<td>Mussels (73), Shrimps and Prawns (58), Anchovies (42), Seabass (40), Sea Bream (38), Red Mullet (27), Octopus (18), Turbot (14), Swordfish (11), Grouper (11), Crabs (7), Sardines (7), Dentex (3).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vegetables (454)</td>
<td>Tomatoes (122), Eggplant (73), Peppers (66), Lemon (58), Onion (52), Olives (51), Cucumbers (38), Potatoes (4).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leafy Greens (229)</td>
<td>Rocket (145), Green Onions (51), Spinach (12), Purslane (11), Kale (10).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dairy (213)</td>
<td>White Cheese (88), Yogurt (69), Butter (46), Kasar Cheese (13), Milk (7).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grains (191)</td>
<td>Rice (106), Beans (66), Peas and Lentils (14), Almonds (5).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syrups, Oils, Glaze (149)</td>
<td>Jams and Glaze (56), Olive oil (38), Tahini (26), Pomegranate Syrup (16), Honey (11), Grape Molasses (2).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meat (98)</td>
<td>Chicken (61), Beef (18), Lamb (15), Goat (3).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aromatic Herbs (78)</td>
<td>Parsley (52), Dill (16), Sage (7), Rosemary (3).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pastry (34)</td>
<td>Simit (16), Types of Borek (12), Pogaca (8).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mushrooms (26)</td>
<td>Common Mushroom (22), Chestnut (2), Oyster (2).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
RESULTS

The results reported here provide a brief overview of the findings. The data provided a total of 232 photographs for further analysis have shown in table 2. According to findings local products which have given in previous research has been found on the plates. However, the photos shared by the tourists did not mention local products very often. It is observed that most of the products in tables or different dishes are seafood related. It can also be observed that Mussels, Anchovies, Seabass and Seabream are outnumbered in the seafood section. The typical food groups found the most shared items in the study. Tomatoes, Chicken, Rocket, White cheese, Rice, Jams, Parsley, Simit and common mushroom represents the everyday life which anybody can find at any restaurant all over the country.

Even though game products and mushrooms cover a big part in local food production, the number of photos taken by tourists are deficient. Photos are mostly taken at the table while the other visitors are screened. Some of the photos are taken in front of the mussel carts and cafes famous for breakfast around the region. There are some photos taken at the hotels dining establishments.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This paper argues the relationship between gastronomic identity and image by revealing the awareness of tourist to local food products in the Antalya region. Content analysis is conducted on 232 selected photographs from different websites and blogs through the internet. The findings indicate that Antalya has seen as a seafood destination even if it is also famous with kebabs, specialty meats, and soups. Even though there are some local products seen in the study, the number of such products are very low to generate an authenticity and sustainability of the Antalya region.

Most of the seafood products reached in the study are cultivated farm products. The reason restaurants use them mainly because of the government regulations of the seafood hunting ban about fighting with the poaching. Authorities should consider more on protecting the endangered species and animals with the projects. These projects should be more concentrated on the pacing and education issues of local producers.

The previous research has found many dishes and different local products (Nebioğlu, 2017). However, this research has reached more on the commonly used products all around Turkey. It is noted that food is not used as actively as a marker of cultural identity in Turkey. Most of the Turkish destinations have problems with product positioning moreover instead of differentiating the countries natural resources; they keep using sea, sun, and sand. Even if the tourism stakeholders are aware of their locally grown products but still promote their national dishes, they usually do not tend to innovate new dishes from their existing products (Okumus et al., 2007). Authentic and exciting food can attract visitors to a destination. The destination will use food as the main attraction and will develop marketing strategies that will focus on the food. It is essential for marketers of a destination to know the image currently controlled by its targeted customers and how to affect their purpose of visiting through effective destination marketing strategies (Karim and Chi, 2010). The gastronomic image of a destination reflects some of the most known foods and drinks which can be learned by travelers with pre-trip research. Therefore, people visit without visiting the destination acquire knowledge in the media, and they learn the names of foods and drinks in the comments (Kivela and Crotts, 2016). The appreciation of local products supports the
traveler’s intentions to revisit a destination. For a higher remembrance in tourists mind, a campaign could be launched with the aim of raising awareness about the use of local products among local food establishments (Alderighi, Bianchi and Lorenzini, 2016). In some destinations “Taste of” events and local culinary championships also help to raise the attention towards local food products.

Further research may investigate the relationship between the culinary heritage and gastronomic intelligence of the region by comparing the products grown in the region, the way of cooking, preparing by the locals and the finished products served in food and beverage establishments.

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Geleneksel Hatay Yemekleri ve.


A Rising Destination in Turkey: Van

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INTRODUCTION

In the world where tourism activity is increasing rapidly, more than 1.3 billion people participated in tourism activities in 2017 (URL-1). It is estimated that by 2030 this number will rise to 1.8 billion people (URL-2). World tourism incomes are calculated as $ 1.22 trillion in 2016. In parallel with the number of people participating in world tourism movements in the coming years, it is estimated that tourism incomes will also increase (URL-3). Tourism activities that are of vital importance, especially for economically developing countries, constitute an important source of income for the countries’ economy. Since Turkey takes place in the category of developing countries, tourism activities have a significant share in its overall economy. In 2017 GDP (Gross Domestic Product) in Turkey figures are at $ 851 billion (URL-4). Tourism incomes were $ 26 billion in 2017 (URL-5). Tourism's share in Turkey's is a little over 3%. This rate in developed countries like USA (United States) is at around 1%. Therefore in terms of Turkey's economy, tourism is of greater importance than it is for the developed countries.

Nearly 38.5 million tourists visited Turkey in 2017 (URL-5). Tourists are known to concentrate in specific regions in Turkey (Mediterranean and Aegean coasts and Istanbul). However, in these regions the transport capacity is about to be exceeded or has been exceeded. As a result, environmental, historical and cultural distortions are experienced and tourism sustainability is negatively affected. In order to reduce the future damages that might be caused by this situation, the spread of the tourism movements to the other regions is planned as a state policy in 2023 Turkey Tourism Strategy. From this point of view, within the scope of the study it is aimed to reveal the tourism development of Van that is in the east of Turkey and is in the ascendant and to make predictions about the future.

GENERAL INFORMATION ABOUT VAN

The province of Van is in the east of Turkey on the border with Iran and its population is over 1.1 million as of 2017 (URL-6). In the province of Van, continental climate prevails, winters are long and hard. In the winter months, Van Lake has relatively moderate softening effect on the climate. Nearly 150 days of winter passes below 0 °C. In summer 20 days pass above + 30 °C. Land is covered with snow for 80 days. Annual precipitation varies from 370 mm to 570 mm throughout the province. Summers are not very rainy but very hot. The temperature throughout the province is between -26,9 °C and + 36 °C throughout the year. Despite the fact that Van Lake surroundings and valleys are covered with rich vegetation, the mountains are generally
without trees. Provincial lands are covered with steppes (URL-7).

Since ancient times in history, many civilizations have been dominant in Van which is located on the shore of Lake Van and is a very important centre of population with its fertile lands and sufficient climatic conditions. According to archaeological investigations, written prehistoric periods of Van extend to the beginning of the Chalcolithic period between 5000-3000 B.C. years. It was the Hurrians who founded the first state-building in this region in 2000 B.C. Then in the 900s B.C., Urartu state, the capital of which was Tushba (VAN), was established by the indigenous tribes who were the continuation of the Hurrians in the region. Urartians ruled in the Van region until 612 B.C. and Van Castle was built during this period. When the Assyrians, who organized raids from Mesopotamia to Anatolia, took possession of the Van Castle in the beginning of the 7th century B.C., Urartians continued their existence by establishing Rusahinili (Toprakkale) city near Tushba. Medler, who came to Anatolia in 612, ended the Great Urartu Kingdom. After Urartians: Van was dominated by many civilizations respectively such as Med, Persia, Macedonia (Great Alexander), Roman, Sassanian, Byzantine, Arab, Armenian, Seljuk, Aqqoyunlu, Safavid, Ottoman (URL-8). The domination of so many civilizations in Van has led to the formation of numerous historical and cultural values. Therefore, today in terms of tourism these values are very important attractiveness elements of Van destination.

TOURISM IN VAN

Tourism activities are of great importance for the economies of developing countries. Especially in the regions where the industry does not develop, tourism balances the level of development between the regions and prevents immigration. Because of the fact that Van is located in the east and less developed region of Turkey, the concentration of tourism activities in this region is quite important in terms of the development of the region and the prevention of migration to the developed provinces in the west.

Transportation

In terms of its location, Van has been a frequent centre throughout the history since it is located at an important junction point on trade routes connecting Anatolia and Iran. Today, there are both road and rail connections through Iran and Kapıköy border gate. Since it is in the east of Turkey and is also fairly far away from the capital city and Istanbul, the airline is very important and Van Ferit Melen Airport has been carrying on the activity since 1943. With these transportation facilities, its attaining the status of metropolis and many touristic activities that have started in the city in recent years, Van has become a centre of attraction for both domestic and foreign tourists. Facilities such as shopping and entertainment especially in Van Lake and Van are an important source of supply for Iranian tourists. Aforementioned developments have been reflected on the number of foreign tourists visiting Van. Figure 1 shows the number of foreign visitors according to the border entry statistics in Van by years.
When Figure 1 is examined it is seen that there is a steady increase in the number of visitors to Van in general from 2008 to 2017. The highest increase compared to the previous year is observed in 2014 (81%) and 2017 (90%). The number of visitors to the city increased by about 20 times in the last 10-year period, that has made Van become a rising destination in Turkey. According to the data obtained in the first four months of 2018, the number of visitors to Van increased by about 10% compared to the first four months of 2017 and the total number has reached 132,562 visitors (URL-9). As a result of these figures, it is estimated that the increase in the number of visitors will also continue in 2018. It is known that foreigners visiting Van are mostly Iranian tourists who are border neighbours. On the other hand, it is observed that visitors mostly prefer the airline in terms of domestic tourism. It is seen in Figure 2 that the number of passengers arriving and departing from Van on domestic routes increased by about 3 times from 2008 to 2017.

By the end of 2017, more than 1.6 million passengers used Van Ferit Melen Airport in domestic flights (URL-10).
Touristic Attractiveness of Van

Tourism events also include various communication and interaction activities with the elements of the environment it takes place, as well as its taking place in a geographical location. Therefore, it is important to understand the tourist motivations besides attractiveness of the destination when examining the tourist movement trends to a destination. The factors causing motivation can be considered as the material and spiritual conditions that tourists need. From this point of view, nowadays tourists are being tried to be directed to tourist attraction centres by determining the material and spiritual attractiveness in line with the desire of tourists (Çetin, 2017: 47). The material and spiritual tourist attractions that are mostly used by the agencies to guide tourists, who visit Van in increasing numbers in recent years, are as follows (Uzut & Batman, 2017: 222):

**Van Lake:** It is Turkey’s largest lake and its surface area is 3.713 km². Van Lake has a softening effect on the local climate and creates a favourable environment for touristic activities in summer months. In some of the rivers that spill into Van Lake, where there are many coves, the fish called İnci Kefali that is rare in the world lives. The migratory movement of this fish species in some periods of the year attracts the attention of many local and foreign tourists (URL-11). Boat trips entertainments accompanied by music attracting tourists’ attention are organized on Van Lake (URL-12). In recent years, recreational activities on the beach, beaches providing swimming facility in the lake for tourists, water parks, businesses supplying food and beverage service by the lake, and water sport activities such as canoeing and sail surfing have made Van Lake very attractive for tourists (URL-13). Aforementioned activities are seen in Figure 3 and Figure 4.

![Figure 3: A Water Park on Van Lake Beach (Source: URL-14)](image-url)
Figure 4: Water Sport Activities on Van Lake Beach (Source: URL-15)

**Akdamar Island and Akdamar Church**: There are 4 large and small islands on Van Lake. These are Akdamar, Çarpanak, Adır and Kuş Islands respectively. The islands have historical and touristic characteristics and they were declared as archaeological sites in 1990. The most known of these islands is the Akdamar Island, which is prominent with its historical church (built between 915-921 B.C.) and its interesting legend. The church is located in the south-east of Akdamar Island and reflects the Armenian art of medieval times. The Akdamar Church was built on a four-leaf clover-shaped cruciform plan with a central dome. The church, which was transformed into a monastery in 1113, has also been referred to as "Holy Cross Church" since this date. So it is also an important centre in the sense of faith tourism (URL-16). Figure 5 shows the island and the church.

Figure 5: Akdamar Island and Akdamar Church (Source: URL-17)

**Van Castle**: Van Castle, located on the shores of Lake Van and built by the Urartu King I. Sardur, is one of the oldest works of the world and has a history of approximately 3000 years. Van Castle (Figure 6), the length of which is 1900 m from east to west, the width of which is 120 m from south to north and the height from the lake surface is 80 m, is one of the rare works that can survive up to today (Alper, 1986;
Van Castle is within the boundaries of the province centre by its location and it is 5 km away from the centre. It is built on a mass of rock extending east-west in the Van plain (Mesci & Çetinoglu, 2017). Van Castle, which was included in the UNESCO Temporary List of World Heritage in 2016 (URL-18), was visited by 11400 people in the same year (URL-19). 

**Figure 6:** Van Castle (Source: URL-20)

*Muradiye Waterfall:* The waterfall, which is located on Bendimahi Stream flowing from the southern skirts of Tendürek Mountain towards Muradiye Plain, is one of the important tourist symbols of Van. Bendimahi Stream, which enters Gönderme Bosphorus after Çaldıran Plain, flows through a deep and natural rock channel from here (Van İl Kültür ve Turizm Müdürlüğü, 2014). Muradiye Waterfall (Figure 7) is located 80 km away from Van province centre. The height of the waterfall is 50 m. The waterfall is a rare natural beauty that is worth seeing not only with the image but also with its nature that adds beauty to its surroundings. The water of waterfall that is frozen in winter months (Figure 8) also offers an alternative tourism opportunity for adventure-loving tourists (URL-21).

**Figure 7:** Muradiye Waterfall (Source: URL-21)
Van Breakfast: Van province, which has different characteristics from many cities in Turkey with its history, culture and nature, is also an important city with its food culture. As a result of local people’s earning their living with animal breeding in general, there are different food items derived from milk and dairy products. It is also possible to add honey obtained from plains and tea brewed from the fresh water obtained from springs of Van to this flavor ring. The diversity of products obtained from animal breeding over time has enabled the emergence of breakfast culture in Van province (URL-23). The most important feature of Van breakfast (Figure 9) is its being consisted of natural products. In breakfast table there are genuine Van honey, yoghurt cream, milk cream, chopped butter, tzatziki, herby cheese, braided cheese, white cheese, egg with fried meat and Turkish style fermented sausage, olive, murtuğa, kavut, gencirun. The breakfast ingredients are presented with samovar tea, lavas bread and Van muffin prepared by special methods and baked in the stone ovens. Besides the samovar tea, milk of goat and sheep fed by the herbs is also preferred by tourists coming to Van. In summer months yoghurt, tzatziki and bean salad are also served in Van breakfast and in winter months there are honey-molasses and tahina in breakfast menu (URL-24).

Figure 9: Van Breakfast (Source: URL-24)
Kılıçhan & Köşker (2015) inferred in their study titled “The Importance of Gastronomy in Destination Branding: Example of Van Breakfast” that “Internet” is the first of the sources of information about Van, Van province has come to the forefront with “Van Lake” and “Van Breakfast” and the most important point that kept in minds of the participants while they were leaving Van was “Van Breakfast”. In addition according to the research findings it is seen that respondents of the questionnaire regarded Van Breakfast’s being popular and well-known as a gastronomic product and ease of access to breakfast halls as significant but they did not care about the cultural experience (such as the wearing of local clothes) in the Van Breakfast halls.

**Van Shopping Fest:*** The satisfaction of tourists coming to participate in festivals held in a city plays a key role in terms of the presentation and image of the city (Tayfun & Arslan, 2013). Van Shopping Fest, the first of which is held in 2015 and on Nevruz Feast, is stated to be an important event in the transformation of Van, which is an important commercial centre on the Historical Silk Road, with its historical values, culture and gastronomic products. The purpose of the Van Shopping Fest, organized in 2018 under the influence of Van Governorate in cooperation with Van Metropolitan Municipality, Silk Road Municipality, Van Commerce and Industry Chamber and Eastern Anatolia Development Agency, is to ensure that Van is the most important tourism and shopping centre of the region. Particularly because of its location this festival, which holds an important shopping value for tourists coming from the Iranian Islamic Republic to Van province, makes it easier to introduce other tourist attractions of the province (URL-25). As an alternative to Van Shopping Fest other activities held in the city are; International İnci Kefali Migration Culture and Art Fest, Emrah and Selvi Culture Art Fest, Kanispi Honey, Walnut and Nature Fest, Erçek Lake Flamingos Migration Fest and Akdamar Island Religious Ceremony (URL-26).

**RESULT**

The attraction factors that any destination has are very important in terms of the preference of that destination and the competitive advantage over other destinations (Dönmez & Türkmen, 2018). Van, which is located in the Eastern Anatolia Region of Turkey and connected with the Iran Islamic Republic with Kapıköy Border Gate, attracts the attention of both local and foreign tourists in recent years as a rising destination in Turkey with its historical monuments, cultural values and natural beauties. The Van-Tabriz railway line, which halted its operations in 2015 due to terrorist attacks, began operations again in June 2018. Therefore, tourists from Iran via both land route and railway participate in tourism activities in Van (eg. Van Shopping Fest, Nevruz Feast).

Introduction of the tourist resources of Van in foreign exhibitions and more evaluation of alternative tourism opportunities will contribute to the increase of the number of tourists coming to this destination and tourism income. Moreover, steps should be taken to ensure the participation of countries such as Pakistan, Azerbaijan, Iraq, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, India and Tajikistan to Nevruz Feast activities not only Iran. Substructure and superstructure possibilities need to be improved when these steps are taken. For example, it would be useful to increase the capacity of Van Ferit Melen Airport especially in terms of international flights. On the other hand, the number of accommodation facilities, their bed capacity and increasing the quality of service are important in terms of the adequacy and image of
the destination. This case will also create new employment areas and will reduce migration to the big cities in the west of Turkey such as Istanbul, Izmir, Antalya, Ankara.

In Akdamar Church, which is of great importance for Orthodox Armenians and located in Akdamar Island in Van Lake, religious practices that started in 2010 after 95 years should be regularly performed annually once a year. The religious ceremony which 3,500 visitors attended in 2010 is important in terms of faith tourism that is an alternative type. The marketing of Van Breakfast, which is prepared with regional products within the scope of gastronomic tourism which has become popular in recent years, to both local and foreign tourists will provide significant contributions to the number of tourists coming to Van. The fact that negative effects on historical values and sustainability of natural beauties may arise with the increase in the number of tourists coming to Van should be taken into consideration and it should not be forgotten that the attention paid for the conservation-use equilibrium towards these values (Dönmez et al., 2017) is important for sustainable tourism.

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Hizmetleri ve Spor İl Müdürlüğü Gündemi.  
Chapter 40

Common Point of Dark and Gastronomy Tourism: Bocuk Night

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INTRODUCTION

The historical, socio-cultural and economic relations of the people living in the Balkans and Anatolia for centuries have been a very important study for researchers. The cultural relations that these people continue for centuries, especially for folklorists, offer many materials (Sarıtaş & Hacıoğlu, 2017). Traditions and customs of the Balkan and Anatolian people, which have a rich cultural heritage, vary. One of these traditions is the Bocuk Night which is a product as a synthesis of both Balkan and Turkish cultures (Artun, 1993).

Cultural values are very important in promoting countries. One of the sectors that can effectively use promotion is tourism. With the features and resources that tourism possesses, cultural promotions of countries can be done with effective means. Tourism is not only for recreational purposes but also for the purpose of reflecting the characteristics of countries with cultural activities. These cultural events can be supported by examples such as henna nights, Turkish nights, local holidays. Bocuk Night is also one of these cultural events.

It is possible to see the diversity of tourism in Turkey when its resources are examined. Examples of these are gastronomic tourism, which has recently become popular, and sadness tourism that shows the other side of the coin in tourism. Dark tourism is a type of tourism that makes people feel the emotions except pleasure, joy and happiness. Gastronomic tourism is a type of tourism that is formed by the curiosity of people to eat and drink and deals with the lives of the products that come from the land to the table.

The purpose of this study is to examine the old tradition of Childhood Night in terms of both dark and gastronomy tourism. The reason of the study is the international awareness of Bocuk Night and its similar samples and the attractiveness of the tourists. Bocuk Night, especially on the basis of entertaining people by scaring in the dark tourism and on the basis of special day meals in gastronomic tourism were tried to be explained. Semi-structured interview method was applied in the study. Qualitative methods have been applied for the purpose of studying more detailed work in the regions where Bocuk Night takes place and for learning the thoughts of people who have experienced and continued Bocuk Night. At the end of the study, it is revealed that Bocuk Night has a cultural value, it can be appreciated in tourism and it needs to be transferred to future generations.
DARK TOURISM

Dark tourism and dark tourism centers, which are different tourism types in recent years, have an important place both in the literature and in practice (Podoshen et al., 2018). Stone and Sharpley (2008) hold society together with death, which is a dark tourism issue. Foley & Lennon (1996) and Lennon & Foley (1999, 2000); the relationship between tourism attractiveness and death. Since the 1990s, dark tourism topics have started to be examined. The marketing of real or artificial attractions related to death in tourism is called sad tourism (Lennon & Foley, 2009).

All visits to locations subject to historical, tragedy or mystical stories where the concept of death, either individually or indirectly, are influencing or affecting the lives of people at significant times are included in dark tourism (Tarlow, 2005). The use of tourism-related visits to sites of death has attracted the attention of people throughout history (Stone, 2005). In particular, it is possible to see the first examples of this subject from ancient times. In addition, the first examples of sadness tourism are visits to holy sites, visits to centers of natural disasters such as Roman gladiatorial games, medieval public executions, morgue tours, battlefields, Pompeii (Seaton, 2002).

Since the 1990s, the idea of sad tourism, which is a special interest tourism type, has not been reached a consensus. Within the scope of this study, the concept of dark tourism has been treated as dark tourism (Kılıç & Akyurt, 2011).

GASTRONOMY TOURISM

Culinary culture has been a subject that has been ignored until recently in Turkey. Yet, culinary culture has always been the main plot of culture and tradition. In other words, the kitchen is where many identities in society are united and it reflects daily life, religious beliefs, customs and customs, traditions and customs, national feelings and it is the silent witness of history. Countries that attach importance to gastronomic tourism are increasing the marketing possibilities of its local and traditional tourism products. The search for local tastes in touristic destinations and accommodations contributes to the development of gastronomic tourism (Sormaz, 2015). Gastronomic tourism is a type of tourism that is developing in the world today (Deveci et al., 2013).

According to Şengül & Türkay (2016), gastronomic tourism; to recognize the regional culinary culture, to taste local flavor, to see the cultivation and gathering of products belonging to the region, to recognize the local tools and equipment belonging to the kitchen, and to define the restaurants of the famous restaurants as a type of tourism.

When dark and gastronomy tourism is considered, Turkey has an important place in international tourism market due to its natural resources. Quality utilization of the resource diversity possessed and the increase in attractiveness will also provide opportunities to promote traditional rituals. One of these rituals addressing both tourism type is the Bocuk Night.

BOCUK NIGHT

One of the traditional celebrations of the Turkish communities living in the Balkans, such as Hidrellez and Nevruz, Bocuk Night is an important material for folklorists because of their important cultural and functional aspects (Saritaş & Hacıoğlu, 2017).

According to the folk calendar, the year is divided into two: 186 days from May 6
to November 8, and the days of Khidr (Ruz-ı Hızır) are summer; The November day (Ruz-ı Kasım) is called winter season, with 179 days starting with 9 November and lasting until 6 May (Artun, 1993; Sarıtaş & Hacıoğlu, 2017). According to the information obtained from the compilation: The Bocuk Night is celebrated on the 62nd day of the "Ruz-ı Kasım" (millennium 8 January) (Özdarendeli, 2011). As a result of different beliefs, the exact date of this day differs according to the locality. What is certain is that Bocuk Night is celebrated in January (Artun, 1993).

On Bocuk Day, pumpkin is cooked in every house. According to the belief, the Bocuk Woman, did no evil where pumpkin is cooked. In addition to the pumpkin, there is absolutely ‘akitma’ (Crepe). On that special day, family members, neighbors and relatives participate. Pumpkin, akitma (crepe), corn, pear, quince, flax, cotton candy, snow halvah, chickpeas, brussels biscuit, flour halvah etc. are eaten that night. Childhood entertainments are held like traditional meetings. Tales are told, riddles are asked, folklore songs are sung Folk dances with darbuka (traditional hand drum) and tef (tambourine) are performed. The girls make costumes, play theater games. It is believed that an entity called "Bocuk’s wife, Bocuk Mom or Bocuk Papa" walks in human appearance by wearing whites on that night (Artun, 1993).

Bocuk Night is based on the expectation of basic blessing, the protection from evil, the desire to be in peace with nature. All rituals and practices performed at that night are for these purposes. If it is not celebrated, it is believed that animals and products will not be blessed, as fertility in the house will diminish. For this reason, it is arranged in order to be treated well by nature. It is not possible to get out of the house late at night, on that day otherwise Bocuk will be on your back. Towards the end of the night, the young people wear white linen and paint their faces with lime because they think they look like Bocuk. Young people dressed like this try to scare people by hitting the windows of houses, ringing bells and making tinny sounds (Sarıtaş & Hacıoğlu, 2017).

Rituals like Childhood are not unique to just one culture. It is possible to see the same style traditions in different societies with different beliefs and the presence of cultures. Bocuk Night shows similarities with other communities living in the Balkans, with celebrations based on fear. For example, the celebration, also known as the Kuker Day or the Clean Monday or the Law Day, a traditional celebration of the Bulgarians, who are now nominated for a UNESCO World Immigration Heritage on New Year's Eve and Sirni Zavovezni is based on Bulgaria's pagan history. Especially the single men wearing masks, wearing specially prepared costumes called kukers, aim to fire evil spirits with rituals and bring health and fertility to their villagers. This tradition, which has been lived through the ages of the Bulgarians for centuries, has been woven with rituals like Bocuk, and it contains wishes such as evil spirits, health and fertility (Sarıtaş & Hacıoğlu, 2017).

It is also possible to encounter rituals in different cultures, such as Childhood Day. Bocuk Night, like the Day of the Kuker celebrated among the Bulgarians, brings to mind another example of a celebration that still contains elements of fear. The origin is known as Samhain and BC. This is the Celtic Festival of Halloween, a Celtic festival that dates back to the 5th century, with the aim of celebrating the end of the harvest season. It is believed that this day, shown on the calendar dates as October 31, creates a connection between the living and the dead. The most important symbol of Halloween is undoubtedly the carved pumpkins brought by the Irish who immigrated after the 1840s as a result of great hunger on the American continent. During this period, the
Catholics believe that all time and space related laws are abandoned and they wander around by wearing clothes similar to ghosts (Saritaş & Hacıoğlu, 2017).

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

The aim of the research is to examine the Balkan tradition, Bocuk Night, in terms of sad tourism and gastronomic tourism, which are important tourism types. The study is important in terms of evaluating the Bocuk Night as two different types of tourism. Following the detailed literature review on Bocuk Night, appropriate research methods have been determined for the purpose and subject of the research. Because of not having much scientific work, interview method was preferred to get detailed information about Bocuk Night. The universe of the research consists of the local people living in the villages of Sultanıye and Kocahidir and who experienced Bocuk Night. Within the scope of the research method, semi-structured interview method was applied. In this context, a questionnaire was developed that was evaluated by expert opinions and negotiations were held in Sultanıye and Kocahidir villages where Bocuk Night was experienced.

The interview was conducted with 15 local people. Negotiations ranged from 25 to 35 minutes on average. Some expressions are Pomak, and these are translated and included in the scope of the research. Permission for the use of voice recordings has been granted in the order of interviews. Voice recordings were obtained during the data collection period.

**RESULTS**

As a result of the detailed source search, the findings from the interview questions were tabled. The descriptive information of participants is given in Table 1.

When the personal information of participants was examined, it was seen that 14 of the participants were male (26%) and 11 of them were female (74%). Participants who were included in the survey in terms of age ranges were found to have 9 (20%) in the 18-25 age group, 9 (20%) in the 26-40 age group and 9 in the 40 (60%) age group. In this context, it was investigated that the children have knowledge about Bocuk Night in their participants who are known by participants aged 40 years and over but between the ages of 18-25 and 26-40.

Following the descriptive information of participants, the contents of Bocuk Night were examined in terms of dark and gastronomy tourism.

When the answers given by the participants are examined, it is possible to see the basic customs of Bocuk Night. According to the answers of the participants, Bocuk is actually expressed as a kind of illness or a disease resulting in death. The purpose of Bocuk is to frighten the locals by wearing makeup and wearing clothes in certain colors. Although it is usually a ritual known and practiced by the third age group, it has been determined that the young age group has knowledge about Bocuk Night. Halloween is a celebration of pagan origin and is celebrated every year on October 31st. In this holiday, which is accepted by Christians, children a wander in scary clothes. Both rituals are similar in structure.

When dark tourism is examined, it is possible to see that there are many subheadings. These include battlefields, executions, natural disasters, fear-themed parks, horror-themed festivals, prisons, genocides, genocide camps, poverty, and memorials. It is possible to examine Bocuk Night under the heading of dark tourism.
Table 1: Descriptive Information to Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>K1</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K3</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K4</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K5</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K6</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K7</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K8</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K9</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K10</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K11</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K12</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K13</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K14</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K15</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Bocuk Night at Dark Tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thema</th>
<th>Kode</th>
<th>Expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K1:</td>
<td>“Dark make-up is made by using black.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K2,</td>
<td>“We use a lot of black and red colors, we wear scary clothes and go door to door. We scare everybody in the street. This is our witches’ day. Everyone knows if it’s advertised.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K3,</td>
<td>“It has been popular again in recent years, it is very important for us. According to current calendar, it is celebrated on 6th night of January that connects to the 7th.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K4:</td>
<td>“The child is actually a disease, a disease that scares people.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K5:</td>
<td>“We use coal for black paints.” It is on the 60th Night of November, according to the old calendar, and we are convinced that we will escape from the disease.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K6:</td>
<td>“In the past these customs were very beautiful. Koleda the name we gave for Bocuk Night and we had to make a horrible make-up that night.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K7:</td>
<td>“We have many traditions, such as Bocuk, wolf days, rat days, winter snakes, forty feet days, father seagulls, hidrellez. Bocuk is the beginning of these. Christians cook pork, Muslims cook pumpkin. We should make a terrible makeup.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K8,</td>
<td>“In fact, it is a day celebrated by the elderly, but recently it has come to life again. It began to be celebrated in Esas Çamlıca village. It is the night of fear. According to the old belief, it is believed that an entity called “Bocuk” will come and scare them and kill them, and we will prevent them from scaring us by making horrible makeup.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K9:</td>
<td>“Childhood is the day when Christians fasted. We do not do any handcraft or housework that day.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K10:</td>
<td>“These kind of days lead good things. I met my husband on that night.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K11:</td>
<td>“We have different customs that we have for Bocuk Night, like picking up nettles and putting them under the tile, one for mother and one for father. In the morning prayer we look for stinging nettles, whichever is gone wrong it is believed that that member of the family will die early.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1: Colors of Dark Tourism
Directly related to death

Indirectly related to death


It is possible to introduce children's night, ritual tourism potential which is located in fear-based parks as ritual. Because of having national cultural values Turkey is host to many dark tourism destinations. There are dark tourism destinations such as Gelibolu-Çanakkale, Anıtkabir-Ankara, Sarıkamış-Kars, Başkomutan Historical National Park-Afyonkarahisar, Dolmabahçe Palace-Istanbul and Ulucanlar Prison-Ankara (Akyurt Kurnaz, 2013).

When the colors of the sad tourism are examined, it is seen that the light-colored dark tourism centers are the subject of fear and entertainment. From this point of view, it is possible to state that the traditional ritual, Bocuk, is a charm element of dark tourism, which is evaluated in this frame.

Table 3: Bocuk Night at Gastronomy Tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thema</th>
<th>Kode</th>
<th>Expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gastronomy Tourism</td>
<td>K1, K2, K4, K6: “Pumpkin dessert is cooked and served to the scared people.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bocuk Night’s Dinners</td>
<td>K7:</td>
<td>“Pumpkin sweetness protects us from illnesses, refreshes our faith, we believe we will get rid of the diseases.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K8, K12, K14, K15: “We boil dry corn and pumpkin dessert.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K9, K10:</td>
<td>“We prepare cauldrons of pumpkin dessert. Akıtma (crepes) are prepared.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K13:</td>
<td>“On the day of the fasting of the Christians, we boil and distribute pumpkin in order to be away from the odour. We enrich our table with various nuts.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When we examined the special meals of Bocuk Night, it was seen that the pumpkin dessert and the boiled dry corn are the main elements. According to the answers obtained, it was investigated that the pumpkin dessert made for tonight was made with different purposes. This dessert is made to protect from diseases, to refresh faith, to give it to scared people. Much of the pumpkin dessert is distributed to the scared people and Bocuk Night ritual is carried out. In addition to the pumpkin dessert, boiled dry corn has been reported. The pumpkin carvings, which are the Halloween tradition, took place as a pumpkin dessert on Bocuk Day. In this respect, the two rituals carried out in different geographies basically apply the same concepts.

CONCLUSIONS

The richness of cultural values directly affects tourism diversity. The diversity of tourism is shaped by the expectations of tourists. The changes that took place in the expectations of the tourists revealed different kinds of tourism. Turkey has a variety of resources in terms of tourism and gastronomy tourism sadness of this particular kind of special interest tourism.

Bocuk, the main subject of the study, which is indicative of the cultural wealth of examples of rituals in Turkey. Bocuk Night, coming from various beliefs, is the hardest time in winter. Different ceremonies, celebrations and meals are made at that night. Child's Day is a remnant of the Middle Ages. Pumpkin is absolutely cooked in every
house. On Bocuk Night, besides the pumpkin sweet, pancakes, boiled corn in the snow water, pears, quince, seeds, almonds, cooked ground nuts in coasters, walnuts are eaten. According to traditional belief, 'Bocuk' can not come to the place and can not do evil where the pumpkin is cooked. In addition to this, there is absolutely akıtma (crepes).

At night, family members, neighbors and relatives participate. The young people scare their neighbors by saying 'Bocuk is coming' and by covering the sheets and painting their faces with horrible make-up. It is believed that an entity called 'Bocuk' at the present time is visiting people in white. It is believed that the people in that house will be healthy, hand strong during that year if a piece of wood thrown in the water is frozen in the morning (Sarıtaş and Hacıoğlu, 2017; Artun, 2013).

The plot of the study is the Bocuk Night. The aim of the study is to determine the attractiveness of Bocuk Night in terms of dark and gastronomic tourism. In the study, the evaluation of Bocuk Night was made in terms of tourism diversity. From the point of dark tourism and gastronomic tourism, which are special interest tourism types, Bocuk Night is examined. Semi-structured interview method was used in research application. Negotiations were held with 15 local people. The reason for using the semi-structured interview method is the desire to get more detailed information about Bocuk Night.

The interviews with the participants were recorded and examined. The determined questions were created by searching the related literature clearly and the information obtained was transferred as a table. The results showed that Bocuk Night is linked to two types of tourism. Especially when international examples are taken into consideration, it is seen that the rituals of Bocuk Night and Halloween are similar. In addition, in terms of Dark tourism, Bocuk Night is indirectly related to death and fear. From this point of view, it can be considered as a charm element in the scope of Dark tourism. In terms of gastronomic tourism, there are various special day meals of rituals. Special meals are prepared and served on that day. In terms of both gastronomy and dark tourism, Bocuk Night creates an important tourism attraction.

When it is examined with tourism potential and no such studies existence increases the importance of this work. However, the lack of publicity about Bocuk Night which is the subject of research, affects the awareness of this cultural value negatively. By creating necessary tourism promotions, Bocuk can be marketed as tourism attraction and can raise the awareness of the less known cultural values. By using different research methods in terms of future studies, it is possible to increase the attractiveness of the child's day as a tourism product. It will also be possible to acquire a place in the tourism market by associating different and less well known cultural rituals with related tourism types.

REFERENCES


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Chapter 41

The Investigation of the Curricula of the Institutions That Offer Undergraduate Level Tourism Education in Turkey

Ediz GÜRİPEK

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism sector is becoming increasingly important day by day all over the world. It is stated that the direct economic effect of the tourism sector in 2011 is $2 trillion and its indirect effect is $6.32 trillion. 10% of businesses operating in Turkey are in tourism sector. While the number of employees working directly in the tourism sector is about 100 million in the world, it is 1.2 million in Turkey. The rate of employees working in the tourism sector with insurance is 8.7% in the world and it is 6.7% in Turkey (URL1; URL2).

In the face of such a development, the need for the workforce in the tourism sector is increasing at the same rate. Therewithal the need for tourism education institutions is also becoming important. In Turkey, education institutions established to train qualified workforce for the sector or to bring sector qualified managers are known to be vocational high schools, associate degree, undergraduate or graduate level institutions.

Approximately 4 million students study at graduate level in higher education in Turkey. Among nearly 35,000 students studying at state universities while 21,000 of them study tourism in 34 institutions operating under the name of faculty, 14,000 of them study tourism in 14 institutions operating under the name of college. Among a total of 792 faculty members working in public universities to provide tourism education, 436 of them are assistant professors and 356 of them are instructors, research assistants, lecturers and experts (URL3). The education programs of vocational high schools are prepared by the Ministry of National Education. In higher education, the curriculums of tourism education institutions are determined by the Higher Education Council (YÖK). However, in institutions affiliated with higher education, while the curriculums are prepared the courses that the institution desires can be added. This can cause differences between similar institutions such as faculties or colleges in terms of the curriculum.

The main aim of the tourism education institutions is to prepare the qualified workforce which is of need of the sector (Hacıoğlu et al. 2008). In this phase, the share of education institutions and teaching staff in these institutions is important. However, aforementioned institutions are obliged to prepare curriculum according to the subjects that the instructors, who are regarded as the human resources, have a full knowledge of and according to their level of knowledge and/or discipline. The quality of the education given therefore the quality of the tourism courses is important in the stages of preparing qualified workforce. In this context, it is thought that it is necessary to follow a similar path and settle the standardization between the institutions by eliminating the differences in the course qualities of institutions providing tourism education. Thus the
The aim of this study is to reveal the similarities and differences between the curricula of 48 institutions offering tourism education undergraduate level in Turkey statistically.

It is possible to find many different studies in the related literature on tourism education institutions, the students receiving education and the educators teaching at these institutions. However, it is remarkable that there are only a limited number of studies on course contents of these tourism education institutions. Some of these studies are as follows. Avcıkurt & Karaman (2002) compared the curriculum in the tourism schools at undergraduate level and found that there is a difference between their curricula. Gürbüz & Dağdeviren (2007) analyzed the course content of institutions providing tourism education at undergraduate level and found that their curricula are significantly different from each other. Baykal & Şahin (2015) conducted a content analysis of the curricula of the Vocational High Schools and found that the COURSES common to all schools were courses with basic hotel and agency knowledge. Süklüm (2017) examined the curricula of the Vocational Schools, which provide tourism education, in terms of accounting courses and found that some of these schools did not have any accounting courses at all and some of them did not have courses at the adequate level.

Considering the studies that can be found in the related literature, it is seen that there are differences in course content between institutions and units at undergraduate and/or undergraduate levels. From this point of view, this study is important in order to see and analyze the difference between the last statistics of the state universities giving tourism education at the undergraduate level and the COURSEs, or in which branches the differences arise.

**MATERIAL AND METHOD**

The aim of this study is to evaluate the curricula of the tourism education institutions providing tourism education at undergraduate level at state universities in Turkey by using content analysis that is one of the qualitative research methods. Content analysis is a quantitative technique which is used to characterize and compare the documents, casting or records of interviews objectively (Altunışık et al. 2010). The study was conducted using the appropriate survey model for research purposes. The survey model observes and identifies an existing state without changing it. The survey model can be created and interpreted by integrating data obtained from records systematically (Karasar, 2014).

The research universe of the study is constituted of 48 faculties or colleges that are other than private universities and that have active programs. Complete inventory is used as a sampling method in the study and secondary data sources are made use of such as curricula and the courses on the curricula on the websites of the related schools (only tourism management departments or if this department is not available, accommodation management departments have been taken into consideration) which offer tourism education under the title of tourism management or similar names.

Obtained data is tested using package program. Firstly, the frequencies of the courses are given. Then the courses are divided into 11 main groups as humanities, vocational, economy, accounting-finance, management, marketing, computer and automation programs, food and beverage, general culture and ability, foreign language and law/legislation. After the courses names are determined, they are grouped by three assistant professors in the tourism education field. In this way, which group courses are
in these educational institutions is tried to be determined.

**FINDINGS**

In this study, the courses in the education curricula of the tourism education institutions at the undergraduate level in the state universities are examined by making conceptual analysis separately and categorizing them.

In Tables 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 the group of courses and the frequency values of the courses obtained in the study are presented.

**Table 1: Frequency Distributions Based on Courses (Vocational/Tourism Profession)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUP</th>
<th>COURSE/COURSE</th>
<th>VALID</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENT</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE PERCENT</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Alternative Tourism</td>
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<td>34</td>
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<td>70,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>29,2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Special Interest Tourism</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>47,9</td>
<td>47,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>52,1</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
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<td>100,0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marine Tourism</td>
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<td>36</td>
<td>75,0</td>
<td>75,0</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25,0</td>
<td>100,0</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Culture Tourism and Cultural Heritage</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>66,7</td>
<td>66,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>33,3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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On Table 1 there are introduction to tourism course with the rate of 100% (n:48), recreation and animation course with 93.8% (n:45), front office management course with 93.8% (n:45), travel agencies and tour operators course with 87.5% (n:42) and hotel management course with 79.2% (n:38) in the vocational course group.
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On table 2 introduction to business course with the rate of 97.9% (n:47), human resources management course with 97.9% (n:47) and entrepreneurship course with 93.8% (n:45) take place in the business and management group.
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On Table 3 there are tourism marketing course with the rate of 95,8% (n:46) and research methods course with 93,8% (n:45) in the marketing course group.

As it is seen on Table 4, introduction to economics course is the first in the group of economics courses with 97, %9 (n:47). The second one is tourism economics course with the rate of 89,6% (n: 43).

On Table 5 tourism law course has the biggest rate with 95,8% (n:46) in law/legislation group. Use of basic information technology 89,6% (n:43) and hotel automation systems/packet programme 85,4% (n:41) are in the computer technologies group.
### Table 4: Frequency Distributions Based on Courses (Economics)

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### Table 5: Frequency Distributions Based on Courses (Computer Sciences-Law Legislation)

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On Table 6 accounting course with the rate of 100% (n:48) and financial management course with 81,2% (n:39) take place in the programs in the finance and accounting group. On the other hand in the personal development and other group, there are courses related to personal development with the rate of 52,1% (n:25) and first aid with 35,4% (n:17).

**Table 7:** Frequency Distributions Based on Courses (Food & Beverage)

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When the frequencies related to food and beverage group on Table 7, it is seen that there are food and beverage management course with the rate of 89,6% (n:43) and international cuisines course with 60,4% (n: 29).

On Table 8 in the foreign language group, foreign language course is offered in all programs with the rate of 100% (n:48). Vocational foreign language course is not available in 1 programs, in 3 programs it is not offered since the medium of instruction is English. Vocational foreign language course is offered in the other 43 programs (91,7%).
When Tables 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 are examined in detail based on the courses, it is seen that the basic courses generally take place in the programs. However, frequency calculations are grouped in Table 9 in order to examine which courses are given predominantly in the programs. These courses are divided into 11 groups as humanities, economics, foreign language, marketing, business and management, finance and accounting, law/legislation, computer sciences, food and beverages, vocational, personal development/other.

When Table 9 is examined, it is found that vocational courses have the lowest rate with 24,5% and the highest rate with 43,1% in all courses and business and management courses have the lowest rate with 7,6% and the highest rate with 17,5% in all courses. It is determined that the rate of the finance and accounting course is 6,3% the lowest and 16,3% the highest and the rate of marketing courses in all courses is 6,1% the lowest and 15,9% the highest. It is seen that the rate of the computer sciences courses in all courses is 1,9% the lowest and 9,5% the highest and the rate of food and beverage courses is 1,9% the lowest and 15,6% the highest. It is found that the rate of law/legislation courses in all courses is 1,6% the lowest and 8,0% the highest, the rate of economics courses in all courses is 1,8% the lowest and 7,7% the highest. It is resulted that the rate of foreign language courses in all courses is 3,2% the lowest and 6,5% the highest, the rate of humanities courses in all courses is 2,0% the lowest and 4,8% the highest and the rate of personal development/other courses in all courses the curriculum that it takes place is 1,2% the lowest and 6,6 % the highest.

### Table 8: Frequency Distributions Based on Courses (Humanities-Foreign Language)

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<td>97.9</td>
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</table>
PROGRAMME

TOTAL COURSE

HUMANITIES

ECONOMICS

FOREIGN
LANGULAGE

MARKETING

FINANCE AND
ACCOUNTING

LAW/
LEGISLATION

COMPUTER
SCIENCES

FOOD AND
BEVERAGE

PERSONAL
DEVELOPMENT/
OTHER

BUSINESS AND
MANAGEMENT

VOCATIONAL

Table 9: The Number of the Courses Based on Programs and the Rate of the Group
Courses

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41
42
43
44

61
66
60
42
49
58
49
68
51
81
48
57
58
61
68
62
63
70
64
56
49
65
68
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57
63
59
64
59
56
61
55
58
46
59
56
57
81
66
60
53
51

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33,9
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43,1

529


Table 10 is prepared in order to determine how many courses take place in how many courses based on the groups.

**Table 10: The Number of Group Courses Based on Programs**

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<tr>
<td>31 COURSES</td>
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<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
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As it is seen on Table 10, while in 47 programs there are 2 humanities courses, in 1 program a single humanities course takes place. It is seen that 4 economics courses take place as a single course in 5 programs, 2 courses in 31 programs and 3 courses in 11 programs and 4 courses in 1 program. Among 3 foreign language courses, only second foreign language course takes place in 3 programs since the medium of instruction is English, there 2 courses in 1 program and all of the 3 courses take place in 44 programs.

The marketing courses, 12 in total, take place as 3 courses at the least and 10 courses at the most in programs. The finance and accounting courses, 12 in total, take place as 4 courses at the least and 10 courses at the most in programs.

Law/legislation courses, 5 in total take place as 3 courses and over in 60.4% of the programs. On the other hand computer sciences, 5 in total, take place as 3 courses and over in 66.7% of the programs. It is remarkable that food and beverage courses, 11 in total, take place as 4 courses and over in 68.8% of the programs. There are personal development courses in 22.9% of the programs, in 41.7% it takes place as a single course. Business and management, 15 in total, take place as 7 courses and over in 68.8% of the programs.
Vocational courses, 45 in total, take place as 20 courses and over in 52.1% of the programs. There are at least 12 and at most 31 vocational courses in the programs.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

When the obtained findings are examined in general, it is seen that there are foreign language courses in all programs, computer sciences courses are generally offered, there are introduction to economics and tourism economics courses in 89.6% of the programs, there are marketing courses as at least 5 courses in 68.7% of the programs, there are food and beverage courses as at least 4 courses and over in 68.8% of the programs. There is tourism law/legislation course in 46 programs. However, in other 2 programs tourism law course is not available, there are legislation courses under the name of basic law and social security and business law in all programs.

Vocational courses take place in majority of the programs (72.9%) with rate of at least 30%. In the other programs (27.1%), there are vocational courses with the rate of at least 24.5% and the number of business management, finance and accounting and marketing courses is increasing in these programs.

In addition, although it is not included in the scope of the study, one of the main problems determined is discrimination between the must and elective courses and the differences between the hours of the courses. It is known that there are significant difficulties in these institutions especially in case of undergraduate transfer and in course exemptions of students completing undergraduate degree by taking external transfer exam. For this reason, it is recommended to compare the times and contents of courses in future studies.

The most essential and general programs in the institutions providing tourism education at undergraduate level are under the names of tourism management, tourism management and hospitality or hospitality management. The fact that there are still differences between these programs is a crucial problem. It is suggested that in order to eliminate these differences between the programs, an authorised institution like YÖK should constitute a pool of optional courses by determining basic must courses and determine what percentage of the courses from which group of courses might be chosen by grouping the courses in these pool.

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Chapter 42

Quantitative Analysis of Undergraduate and Graduate Level Tourism Education in Turkey

Emin ARSLAN

Assist. Prof. Dr., Tokat Gaziosmanpaşa University, Zile Dinçerler Tourism and Hotel Management Vocational School, Tourism and Hotel Management Department, Tokat, Turkey

INTRODUCTION

Tourism education is considered within the scope of vocational training around the world. One of the most important findings obtained when talking about the structure and problems of tourism education in general indicates that staff that is qualified enough and sufficient in number for the tourism sector cannot be trained and existing tourism education institutions have difficulty in meeting this need (Christou, 1999; Eber, 2003; Maclaurin, 2005; Zhang and Fan, 2005; Lo, 2005; Hind, 2006; Leslie and Russel, 2006; Lin, 2006; Mayaka and Akama, 2007). According to countries, for example in the USA, tourism education is given with courses offering pre-university private vocational training and certifications. Later on tourism education is offered in undergraduate and after that graduate level. In Germany, on the other hand, tourism education in secondary education is given in the form of vocational schools and apprenticeship training. After this training, 2-3 years career education is given and specialization is provided in the profession. Those who have the required proficiency can then continue their university education. Tourism education in France is provided through in-service training or 2-year certificate programs. Secondary tourism education is offered through hospitality vocational high schools. Later, those who meet the appropriate conditions can study tourism at the undergraduate, master and doctorate level. Tourism education in the UK is similar to the one in France. There is a structure in the form of primary, secondary and higher tourism education. In Italy, tourism education is received both in state and private schools. After the education that lasts nearly three years, those who meet the requirements continue to their university education. In Italy, university level tourism education mostly aims to train managers for the tourism sector. There is also a triple structure in the Spanish system. In Spain, tourism education is given in primary, secondary and higher education level (Boylu, 2004:20-104).

The issue of tourism education is also important for Turkey and it brings about a hot debate on the structure and problems of tourism education in the country (Demirkol, 2002; Ünlüönen and Boylu, 2005; Okumuş and Yağcı, 2005; Avcı and Boylu, 2006; Kültür ve Turizm Bakanlığı, 2007; Olcay, 2008).

In Turkey the current education system’s not being sufficiently sensitive to the demands of the business life, it’s not being able to meet the needs of the business life in the expected pace and diversity are the most important factors that reduce the effectiveness of the education. The fact that vocational training does not raise the labor force in quality and quantity in accordance with the demands of the labor market and
the validity of the certifications provided at the end of the training is not based on satisfactory measures (Demirezen, 2002) are also among the main problems which need to be solved. That fact that tourism education in Turkey have a respectable place in general education system (Ünlüönen and Boylu, 2009:956), also makes it necessary to undergo a multi-faceted evaluation. Accordingly, this study mentions the quantitative analysis of undergraduate and graduate level tourism education in Turkey.

UNDERGRADUATE LEVEL TOURISM EDUCATION IN TURKEY

Tourism education at university level started to be given first at Ankara Commerce and Tourism Teacher Training Higher School which was established with the addition of the tourism department to the Ankara Commerce Teacher Higher School from 1965-66 academic year. Starting from this date, departments offering tourism education at undergraduate level were established in Ege University in 1969, Bursa Economic and Commercial Sciences Academy in 1975, Adana Academy of Economics and Commercial Sciences in 1980 and Erciyes University in 1982 and in time, their number has increased and their names have changed and they have given thousands of graduates. In Turkey, Faculties of Tourism were established with council of ministers' decision in the date of 13.11.2009 (URL-7).

Undergraduate education is a kind of higher education that covers at least eight semesters and four years and this type of education aims to train beginner level managers in the tourism sector (Pauze, 1993). Institutions offering tourism education at undergraduate level in Turkey have been established over many years and have gone through several stages. The undergraduate level tourism education process starting with the Trade and Tourism Teacher Higher School is now continuing with the Faculty of Tourism. There are also tourism colleges offering undergraduate education. Table 1 shows the number of higher education institutions providing tourism education at undergraduate level as of 2016-2017 academic year. According to this, there are a total of 63 higher education institutions providing tourism education at the undergraduate level, 59 states and 4 private.

Table 1: The Number of Higher Education Institutions Providing Tourism Education at Undergraduate Level as of 2016-2017 Academic Year (Source: URL-8)

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Higher Education Institutions</th>
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</tr>
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</tr>
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<td><strong>63</strong></td>
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</table>

The fact that many new universities have been opening in Turkey since 1992 and they continue to open has led to a virtual explosion in the number of undergraduate tourism programs. It is seen in Table 2 that there is a steady increase in the number of students receiving tourism education at the undergraduate level over the years. While the number of students receiving tourism education at undergraduate level in 1983-1984 academic year was 1,879, this figure increased by 44 times in the following 33 years and increased to 82,884 in 2016-2017 academic year.
Table 2: Number of Students Receiving Undergraduate Level Tourism Education by Year and Number of Graduates among Students Receiving Tourism Education at the End of Academic Year

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>New Student</th>
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<td>2015-2016</td>
<td>16.244</td>
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<td>2016-2017</td>
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<td>82.884</td>
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Source: Ünlüönen and Boylu, (2009:964); (URL-2;URL-3;URL-4;URL-5;URL-8).

In parallel to this, the number of graduates of tourism undergraduate program which was 269 at the end of 1982-1983 academic year reached 6.657 at the end of 2015-2016 academic year and the total number of graduates was 50.127 in 33 years. Table 3 shows the distribution of academic staff according to their academic titles in higher education institutions providing tourism education at undergraduate level.
Accordingly, 808 faculty members are working in education institutions offering tourism at the undergraduate level. As of 2016-2017 academic year, there are 82,884 students in institutions providing tourism education at the undergraduate level, therefore into these institutions there about 102 students per faculty member fall.

Table 3: The Distribution of Academic Staff in Higher Education Institutions Providing Tourism Education at Undergraduate Level According to Their Academic Titles by Academic Years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
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<th>Assoc. Professor</th>
<th>Assist. Professor</th>
<th>Lecturer</th>
<th>Research Assistant</th>
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<td>1986-1987</td>
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<td>1987-1988</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>1991-1992</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>1992-1993</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>61</td>
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<td>1993-1994</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<td>67</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>2005-2006</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>113</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>18</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>108</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007-2008</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008-2009</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>147</td>
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<tr>
<td>2009-2010</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>139</td>
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<td>2010-2011</td>
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<td>146</td>
<td>142</td>
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<td>121</td>
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<tr>
<td>2013-2014</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>217</td>
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<tr>
<td>2014-2015</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015-2016</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>831</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016-2017</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>808</td>
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</table>

Source: Ünlüönen and Boylu, (2009:965); (URL-2;URL-3;URL-4;URL-5;URL-8).

GRADUATE LEVEL TOURISM EDUCATION IN TURKEY

The aim of the tourism education given at the graduate level is to educate managers and researchers who can solve the complex social, economical and technical problems of modern tourism and who have abstraction, synthesis and decision making ability by evaluating the effectiveness of different factors (Olali, 1984: 206).

Olsen and Khan (1989) deal with the main aim of graduate level tourism education
in two stages: graduate and doctorate. There are two general aims of graduate level tourism education. The first of them is to make students pursue a career and the second is to educate middle and senior managers, educators, consultants and researchers in the tourism sector. The main aim of the doctorate level tourism education is to do academic research related to tourism as a discipline, solve problems and develop teaching-communication skills. As of 2017 in Turkey, the number of graduate programs in the field of tourism is 118. 97 of these programs offer education at master’s degree and 21 of them offer tourism education at doctorate level (YÖK, 2017).

The number of students who have received tourism education at the graduate level and the students who have received degrees from these programs since 1982-1983 academic year, are shown in Table 4. Whereas in the 1982-1983 academic year, there were only 41 students in the graduate program; in the 2016-2017 academic year there are 3717 students studying in the field of tourism in total, including 3195 graduate students and 522 doctoral students. While only 1 student received a graduate degree at the end of the 1982-1983 academic year; at the end of 2015-2016 academic year, a total of 244 graduate students received graduate degrees, 209 of which were graduate students and 45 were doctoral degrees.

Table 4: The Number of Students Receiving Tourism Education at Graduate Level and Receiving Degrees in These Programs as of Academic Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Continuing Graduate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982-1983</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983-1984</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984-1985</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-1986</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986-1987</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987-1988</td>
<td>144</td>
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<tr>
<td>1988-1989</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989-1990</td>
<td>184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990-1991</td>
<td>195</td>
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<tr>
<td>1991-1992</td>
<td>251</td>
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<tr>
<td>1993-1994</td>
<td>278</td>
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<tr>
<td>1994-1995</td>
<td>295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995-1996</td>
<td>307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996-1997</td>
<td>329</td>
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<tr>
<td>1997-1998</td>
<td>338</td>
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<tr>
<td>1998-1999</td>
<td>359</td>
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<tr>
<td>1999-2000</td>
<td>371</td>
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<tr>
<td>2000-2001</td>
<td>229</td>
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<tr>
<td>2001-2002</td>
<td>306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002-2003</td>
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<tr>
<td>2003-2004</td>
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<td>2004-2005</td>
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<tr>
<td>2005-2006</td>
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<tr>
<td>2006-2007</td>
<td>356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007-2008</td>
<td>274</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### EVALUATION AND CONCLUSION

In order to establish an education system which is sensitive to the needs of the labour market or to develop the current system accordingly; it is crucial that information on education and employment be compiled in a continuous and reliable manner. The accurate and reliable data is of great importance in determining the plans and strategies for the labour market and human resources. Otherwise, the degree of hit and implementation of the prepared plans and strategies will be limited (AEV, 2002).

The main aim of vocational training is to train the qualified workforce needed by the labour market. The qualified workforce is crucial in terms of the development of the countries and the emergence of better quality products or services. Qualified workforce is an irrevocable question for the tourism sector as well as it is for all sectors. In Turkey, the representatives of the tourism sectors particularly complain about not being able to find qualified staff. According to a survey on university students studying tourism in 2016, only 24% of the students plan to work in the sector after graduation (Güllü et al. 2016, 575). Working conditions in the sector, lack of pay and the length of working hours can be shown as factors causing qualified staff move away from the sector (URL-1).

Considering the fact that tourism education and training activities in Turkey are carried out as formal and non-formal education and formal tourism education is also carried out at secondary, associate, undergraduate and graduate levels; it is noteworthy that there is a problem such as many tourism operators complain about their not being able to find qualified staff (Ünlüönen and Boylu, 2009: 969).

The important issues related to tourism education at undergraduate level in Turkey are as follows:

It is noteworthy that there has been a significant increase in the number of students receiving tourism education at the undergraduate and graduate level. It is thought that the number of people receiving tourism education will reach a saturation in the following years because according to the 2017 Student Selection Placement Results, the quotas of higher education institutions providing tourism education especially at the undergraduate level are not fully filled (URL-6).

At the undergraduate level, the number of students per faculty member is around 102. In 2013 it was found that this number is 49 (Boylu and Arslan, 2014:90). According to this, it can be said that the number of faculty member in four years period does not reach to the increase rate of the number of students and therefore it can be said

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Continuing</th>
<th>Graduate</th>
<th>Doktoral</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Graduated</th>
<th>Graduate</th>
<th>Doktoral</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>327</td>
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<td>450</td>
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<td>2009-2010</td>
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<td>468</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>643</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>25</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010-2011</td>
<td></td>
<td>514</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>682</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>24</td>
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<td>2011-2012</td>
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<td>986</td>
<td>119</td>
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<td>1264</td>
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<td>2013-2014</td>
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<td>1547</td>
<td>100</td>
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<tr>
<td>2014-2015</td>
<td></td>
<td>1926</td>
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<td>2396</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>2015-2016</td>
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<td>2849</td>
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<td>45</td>
<td>254</td>
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</tr>
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<td>2016-2017</td>
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<td>2673</td>
<td>522</td>
<td>3195</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Ünlüönen and Boylu, (2009:968); (URL-2;URL-3;URL-4;URL-5;URL-8).*
that there is a need for faculty member in tourism education at undergraduate level.

The average number of students per faculty member is 15.8 in 2008 OECD countries. In 2011, Turkey's average is 18.86 (Günay and Günay, 2011: 16). Tourism field is far behind general average in Turkey as well as the OECD in terms of the number of students per faculty member.

When the graduate education is examined, it is seen that the number of the students is increasing much faster than the ones who have received a degree. Over the last 10 years, the number of graduate students has increased 8.3 times, while the number of graduate students has increased 3.9 times.

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INTRODUCTION

No matter Turkey has made progress recently, it is still seen as "a developing country" when compared to the western countries. The main reason of this difference is that it was too late for the investments in the industry and technology (Ökmen, 2001). It is needed to accelerate the economic growth and provide industrialization in order for the developing countries to reach the developed country status. The solution for attaining the mentioned development comes by getting technology and technological knowledge. Most of the developing countries depend on cross-border sources in technology and they need huge amounts of exchange in order to buy what they are in need. The solution of augmenting the exchange domestically comes up with exportation and tourism sectors (Ersungur & Yalman, 2009).

In 2017, national income rate of Turkey increased %18,9 compared to the previous year and it was 26 billion 283 million and 656 thousands in total. The %77,4 of it was gained from the foreign tourists (TUİK, 2018). Turkey has made a big inflow of foreign currency amounting 20 billions 343 million and 550 thousand Turkish Liras in 2017. The tourism income of Turkey bases on the "mass tourism" or in other words sea-sand-sun tourism which is called as "traditional tourism". At the present time, the studies are carried on to improve the mass tourism in order to make use of it entirely (Kültür ve Turizm Bakanlığı, 2007).

Mass tourism can be considered as an instrument to increase the tourism revenues. Nevertheless, there are many attractive natural and historical regions except the seashores in Turkey which is a wide-spreading country. The use of alternative tourism sources in the cities which are famous for their natural, historical and cultural features would attract the special interest tourists to Turkey in addition to the mass tourism. The introduction and improvement of touristically attractive features belonging to Sivas which has a wide range in scope of special interest tourism form the basis of this research.

GENERAL INFORMATION ABOUT SİVAS

Sivas is among the important cities of Turkey with its historical and cultural values, acreage, underground sources, natural properties, geographical location, and geological structures (Ayaz, 2013). Sivas, being the second largest city of Turkey in its acreage, lies within 38°-29’ and 40°-29’ North Latitudes and 35°-17’ and 38°-28’ East Longitudes. The largest part of Sivas territory takes place in Kızılırmak River Basin, and the other parts take place in Yeşilırmak and Fırat River Basins. Continental climate in Kızılırmak Basin, Black Sea climate in Yeşilırmak Basin and East Anatolian continental climate in Fırat Basin are dominant in the province (Orman ve Su İşleri
Sivas, the coldest city of Central Anatolia Region, has freezing cold days in winter and the mean temperature is 0° during the winter whereas it is generally 19° during the summer (Sivas Valiliği, 2018a).

North Anatolian Mountain Chains are the most significant mountains in Sivas. (Sivas Valiliği, 2018a). There are many lakes which have various width and depth and also Tödürge Lake, Hafik Lake, Gökpınar Lake and Ulaş Lake which have touristical importance nationally and internationally are situated in Sivas (Orman ve Su İşleri Bakanlığı, 2013). Sivas which has lands within the A6,A7,B6 and B7 regions on the Turkish Phytogeographical Regions Map and which is a juncture point of European-Siberian, Iranian- Turan phytogeographical regions and Anatolian Diagonal is the home to different vegetation covers. And Kızılırmak which is the longest river of Turkey rises as 3 affluents from the southern slope of Kızıldağ that takes place within the city borders and afterwards these 3 affluents come together and takes the name “Kızılırmak” (Orman ve Su İşleri Bakanlığı, 2016). These environmental features that Sivas has are thought to pave the way to improve the nature-based tourism in Sivas.

![Figure 1: Turkish Phytogeographical Regions Map and The Location of Sivas](Source: (Bayraklı, 2014; Wikipedia, 2018)

When it is examined historically, having located by the Kızılırmak riverside, the city is on the significant trade roads. Being a settlement area since the prehistoric ages, Sivas has some findings which are from Neolithic Ages (B.C. 8000- 5500). The Chalcolithic Period and the Early Bronze Age settlements’ existence is definite owing to the archeological findings. In addition to this, the data having been attained from the Maltepe Tumulus show that the region had been used uninterruptedly as a residential area from 2600 B.C. to 2000 B.C. (Sivas Valiliği, 2018a). Sivas which has been an important city of Hittities, Meds, Persians, Romans, Armenians, Byzantines, Danishmends, Seljukians, Ottomans and Turkish Republic, (Ünal, 1997, p. 2) has had different names throughout the history. These names are Sebaste, Sipas, Megalopolis, Kabira, Diaspolis (City of God), Talaur, City of Danishmend, the State of Greeks, the State of Sivas and Sivas (Sivas Valiliği, 2018a).

The city which hosted the Sivas Congress that the great leader Ghazi Mustafa Kemal Atatürk said that "We laid the foundation of republic here." has also a historical importance for the Republic of Turkey (Orman ve Su İşleri Bakanlığı, 2016). The city which has significant cultural values because of its historical background, hosts both tangible and intangible cultural elements also (Sivas Valiliği, 2009).

The elements shaping the economical structure and the population are the climate,
vegetation cover, soil characteristics and the geographical location. During the times that trade roads were so important, the city receiving migration from the cities around and more from the different countries grew and got various cultural values. The city being a juncture point in terms of transportation routes (Akbulut, 2009) has both highway and also railway networks connecting the east to west and the south to north.

2. THE SPECIAL INTEREST TOURISM POTENTIAL IN SİVAS

Sivas which has been one of the residential areas since the Neolithic ages is located on the ancient Silk Road (Günel, 2010) and the Royal Road (Alaeddinoğlu, 2008). Sivas has hosted different civilizations from past to present and it has a potential to be put to good use of both its rich geography and cultural values in terms of tourism. Sivas is out of reach of mass tourism activities because of the location it has. However, the city is considered to be quite rich regarding the special interest tourism types. Opened in recent years, Yıldız Mount Ski Center both brings the tourism potential out and also supports the city richen economically and socially. Besides, the hot springs and thermal cure centers serving for the travellers in search of health support the tourism in Sivas. The city being rich in cultural heritage widens the range of tourism by the presence of both tangible and intangible heritages. So, many activities in scope of adventure tourism partaking within special interest tourism types are held in the city.

![Figure 2: The Number of the Tourists Coming to Sivas](source: Kültür ve Turizm Bakanlığı İstatistikleri, 2018)

In Sivas which contends with the competitors regarding tourism revenues and the potential to attract tourists, 741,985 tourists were hosted in 2016. The percentage in welcoming tourists in the city increased % 269 compared to 2012. It is considered that the tourism activities which play an active role in overcoming the regional differences which is one of the social and economical development instruments are quite important for the city's improvement. Nature and culture based tourism acts are found marketable (Alaeddinoğlu, 2008).
When examined the number of the tourists visiting the city, it is seen that Sivas is the 4th most visited city of Central Anatolian Region and that 153,194 of the tourists coming stayed at the tourism operation licensed facilities and 588,791 of them accommodated at the municipal licensed establishments in 2016. In the city center, there are 23 hotels totally and 9 of these have operation license but 14 hotels are in service with the municipal operation license (Sivas Kültür ve Turizm il Müdürlüğü, 2018).

**Figure 3:** The Number of Tourists Visiting Central Anatolian Cities

*Source:* Kültür ve Turizm Bakanlığı İstatistikleri, 2018

**Figure 4:** Special Interest Tourism Types in Sivas

The tourists participating the special interest tourism activities show different characteristics from the mass tourists because the aims and the motivations of the special interest tourists are also different from the traditional tourists (Tanrısevdi, 2003: 13). The tendency to the special interest tourism based products is increasing day by day. Thus, the special interest tourism is getting more and more important for the underdeveloped and developing places (Köroğlu, Köroğlu, & Alper, 2012).

Touristic activities related with nature based special interest are carried out in the
city with its high mountains, hills, vegetation covers belonging to different phytogeographical regions, wetlands important nationally and internationally, caves, rivers and various faunas stemming from the features mentioned. Furthermore, Sivas which is quite rich with its cultural values coming from the past has a wide range of products appraised as special interest tourism.

2.1. Cultural Tourism in Sivas

Culture tourism which is included among the special interest tourism is defined as “The movement of persons to cultural attractions away from their normal place of residence, with the intention to gather new information and experiences to satisfy their cultural needs” (conceptual definition) and “All movements of persons to specific cultural attractions, such as heritage sites, artistic and cultural manifestations, arts and drama outside their normal place of residence” (technical definition) (Richards, 1996).

Culture tourism embraces a long historical period compared to the general tourism acts, and it forms the %37 of global tourism movements. It is estimated to grow %15 every year but these data were attained from the theoretical studies (Richards, 2016). Culture tourism consists of cultural activities and several destinations different from each other in general. For example, the sites included in the UNESCO World Heritage List (Divriği Ulu Mosque and its Darüşşifa, Nemrut Mount., etc.), ancient cities, architectural works, cathedrals, battle fields, museum visits, travels to taste the typical local dishes, ethnic district tours, local music festivals, villages, and all the trips to different cultural zones are considered under the term “Culture Tourism” (Adams, 2008).

Minstrelsy tradition is the Anatolian reflection of the Central Asian minstrel and qopuz culture (Yüçetoker & Bahar, 2015). Sivas is one of the leading locations in respect of minstrelsy. It seems so that Sivas passed into literature as “minstrels land”. Approximately 800 minstrels have been identified in Sivas. The pacesetters of minstrelsy in Sivas are Kul Hüseyin, Pir Ali, Pir Gaib Abdal, Pir Sultan Abdal and Samut in 16th century. Budala, Hüseyin Abdal, Ismail, Karaoğlu, Kul Mustafa, Senem are 17th century minstrels. When we have a look at the 18th century, we meet Ali Nebi, Hayrani, Kul Mehmet, Öksüz and Sefil Öksüz. And globally known Aşık Veysel is the first name of the list of minstrels in 20th century. The most significant names among these are Pir Sultan, Karacaoğlan and Aşık Veysel whose effects on the society would continue for centuries (Kaya, 2008).

At present, there is a “minstrels' café” being a meeting point that keeps the minstrelsy tradition going on across the Merkez Meydan Mosque in Sivas. The famous minstrels and the young ones who want to be minstrels sometime in the future tell their poems in a master-apprentice relationship (Karaarslan, 2006). Additionally, the minstrelsy tradition was taken to the list of Intangible Cultural Heritage Representative List of UNESCO on 28th September 2009 in Abu Dhabi and was decided to take under protection (Sivas Valiliği, 2009).

Thermals also are molimino for Sivas when considered in terms of special interest tourism. There are 3 thermal springs having distinctive specialties in Sivas as Cold, Hot and Thermal Fish Springs. The foremost one of them is the Thermal Fish Spring which is in Sivas Province, Kangal town, and is a very important destination in thermal tourism or health tourism both for the region and for Turkey. The main characteristic of the thermal water which is around 36-37° temperature is the selenium...
mineral that is one of its contents (Duman & Şahan 2014) and two types of the Cyprinide fish family that the local people call as “The Doctor Fish” live in this hot water (Balıklı Kaplıca, 2018). Cyprinion Macrostamus and Garra Rufa fish combine with the characteristics of the thermal water and this combination makes the Thermal there the only known therapy center for psoriasis (Özçelik et al., 2000). Grassberger and Hoch named this type of therapy as "Ichthyotherapy - Fish Therapy" first in literature (Grassberger & Hoch 2006).

Sivas is one of the most significant cities in Turkey with its tangible and intangible cultural values in terms of culture tourism. For example Festivals play a fundamental role at the point of the city’s becoming a center of attraction, creating an image of city and Exchange yield (Tayfun & Arslan, 2013). The cultural values which Sivas has (Sivas Valiliği, 2018) listed below:

Table 1: Cultural Tourism Types in Sivas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Historical Artifacts</th>
<th>Archeological Artifacts</th>
<th>Ancient Religious Attractions</th>
<th>Museums</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Şifaiye Madrasah</td>
<td>Ağıl Kaya Mound</td>
<td>Divriği Ulu Mosque and Darüşşafası Ulu Mosque Abdulvahap Ghazi Türbesi Şeyh Hasan Bey Kümbeti Ahı Emir Ahmed Türbesi</td>
<td>Atatürk Ethnography and Congress Museum Sivas Archeology Museum Aşık Veysel Museum İnönü Museum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buruciye Madrasah</td>
<td>Ahmet Ağa Farm Mound</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Çifte Minareli Madrasah</td>
<td>Great Mound</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gök Madrasah</td>
<td>The Han Hill</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Festivals</th>
<th>Gastronomy</th>
<th>Traditional HandiCrafts</th>
<th>Cultural Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pir Sultan Abdal Cultural Event Divriği Minstrels Festival Hafik Culture and Tourism Festival Yıldızeli Traditional Karakucak Wrestling International Kangal Dog Festival</td>
<td>Madimak Soup Madimak Meal Peskutan Soup Bad Sübüra</td>
<td>Sivas Carpet Business The Craft of Cigarette Holder Wood Engraving Sivas Rug Weaving Sivas Knife</td>
<td>Aşık Veysel Şatıroğlu Balıklı Thermal Sivas Folk Dance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.2. Nature Based Tourism in Sivas

Nature-based tourism is identified as the fastest growing industry of the biggest sector in the world and as a necessity in the name of nature protection (Balmford et al., 2009). It is defined as “nature-based tourism is primarily concerned with the direct enjoyment of some relatively undisturbed phenomenon of nature.” (Valentine, 1992) The must of nature-based tourism is to see the environment related. In this respect, nature-based tourism which includes the trips to pristine natural surroundings on the purpose of being in touch with nature, seeing the wild flora and wild fauna or studying on these (Boo, 1990) and also inholds the recreational and adventure tourism
activities performed in the rural (Kiper & Arslan, 2007). The nature-based tourism types in Sivas will be elaborated under the adventure tourism title.

2.2.1. Adventure Tourism

The concept of adventure is defined as “extraordinary exciting and possibly dangerous activity such as a trip or experience or the excitement produced by such an activity” (Cambridge Dictionary, 2018). Adventure Travel Trade Association defines adventure tourism as “travels having at least two of the factors following: joining the physical activities outside the permanent residence providing it lasts at least 24 hours and not more than 1 year, being in a natural environment in harmony and meeting new cultures” (ATDI, 2015).

Adventure tourism increases its share in the market year by year. The number of the tourists worldwide was 1 billion 235 million in 2016 and approximately %15 of the travellers preferred extraordinary adventure movements (UNWTO, 2017). Mostly educated, flippy young people in search of adventure demand the adventure tourism and they spend a remarkable amount of money for the activities. While the marketshare of tourism worldwide grows %4-7, the nature and adventure tourism grows %20-30 with a tremendous acceleration every year. According to the statistics of United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) and Adventure Tourism and Trade Union, travellers spent 400 billion dollars and the share of adventure tourism was 263 billion dollars (TÜRSAB, 2016).

The classification mostly made of the adventure tourism types is as "hard" and "soft" adventure. While hard adventure has a remarkably higher risk, soft ones contain less risk. Additionally, there are significant differences between the hard adventurers and soft adventurers in their physical activity capacities and their skill levels. Soft adventure tourism types need less skill and physical fitness, whereas hard adventure tourism types need a considerably physical fitness and know-how (McKay, 2018).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hard Adventure</th>
<th>Soft Adventure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tödürge Lake Ice Diving Tourism</td>
<td>Mountain and Hill Hiking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper kızılırmak Cultural and Natural Path</td>
<td>Birdwatching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kızılırmak Trekking Routes</td>
<td>Hunting Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gökpınar Lake Cold Water and Altitude Diving</td>
<td>Camping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wildlife Observation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5: Adventure Activities in Sivas

2.2.1.1. Bird watching Tourism

Bird watching is an active entertainment partaking in the nature-based tourism types based on observation by the help of optical instruments (binocular, telescope, etc.); and also a recreation sort necessitating the knowledge of birds and their natural habitat as well (Kordowska & Kulczyk, 2014). The kind of tourist who has high level of education and a high income segment makes significant share when considered within nature based tourism (Dönmez et al., 2016). Gypsum fields in Sivas are the areas having high rate of endemism (Çevre ve Şehircilik İl Müdürlüğü, 2017). Furthermore, Sivas has a rich fauna because of the fact that it has a rich flora as a result of its having
various climate and ecosystem types and that many different animal kinds can find appropriate living spaces for themselves.

In Sivas, there are important bird areas that embrace large habitats for the birds with its lakes and hills. Some important bird areas including Zara - Hafik Hills and Ulaş Lake host a plenty of bird species.

![Figure 6: Important Bird Areas in Sivas. Source: (Bird Life, 2018)](image)

**Table 1: The Bird Species under Threat of Extinction Observable in Sivas**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Near Threatened (NT)</th>
<th>Vulnerable (VU)</th>
<th>Endangered (EN)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Red-footed Falcon/ Falco vespertinus</td>
<td>Pine Bunting/ Emberiza leucocephalo</td>
<td>Black-bellied Sandgrouse/ Pterocles orientalis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pallid Harrier / Circus macrourus</td>
<td>Greater Spotted Eagle/ Clanga clanga</td>
<td>White-headed Duck/ Oxyura leucocephala</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meadow Pipit Anthus pratensis</td>
<td>Black-tailed Godwit/ Limosa limosa</td>
<td>Egyptian Vulture/ Neophron percnopterus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curlew Sandpiper/ Calidris ferruginea</td>
<td>Common Pochard/ Aythya ferina</td>
<td>Saker Falcon/ Falco cherrug</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cinereous Vulture/ Aegypius monachus</td>
<td>Eurasian Curlew / Numenius arquata</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Redwing/ Turdus iliacus</td>
<td>Bar-tailed Godwit/ Limosa lapponica</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ortolan Bunting/ Emberiza hortulana</td>
<td>Eastern Imperial Eagle/ Aquila heliaca</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferruginous Duck/ Aythya nyroca</td>
<td>Great Bustard/ Otis tarda</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bearded Vulture / Gypaetus barbatus</td>
<td>European Turtle Dove/ Streptopelia turtur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eurasian Oystercatcher / Haematopus ostralegus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armenian Gull / Larus armenicus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The number of the birds observed in different parts of Sivas is 289 and the %74 of the birds observable continuously are observed in the appropriate periods in Sivas. Besides, the city hosts the endangered (EN), vulnerable (VU) and near threatened (NT) species according to the European Red List for Birds. In addition to the birds world-wide seen, there are 25 bird species under threat of extinction.

2.2.1.2. Scuba Diving

Diving tourism embodies the activities performed with the intent of vacation, entertainment, relaxation and skills development in the temperate, subtropical and tropical zones. The scuba-diving destinations are considered important economically in the 21st century (Musa & Dimmock, 2012). The scuba diving on the purpose of recreation is an essential and growing component of international tourism market (Davis & Tisdell, 1996).

Gökpınar Lake in Sivas is a fairly favorable point for scuba diving. Gökpınar Lake which is a grade I. natural site area is placed within the borders of Gürün District of Sivas. The lake which lies 10 kilometers away from the town center is 1350-1400 metres above the sea level (Bozkurt, 2016). A restaurant for 350 people by the lake, a four roomed hotel and 60 booths for the day trippers wanting to have a picnic wait for their visitors (Şahin, 2015).

The adventure tourists arriving from several cities for diving lake can both cold water dive and also altitude dive in the summers and winters every year. These divers necessitate a more particular experience and knowledge than the usual divers. The lake which is quite suitable for such kind of diversities provides the appropriate conditions to take photo under water thanks to its high visibility range. The lake has the name of "natural aquarium" because of the trouts and the vegetation in it.

Figure 7: Gürün Gökpınar Lake, Source: (Şahin, 2015)

2.2.1.3. Hiking

More people join hiking which constitutes one of the biggest segments of nature-based tourism day by day (Nordbø & Prebensen, 2015). Hiking, trekking and expedition partaking in the mountaineering are different types of walking each. The term means walking in the nature on the purpose of pleasure and sport and it is used for the daily nature walks including the natural beauties such as forests, paths and valleys. Some hiking routes are easy but some others can have challenging levels of difficulty. Walks
last from 2 to 8 hours (Öksüz, 2018). Favorable routes for the hiking in Sivas are clarified below:

**Kardeşler Hill Hiking Route:** The route begins from "The Sivas Police Training Center", continues on the path in the Kardeşler Forest and reaches the top. Later, it continues down the in-forest paths again and ends by going back to the starting point. The route is approximately 5.50 km and the top reached is 1460 meters.

**Sivri Tepe Hiking Route:** The starting point of the course which is 5 kilometers totally is Sivri Tepe Foot, the endpoint is İşhan Village. The course which has a 1538 meters height is quite suitable for hiking.

**Çeltek Mountain Hiking Route:** Çeltek Mountain which is 30 kilometers away from the city center is 2067 meters high. The route beginning with a steep climbing continues on the ridgeway to the second top and then goes on until the path which you can see the west side of the forestland. When you arrive this point, you can follow 2 different route ahead.

**Yıldız Mountain Hiking Route:** There are two different routes identified for hiking on Yıldız Mountain. The first one starts from the Yıldız Mountain Winter Sports Center and ends on the summit that is 2552 meters. The second route identified is the one which starts from Yakupoğlan Village and follows the ridge. Afterwards, the route passes beyond the rocky field and reaches the top by following the ancient road.

**Tecer Mountain Hiking Route:** The Tecer Mountain Hiking route starts from the Tecer Village fork and goes on the path for a while. It reaches the top which is 2260 meters high following the ridge of the mountain and goes back to the starting point by tracking the same route.

**Kızıldağ Hiking Route:** Kızıldağ being 3015 meters high which stretches between Sivas and Erzincan in northwest and in southeast directions is the mountain where Kızılırmak rises. Kızıldağ Hiking route starts from Kızılmezra and continues on the path which is on the left of the stand going on in the direction of north until the first ridge. Afterwards, it is reached to the summit following the ridge.

**Emirhan Rocks Hiking Route:** Emirhan Rocks which are located behind Emirhan village which is 20 kilometers far from the city center would be the most interesting route for hikers. Its being so close to the city center, its geological structure and also the richness of fauna and flora render the region appealing for hiking.

**Gürlevik Mountain Hiking Route:** Gürlevik Mountain whose altitude is 2688 meters can be evaluated as the most difficult climbing route. Gürlevik Mountain route starts from Aktaş Village which is from Sivas province, Hafik district and is 68 kilometers far from the city center.
2.2.1.4. Wildlife Observation

Wildlife vacations based on the wildlife observation are beneficial to people emotionally, psychologically and physically. At the present time, the people in the cities live considerably far and separated from the nature. The number of people who want to see the wild life has increased dramatically in the last 20 years. For example; the demand for the wild life tourism increased %70 between the years 1997-2002 (Curtin, 2005).

Sivas hosts various species in terms of fauna and flora thanks to its location. In the research made in Kızıldağ, 9 species from Carnivora fauna were identified as Ursus arctos (grizzly bear), Martes foina (beech marten), Canis lupus (wolf), Canis aureus (jackal), Vulpes vulpes (fox), Lutra lutra (otter), Felis sylvestris (wild cat), Felix lynx (lynx), Meles meles (badger) (Çağlar et al., 2015).

![Figure 9: Wild goat on Zara Hills;](source: Asan 2017)

The wild goat (Capra aegagrus) which was taken under protection by the Ministry of Forestry and Water Affairs is also seen in Sivas. The suitable habitats for wild goats are in Divriği, İmrani and Ulaş districts. And their breeding zones are Çengelli Mountain, Fidil Mountain, Gelin Mountain, Gürlevik Mountain and Yılanlı Mountain (ÇED ve Çevre İzinleri Şube Müdürlüğü, 2017).

2.2.1.5. Hunting Tourism

Hunting tourism practises have influence in providing homogeneous distribution of socio-economical development because the tourism movements spread country-wide for a whole year (Kültür ve Turizm Bakanlığı, 2017). Sivas has a very appropriate location thanks to its geographical structure. Many hunting tourism activities are organised in the city which has various climate systems, rich flora and fauna.

There are 24 different land animal species and bird species that National Parks Directorate of Hunting and Wildlife Protection give permission to be hunted in Sivas. Besides, people go hand-line fishing in the lakes and rivers such as Kızılırmak, Yıldız River and Çaltı River (Sivas Valiliği, 2018b).

2.2.1.6. Camping

“Camp sites are the facilities having at least ten units set on the highways and nearby, and in the areas which have natural beauties such as sea, lake and mountains, and that the customers supply their overnight stayings, food and drinks, recreation, entertainment and sports needs on their own” (Turizm Tesislerinin Belgelendirilmesine ve Niteliklerine İlişkin Yönetmelik, 2005).

Camping being one of the special interest tourism types takes place in the nature-based tourism groups. Campsites which constitute a wholeness with the natural environment with their flexible, temporary and mobile forms (Mikulić, Prebežac, Šerić, & Krešić, 2017) can be organised in many regions in Sivas. Yıldız Mountain woodlands, Değirmenaltı, Şuğul Valley, Çat Forest, Ak Mountain, Avşaoören, Davlunca,
Sızır Fall are the campable areas (Sivas Valiliği, 2018b).

### 2.2.1.7. Ice Diving

Ice Diving is a kind of diving which has generally only one point of entry and exit on the purpose of recreation, scientific research and public security under ice, it also requires a special procedure and equipment (Ice Diving, 2017). Ice diving is a debatable issue even though it is performed with touristic aims. It is a team activity which demands extra security measures in addition to the normal diving measures. In the professional teams, there must be a lifeguard diver and a team manager (Polar Diving, 2017).

Tödürge Lake becomes suitable for ice diving activities when the lake's surface freezes and the surface ice thickness gets up to 20 centimeters. Ice diving activities which started in 2005 first have become traditional now and are organized every year. That the lake is subcentral to the city and the town center and that it is on the E88 freeway provide the lake easy access.

The ice divings performed in Tödürge Lake are organized by the nature and sports clubs in the city as a tourism intended activity.

![Image of Ice Diving in Tödürge Lake](Figure 10: Ice Diving in Tödürge Lake)

**Source:** (Asan, 2017)

The ice diving activities are hold on the purpose of doing recreational activity, experiencing advanced diving techniques, education and because of the interest of diving in different environments. The tourists coming for ice diving are generally from the members of different diving clubs in İstanbul and from the undergraduates. The ice diving groups from out of the city arrive and stay at hotel the day before diving and visit the cultural heritage that day.

The second day, they go ice diving and depart from the city. On the other hand, some groups add the third day in order to go cold water/altitude diving in Gürün Gökpinar Lake and depart from the city at the end of the day. The tourists who come for ice diving both have an adventure and also make social, cultural and economic contribution to the city by visiting the cultural attractions of the city.

### 2.2.1.8. Trekking

Trekking and hiking are mistaken in their meanings frequently. Trekking is used for the nature walks on the purpose of accomplishing the long and rough country roads by walking in more than one day. Trekking is a relatively more difficult activity than hiking in that the trekker has to camp and take food, drinks and the equipment with him or her (Öksüz, 2018). There are countless elevations and valleys in Sivas because of its geographical location. There are many routes for trekking because of either its geographic structure or its historical background. The route which starts from Kızıl Mountain where Kızılırmak rises and then goes on the road along Kızılırmak and the Upper Kızılırmak Culture and Nature Road which is planned to be arranged within the
The scope of Sivas Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism project seem to be very convenient. The ancient Eğri Bridge, ancient Boğaz Bridge, Gözbaşı Water, Göktin Church, Hafik Lake, Diş Kapı Mound, Ambarkaya Settlement, Köroğlu Caves, Karagöl, Akgöl, Çimenyenice Lake, Kızılçam Lake, Tödürge Lake, Tödürge Rocky Caves and birdwatching towers are the attractions on the Upper Kızılırmak Culture and Nature Road (Pürlü, 2014).

CONCLUSION

The special interest tourism could be considered as one of the strategical keys in order to extend the tourism activities across the whole country and the year. This product range that could be developed in addition to mass tourism can contribute to the social and cultural development of the country. Types of special interest tourism are extremely important in terms of sustainable tourism as they are far from the transportation capacity problems caused by mass tourism.

Due to its location, Sivas has many privileges geographically, historically and culturally. It has been thought that the economical and social improvement could be boosted if the privileges of Sivas are considered and utilized as an economical instrument. It is also believed that introduction and improvement of special interest tourism may provide new employment opportunities and accordingly may be an important factor to reduce the number of people migrating to big cities. Having different and peculiar sources in terms of culture, history, health and adventure, Sivas seems to have the chance to be successful in the competition with the neighboring cities.

The city where winter, thermal, culture, health, nature and adventure tourism activities are available will make a significant profit in terms of tourism incomes and reputation provided that the needed investments are made. The government needs to make attempt, and the private sector needs to be supported in order to activate the studies made through concrete steps so as not to stay on the shelves. Sustainable tourism is possible only by measures to be taken to protect the natural environment and by the measures not to destroy it. Therefore, public and local administrations of Sivas should be careful and sensitive about the decisions on the nature and environment.

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(Accesed:14 July 2017)


(Accesed: 14 July 2017)


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Chapter 44

An Evaluation of Destination Attractiveness Elements: Plovdiv Sample

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INTRODUCTION

Destination should have different characteristics in order to host tourism activities. At the same time, these characteristics are the qualifications that make it possible to evaluate tourism within this region. For example, this travel must be done with touristic motivation so that a traveler can be evaluated within the context of a tourism event. In this respect, the destination must have the charm to motivate tourists to travel (Tekeli, 2001 as cited in Türkay, 2014: 5). Tourism has become a very competitive market in recent years. The development of the tourism industry reflects the wider development of tourist destinations that have become more important than individual businesses. This bias contributes to a number of factors. Tourists are more familiar with travel practices such as going out for a cruise, traveling, learning other languages and making a return visit to a favorite place. New destinations have emerged in international markets, Caribbean, eastern Mediterranean, Balkans and so on. This has an increasing influence on the market of media and tour operators (Kozak, 2004: 4). The scope of tourism resources is very broad. Tourism resources include natural and man-made environment elements, various special events, activities, infrastructure, hospitality and transportation services. These features are classified as basic and supportive resources. Basic sources; tourists are attracted to destinations, and they are powerful attractive sources that motivate them to travel. Supporting resources are those that do not motivate tourists to travel but contribute to the attractiveness of the destination, with the support of basic resources (Yüksek, 2014: 15). While the uniqueness of a destination leads the development of tourism, tourism also plays an important role in the development of a destination. Therefore, destinations that are aware of the benefits provided by tourism are attempting to manage and market their resources within the framework of tourism attraction centers (Özdemir, 2014: 4).

The destination is also a multi-layered, multi-actor structure where many actors come together and interact in production-consumption activities related to tourism. This structure often refers not only to production-consumption relations that revolve around tourism but also to broader economic activities that are only part of tourism (Türkay, 2014: 15). It is also seen that the destinations contribute positively to the sector and are consumed at the same time. Tourist holiday experience; is shaped by the elements of the destination environment and service infrastructure, and is influenced by factors such as competition as well as factors that make a region successful. Nowadays, while tourism regions are rapidly entering the market, existing and popular regions are trying to preserve their competitive structures. While creating a lucrative tourism region is not as easy as it might seem, considering the conditions of the tourism sector, it seems that
preserving the attractiveness of existing destinations is also difficult (Yılmaz, 2014: 278). Because of the unique nature of tourism, the real talent that a tourism destination can compete with is its social, cultural, political, technological and environmental strengths. To sum up, what really compromises a tourism destination is the ability to increase tourism spending, increasingly engaging visitors, offering memorable experiences, and doing so profitably, increasing the prosperity of the target population. It is necessary to protect the natural capital of the target for future generations (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003: 2). While destination marketing is developing in the direction of branding destinations, many destinations are on this subject in bold and creative initiatives. Identifying the destination brand identity and its characteristics that distinguish it from other destinations and emphasizing them in marketing efforts are key elements to bring a destination to a more competitive position in the international tourism market. Very few of the marketing activities succeed in recovering disappointed tourists who do not experience the promising destination experience. Therefore, a branding destination has an important role to protect or improve the image of the tourist destination in favor of the destination. The number of destinations that have been successful in marketing their brand in the direction of branding has been increasing steadily (Özdemir, 2014: 102).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Destination Concept and Destination Attractiveness Elements

Places where they travel to places where they have always lived to participate in the tourism activities of individuals are called as destinations. Meaning of the word; the place of arrival or the place reached at the end of a trip. The tourism zone is not only a place to be reached at the end of travel but also a place of natural (sea, climate etc.) and socio-cultural (cultural attraction, museum, ruins) where certain services (accommodation, eating and drinking, transportation, the presence of local people, etc.) is considered as a geographical area consisting of attractions, brands and images of attraction centers (Yılmaz, 2014: 277). A tourist destination; is a complex product of the whole of the direct or indirect tourism services provided by many institutions and organizations, attracting tourists with various tourism resources that they have and hosting intensively tourist visits (Özdemir, 2014: 3). The destinations may be a region (South East Anatolia etc.), a country (Spain) or a continent (Europe) as well as the island, city, town and villages (Özdemir, 2014: 16). Many components (tourism infrastructure, attractiveness, urban infrastructure, etc.) need to support each other in order to develop tourism in a region (Güneş, 2014: 32-34). It is witnessed that the geographical places known as destinations are formed in different forms depending on the settlements and the features they may have. It is possible to categorize these regions according to their basic tourism attractiveness and thus to the main motivation of the tourism movement that they lead. For example, while mountainous areas can be considered as eco-tourism regions, cities are confronted as areas with cultural tourism mobility. However, the emergence of these regions as tourism attraction declarations depends on the following features:

• Attractiveness
• Transportation
• Accommodation
• Infrastructure and superstructure services
• Complementary services (Türkay, 2014: 5-6).

In Table 1 below, Dimitrios (2000) classifies destinations as attractiveness, accessibility, business, reachable packages, activities and support services (Dimitrios, 2000 as cited in Yüksek, 2014: 16):

**Table 1: Elements of Destination**

| Attractiveness          | • Natural  
|                        | • Man made  
|                        | • Artificial  
|                        | • Structures for a specific purpose  
|                        | • Cultural heritage  
|                        | • Special Events  
| Accessibility          | The entire transportation system, including routes, transport terminals and vehicles  
| Businesses             | Accommodation and eating and drinking activities  
|                        | • Retailers  
|                        | • Other tourist service enterprises  
| Reachable Packages     | Packages prepared by intermediaries and Wholesalers  
| Activities             | All of the activities that will be performed in the destination during the visit of the tourists  
| Support Services       | Services used by tourists such as banking, communication, post, communication, health  

*Source: (Dimitrios, 2000: 98 as cited in Yüksek, 2014: 16).*

Swarbrooke collects destination attractions in four categories; natural environmental components, buildings for attracting visitors for various purposes (e.g., worship), buildings aimed at attracting visitors to their destination for all their needs (e.g., thematic parks), special events (Yüksek, 2014: 18). Major product groups that a destination can include; accommodation, restaurants, bars, theaters, cinemas and nightclubs, transportation systems and beach areas (Argan, 2007: 433). Today, macro-level destinations are one of the most important variables of socio-economic development. A destination is so well-known if it attracts tourists. Proper management of a destination from the other side means increasing the number of investors and investors, which requires that these destinations be managed professionally (Çelik & Gökçe, 2015: 35).

There are many researches in the related literature about destination attraction. Kutvan & Kutan (2013) measured the attractiveness of destinations in tourism planning. It represents the benefits of the results of the research, the inclusion of the tourist attractiveness measures in the design of tourism planning and tourism investment decisions. According to the results of research of Giritlioglu & Avcıkurt (2010) on the marketing of cities as touristic products, each city should draw itself to the forefront with its tourist attractions and make the necessary studies to reach the target group who can visit these attractions. While these cities are prioritizing the sources of tourism, it is recommended that cities should increase the qualities of all kinds of tourist products, telecommunication services, traffic and security services offered to future tourists as much as possible. Aydoğan & Duman (2017) examined gastronomic tourism as an attraction of destination. The findings of the research gave the result that Kastamonu Regional Foods were an attractiveness force for the province. In the same way,
gastronomy tourism as a destination attractiveness element stars Yıldız et al. (2017) tried to determine the potential effects of gastronomic tourism in Kilis province and the possible effects of gastronomy tourism in Kilis province. Kılıç et al. (2011), the effect of attracting factors of Çanakkale on destination selection of domestic tourists was investigated. As a result of the research, the most important attractive factor was the appearance of Gallipoli Historical National Park, which is the attraction of dark tourism. Çelik (2009), on the other hand, has investigated the effects of socio-economic and destination marketing on the events on the destination. As a result of the research, it has been reached that the event is a marketing element that can be used in tourist destination marketing and it reinforces the destination brand, its image and reputation. In the study of Evren & Kozak (2012) were carried out in order to determine the attractiveness factors of Eskişehir in their researches, and to determine the effects of the province as a touristic destination. Attractiveness elements are (1) nature (2) entertainment, education and shopping, (3) parks and excursions, (4) accommodation, transport and others, (5) local government and the bigger, (6) The result is that it is sports, series and movies.

2. The Purpose, Importance and Method of Research

Plovdiv is a center of attraction as a tourism destination due to its natural beauties as well as its historical and cultural structure. The city of Plovdiv is among the strongest reasons for choosing the 2019 European Capital of Culture, leaving behind other candidate EU cities. At the same time, it is the second largest city of Bulgaria, because it is an important destination on the way from Turkey to Europe. E-80 (Belgrade - Sofia - Plovdiv - Istanbul) international road passes through the city and near to 'Trakya' highway connects the capital city Sofia with 125 km distance. Pamporovo, 70 km south of Plovdiv, is home to the most prestigious winter tourism destination in the country. 100-110 km south of the border with Greece is expected to open the border is located. The city is the center of the station of the international Belgrade-Sofia-Istanbul railway. The road up to the border with Turkey is currently in construction and extension projects (https://campusum.com). Examining terms of Plovdiv destination’s powerful shooting elements and the discovery of their weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the city in terms of the Bulgaria-Turkey relations will be beneficial. This research is a qualitative research. In this study, observation was conducted. Observation is a survey directed at specific targets to gather information on a specific person, place, event, object, condition and conditions (Yazıcıoğlu & Erdoğan, 2014: 36). Observations were made at Plovdiv destination between 20-23 / 04/2018 and data was collected with photographs.

3. Evaluation of Plovdiv from Destination Attractiveness Elements

The city of Plovdiv is Bulgaria's second largest city. Another name of the city comes from Philip II, the King of Macedonia II. He got it from Filip. After being conquered by I. Murat, the region settled Yörük Turkmen from Aydın, İzmir, Manisa, Karaman and Konya regions. Plovdiv and its surroundings still maintain the presence of Turkish and Pomak population. Plovdiv is one of the settlement centers of the Ottoman Empire that is important to the Balkans. Even today, Turkish - Ottoman civil architecture attracts attention in the city. Cuma and Şahabettin Imaret Mosques are structures that reach daily from the Ottoman architecture. The city is eligible to become the European Capital of Culture in 2019 with the election held in 2014. Plovdiv city is
the second largest city in Bulgaria. Plovdiv, 130 kilometers from the capital Sofia. Turkey's Edirne, which was their most extreme flows 160 kilometers from south of the Maritsa River in Plovdiv (http://www.berhelturizm.com/).

Bulgaria's cultural capital, Plovdiv, is a city chosen as the European Capital of Culture in 2019. Plovdiv, one of the oldest cities in terms of settlement in Europe, is an attractive city with its rich historical background as well as cultural and artistic routes. Plovdiv is the second largest city in Bulgaria and the cultural capital of the country, with a population of about 700 thousand. The city on seven hills is one of the oldest cities in Europe (http://www.gezginimagezgin.com/).

Natural Elements: Many of the tourists travel with the feeling of curiosity and the desire to see new places. The greatest thing that distinguishes tourism from other usual travels is the curiosity of seeing new places and getting to know the societies. The tourist wants to know the historical, natural, social and cultural characteristics of the country he traveled to, his lifestyles attracting them (Hacıoğlu et al., 2015: 10). The most important factor determining attractiveness in tourism products is natural elements. The number of days, the number of rainy days, the snow thickness and the snow season in winter tourism are the geographical conditions, climate, natural beauties, fresh air, fresh water resources, sea water temperature, salt water ratio in sea water, length, clean sea, animal species, flora, spa and healing waters are among the subgroups that make up the natural elements (Kozak et al., 2014: 42). The natural attractions consist of rivers, lakes, waterfalls, hot springs, forests, plains, mountains, nature walks, natural beaches and marine cleanliness, small islands, average temperatures and tourism and climate characteristics that make up the general geography of the destination (Kutvan & Kutvan, 2013: 165). In Plovdiv, with a temperate climate, winters are cold and rainy, while summers are hot and dry. In winter, the average temperature is between 0 and 5 degrees and the summers between 20 and 25 degrees. Cold weather in winter is balanced by the effect of Mediterranean climate (https://gezimanya.com/). 70 km south of Plovdiv, Pamporovo, where tourism winter is carried out (https://campusum.com). Plovdiv consists of seven hills. These peaks; Sahat Hill, Bunardzhik Hill, Dzhambaz Hill, Taxim Hill, Nebet Hill, Dzhendem Hill, Markovo Hill (http://www.maksatyolculuk.com). The Plovdiv destination from this perspective is a convenient city in terms of natural beauty.

Historical and cultural elements: The socio-cultural and historical elements are as important as the natural elements in determining where the attractions are to be traveled. Among the values that make up the socio-cultural and historical elements are traditions and customs (birth, marriage, wedding, death etc.), cultural assets (museums, monuments, places of worship, etc.), political structure, educational status and level of urbanization. These elements can exhibit a charm for their own, in contrast to carrying
content that supports natural elements (Kozak et al., 2014: 42-43). Tourism can help to protect archaeological and historic sites that are attractive to tourists and can stimulate interest in these places. Otherwise, these places may be misused or lost, so that the cultural heritage of the regions is destroyed. The preservation of historic values in many countries, especially in Europe and North America, provides important tourist attraction (Avcièkurt, 2009: 43).

Plovdiv Roman Stadium, Cuma Mosque, Albanian Plovdiv houses (consisting of the Ottoman houses built in the 18th century in both Anatolian and Rumeli Turkish houses), Plovdiv Ethnography Museum, Hisar Kapı, Roman Antique Theater, Sveti Bogoroditsa Church, the Municipal Palace (http://www.gezginimgezgin.com/). Plovdiv is also a rich destination in terms of history and culture (Figure 1-10).
Recreational and Shopping Opportunities: Having fun and resting is a very old culture. Contemporary social and cultural conditions have become more widespread in terms of enjoyment and rest. Tourism activity is a view of it. In tourism, it is an activity that aims to relocate, entertain and rest (Hacıoğlu et al., 2015: 11). Shopping and entertainment bring an important part of all kinds of tourist activity to the square. While shopping is one of the most prominent activities on national and international travel, entertainment is an important element that tourists want to include in their travel experiences. Ethnic and cultural attractions that are unique to destinations are the most interesting activities. However, entertainment and shopping can be either a solitary attraction or a support for the main attraction elements (Özdemir, 2008: 41). Of course, besides these, a number of entertainment places, shopping opportunities and interesting tourist amenities also contribute to the increase in the tourist attractions of the place (Kutvan & Kutvan, 2013: 162). Plovdiv is a European destination with a wide range of casinos, shopping malls, mini shopping centers, antique shops, artistic streets, art houses, and theaters, shops selling rose and smell, as well as entertainment and shopping opportunities (Figure 11-27).
Figure 12: Casino

Figure 13: Casino

Figure 14: A store selling traditional clothes

Figure 15: Knyaz Aleksander Boulevard

Figure 16: A Small Shopping Center

Figure 17: Various stores
Figure 18: Antique shop

Figure 19: Antique shop

Figure 20: An art street

Figure 21: Roses / fragrances stores

Figure 22: Various residues

Figure 23: Various residues

Figure 24: Art House

Figure 25: Theatre

Figure 26: Art House
Economic Elements: The appropriateness of economic conditions in the demand and purchase of a tourism product also constitutes an important attraction. The price of tourism products, the general economic situation, the value of purchasing money, infrastructure facilities and the situation of the tourism sector are some of the economic elements (Kozak et al., 2014: 43).

Prices for food and clothing shopping at the Plovdiv destination have been examined. In Plovdiv, prices are more suitable because of the exchange rate difference.
Plovdiv, when compared to other European countries, is an advantageous destination for shopping, entertainment, accommodation and eating and drinking (Figure 28-31).

Infrastructure: The development of tourism will improve or improve the infrastructure, facilities and services such as economic, as well as environmental benefits, airports, water supply, sewerage and communication facilities. Local people benefit from these opportunities and services that improve environmental quality (Inskeep, 1991: 346 as cited in Avcikurt, 2009: 44). If there are infrastructure problems that prevent tourism activities in a tourist area, these problems actually make the people of the region as uncomfortable as tourists. Solving infrastructural problems enables easy planning of superstructure (Kutvan & Kutvan, 2013: 162-163). Although the Plovdiv destination is highly advantageous in terms of roads, there are disadvantages in intracity transport. There are public buses in the city besides transportation by taxis, there is little variety in transportation.

Transportation: An important element that constitutes tourism product is the existence of infrastructure facilities for easy access to tourism regions and tourism enterprises. If the attractiveness is high but there is not enough infrastructure to reach the tourist centers or to reach the tourism enterprises; difficulties will arise in the marketing of tourism products if the air, road, sea and highway connections are inadequate with a clearer narrative. Accessibility refers to the proximity of tourism centers with high attractiveness to the target audience in the market and the ability to reach them at low cost (Kozak et al., 2014: 43). The other superstructure component that increases tourist attractiveness is transportation. The most important features that are sought after by tourists in a transportation system are comfort, safety and economy. The purpose of the plan is to determine the most appropriate travel model for the region. Increasing the attractions of the transport superstructure and the attractions of the regions can be used to the vehicles and transportation technologies used, the scheduled and unscheduled voyage opportunities, seasons, various parking services, including parking lots and routes to the repair station, depend on the situation of the superstructures and the like factors (Kutvan & Kutvan, 2013: 163-164).

That deficiencies in urban transport, the lack of a small airport can take off the charter plane, that time only during certain hours from Istanbul by bus, only a few bus companies provide transportation of Plovdiv from Turkey, it is difficult to transport to these destinations. The presence of multi-lane highways is a positive element for transportation to the Plovdiv destination (Figure 28).

Food & Beverage, Accommodation: Another factor that constitutes tourism

Figure 33: Double lane roads

Figure 34: Station
product is tourism enterprises. Because tourism is a sector that mainly includes goods and services produced by tourism enterprises. Accommodation businesses that meet the requirements of their comfort, rest, eating and drinking, entertainment are divided into hotels, motels, holiday villages, pensions, mountain hotels, thermal facilities and so on. Another type of business within the scope of tourism enterprises is food and beverage enterprises. Food and beverage enterprises are mostly self-service businesses (Kozak et al., 2014: 44). Plovdiv has superstructural elements that offer different types of accommodation and eating and drinking opportunities (Figure 30-33).

**Figure 35:** Various Hotels  
**Figure 36:** Guest Houses  
**Figure 37:** Various Restaurants and Cafes  
**Figure 38:** Various Restaurants

**EVALUATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

Destinations offer similar products and services to each other. For this reason, they need destination marketing to make the destination more attractive by creating different shooting elements. It is a very important issue to market potential destinations to highlight awareness in important minds that distinguish them from other destinations and to be more competitive in international markets. For this reason, Plovdiv is an important destination in terms of Bulgaria and it is also an interesting destination in terms of potential tourists from Thrace Region and Turkey. In addition, Plovdiv is elected European Capital of Culture in 2019, so it is anticipated as a destination to visit. For this reason, in this research, Plovdiv was examined in terms of the elements of destination attraction and efforts were made to reveal the opportunities and threats of its strengths and weaknesses. Within the context of the strengths and weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the Plovdiv destination, the SWOT analysis was carried out as follows.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Plovdiv, especially Edirne Kapıkule border can be reached in about 2-3 hours, from Istanbul to Plovdiv can be reached in about 7-8 hours, *Being rich in natural and cultural terms, *Tourists in Plovdiv show luck games, gambling and cultural interest *Having been elected European Capital of Culture in 2019, *the existing the reign of the Kingdom of Macedonia, the Kingdom of Thrace, the Roman Empire, the Byzantine Empire and the Ottoman Empire in the past of the city of Plovdiv (<a href="https://neyerdenegokte.com">https://neyerdenegokte.com</a>). *The city has a history of about 4000 years, *The city, founded on important trade routes (in the XV and XVI centuries), is an active production center (<a href="https://saban.gen.tr">https://saban.gen.tr</a>).</td>
<td>*Inadequate promotion, *Effective marketing cannot be done, *The weakness of intra-city transportation, *Provision of intercity transportation only via bus or train, *Because it takes 11-12 hours by train from Istanbul, *Transportation by plane only via Sofia *Only a few bus companies go from Istanbul to Plovdiv.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opportunities</th>
<th>Threats</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Positive attitude of local people towards tourists, *In addition to Sofia, Plovdiv's awareness as a destination, *Compared to other European cities, accommodation and eating and drinking are more affordable, *The encounter with many tradesmen and people who speak Turkish, *The fact that the use of taxis in urban transport is more affordable than in other European cities, *Due to its proximity to the Sofia destination, it offers the opportunity to visit both destinations.</td>
<td>*Taxi drivers take more than tourists and extend the road, *There is no tourist route within the city that can be reached by public transport only, *The lack of tourist maps and direction signs inside the city, The lack of counters that tourists can buy tickets with ease.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this study, the elements of attraction of the Plovdiv destination are examined. It can be argued that importance should be given to accessibility from Plovdiv's destination attractions. Shopping centers can be opened to enhance tourist attraction. In addition to its historical and cultural riches, it can highlight activities, festivals and local food culture. It should also be remembered that a destination has come to strengthen its image and brand of destination in order to increase awareness and inclination. It can be argued that the Plovdiv destination would benefit from re-eeyeing these two concepts. Destination management organizations, in cooperation with stakeholders, should make a greater contribution to the marketing of Plovdiv, and this destination is an important point to evolve. Future research can make comparative assessments from the point of view of destination attractions by examining different destinations.
REFERENCES


Chapter 45

The Quality of Culinary Education in Tourism

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INTRODUCTION

Culinary education becomes popular in recent years with the advent of media channels boosting celebrity chefs, bringing attention to dining out (De Solier, 2005; Johnston and Baumann, 2015). The glorified advertisements of some schools resulted in the increased enrollment in culinary programs (Peterson’s, 2003; Hertzman and Maas, 2012; Simon, 2014). The acceleration in the number and size of culinary arts programs (Berta, 2005) and the educational quality differences between the schools emerged a decrease on the outcomes. These are; lack of qualified workforce, academics, and industry professionals initiate to interrogate the quality of the programs (Danaher, 2012; Moskin, 2013; Traud, 2017). At this point, one might argue the quality of the programs because of the concerns related to attraction of revenue maximization by the private universities from fee-paying students (Sharpley, 2011). Debatable quality of future culinary professionals (Zopiatis, 2010), business/management bias in vocational education (Airey, 2008) are the primary concerns related to the subject of this study.

According to Hertzman and Stefanelli (2008), it is difficult to assess and compare how well schools are teaching, retaining and preparing students in the industry and calls for more research to help educators improve their programs and better prepare students for lifelong careers in the industry. Paulson (2001) argues that the changing paradigms in the culinary industry transform the curriculums of schools in the forms of new competencies and experiential learning. Such transformation enables the industry to seek the highly trained students to become skilled cooks and chefs in the future to support their operations (Müller, WanLeeuwen, Mandabach, and Harrington, 2009).

Culinary education curriculum has its roots in the vocational education movement of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Its’ traditional focus is on achieving student mastery of core technical culinary competencies (Mandabach, Revalas, and Cole, 2002). In addition to such skills, employees require specific skills to survive or thrive in an increasingly complex environment (Müller et al., 2009), which has a long-standing tradition of authoritarianism (Pratten, 2003).

According to Gould and Bojanic (2002), there are three critical factors affect the quality of hospitality related programs such as; attitudes of the students, curriculum and working experience required and the quality of the facilities. To evaluate the performance of the program, Hegarty (2004) recommends the performance indicators such as enrollment, student-staff ratios, examination, retention and placement statistics, quality ratings of the staff, equipment, teaching standards, and learning environment. In their study, Hertzman and Ackerman (2010) have found the five most important indicators of quality, based on the highest means: sanitation of kitchen laboratories, industry experience of faculty, and subject experience of faculty, required an internship, and placement rates.
One of the core problems related to culinary education is the instructors and academic staff. Culinary instructors, especially those without industrial experience may be unable to integrate theory and practice (Ko and Chung, 2015), which may cause the real world exposure to teaching problem-solving skills using real-world examples. Thus in current teaching practice, instructors see to focus more on transmitting technical culinary skills. Instructors also seem to have insufficient time to cover both contents and implement problem-solving activities within the stipulated class time. They end up depending on what they read in textbooks or teach what they experienced as consumers (Brown et al., 2015). Past studies have highlighted that in foundational level Culinary Arts Courses, instructors seem to focus more on transmitting knowledge and technical culinary skills rather than keeping the students engaged with creative problem-solving opportunities (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989; Hannafin & Land, 1997; Wang, 2015). Also to the popularity of culinary degrees, some of the universities develop inefficient programs which affect the quality of education negatively (Zopiatis, 2010; Zopiatis, Theodosiou, and Constanti, 2014).

Traditional culinary arts instruction follows the recipe based pedagogy where the chef-instructor demonstrates the method, then the students diligently replicate the demonstration, and the chef-instructor provides feedback based on the outcome (Brown, Mao & Chesser, 2013). The intensive models of delivery of the technical skills of Culinary Arts, less emphasis on the distribution of fundamental knowledge and applying the knowledge to solve real-world problems are prevalent in current teaching practices at institutions. Instructors must realize that competency in skills specific to the area of specialization or technical skills, such as; knife skills and cooking skills in culinary studies are no longer sufficient for survival of the industry (Horng and Lee, 2009; Müller et al., 2009; Rinsky, 2012). Research indicates that although the industry views soft skills as critical competencies, hospitality educators often focus on hard (technical) skills (Christou, 2002; Sisson and Adams, 2013). The resulting skills gap has made recruitment and retention of service providers a critical issue for hospitality employers (Enz, 2009; Johanson and Woods, 2008; Poulston, 2008). Graduates who can discharge the soft skills required by industry, specifically through performing emotional labor, have the potential to achieve service excellence.

There are 35 University programs in Turkey focusing on food studies; mainly gastronomy, culinary arts and food and beverage management. The categorization and the composition of the culinary undergraduate degrees can be sum up within four groups;

Faculty of Fine Arts (FFA): The curriculum of Culinary Arts degrees operate under the faculty of fine arts focuses mostly the culinary science by teaching the fundamentals of food science, chemistry, Nutrition, Art Fundamentals, History, and Marketing. They combine the scientific focus with hands-on culinary practice in their kitchen labs. The chair of the department usually has a food engineering or Chemistry engineering background.

Faculty of Tourism (FT): Tourism faculties focus on hospitality, food, and beverage management and combine the tourism-related subjects with hands-on practices in their kitchen labs. Even if the tourism faculties are mostly state-funded, their labs are efficient and modern because they usually find private sponsors to provide ingredients and equipment. The chair of the department usually has a tourism and hospitality management background.
Faculty of Applied Science (FAS): Applied science faculties focus on the combination of hospitality and science. Some of them created their curriculums, and others adopt the foreign foundations and curriculum by collaborating with institutions from France (Ozyegin University- Le Cordon Bleu) or USA (Bilgi University - Kendall College) and (Izmir Economy University-USA). This cooperation enables the students to study both in Turkey and in a foreign country to understand practice within different cultures and traditions.

Vocational Colleges (VC): Vocational schools focus on culinary arts, gastronomy, food and beverage service and hospitality enabling the graduates to understand all the aspects related to food and beverage management. State-funded vocational colleges are more theory-oriented than the privately funded colleges.

Table 1: Bachelor’s degree Culinary Arts programs in Turkey.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University and Program</th>
<th>Num. of Ins.</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Academic, A/S</th>
<th>Curriculum and Formation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Private (FFA) Gastronomy and Culinary Arts</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>32 - (1/10)</td>
<td>Arts and Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State (TF) Gastronomy and Culinary Arts</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>786</td>
<td>82 - (1/9,5)</td>
<td>Tourism and Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private(FAS) Gastronomy and Culinary Arts</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>63 - (1/5,5)</td>
<td>Hospitality and Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State (VC) Gastronomy and Culinary Arts</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>15 - (1/20)</td>
<td>Hospitality and science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State (FT) F&amp;B Administration</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>12 - (1/17)</td>
<td>Tourism and Hospitality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State (VC) F&amp;B Administration</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>10 - (1/16)</td>
<td>Tourism and Hospitality</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


METHODS and MATERIALS
This study adopted a qualitative research approach, utilizing in-depth research related to the foundations of the educational models about gastronomy and culinary arts in Turkish educational system. The use of qualitative methods is for examining and developing theories that deal with the role of meanings and interpretations in naturally occurring situations (Collins and Hussy, 2003). To reveal the quality of education, all the four-year gastronomy and culinary departments analyzed regarding curriculum, syllabus of lessons taught, number of students, number of academics (see table 1). Respondents are asked to fill out a form consisting of semi-structured questions to uncover and describe the participants’ perspectives on specific issues. Twenty-five culinary and gastronomy instructors participated in the study. Current problems
examined with the observation of facilities during the on-site visits to culinary schools. The interviews were recorded and transcribed for further analysis. This type of data collection method was found most fitting as they provide an opportunity to attain a greater level of depth and detail to reveal the participants' full range of feelings regarding the subject matter (Creswell, 2003; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

RESULTS

The findings of the qualitative survey gathered from 25 respondents classified into three major categories as; ‘New vision for culinary education,’ ‘internship and apprenticeship,’ ‘resources and infrastructure.’ Quotes identified by respondent numbers.

1. A Vision for Culinary Education

Culinary education in Turkey focuses on two fundamental disciplines; Hospitality Management, and Food Science. The lack of instructors trained in the industry creates different disciplines share the stakeholders’ positions in culinary education. Both disciplines provide different roles to students by requiring specific career skills to survive in the competitive working environment. Two of the respondents having a different background argued the situation as:

R4: I am a food engineer, and I had problems teaching the practical courses in kitchen laboratory.

R17: As I am the only one in the department who has industry experience more than five years, I have to teach 40 hours a week.

The shortage of culinary instructors on a Ph.D. level pushes the university administration to choose the deans of the faculties from gastronomy related fields such as; Food engineering, Dietetics, Biology or Geography. These fields of science have their vision to understand the cuisine and culinary arts in which does not give sufficient importance to raise the needed professional cooks. A significant number of respondents expressed their concerns as:

R1: Some teachers are willing to understand the industry experience related problems only by reading research or by experiencing the dining concept visiting the restaurant. We have a substantial visional gap between each other.

R14: There are a lot of non-area specific lessons. As the department head is from a different scientific field, they usually tie their subjects with gastronomy or culinary arts.

R5: My biggest problem is that the department board does not understand me at all. All they want is to have more cups or medals from the annually held competitions. They usually measure the success of the school with the number of cups or trophies.

R10: Instructors with an industry experience do not know how to behave themselves in an academic environment. They do not know how to act themselves in front of the students.

2. Internship and Apprenticeship

Findings indicated that participants have several problems related to the internship. Among these problems most mentioned was the duration of the placement during the summer breaks through the four years of bachelor degree program and as one participant stated;

R6: University internship commission thinks 80 days of summer work (40 days/year) is enough for a culinary student. When I was at the university, I was
They also criticized the role of teachers regarding career planning for former students and the graduates. They admitted that there must be a group of teachers from the teachers’ board to be responsible for career planning. One of the participants has expressed his problem as;

**R16:** Industry placements and career planning are missing. Most of the students need to find their internships by themselves. Because of academic workload, we cannot help students with their careers. There is no career plan for students after the graduation. After graduation, they are left alone.

One of the participant’s statements on finding the better or appropriate internships during the summer season is the representative of the sentiments of most participants in the sample;

**R3:** International chain hotels usually select their interns from private universities. At the State universities like mine, students have to do their internships in local establishments. This situation causes problems related to practice and manipulation development.

### 3. Lack of Resources and Infrastructure Necessary for Teaching

Most of the universities in Turkey have adequate facilities and sufficient equipment in their culinary arts laboratories. They finance such assets from the sponsors who are professional companies within the culinary industry. Unfortunately; lack of other tangible facilities related to education, inadequate planning after the opening of the school's inefficient student replacement causes the low quality of the operation of the schools. This situation was verbalized by the respondents as;

**R8:** We only have one kitchen which has 18 Units. Training 60 students with this facilities and equipment are impossible.

**R9:** There are too many students and the quality, and the quantity of the school laboratories does not cater them.

**R4:** Our library is not very useful. We do not have a greenhouse or beverage lab.

It seems like after opening the school; the management does not take care of the necessary precautions related to the progress of pre-opening aims and objectives. Sustainability of the procurement and costs after opening are highly framed factors by the respondents;

**R18:** We have beautiful facilities and the right equipment, but there is very less budget to buy the products.

**R12:** The costs of products used in laboratory classes are very high, and the university budgets are not sufficient enough to support such charges.

**R7:** The Equipment related to the practical classes is bought just at once, Costs related to renewal or the operation time disregarded.

### DISCUSSION

Despite tourism education undoubtedly playing a pivotal role in shaping the tourism landscape, academically and vocationally, tourism education programmes continue to remain somewhat rooted in narrow business origins (Sharpley, 2011). This situation may be related to the continued influence of specific dominant disciplinary paradigms but also, and perhaps more acutely, to the influence of neoliberal higher education policy and related pressures upon institutions to meet industry needs and
other metric-driven outcomes. Sigala and Baum (2003) indicated that tourism curricula are socially constructed according to a range of stakeholders. It can, therefore, be argued that the process of teaching and learning tourism may be differently determined by the specific values, beliefs, and experiences of those involved.

It is increasingly understood in education fields that ‘learning experiences which place students in real-life experiential situations where they are required to apply theory to the real world can be immensely valuable’ (Ruhanen 2005: 49). In this sense field schools, and particularly overseas field schools, serve as a potent form of experiential learning. Kolb (2014) identifies experiential learning as a context-sensitive recursive process where students reflect on observations from concrete experiences to develop abstract conceptions of the world around them which can then be further explored.

1. A Vision for Culinary Education

The division among scholars and researchers working on the different parts of the food system and different aspects of food production and consumption are hardly unique to these fields, meaning only food science-based model or only tourism or vocational based models cannot be sufficient enough for the culinary education (Wilk, 2012). The role of food science-based teaching which in the faculty of fine arts implements is to raise the student with the fundamentals of food science, chemistry, and fine arts by combining kitchen hands-on training classes, this type of training has similarities with the American Culinology education (Cheng et al., 2011). On the other hand; Tourism based teaching focuses the management, marketing, and hospitality. The praxis courses given in kitchen labs are not usually supported by food science which inhibits students to understand the fundamentals of cooking science and basics of culinary chemistry. Recent years some tourism-based culinary arts programs expanded their horizons to food science and integrated the related subjects into the curriculum. A hybrid vision of culinary education is needed to adapt to all the state universities. Culinary education not only needs more focus on the impact of the culinary profession on global society but also need to have fundamental aspects of culinary science which defined as “the knowledge of food, design, manipulation, and processing to make food suitable for human consumption” (Hegarty, 2005).

This spectrum may further lead students to do more research on culinology which can be used as a bridge between food science and culinary arts regarding product development (Cheng et al. 2011). Integrating a new curriculum within the new vision can be insistent due to the different disciplines.

2. Internship and Apprenticeship

As a form of Industrial experience, internships are an integral part of hospitality and tourism programs which demand their students to complete industry experience before graduation. According to Yiu and Law (2012) internships are one of the most effective models of experiential learning in hospitality education. Through industry internships, students can probe their career options, reinforce the knowledge previously gained at the traditional classroom setting, identify signs of links to prior learning, and seek connections between academic theories and the practical application of the theories in the workplace. However, for internships to be successful, it requires the cooperation of three stakeholders (i.e., students, industry employers, and educators) should discuss benefits and drawbacks of industry internships from the perspectives of all three stakeholders. In recent papers, how to design internships has been one of the focal
research questions to increase students' motivation and satisfaction during their work experience (Stansbie and Nash, 2016). With the evidence from the existing culinary education foundations in France, UK and USA bear in mind that apprenticeship in the industry plays an important role in culinary students’ development plan. Also, the lack of any formal model in Turkey and the master-apprentice model of education is forgotten, universities focus on teaching and sending students on internships in which the quality is questionable. Vocational programs such as hospitality management and the culinary arts typically employ educators who are industry veterans. Although educators may stay connected to industry trends through professional networking and required educational training (Paulson, 2001).

3. Lack of Resources and Infrastructure Necessary for Teaching

Facilities, equipment and the quality of the kitchen laboratories are essential elements for the gastronomy and culinary arts education (Capar, 2002) providing the students to make a practice of the theoretically gathered information (Tüylüoğlu, 2003). There is a huge difference between state funded and privately funded schools in culinary education. Financial difficulties, purchasing, and procurement, lack of knowledge of products and specs, wrong orders, budgetary planning, financial depreciation within the equipment and facilities. Also, some state universities require that the students bring their ingredients to final exams. This inadequacy of the related products lowers the quality of the education. There are only a bunch of private universities having their practice restaurants which enable their students to develop their skills by working in practice restaurants. Most of the universities are using their graduate networks to provide sponsorships for the equipment and the products, and private schools fund their costs with their tuitions gathered from students. Only a bunch of schools have their budgetary planning related with purchasing and procurement of the products yet again only a small amount of the private universities have their greenhouses to teach students how to raise the crop and to use them in the laboratory classes.

A practical solution is that the programs related to food studies such as; Nutrition and Dietetics, Food Engineering, Chemistry, Agriculture engineering, Gastronomy and Culinary Arts may be combined in one area to minimize the costs and have the support of common usage of the related facilities and equipment.

CONCLUSIONS

The primary limitations of this study are related to the sample and data analysis. Because this is an exploratory, qualitative study, the sample size is small. As a result, generalization to the rest of the culinary instructor population is difficult. Also, content analysis may be very subjective, even with the use of more than one analyst; therefore results of this study may be biased. There a numerous associate’s degrees and also other vocational courses taught institutionally in Tourism high schools in Turkey. However this study aims to understand the culinary education system only in undergraduate level degrees, the focus of the paper in foundations of education only applies within the four-year undergraduate level institutions.

Future research may focus on the premises of curriculum development in culinary schools. Understanding the foundations of culinary education and internationally recognized educational award systems may help to categorize the schools by their scientific focus areas to identify the recent situation, furthermore; surveying the success
factors of culinary education on an institutional level may help to assess, compare and improve the quality.

Culinary stakeholders can utilize the findings by identifying the obstacles related to scientific focus and educational issues of schools to understand the quality indicators. Data from this study may also enable culinary educators to improve themselves regarding skills through the needs of professional education.

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Chapter 46

An Alternative Accommodation Unit in Kyrgyzstan: Boz Uy (Traditional Kyrgyz Tent)*

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism has made a big change and progress from the start of organizational tourism activities by Thomas Cook in the year 1841 until today. In this change and progress, differentiations occurred in social, psychological and economic structures of tourists has played important role. During this period of change, many factors are effective i.e. relaxation, entertainment, interest, culture, adventure, history, nutrition, hunting etc. which direct tourists to travel and takes a role in shaping the expectations from these travels. Besides; history, culture, curiosity and adventure among these factors have started to be gradually important in recent years. In this context, it is witnessed that tourists' desire in our day to experience different cultures, civilizations and authentic lives in particular have started to stand out. As a result of that, the tourist accepting countries started to establish alternative tourism resources and accommodation enterprises which can response to such requests of tourists.

Kyrgyzstan has the capacity which could offer alternative touristic products for tourists with its authentic and cultural sources. One of these touristic products is the boz uys, which have authentic characteristics and reflect Kyrgyz culture and civilization. Boz uys are not only an accommodation unit for Kyrgyz people, but also thematic facilities where Kyrgyz life culture is exhibited. The Kyrgyz society used to live at tablelands in the summer and at plains and cities during the winter, due to physical and climatic conditions of the Central Asia. The boz uys, which are the mobile accommodation units of Kyrgyz people in their such nomad life, have been very important. As the Kyrgyz people maintained their life with stockbreeding during the 15th and 16th centuries, they searched for suitable fields to feed and protect the animals

* This study was presented at the II. International Congress on Cultural Heritage and Tourism held in Selcuk University and Tashkent MDIS University in Tashkent/Uzbekistan on 3-5 May 2018.
in all seasons, and for that purpose; they continuously migrated to tablelands (cayloo) in the summer, to winter quarters (kişttoo) in the winter, to summer quarters (cazdoo) in the summer and to autumn quarters (küzdöö) in the winter in order to maintain their lives (İsakov, 2009: 104-107). In this lifestyle; the felt that keeps cool in summer and warm in winter as well as the boz uys made of wooden material have been the most helper of Kyrgyz people (Özünlü, 2014: 172). Boz uy is an authentic asset which also sustains the material and social identity of Kyrgyz people and can be used as a touristic product, as it contains food, beverage and sheltering materials that a Kyrgyz family needs in their life and is a mobile living space and accommodation unit where one could sleep, eat and drink inside (Arvas, 2013: 9).

Although stockbreeding and the life conditions brought by that obliges Kyrgyz people to use boz uys, the boz uys are not only accommodation units but also places that sustain aesthetic and artistic aspects of Kyrgyz society with their shapes and ornaments (Gül, 2015: 114). After the revolution that took place in October 1917, Kyrgyz people started to become sedentary and the boz uys having 3000 years of past began to lose their past importance (Gül, 2015: 114). Nowadays, the boz uys continue to protect their in rural areas but started to transform into facilities in the urban life serving as restaurant, accommodation unit and tea house (Toyhana) for tourism and social life.

Boz uys are not only a life and accommodation unit for Kyrgyz people but also a representative of their living civilizations formed from the past to present. Because Kyrgyz people were born, raised, lived, cooked, got cleaned, made wedding in these tent houses (Genç & Koyuncu, 2011: 115) and experienced all bitter sweet moments and memories of their lives here and then handed down to future generations. For this reason, boz uys are important for Kyrgyz people as much as the epic of Manas.

Besides having an external structure that protects Kyrgyz people from climatic effects in their living space, the boz-uy also reflects the mood of a Kyrgyz family with its internal structure. Therefore, the boz uy and its constituent elements can be described as felt tents that reflect thoughts, traditional lifestyles and traditions of Kyrgyz people as well as carry their moral influence. The Kyrgyz people who are aware of that case attributed a meaning that reflects Kyrgyz culture to each part of the boz uy (Gül, 2015: 115).

As the touristic supply potential offered by the rural area of Kyrgyzstan make the country an important rural tourism destination, another side of the tourism supply consists of cultural assets. By this means, culture tourism also becomes prominent with the rural tourism in Kyrgyzstan. The important point here is that a significant part of the culture tourism activities are being made in the rural area, which is peculiar to Kyrgyzstan. Thus, potential strength of rural tourism in Kyrgyzstan increases even more (Gülcen et al., 2015: 830).

The boz uys which are the representatives of traditional Kyrgyz life culture in our day, have the potential to be able to take on new tasks particularly in terms of rural tourism. For example, a different type of Turkish tent in Turkey called the Karaçadr (black tent) is known as being used as an authentic unit which local breakfast and traditional Turkish pastry (i.e. gözleme etc.) are offered to tourists in tourism destinations. These tents are also used as facilities that revive authentic Turkish life and weddings. As for the boz uys in Kyrgyzstan, they are used not only as a life or accommodation unit but also as a thematic restaurant. Therefore, it is considered that
boz uys are one of the important values which should be utilized in terms of new developing Kyrgyzstan tourism.

In this study, the traditional Kyrgyz tents named boz uys were focused on which is an alternative accommodation unit in Kyrgyzstan. In this context; the importance, physical properties of boz uys in Kyrgyz culture and how it is possible to make use of them as an accommodation unit in Kyrgyzstan, are discussed. The identifications revealed in the study are expected to bring a different point of view for rural tourism development in Kyrgyzstan and create an awareness in this field.

1. GENERAL OVERVIEW OF TOURISM AND ACCOMMODATION STATISTICS IN KYRGYZSTAN

It is possible to say that Kyrgyzstan is still a young country which had gained its independence in 1991. Therefore, tourism still lives its developmental period in Kyrgyzstan. Kyrgyzstan has a high altitude geographical structure and limited opportunities in terms of traditional sea, sun and sand tourism due to being away from seas. Despite this, the Issyk-Kul lake which is the second biggest crater lake of the world in Kyrgyzstan makes the country have an important edge in terms of summer tourism. Issyk-Kul lake acts as a sea for tourists traveling for holiday and recreational purposes. The tourism centers of Kyrgyzstan that comes to mind at first include the city of Karakol which is the important winter tourism destination of the country, the biggest walnut forest of the world Arstanbab and the city of Jalal-Abad which has important thermal springs. Besides, the country has important resources for adventure and ecotourism with its tablelands at mountainous regions. The endemic animal types in the country offer rich opportunities for hunting tourism enthusiasts. Moreover, the cultural values formed by the country's thousands of years past and being able to preserve these values until today allows Kyrgyzstan to be an attractive destination for tourists who travel with culture tourism motivation (Erdem et al., 2015: 77-78).

Table 1: Active Tourism Enterprises in Kyrgyzstan (2012-2016) (Until January 1, 2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Enterprise</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hotels</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Enterprises and Recreational Facilities¹</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurants</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>393</td>
<td>411</td>
<td>424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel Agencies</td>
<td>1925</td>
<td>2049</td>
<td>2172</td>
<td>2274</td>
<td>2402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanatorium and Kurorts</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature Reserves and National Parks</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2694</td>
<td>2866</td>
<td>3015</td>
<td>3158</td>
<td>3318</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: URL 1

As seen also in Table 1, tourism enterprises in Kyrgyzstan are classified as hotels, tourism enterprises and recreational facilities, restaurants, travel agencies, sanatorium and kurorts, natural reserves and national parks according to tourism data of Kyrgyz National Statistics Committee. Among those enterprises, it is observed that restaurants are more in number than the other enterprises. This is followed by travel agencies. It stands out that the number of hotel establishments continuously increased between the years 2012-2016. When the distribution of hotel enterprises according to the regions is examined, it is seen that 104 hotels (62%) are in Bishkek, 26 hotels (15%) are in Issyk-
Kul region, 11 hotels (6.5%) are in Calal-Abad region, 10 hotels (6%) are in Osh region.

In the tourism report published by Kyrgyzstan National Statistics Committee, the numbers of employees working in tourism sector were also included. The findings related to numbers of employees are shown in Table 2.

**Table 2: The Numbers of Employees Working in Tourism Sector in Kyrgyzstan**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Enterprise</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hotels</td>
<td>1480</td>
<td>1643</td>
<td>1693</td>
<td>1641</td>
<td>1512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Enterprises and Recreational Facilities</td>
<td>1167</td>
<td>1101</td>
<td>1164</td>
<td>1093</td>
<td>1518</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurants</td>
<td>852</td>
<td>836</td>
<td>1194</td>
<td>1072</td>
<td>1072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel Agencies</td>
<td>1210</td>
<td>1418</td>
<td>1324</td>
<td>1453</td>
<td>1474</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanatorium and Kurorts</td>
<td>2447</td>
<td>2458</td>
<td>2512</td>
<td>2526</td>
<td>2020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature Reserves and National Parks</td>
<td>673</td>
<td>681</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>659</td>
<td>688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>7829</td>
<td>8137</td>
<td>8553</td>
<td>8444</td>
<td>8284</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: URL 1*

Based on the data shown in Table 2, it can be said that the type of tourism establishment which has the most employees are sanatoriums and kurorts. This is followed by ‘Tourism Enterprises and Recreational Facilities’ and ‘hotels’. Another remarkable issue in Table 2 is that the numbers of employees working at hotel establishments are not stable. In other words, it is seen that the numbers of employees working at hotels during the period between 2012-2016 are sometimes in tendency to increase and sometimes to decrease.

According to year 2016 data of Kyrgyzstan National Statistics Committee, Kazakhstan citizens rank first in the number of foreigners who visited Kyrgyzstan with 1,787,100 people. This is followed by Russian citizens with 431,000 people, Tajikistan citizens rank third with 169,500 people, Uzbekistan citizens ranks fourth with 150,700 people and Ukraine citizens rank third with 169,500 people. Furthermore, it is observed that Kyrgyzstan is visited by tourists from 31 different countries including Turkey, China, United States of America, United Arabic Emirates, Germany, Czechia, Israel and Japan (URL 1).

In the tourism report of Kyrgyzstan National Statistics Committee with respect to year 2016, it is mentioned that 308,000 people who came to Kyrgyzstan from other countries used airlines and 12,700 people used railways. Besides, it is stated that 303,600 people who went out from the country used airlines, 15,300 people used railways and 49,900 people used highways. It is expressed that the entire people who went out from Kyrgyzstan by highway traveled to the countries of Commonwealth of Independent States (URL 1).

General capacities of hotel enterprises in Kyrgyzstan and number of domestic and international tourists they host are shown in Table 3.
Table 3: Activity Indicators of Hotel Enterprises in Kyrgyzstan (2012-2016)(Until the end of the year)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Number of Hotels</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-House Guests (Thousand)</td>
<td>194.9</td>
<td>205.9</td>
<td>205.0</td>
<td>222.1</td>
<td>219.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic Tourists</td>
<td>148.1</td>
<td>160.3</td>
<td>158.5</td>
<td>161.1</td>
<td>146.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Tourists</td>
<td>46.8</td>
<td>45.6</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>61.0</td>
<td>73.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily Average Number of Rooms</td>
<td>2824</td>
<td>2851</td>
<td>3084</td>
<td>395.1</td>
<td>406.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily Bed Capacity</td>
<td>4544</td>
<td>4615</td>
<td>5714</td>
<td>6420</td>
<td>6773</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Sold Rooms (Thousand)</td>
<td>322.8</td>
<td>355.0</td>
<td>295.9</td>
<td>359.6</td>
<td>411.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic Tourists</td>
<td>213.9</td>
<td>256.5</td>
<td>211.4</td>
<td>234.6</td>
<td>242.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Tourists</td>
<td>108.9</td>
<td>98.5</td>
<td>84.5</td>
<td>125.0</td>
<td>169.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily Average Revenue per Bed (Som)</td>
<td>1081</td>
<td>1109</td>
<td>1182</td>
<td>1386</td>
<td>1277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic Tourists</td>
<td>1508</td>
<td>1521</td>
<td>1552</td>
<td>1512</td>
<td>1464</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: URL 1

As seen in Table 3, it stands out that the number of hotels in Kyrgyzstan show a continuous increase between the years 2012-2016. In the year 2016, the number of people staying at hotel enterprises is 219,400. Domestic tourists constitute 146,300 and international tourists constitute 73,100 of the whole guests who stayed at hotels. While the number of international tourists who stayed at hotels in 2012 was 46,800, it increased to 73,100 in 2016. The number of sold rooms between the years 2012-2016 moved up to 411,400 from 322,800. These data indicate that the interest of international tourists towards Kyrgyzstan is continuously on the rise.

Accommodation revenues that the enterprises active in Kyrgyzstan have obtained over the years are included in Table 4.

Table 4: Tourism Revenues of Accommodation Companies in Kyrgyzstan by Years (Million Som)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regions</td>
<td>1759.8</td>
<td>2232.9</td>
<td>2761.9</td>
<td>3211.8</td>
<td>3560.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Batken Region</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calal-Abad Region</td>
<td>42.7</td>
<td>62.4</td>
<td>79.7</td>
<td>115.4</td>
<td>127.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issyk-Kul Region</td>
<td>161.3</td>
<td>205.9</td>
<td>289.0</td>
<td>360.5</td>
<td>451.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naryn Region</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>18.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Osh Region</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talas Region</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>35.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chuy Region</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>38.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bishkek City</td>
<td>1412.2</td>
<td>1796.8</td>
<td>2214.0</td>
<td>2532.2</td>
<td>2758.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Osh City</td>
<td>67.5</td>
<td>76.8</td>
<td>86.8</td>
<td>100.4</td>
<td>108.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: URL 1

As seen from the data in Table 4, accommodation revenues in Kyrgyzstan rose from 1,759,800 Som in the year 2012 to 3,560,700 Som in the year 2016 (URL 1). During this period, an increase took place in revenues at a rate of 49%. Among the regions in Kyrgyzstan, the capital Bishkek has the highest accommodation revenue with 2,758,200 Som. The city of Bishkek is followed by Issyk-Kul lake region with 451,600
Som and Jalal-Abad region with 127,000 Som. Based on the data in Table 4, it can be said that the accommodation revenues in Kyrgyzstan tend to rise continuously.

Kyrgyzstan government determined the sectors of top priority in development as agriculture, mining, transportation, communication, energy and tourism pursuant to National Sustainable Development Strategy (URL 2). Kyrgyzstan government considers tourism sector as an important industry to provide new job opportunities and increase people's level of welfare particularly at rural areas (URL 2).

Kyrgyzstan government prepared a number of solution offers in order to achieve the targets in tourism topic. These can be listed as follows (URL 2):

- To unite institutions and organizations related to development, production, presentation and sales of tourism products.
- To make arrangements for tourism in the laws of Kyrgyz Republic.
- To improve tourism education and provide training of professional managers and employees that the sector needs.
- To maintain activities i.e. global culture and sports organizations to develop tourism in Kyrgyzstan.
- To perform political, economical and large scale national activities at Issyk-Kul lake region.
- To create the required infrastructure and parking areas for hotels and motels on the highways and for passenger and cargo transportation.

2. IMPORTANCE OF BOZ UY IN KYRGYZ CULTURE

Accommodation style of nomadic and half nomadic culture presents us tents which are different from each other in terms of their shapes suitable to mobile structure of this culture, the materials used and the value attributed to it. As being a structural element of migrant settling, these temporary residences which can be pitched, packed up and are expressed as tent, contain some differences also in Turkestan geography in shape and material aspect. For example, the most common type of tent seen in Anatolian migratory communities is karaçadır (black tent). Types of tents other than karaçadır are a continuation of the tents which are called “yurt” by the Central Asian Turkish Communities. As a general name, yurt is known by different names in different Turkish and Mongolian tribes. For example, it is named in the Kazakhs as kiyiz üy, in Karakalpaks and Kyrgyz people as bozüy, ak üy, in Altai people as kerege üy, in Khakas people askiis ib, in Tuvans as kidis ög, in Nogais as terme üy, in Bashkirs as tärämä and in Turkmens as gara öy (Moldalieva, 2012, cited by Gülcan et al., 2015: 833).

The tent houses in Kyrgyz tradition are called ‘boz uy’, which are also expressed in Turkish spoken in Turkey as ‘oba’. The exact equivalent of the word Boz uy in Turkish spoken in Turkey is boz ev (dun house). In Kyrgyzstan, portable houses which are called boz uy are frequently seen at places where tourism and tableland culture is common (URL 3). In other words, Boz uy is defined "as the place where one can sleep, eat and drink inside and any kind of goods are available including kitchen equipment" (Arvas, 2013: 9).

Boz uys are one of the most important values of Kyrgyz traditional life, which are included in intangible world cultural heritage list of UNESCO since 2014 (URL 4). Oghuz Khan praises the Turk's dome shaped and solid felt tents as "Let the sky be our tent and the sun be our flag" The tents which are attached great importance in Turkish history is represented by boz uys in Kyrgyz culture. Particularly in rural areas, the
whole life of Kyrgyz people runs here and their family bonds are symbolized by boz uys (Ögel, 1995: 169). Although many Turkish tribes have adopted a sedentary life in time, the nomad culture continues in Kyrgyz people in rural areas. Therefore, the boz uy culture which is the most important element of nomadic culture is still an important part of socio-culture life of Kyrgyz people (Koç, 2002: 5).

Boz uy in Kyrgyz people has been used in different locations and for different functions, and therefore been known by different names. The boz uys used for festivals were called as kurfash tyrylgan uy; the boz uys used for accommodation of shepherds while pasturing their sheep were called as djolam üy; the ones with black colour as the black uy; the boz uys which were used to cook food, prepare milk and milk products, prepare and store meat and consisted of four sections were called as askhana uy; and the ones used for funerals were called as tulsalgan uy (Bunn, 2000: 409).

The Kyrgyz people have a hospitable nature, and it is asserted that they have a different character from other nations with their aspect (Abdesov, 2012, cited by Polat & Esen, 2016: 26). In Kyrgyz people, ‘konok’ (guest) is accepted as ‘a name of god’, and thus entertaining a guest is described as a mighty and holy situation (Taşmamatov, 1991, cited by Polat & Esen, 2016: 26). Therefore, not only the people called exclusively but also the ones who drop by during journey are accepted as “Kuday-Konok” (Guest of God) in Kyrgyz people (Misirov, 1994, cited by Polat & Esen, 2016: 26).

Kyrgyz people were known with their hospitality also during their nomadic life period, and attached great importance to hosting their guests. While Kyrgyz people were leading a nomadic life, they prepared guest tents called ‘konok üz’ for their coming guests, and hosted them in this way (Bunn, 2000: 408).

Boz uys have the properties to be light, portable, comfortable, suitable to natural conditions, quick and easy to pitch; and have a big importance in Kyrgyz people’s life who lead a nomadic life (Alimbayeva, 2016: 7). Kyrgyz people did not define boz uys only as an important part of their lives, but also integrated their lives with boz uys. Therefore, Kyrgyz people often use boz uys for guest entertaining in various social events (i.e. wedding and funerals) of modern urban life (Dıykanbayeva, 2017: 220).

3. PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF BOZ UYS

The places which are called as "yurt" in today's Turkish World have different forms. These are the "yurts" that consist of Kyrgyz, Kazakh, Uzbek and Turkmen felt boz uys. The best examples among these boz uys of the Turkish World are seen in Kyrgyzstan. The boz uys in Kyrgyzstan differentiate from boz uys in other countries with their appearance and aesthetics rather than their structure (Bunn, 2010: 123).

The most common forms of boz uys used in Kyrgyzstan are the round and dome shaped ones (Çalışkan, 2013: 3). The reason is that the Kyrgyz people maintain their lives at mountainous areas and that the winters here are very cold and windy and the summers are very hot. The Kyrgyz people living at mountainous areas position their boz uy entrances facing to the east in order to get protected from cold and benefit from the morning sun (Dıykanbayeva, 2017: 217). Boz uys are artistic structures with their internal and external structures. Inside of the boz uys is arranged by considering all the places that the whole family members will sit on. The seats in boz uys consist of three sections which are tör, er cak and epçi cak (Gül, 2015: 117).

At the same time, boz uys reflect the family structure, traditions, customs and
beliefs of the Kyrgyz people. The morning sun passes through the boz uy's door and reaches the seat of honor (tör cak). In Kyrgyz belief, the seat of honor is the highest position in status and illustrated by sun. It is known that Kyrgyz society let the good and respectable people sit down on this place (Diykanbayeva, 2017: 221). In the boz uy, the men and the new married use the left side (er cak). The straw mats that carry Kyrgyz patterns and the divided section where food-beverage are stored (epci cak) belong to lady of the house and used by her. This place is also used as kitchen.

In making boz uy; timber (flexible trees grown at wetland/reed field), special woven thick ropes, felt, woven tapes, reed mats called ‘chiy’, decorative tapes and fringes are used. The wooden carcass of boz uy are made by men while felt, ropes, felt coatings, weaving and tapes, all decorative textile products and internal-external ornaments are made by women (Bunn, 2000: 412).

![Figure 1: Frame Part of Boz Uy](source: URL 5)

The materials stated in Figure 1 are the materials required in making of a natural and standard boz uy. People's tendency to take the easy way out today has also started to be seen in boz uy making. Since the preparation of materials to be used in boz uy making is laborious and time-consuming, using iron and factory made materials is gradually becoming more popular today.

Materials and parts used in making boz uy can be listed as follows (Karataev & Eraliev, 2005: 71):

Kerege: The wooden cage that forms the walls of boz uy and connected crosswise to each other (Yudahin, 1985: 377).

Tündük: It is the round window on the roof of the felt tent. It is the wooden circle located on top of boz uy, which helps the sun light gets through boz uy and serves as chimney.

U’uk: The pole at the dome part of felt tent. The long pole with lace, which connects the kerege and tündük parts of the tent; one side combined with tündük has a pointed edge and the other side combined with kerege is flat and slightly inclined inward (Moldalieva, 2012: 6). The number of poles used for boz uy is 40, which represents the forty brave men included in the epic of Manas.

Tuurdük: It is the felt that covers kerege.

Kerege Chalgıch: The woven tape which is situated between kerege and tuurdük and used for reinforcement of tuurduks.
Kanat: The cloth that covers kerege thoroughly.
Uuktun Boosu: It is the rope that allows to tie uuks.
Bosogo: It is the door trim; the frame of sill, namely of the door.
Kaalaga: It is the door of Boz uys and has two wings.
Chiy: It is the straw mat wrapped around the kerege walls and reinforced by felt.
Tegirech: A kind of woven rug
Chamgarak: They are the inclined wands mounted to tündük of the felt tent. It is a special made artistic (ornamented) thick wood, which is used to fix tündük from the bottom to top.
Üzük: It is the felt passing along the top of tuurduk or between tuurduk and tündük (Karataev & Eraliev, 2005: 71-72).
Sill: It is the entrance of felt tent or door covering made of felt or straw mat.
Boz uys are accommodation units which are simple to make. While making the boz uy, the below sequences are followed (Moldaliev, 2012: 3):
1. First, kerege which is the body part of boz uy, is positioned at a suitable place.
2. After kerege is positioned properly, the door/sill is placed in a position to face the east side.
3. Tündük part of the boz uy is elevated with poles and waited to be attached to kerege by the help of uuk.
4. All uuks are combined with tündük to attach tündük and kerege.
5. All uuks and kerege are tied to each other with thick ropes.
6. The thick felts prepared for boz uy are coated by surrounding the kereges.
7. Finally, with the thick and ornamented trees called Çamgarak; tündük is reinforced and the boz uy is completed (URL 6).

Figure 2: The Construction of Boz Uy

4. BOZ UYS AS AN ALTERNATIVE ACCOMMODATION UNIT

The word authentic, which is used to describe the exotic, hidden facilities coming from the past and still protect their texture and characteristics (Buckland, 2007), has started to be widely used also in tourism in recent years. In this context, Wang (1999) asserts that nowadays some tourists stay overnight at places which are suitable to customs and traditions of that destination, and want to benefit from local activities peculiar to the region.

Another important issue in terms of tourism and authenticity is to evaluate the existing equities and the products that will reflect ethnic identity in terms of sustainability and diversification of tourism. The authentic tourism demand which has been rapidly growing in world tourism in recent years (Mantecon & Huete, 2007),
offers the countries to make use of their resources and opportunities to market them. In a research carried out by Talaat (2015), the reasons for tourists to participate to ethnic cultural tourism was researched, and it was determined that tourists wanted to experience cultures, traditions and lifestyles of the destinations they visited.

It is also witnessed in recent years that the number of enterprises which are eager to respond to tourist demands to have an experience related to authentic tourism has shown an increase. For example, Pioneertown Motel for tourists who want to experience Wild West life; Whitepod Hotel in Switzerland for the ones who want to taste the spell of mountains; Conestoga Ranch Hotel in Utah for the ones who seek for an opportunity to make camping with luxury horse-drawn vehicles in countryside; Giraffe Manor Hotel for tourists who want to be together with animals; Knight Camps in England for the ones who want to experience knighthood in the middle age; Hotel de Glace in Canada for the quests who wish a life on the ice (URL 7); Hotel Kakslauttanen which was built by taking Iglo huts of Eskimos as sample (URL 8) and tree houses in Antalya Olympos for the ones who wish to have a holiday in the forests at mountains; can be given as examples of hotels serving authentic tourism.

Kyrgyzstan is a Central Asian country which has many beauties such as its natural resources, authentic and cultural values, mountains, tablelands, plains and rivers. Boz uys are the traditional houses of Kyrgyzstan, and they are in shape to let tourists have authentic experiences with their various types of uses. In this context, boz uys have an important potential of entrepreneurship particularly for accommodation and food-beverage sector. For example, boz uys can be used as a farm hotel for the ones who wish to make authentic holiday in rural areas, a tableland house for the ones who travel for fresh air and health purposes, a mountain hotel for the ones who travel for hunting, an accommodation place for the ones who travel for camping purposes and a traditional accommodation enterprise for the ones who wish to experience natural accommodation (the ones wishing to experience rural life in the urban).

It is known that there are many boz uy enterprises today which are offered for local and international tourists' services and designed in different forms. These are ran under the names i.e. yurt camp, guest house, restaurant etc. Yurt camps are accommodation places which are totally consisted of boz uys. These facilities are mostly built at places with no accommodation enterprise and infrastructure. However, it is possible today to see yurt camps also at places close to cities, due to huge demand from tourists.

![Figure 3: A View from Yurt Camps in Kyrgyzstan](image)

Almost in every part of Kyrgyzstan, it is possible to see accommodation
enterprises called Guest House which are in the style of boutique hotels with a low number of beds. Guest houses are usually built in single storey or two storey, and boz uys might be seen beside them or in their garden for accommodation purpose.

**Figure 4:** Examples of Boz Uy from Guest Houses in Kyrgyzstan

The Supara Chunkurchak Etno hotel and restaurant enterprise which is active in Kyrgyzstan and was built in boz uy style, is one of the important enterprise in huge demand both in summer and winter.

**Figure 5:** Supara Chunkurchak Etno Hotel in Kyrgyzstan. Source: URL 9

The Swiss based organization named Helvetas started Community Based Tourism project in Kyrgyzstan in the year 2000. The Kyrgyz Community Based Tourism Association having its Central Office in Bishkek, extended the project scope in 2003 and spread it throughout the country. With this project, it is aimed to improve life conditions of the people at mountainous rural regions and develop rural tourism without damaging the natural environment and culture of local people. CBT continues its activities today with its total 15 offices in 7 regions of Kyrgyzstan (URL 10). There are many active accommodation enterprises in connection with these offices. Great majority of these enterprises serve as guest houses which are called homestay. Moreover, yurt camp enterprises of CBT attract considerable attention especially in summer months. Boz uy accommodation units are largely used both in guest houses and yurt camps of CBT and are in great demand. While such enterprises use traditional Kyrgyz houses as theme, they also care to use Kyrgyz cuisine, Kyrgyz boz uy life and Kyrgyz folkloric values in this theme.

**5. CONCLUSION**

The accommodation phenomenon constitutes an important part of the people's travels who participate in any kind of tourism activities. Accommodation options in the region are considered as one of the determinant factors in tourists' decision process for
the destination they will visit. In other words, although daily tourists are exceptional, it is possible to say that each tourist looks for accommodation alternatives suitable for his/her expectations regardless of the purpose of travel.

Besides, it is witnessed that different accommodations options come into prominence in recent years based on the changes occur in demands of individuals participating in tourism movements. One of those options is the ethnic accommodation enterprises which are especially seen in rural regions. Such kind of facilities carrying local characteristics have reached an attractive position for tourists who wish to explore different cultures in particular. Such kind of accommodation enterprises are found widely in the areas or tablelands where there are still unspoiled natural beauties.

Among the countries of the Turkish world, Kyrgyzstan is one of the countries that has succeeded to preserve its own culture and natural beauties until today and offers rich opportunities in terms of ethnic accommodation. One of those is the boz uys. In Kyrgyzstan, traditional tents which are called boz uy are frequently seen at places where eco tourism and tableland culture is common.

On the other side, these traditional Kyrgyz tents revealed a new accommodation alternative with the development of tourism in the country and they have also started to take place in accommodation market of the country in recent years. The main property of boz uys made from felt is that they are resistant to cold, hot and precipitation as well as have a protective feature in all kinds of climate conditions. Due to being made from felt, inside of these traditional tents are hot in winters and cool in summers. These tents which are easy to pitch and carry, have effectively met the shelter needs of nomadic people in history. It is likely to see some people who still live their lives in these traditional tents in rural parts of Kyrgyzstan.

The increase in knowledge level of today's tourists, their sense of wonder and desire to explore new opportunities in parallel with that have created different accommodation alternatives suitable to the needs of this market in accommodation industry. Under these assumptions, boz uys were reviewed in this study as an alternative form of accommodation in Kyrgyzstan. The findings revealed in the study are expected to bring a new point of view to the accommodation enterprise literature.

The findings revealed in this study were based on secondary data in the literature. In the following studies, the empirical studies to be conducted on tourists who had accommodation experience in boz uys are expected to contribute to the relevant literature.

Explanatory Endnotes

1The enterprises which are under the category of “Tourism Enterprises and Recreational Facilities” in the data of Kyrgyzstan Republic National Statistics Committee represents the accommodation enterprises which lie beyond the scope of hotel enterprises (holiday villages, hostels, guest houses, camps etc.). In such data, all enterprises under the records of Kyrgyzstan State (Including Daily Houses) are available.

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Chapter 47

Festival Tourism and Its Contribution to Country Promotions: The Case of Turkey

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INTRODUCTION

Today, there is a world where information is abundant. For this reason, in order to be successful and effective in the context of country and product promotion; differentiated from other information (in other words, from the messages of the opponents), and it is also necessary to use different communication channels. In this scope; special events such as festivals emerged as an alternative method and a differentiating factor in the branding of the country (Rızaoğlu, 2003: 197). The festival market, which has gained rapid growth momentum in recent years which has a significant potential in Turkey. Because the size of the festival market around the world is 50 billion dollars. The festivals that mobilize tourism cause serious mobility in the region and the subindustries they are in. A series of performances and activities which are organized in a single or a series of times, such as art, culture, science, economic activity, product, period or a particular theme, whose qualities are specified in a specific program and whose qualities, such as the environment, the topic, defined festivals; special events such as cultural, artistic, sports organizations are considered as one of the most important tools used to construct modern tourism image (Festival Economy, 2018).

When the historical development process of the festivals is searched, it is seen that the focal point was the religious beliefs at the first time. Ancient Egypt (3050-50 BC); is one of the oldest civilizations in which many religious-based festivals have been held. The Olympic Games, which emerged as a festival for the gods during the Ancient Greek (1100-146 BC), were first organized in 767 BC and have been organized in different countries every four years, maintaining their presence as much as the day. During the Ancient Roman period (753-AD- 476 BC), many entertainment and festivals were held, and at this time all the people and even slaves were allowed to attend the festival regardless of class differences in society. When searching festivals in Turkish history; It is seen that festivals and festivals have been organized since the Hun State (352-469) and continued in Göktürk state (552-744). It is known that they organized a festival under the name of Uighurs Cold Meal Festival in the year of 900 and they are enjoying each other by throwing water at this festival so that they want to rain by firing the scorching heat. The New Year Festival in Huns and Turfan Uighurs (March 21 in Huns and March 9 in Uighurs) was later celebrated as Nevruz and Hıdırellez (Özer, et al., 2016).

In addition, many festivals based on beliefs such as Islam, Christianity, Judaism and Buddhism were held on the day of the festivals, and social change as well as economic development were provided through these festivals and festivals mediates the fusion of different cultures (Özdemir, 2008: 9).
Many religious festivals were held in Ancient Anatolian civilizations. Together with the Renaissance, non-religious festivals began to be organized. Between the two world wars, festivals were held, often protecting national identities. Tourism festivals began to be organized after the 1950s. In today's competitive environment it is very difficult for an idea or artwork that can not have a specialized distribution opportunity to survive for a long time. Festivals are very important in terms of maintaining this function (Bilgili, et al., 2012: 118). Festivals have a positive effect on improving the positive images that countries have and correcting negative images. Festivals that have an important place in urban and regional development should be regarded not only as artistic activities but also as a means of economic development, as an important means of transferring cultural elements to future generations, exhibiting and dying of the country's own customs (Atak, et al., 2017: 1397). Festivals contribute to the development, dissemination and remodeling of different cultures, identities, forms of life, beliefs, belongings and social ties in society (Duffy, 2005: 680). Apart from being included in the event classification in the festivals, the most important features distinguishing the festivals from other events types are society and celebration-oriented features. The themes of festivals are usually born from within the community itself. Here is a group of geographical or spatial partnerships that are desired to be described by the concept of society (Butcher, 1993: 19).

Within this section the festival concept, editing causes, features, festive varieties, in the birthplace discussed their contribution to society and this important event type of the publicity countries in the context of tourism and contributes to the local economy festivals held in Turkey was evaluated in private.

CONCEPTUAL OF THE FESTIVAL

The "festival", derived from the Latin word "festivitas", refers to a social gathering held in order to offer celebration or gratitude. At the festivals, a unique knowledge accumulation is again reproduced and the history, cultural heritage and social structures which are different from one another are maintained (Kladou 2011: 27).

Festivals are social events that develop around a specific theme, celebrating the precious aspects of the life style of the community and designed to be staged for a short period of time. Community-oriented festivals represent important and publicly important events designed to take place in a short period, celebrating the valuable aspects of a society's lifestyle (Dimmock and Tiyce, 2001: 375). The original attraction of the festivals; celebration and recreation environments and out of ordinary life. Festivals are generally organized for various reasons such as local culture / history conservation and development, recreation, providing employment opportunities and developing the local tourism industry (Günersel, 1997: 28). In fact, many festivals have emerged as small social events often seen as an expression of the social norms and values of society (Chacko and Schaffer, 1993: 477). In this respect festivals are also expressed as social celebrations carried out in certain periods for various reasons (Falassi, 1987: 14).

While festivals are seen as tourism attractions, they are also seen as social celebrations for social purposes. Festivals are both a part of individual and social identity, as well as strengthening ties between individuals in society, the cultural environment and society (Goldblatt, 1997: 7). Festivals also become very important in terms of the sustainability of cultural heritage due to the characteristics they possess.
Falassi stated in the literature that there are different and different forms of definitions and meanings of festivals. Festivals as a special type of event are summarized by Falassi (1987: 3) as follows:

- Sacred or cultural, celebrated celebrations with special traditions/customs
- Annual celebrations about a particular person or event or harvest of an important crop
- Cultural events usually involving a single artist or a series of fine arts dedicated to the arts
- Fair and fairgrounds
- Public festivals, banquets and entertainment

When the definitions made are searched; a festival can be defined as a "special event that takes place as a public-oriented celebration" and the focal point of this discourse can be placed on social folklore. Weaver and Robinson (1989: 7) summarize the possible reasons why a festival was organized in a society as follows:

- Increasing the excitement and pride of society
- Showing why society is unique and special
- Improving the image of society
- Providing opportunities for the community to explore and develop their cultural skills and abilities,
- Providing opportunities for the people of the region to engage in new activities in the fields of theater, music, art and value
- Incoming generation for special projects,
- Honoring a person, a historic or important event
- Whatever their theme, festivals share common features that can help them distinguish themselves from other tourism products. One of the most important features that differentiate festivals from other activity types is that they are organized by the host community, usually by creating volunteers and regulatory committees from local people. The most important characteristics in defining festivals, which are a type of activity by Getz (1991: 69), are expressed as:

- Festivals are public events
- The main purpose of the festivals is to celebrate or display a certain theme.
- Festivals are held once a year or less
- The start and end dates are set before the time of the event.
- The festival program consists of one or more activities
- The festivals are mostly intangible and in this respect, the actual participation experience in the activity is the most important thing that attracts people's interest

Wasserman (1974: 4), who made the first classification about festivals, festivals in the festival and exhibition guide "Festival Sourcebook" prepared in America and Canada, divided into the following eighteen categories:

- Agriculture
- Art
- Antique
- Society
- Handicrafts
- Dance
- Film
- Wildlife
Unlike Wasserman's classification, Wilson and Udal (1982: 4) reviewed festivals in terms of festival participants and festival composers, and examined five themes: ‘local festivals, developed local festivals, commercialized festivals, monocultural festivals and multicultural festivals’. Festivals classified by the Getz (2008: 407) and referred to as special events; ‘mega events, major events, regional events and local events’. Yongseok (2014: 13-14) assessed festivals for social participation using Wilson and Udall’s (1982) classification. According to this evaluation festivals are classified as 'low level social participation, moderate social participation and high level social participation'. As a result, it is seen that festival classifications can be done in different ways by considering different criteria, not universal classification.

Regarding festivals, including local events, there are four different perspectives; sociological, anthropological, social development and entertainment dimension. From a sociological point of view, local events take place not as activities or economic stimuli, but rather as part of cultural events and social organizations within the community that host such activities. From an anthropological point of view, the events are seen as events of social celebration that can be understood within a certain cultural environment. It is thought that the activities are the values of the social structure in which they are organized and the events that emerge and reflect on the social organization. The events held in this perspective are not worth mentioning as tourism movements. Activities in terms of social development; are seen as instruments of potential gentle social development. Social development from this aspect is defined as a process for the development of local social democracy (for example, the participation of volunteers in these events), the creation of behavioral styles and movements based on the belief in self-power, the creation or development of social infrastructure of society. In terms of entertainment dimension and those who participate in these events; Participants in special events in the tourism sector are generally referred to as users or customers. In this sense, it is necessary to investigate the reasons why the customers participate these events and the satisfaction level of the customers in the tourism marketing (Getz and Frisby, 1989: 15-17).

**THE IMPORTANCE OF THE FESTIVALS IN TERMS OF TOURISM SECTOR**

Festivals, which are an important attraction for people, have an important place in tourism activities. Festivals that vary in scope are playing an important role in orienting people's communities with motivations such as entertainment, cultural sharing, socialization to a specific region according to their own description. Festivals should be considered as a collection of activities that enrich a destination with tourist attraction
elements and give them a soul that will have an emotional impact on people. From this point of view, it can be said that the festivals are one of the most important tourist attractions that constitute a particular destination and that it strengthens the influence of other tourism attractions. For this reason, it can be said that touristic destinations that have their own festival will have an important advantage over other destinations (Dalgın, et al. 2016: 1182). Festival tourism is an event that people from outside visit the festival area during a festival period which is generally referred to as tourism. Festival tourism is linked to the development of a tourism destination by increasing its awareness, attractiveness and profitability with limited time activities (Visser 2005: 156).

The four key steps that can be used to festival marketing are as follows (Penbece, 2014: 195 references from www.publicengagement.ac.uk):

- Creating a strong brand
- Identify key participant groups
- Exhibiting practice marketing skills
- Communicating with the local community

The festivals reinforce friendship between the peoples of the world and encourage people to see new places by fostering the curiosity of new cultures and lives that are being met (Tuğsav, 2000: 121). Festivals and events are an important part of the tourism industry. Festivals are a powerful tool to attract tourists during off-season periods, to create awareness and a positive image of the region (Özdemir, 2008: 33).

The benefits provided by the festival tourism to the geography where it is organized are listed as follows (Karagöz, 2006: 7):

- Extending the tourism season
- Diversifying tourism product
- Ensuring equal distribution of tourism claims between different destinations within the country
- Creating new income sources in the region
- Increasing the attractiveness and awareness of destinations
- Being a motivating factor for the creation of new infrastructure and services or for the development of existing services and infrastructure
- Attracting interest of the media to destinations
- Helping to brand destinations by creating strong and active images and creating cultural themes.

Encourage people who think that a single traveler is good enough for revisiting

The Canadian Tourism Organization explains the important social benefits of festivals as a strong socio-cultural attraction (Tourism Canada, 1989: 5):

- Festivals provide opportunities for community members to express themselves, discover their skills and talents, develop and exhibit them
- Festivals provide a showcase for new ideas in music, art, theater and sport
- Festivals promote cultural and recreational opportunities of the region and increase community pride
- Festivals encourage travel in a region and spending. Thus helping to social development and eliminate regional inequalities

Due to the increased competition between festivals and destinations, need for information on festivals, has become extremely important especially the motivation analysis of festival and activity participants (Yolal, et al., 2009: 278). Festivals motivate
a significant number of tourists every year and accelerate the tourism movements as a result, it provides employment opportunities for a large number of people, increases the occupancy of the accommodation enterprises and affects many sectors related to tourism in a positive way. Also, festivals, contribute to the recognition of the country in the international tourism market importantly (Çulha, 2008: 1831).

Uysal and Li (2008: 17-20), comment on participatory orientation in the literature on festival tourism classify factors that motivate participants to activities as physical, cultural, interpersonal, prestige/status and list the factors motivating tourists to activities as stated below:

**Family Alliance:** Family alliance emerges as an important motivating factor in terms of local festivals among the types of events. Festivals are seen as an environment in which families travel together and have a good time.

**Socialization:** All activities categorized by researchers mainly provide the socialization of participants.

**Entertainment:** In most of the researches conducted, entertainment factor is ranked among the important factors. Participants are mainly involved in activities for enjoying.

**Escape:** Along with the changing life conditions, the possibility of people being involved in recreational activities has diminished. Tourists are able to participate in various events and get a chance to be renewed by leaving for a short time with event tourism.

**Cultural Research:** Many activities are based on cultural backgrounds. Tourists are participating in events to recognize various cultures.

**Food and Beverage:** Festivals are organized mainly to promote food and beverage cultures of various destinations.

**Music:** Music is the main theme of many events in the past and today. Music festivals held in different parts of the world motivates music lovers to participate in the events.

**Competitions:** Participants follow different activities to take part in or follow this excitement.

**Information:** Activities such as fairs, exhibitions, congresses and educational events respond to the needs of the participants.

**Friendship:** Participants take part in activities with the groups they like and have fun

**Curiosity:** One of the most important motivating factors for participants is curiosity.

**Learning:** Participants are motivated by the educational and educational aspects of the activities.

The destinations try to rediscover and locate themselves by exploiting their existing cultural assets. Festivals are an important part of cultural production and consumption in cities and rural areas. Such events are generally regarded as part of the cultural structure of destinations. The festivals that attract tourists benefit both culturally and economically. Another important effect of the festivals that have become a tradition after many years with the contributions to social life; people come and have fun together, thus creating a suitable atmosphere for increasing the quality of life of local people (Yolal, et al. 2009: 278).

The festivals, which are important events, have socio-cultural, political, tourism
and economic, physical and environmental effects on societies and these effects have positive and negative effects. The positive and negative effects of the festivals are shown in the table 1.

**Table 1:** Positive and negative effects of Festivals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affected area</th>
<th>Positive Effects</th>
<th>Negative Effects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Socio-Cultural Impacts</strong></td>
<td>- Shared common experience</td>
<td>- Alienation of society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Strengthening traditions</td>
<td>- Manipulation of society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Increasing social pride</td>
<td>- Negative social image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Increasing social participation</td>
<td>- Negative behavior/ Abuse of materials / Change of social structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Introducing new and creative ideas</td>
<td>- Loss of restlessness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Expansion of cultural aspects</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Physical and Environmental Impacts</strong></td>
<td>- Showcase of the city</td>
<td>- Environmental damage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Offering the best available models</td>
<td>- Pollution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Increasing environmental awareness</td>
<td>- Damage to cultural heritage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The infrastructure system remains an inheritance</td>
<td>- Problems caused by grief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Development of transportation and communication system</td>
<td>- Traffic problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Urban transformation and renewal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Political Impacts</strong></td>
<td>- International prestige</td>
<td>- Risk of failure of the activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Advanced profile</td>
<td>- Misdelivering of funds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Introduction of investments</td>
<td>- No responsibility for ownership and control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Mutual social support</td>
<td>- The legalization of ideologies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Development of managerial skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tourism and Economics Effects</strong></td>
<td>- Introduction of tourist zone and increase of tourists</td>
<td>- Resistance of society to tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Extension of stay</td>
<td>- Loss of your originality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Revenue increase</td>
<td>- Image damage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Increase in tax revenue</td>
<td>- Abuse of interest groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Employment creation</td>
<td>- Inflationary prices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Opportunity cost</td>
<td>- Opportunity cost</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


There are positive effects on festivals which are included in the event and which are an important tourist attraction, the income from tourism in that region, the employment in the region, the image of the region and the positive public attitude advertising behavior towards the region. Festivals are an important actor in promoting destinations in the tourism industry and providing tourism development in the region. It is possible to list the importance of festivals in terms of country promotion and destination marketing as follows (Özdemir, 2008: 37, Kladou 2011: 41):

Events and festivals help create a positive image of the destination due to their frequent presence in the media. In this case, it attracts both tourists and investors  
Increasing marketing power of destinations  
Major international festivals increase tourism demand for countries and affect positively image of the country  
Festivals offer opportunities ow-cost way to expand the product range of a destination and provide an opportunity to vitrine the local traditions, ethnic past and cultural landscapes of the untouched rich heritage of destinations  
Tourists want to attend planned events and get to know destinations at the same

606
time. For this reason, festival tourism is helping to promote tourist destinations and gaining importance in destination marketing.

**FESTIVAL TOURISM AND TURKEY**

Festivals held in different themes and times in Turkey offers an important contribution to the international promotion of the country. In this direction, various festivals contributing to the promotion of the country are organized or participated with various artists and communities in festivals having international prejudice and prestige. The number of festivals held in Turkey is constantly increasing. The growth of the festival economy is estimated to have reached 750 million Turkish Lira and total income of 250-300 million Turkish Lira is derived from food and beverage festivals. The food and beverage festivals have the largest share in growth (Festival Economy, 2018).

Lots of traditional festivals and events are held in each province or district in Turkey in the context of event tourism. Festivals aimed at commemorating a value or tradition serve to increase unity and solidarity in the society, and to fuse people with each other and to promote Anatolian cultures. Festivals mostly held in summer and in the spring are mainly held in metropolises and holiday regions. These festivals play an important role in promoting both cultural and regional food and agricultural products. Big festivals are the focus of international participation and interest. Festivals held in Turkey are classified according to different criteria in Table 2.

**Table 2: Classification of festivals according to different criteria held in Turkey**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification of Festivals according to Themes</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food &amp; Beverage</td>
<td>205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>1254</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification of Festivals according to Organization Time</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>January</td>
<td>14</td>
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<td>February</td>
<td>19</td>
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<td>March</td>
<td>25</td>
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<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>32</td>
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<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>110</td>
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<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>224</td>
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<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>362</td>
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<tr>
<td>August</td>
<td>225</td>
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<tr>
<td>September</td>
<td>144</td>
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<td>October</td>
<td>40</td>
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<tr>
<td>November</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>1254</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification of Festivals according to Region</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marmara</td>
<td>463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Sea</td>
<td>268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aegean</td>
<td>173</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Central Anatolia | 148  
Mediterranean | 111  
Eastern Anatolia | 60  
Southeastern Anatolia | 31  
TOTAL | 1254  

**Table 2** shows:

1254 different themed festival is held within a year in Turkey  
Festival is held mostly in the field of culture with a total number of 508 and leastly in the field of culture with a total number of 62 in Turkey  
Festivals are usually held in July  
Most festivals are held in the Marmara Region within a year in Turkey  
National festivals in almost every city in the country; international culture and art festivals are held in major cities such as Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir, Bursa and Antalya in Turkey. Most festivals are held in Istanbul. In Istanbul, especially in the summer months, many music festivals that have become parts of the city are witnessed. While Pamukbank Dance Days bring together the world's famous dance groups, the Efes Pilsen Blues Festival, which has been organized for 10 years, welcomes world famous groups. Akbank International Jazz Festival brings Turkish jazzers together with Turkish musicians every year. Yapı Kredi Art Festival and Fuji Film World Music Days, which have the qualities of "one year festival" with activities ranging from rock to pop, jazz to classical music, one of major events which have sponsors of music festivals that add color to the art scene. Many famous local and foreign artists come to Istanbul during The International Istanbul Film Festival, the International Istanbul Music Festival, the International Istanbul Jazz Festival and the International Istanbul Biennial are held every year by the Istanbul Foundation for Culture and Arts (İstanbul Festivals, 2018).

Sevda Cenap and Music Foundation organize the International Ankara Music Festival every year in the capital city of Turkey. The festival, which is a member of the European Festivals Association, has hosted more than 10,000 famous artists to date which is mainly composed of classical music. Choirs Festival in Turkey which in order to established to spread polyphonic music in the country, brings thousands of music lovers together with an increasing number of invited choruses and listener capacity every year organized by the Polyphonic Chorus Association (Ankara Festivals, 2018).

International İzmir Festival organized by İzmir Culture, Arts and Education Foundation is held in historical places such as Ephesus Antique Theater, Celcus Library and Virgin Mary's House and internationally artists and communities are participated in orchestra concerts, ballet, theater, jazz and pop (İzmir Festivals, 2018).

The Aspendos Opera and Ballet Festival, which is watched by nearly 80 audiences each year, is one of the important festivals in Turkey. The Antalya Golden Orange Film Festival is oldest film festival in Turkey which is an Oscar for Turkish cinema. The International Ankara Film Festival and the Adana Golden Cocoon Film Festival are among other important festivals bringing the audience together every year (Antalya Film Festival, 2018).

Some events are listed below announced by Republic of Turkey Ministry of Culture and Tourism Ministry General Directorate to Promote situated in the festival
calendar in Turkey 2018) (Turkey Festivals Calendar, 2018):
January - February: Winterfest 2018 (Uludağ / Bursa)
April: Alaçatı Herb Festival (Alaçatı / Çeşme / İzmir)
April: Adana Orange Flower Carnival (Adana)
May: HoliFest (Cyprus)
June: Cappadox (Cappadocia)
July: TraceFest (Erikli / Kesan / Edirne)
July: Historical Kirkpınar Oil Wrestling (Edirne)
August: KaçkarFest (Çamlıhemşin / Rize)
August: Zeytinli Rock Festival (Edremit Akçay / Balıkesir)
October: Bodrum Cup (Bodrum / Muğla)
September: Bozcaada Vintage Festival (Bozcaada / Canakkale)
December / Şeb-i Arus (Konya)

Turkey hosts lost of national and international festivals outside of the above examples

CONCLUSION
Structural changes in economic production have been influential in the use of culture as a means of employment, the negative effects of globalization, changing approaches in urban governments, and the continuity of the interrelated festival concept, and these factors have made festivals an important element in the branding of destinations. The festivals, which are one of the activities that reflect the life style and cultural characteristics of the region it is organized, provide important contributions to the tourism promotion of the country (Yemenoglu et al., 2013: 17).

Festivals, promoting the regional economy, making a positive impact on the local image of the city, gaining importance due to the various benefits provided to the people of the region and the visitors, and increasing number and variety of festivals day by day (Gursoy et al., 2004: 171).

The festivals that have international qualities and followed by many people are considered important in terms of country promotion. The fact that festivals can be arranged in different fields and subjects is also important in order to reach the target groups with different characteristics. It is anticipated that participation in and participation in cultural and art festivals held in different destinations around the world will be beneficial for the country in the future as well. In order for the local product festivals to achieve the targeted success, the program and the advertisement must be made very well. In this context, not only the administrative authorities but also the industrial partners and non-governmental organizations in the region should be supported and the local people should be encouraged to participate actively in the festival.

The quality of the products to be exhibited in the festivals, which is an important tool in the promotion of destinations, should be determined; the standards must be sorted in advance; projects should be prepared so that the values belonging to the local cultures can be transformed into tourist values and studies should be carried out in order to contribute to the local budgets by transforming the project outputs into commercial products. In addition, festivals should be introduced effectively on national and international platforms. In this regard, festival marketing activities should be carried out by a team of experts. As a result, festivals will provide great contributions to the social
and cultural development, tourism, promotion and economy of the region where they are organized when they are properly organized and managed accordingly.

REFERENCES


Chapter 48

SWOT Analysis: Tourist Guiding Students' Self-Assessment on their Eligibility of Carrying Out the Profession

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INTRODUCTION

According to the definition of World Federation of Tour Guides Associations (WFTGA); a tourist guide is a person who guides visitors in the language of their choice and interpretation of the cultural and natural heritage of an area which normally possesses an area-specific qualification is usually issued and/or recognized by the appropriate authority (www.wftga.org).

As per the Tourist Guiding Profession Law No. 6326 published in the Official Gazette dated June 22, 2012 and numbered 28331 and the Tourist Guiding Profession Regulation published in the Official Gazette dated December 26, 2014 and numbered 29217, tourist guiding service is defined as, "Provided that it is not being qualified as travel agency, introducing and touring the domestic or foreign tourists as individuals or groups around the cultural, touristic, historical, environmental, natural, social or similar values and assets using the language selected prior to the trip in line with the culture and tourism policies or conducting the trip program of the tours arranged by the travel agencies as defined in the written documents of the travel agency and as sold to the consumer". In the same laws and regulations, tourist guide is defined as the natural entity authorized to present tourist guiding services by being accepted to the profession in accordance with the provisions of the law (www.resmigazete.gov.tr).

The tourist guide is the person that helps the tourists understand the importance and value of the places visited, ensures that they enjoy from their travels, carries out their travel plans, who has a high sense of responsibility, can lead (Ap and Wong, 2001), creates intercultural relationships and provides the information flow between the tourists and destination shareholders (Huang et al., 2010). Tourist guides have tasks such as facilitating social interaction, hosting cultures and ensuring that the natural and cultural environment is understood by tourists. Tourist guides can sometimes act as teachers, security officers, public relations officers and business representatives (Black and Weiler, 2005). Tourist guides help establish healthy communication between local people and tourists and serve as ambassadors for the transfer of national culture to foreign tourists (Leclerc and Martin, 2004). When evaluated in this respect, it can be said that perhaps the tourist guides have the most effective role among the tourism employees in terms of the fact that tourists understand the visited country and the promotion of the country.

The performance that the tour guide exhibits directly affects the tourists' travel experience. Therefore, the better a tourist guide does his/her job, the more positive the tourist's travel satisfaction will be affected (Wang et al., 2000) and the greater the quality of the holiday experience is (Ham and Weiler, 2002). Tourist guides need to be able to organize and have fast problem-solving skills (Huang et al., 2010). As tourist
guiding is a dynamic profession, tourist guides need to constantly improve their mentoring skills and to be equipped with inter-individual behavior skills, sensitivity/job ethics, touristic product information and tourism contents (Prakash and Chowdhary, 2010). The fact that the work performance exhibited by the tourist guide positively affects the image of the destination or the country will contribute to the revisits by the tourists (Bowie and Chang, 2005).

In order to provide sustainable tourism demand in the tourism sector, it must have a qualified and educated workforce. As the people who create the tourism demand have different personalities and the expectations of each are different, the professional knowledge of the touristic service providers and their ability to do business should meet these expectations (Lovrentjev, 2015). During the education of tourist guides, the most important labor force of the tourism sector, it is necessary to develop the necessary knowledge and competence required by the tourism sector and the necessary personality traits.

In this research, it has been aimed that students receiving tourist guiding education evaluate themselves in terms of their eligibility to carry out tourist guiding profession within the scope of SWOT analysis. In this study, which is based on student opinions, efforts have been made to find out the knowledge and competence they possessed in terms of tourist guiding and to determine their weaknesses in terms of profession. For this purpose, the answers have been sought for the following research questions.

What are the strengths that students see in themselves in terms of being eligible for tourist guiding?

What are the weaknesses that students see in themselves in terms of being eligible for tourist guiding?

What things do the students assess as opportunities in terms of being eligible for tourist guiding?

What things do the students assess as threats in terms of being eligible for tourist guiding?

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The purpose of this research is to determine the opinions of the students who have studied in the Tourism Faculty of Çanakkale for four years of tourist guiding, including self-evaluations within the context of SWOT analysis in terms of carrying out tourist guidance profession. Another purpose of the study is to compare the opinions of first-year students and senior students. For this purpose, a case study has been adopted from qualitative research methods. The universe of the research is made up of students who study tourist guiding in the Faculty of Tourism in Çanakkale. In the study, criterion sampling method among the purposeful sampling methods has been used. 20 people from freshmen students (1st Grade) and 20 students from the senior students (3rd Grade) who had previous work experience with internship in travels in tourist guiding have been selected to make comparison in the research. In addition, the students wanting to work as tourist guides after graduation have been selected while being included in the sample. Students who did not want to work as tourist guides or stating that they were indecisive have not been included in the sample. Semi-structured interview form created by researches have been used in the research as the data collection medium. The principles that the questions are easily understood and they do not direct the responder have been emphasized while preparing the interview question...
The research questions have been prepared according to four main themes: the strengths and weaknesses that students see as tour guides and the opportunities and threats they perceive in the profession of tourist guiding. Content analysis and descriptive analysis have been conducted using the data obtained from interviews with participants. For this purpose, interviews have been made with 40 individuals among the 1st and 3rd grade students studying in the Faculty of Tourism on March 12-23, 2018 and voice recordings have been received. Participating students have been coded as P1, P2, P3 according to the interview order.

For the validity of the study, the details of the data collection and analysis have been elaborated to increase the external validity. At the end of the research, voice recordings were reported and converted to text. Another expert compared the research data reported with voice recordings of 8 random participants and the reports to be subjected to analysis have been confirmed. Time-based reliability is provided by the same encoding of the same probability at different times by the researcher. Apart from the researcher, an academics in the field of tourist guiding is also asked to code the research data. Observation-based reliability has been achieved with two researchers coding a phenomenon in the same way (96%). In qualitative research, internal validity depends on the likelihood of being able to transfer as directly as possible and as unbiased as possible (Yin, 1994). In order to increase the internal validity of the study, student comments have been directly quoted.

RESULTS

A total of 40 students have been interviewed in this study. Twenty students are first grade students, 11 females and 9 males. The other twenty students are third-year students, 8 females and 12 males. All of the forty students included in the survey have been selected from those who thought of working as tourist guides after completing their education.

Findings on Third Grade Students

In the study, findings obtained about the students who spent their third years in school and therefore are more knowledgeable and relatively experienced about tourist guiding because they completed their internship have been included. The codes and themes of the students' self-assessments on the profession of tourist guiding are provided in Table 1. The study has been organized on four main themes and sub-themes and codes related to them have been created.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
<th>Codes</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1-Strengths</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>1.1. Communication Skills</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Communication (33)</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Good communication (15)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Persuasiveness (3)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Empathy (3)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Addressing the crowd (2)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Sign language (1)</td>
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<td>Enjoying narrating (2)</td>
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<td>Being good-humored (3)</td>
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<td>Being friendly (4)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Leadership and Teamwork (38)</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Leadership qualities (8)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Teamwork (5)</td>
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<td>Adjustment (6)</td>
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<td><strong>1.2. Leadership and Teamwork</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Professional Features (26)</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Low Foreign Language Level (13)</td>
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<td>Inexperience (4)</td>
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<td>Lack of Concentration (6)</td>
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<td>Inability to use time (1)</td>
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<td>Inability to lead (1)</td>
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<td>Not being able to produce solutions (1)</td>
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<td><strong>1.3. Guiding-oriented</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Emotional Control (11)</strong></td>
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<td>Being overemotional (8)</td>
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<td>Excitement (2)</td>
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<td>Shyness (1)</td>
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<td>Impatience (9)</td>
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<td>Being unnecessarily hypercritical (5)</td>
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<td><strong>Tourism Potential (9)</strong></td>
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<td>Potential and diversity of tourism (8)</td>
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<td>Being a cheap country (1)</td>
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<td><strong>2.2. Emotional Control</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Meeting new people (4)</td>
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<td>Job opportunities (2)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Sector growth (2)</td>
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<td><strong>2.3. Negative Personality Traits</strong></td>
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<td><strong>3.2. Sectoral Opportunities</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>3.3. Education</strong></td>
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<td>4- Opportunities Threats to Work as Tourist Guides</td>
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<td><strong>3.1. National Problems</strong></td>
<td><strong>National Problems (13)</strong></td>
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<td><strong>3.2. Features of Tourism Sector</strong></td>
<td>Economic and Political Changes (6)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>3.3. Elements Directly Threatening Guides</strong></td>
<td>Terrorism and war incidents (4)</td>
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<td><strong>3.4. Family and Gender</strong></td>
<td>Non-adoption of sustainable tourism concept (3)</td>
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<td>Sectoral Features (11)</td>
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<td>Seasonality (4)</td>
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<td>Competitor countries (2)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Working conditions not being suitable for family life (1)</td>
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<td>Threats towards Guides (23)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Field guides (10)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Guide candidates in other faculties (6)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Experienced guides (2)</td>
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<td>Bad guides (2)</td>
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<td>Image of profession (1)</td>
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<td>Illegal guiding (1)</td>
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<td>Prejudice against female guides (1)</td>
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</table>

The strengths that third-year students see in themselves for tourist guiding have been grouped under three sub-themes. 75% of students in the sub-theme for communication skills have expressed that they communicate well with people. In addition, students who are friendly, good-humored, empathetic, persuasive speaking sign language, capable of addressing the crowd, and enjoy narrating, have expressed these characteristics as strengths for guiding. The second sub-theme in terms of strengths is leadership and teamwork. 40% of the students think they have leadership qualities. In this sub-theme, there are expressions that they are concordant, patient, self-confident, reliable, capable of teamwork, producing solutions and committed to the working plan. When the third sub-theme is addressed, it is understood that 55% of students are interested in reading on history-art and mythology. In addition; loving guiding, commitment to job ethics, being researching, sociable, experienced, curious and ambitious have been stated as strengths by the students. Some of these students' statements about strengths are as follows:

**P3:** "One of the most important issues in tourist guiding is to communicate well. I have confidence in myself in communicating with people. I am strictly committed to business ethics. I am known as a reliable person by the people around me. I can say that these traits I have are my strengths in fulfilling the responsibilities of the profession of tourist guiding."

**P7:** "I am a social person, I like to be in constant contact with people. I am very enthusiastic about working in the tourism sector and am ambitious about working. I think I will be successful in this profession because my foreign level language is good."

**P9:** "Tourist guiding is a profession based on mutual communication, which is the nature of the profession. The person to work as a tourist guide should be concordant with teamwork and possess leadership qualities. When I self-evaluate in this respect, I
think I succeeded. I am a person who produces a quick solution when faced with an undesired situation in working life. I also like to research and read. These features are my strongest strengths in terms of tourist guiding."

**P12:** "I think I have a few good qualities in terms of the profession of tourist guiding. I speak English fluently and I communicate well with the foreign tourists that come. I like studying history and art. The information regarding history and art are very useful in tourist guiding. In addition to these, I like to work in a planned way and use time well."

**P17:** "I have a high sense of responsibility. Therefore, I am a person who acts in accordance with business ethics. I always empathize and like to help people I communicate with. I can rapidly adapt on the innovations in technology. I am also self-confident; I believe I can work in this profession because I have high confidence."

The weaknesses that third-year students see in themselves for tourist guiding have been grouped under three sub-themes. 65% of the students with the sub-theme of professional characteristics express that their foreign language levels are not sufficient. However, lack of concentration, inexperience, inability to use time, lack of leadership, inability to lead, and shortcomings in producing solutions have been stated as weaknesses. In the second sub-theme, called emotional control, 40% of the students said they are over-emotional. Besides, excitement and shyness are considered as other weaknesses. The last sub-theme of weaknesses is negative personality traits. 45% of the students said they were impatient. Unnecessary hypercriticism, indecision, laziness and prejudice are expressed by the students as weaknesses. Some of these students' statements about weaknesses are as follows;

**P4:** "I'm an emotional person. I think that my concentration will quickly be disrupted when I face a negative situation while touring the tourists around a destination. I need to improve myself in this regard and this makes me nervous."

**P8:** "I am a hypercritical person, sometimes I forget the real issue when I'm dealing with details. In this way, I get distracted while working. I leave work incomplete when my motivation is disrupted. Everything happens instantly in the tourist guiding and the real issue should not be missed. I can say that this is my biggest weakness."

**P12:** "I am emotional and my feelings prevent me from making a logical decision in some cases. Especially when I get angry or very upset I cannot handle the situation. This is a disadvantage for me."

**P15:** "I love the tourist guiding and I want to do it. However, my foreign language level is now insufficient. I need to improve myself in this regard. Having an impatient personality may be my other weakness. I throw in the towel or give up when necessary for something to happen. Therefore, I think I cannot use the time efficiently. I need to develop these aspects in order to be able to work as a tourist guide."

**P19:** "I get excited while speaking in front of a crowd. When I am excited, my concentration gets disrupted. This may cause me to make mistakes. I need to improve my foreign language level by developing this trait. These two things are my weaknesses in the name of tourist guiding."

The occasions that third-year students see as opportunities for tourist guiding have been grouped under three sub-themes. In the first sub-theme, 40% of students considers that Turkey's tourism potential is high, and one person considers that Turkey being cheap as a tourism country is an opportunity. The second sub-theme is sectoral
(tourism) opportunities. 20% of the students have expressed that meeting new people who have expertise in their jobs within the tourism sector is an opportunity. The increase in business opportunities, growth of the tourism sector, acquisition of high wages and existence of unqualified guides have been considered as opportunities for those that will work as tourist guides. In terms of opportunities, the last sub-theme has been named education. 30% of the students think that the faculty where they receive tourist guiding education is an opportunity for them. Overseas education opportunities and family support are also expressed by the students as other opportunities. Some of these students' statements about opportunities are as follows;

**P1:** "I think I have been studying tourist guiding in a good school. It is one of the important opportunities for us that Turkey has a high tourism potential. When I start to work as a tourist guide, I think I can have a good relationship with the people in the tourism sector."

**P6:** "I live in Çanakkale, one of Turkey's most important tourism cities, and I study here. This is a great opportunity for me for self-improvement. Because local and foreign tourist tours are being conducted for this city. It is very important for us that it is possible to practice tourist guiding in this city."

**P9:** "I think Turkey will be one of the leading countries in terms of tourism in the following periods. We live in a country rich in terms of tourism diversity. I think that Turkey will need more tourist guides in the coming periods."

**P14:** "People take more vacations now. The constant development of the tourism industry means that tourist guides will be needed more. I consider the fact that the current guides in the sector have poor qualifications as an opportunity for us. Turkey being one of the cheapest countries in terms of tourist spending indicate that it will attract more foreign tourists. I think we can earn high wages if we develop ourselves in the profession of tourist guiding."

**P18:** "After school is over, I can study abroad. In terms of tourism, we are one of the most important countries, not counting the last few years. I think the tourist guides have a lot of business opportunities. If I develop myself as a guide later on, I can earn good money by going on quality tours."

The occasions that third-year students see as threats for tourist guiding have been grouped under three sub-themes. In the first sub-theme, expressed as the national problems, 30% of students have noted that the economic and political changes in Turkey will damage the tourism, therefore the tourist guides. The terrorist incidents against Turkey and the state of war in the foreign countries are also perceived as threats. Three students think that the concept of sustainable tourism is not adopted in Turkey. The second sub-theme, sectoral characteristics, includes seasonality, working conditions, tourism being affected from external factors, and competing countries in tourism. In the third sub-theme, the statements about situations that directly threaten tourist guides are included. 50% of the students have perceived the guides working as tourist guides as a threat. 30% of the students have expressed the tour guide students in the other faculties as a threat. In addition to these, bad guides that do not follow business ethics, experienced guides, illegal guiding, poor image of the profession are expressed as threats to the profession of tourist guiding. Some of these students' statements about threats are as follows;

**P2:** "I think the greatest enemy to a guide is another guide. I think the guiding profession has a bad image in the eyes of the society. Unqualified guides are also
severely ruining the reputation of the profession. These types of guides are the most threatening to tourist guidance."

P5: "I think that the terrorist incidents are very damaging to the country tourism. The likelihood of their reoccurrence is one of the most threatening conditions for tourism and therefore the profession of tourist guiding. In addition, field guides working or being employed as tourist guides is another issue that harms the profession of tourist guiding.

P10: "The presence of a constant war in neighboring countries threatens tourism. Moreover, the political changes and the fluctuations in the economy in Turkey that have been experienced in the last few years have negatively affected the tourism. In addition, non-adoption of sustainable tourism concept harms the tourism resources. Along with all these negativities, I consider using the field guides like tourist guides since their fees are lower as serious threats to the profession of tourist guiding."

P16: "The civil war situation in Syria and Iraq together with the terrorist incidents occur in our geography affects the Turkish tourism. I also have experienced guides in the industry and those who have received tourist guidance training in other schools are my opponents. Field guides working as tourist guides can be evaluated as a threat that prevents me from working as a tourist guide."

P20: "The most important reason underlying the inability to practice tourist guiding constantly is the fact that the sector is seasonal. Tourist guiding requires constant traveling, and these travels are usually directed outside the city. This is especially disadvantageous for those, especially women, who want to establish a family life. I also think there are some prejudices against women in the sector. I think that female guides are less preferred because of these prejudices. These are the situations that threaten to work as a tourist guide for me."

Findings on First Grade Students

The codes and themes of the first-year students' self-assessments on the profession of tourist guiding are provided in Table 2. As stated before, the study has been organized on four main themes and sub-themes and codes related to them have been created.

The strengths that students see in themselves for tourist guiding have been grouped under three sub-themes. 50% of students in the sub-theme for communication skills have expressed that they communicate well with people. In addition to this, other strengths expressed are friendliness and enjoying narrating. In the sub-theme, leadership and teamwork, 15% of the students have stated that they have leadership qualities. In this sub-theme, there are expressions that they produce solutions, are self-confident, hardworking, reliable and helpful. When the third sub-theme is considered, it is understood that 45% of the students are open to learning and 35% likes to study history and arts. In addition; enjoying traveling, enjoying guiding, commitment to job ethics, being researching, sociable and curious have been stated as strengths by the students. Some of these students' statements about strengths are as follows;

P21: "I like to read history and narrate things to people. I want to be a guide in Çanakkale. I know this region well and I think I will succeed because I love this profession."
## Table 2: SWOT Analysis of Tourist Guides (1st Grade)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
<th>Codes</th>
</tr>
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</table>
| **1-Strengths** | 1.1. Communication Skills | Communication (18)  
Good communication (10)  
Enjoying narrating (4)  
Being friendly (4)  
**Leadership and Teamwork (11)**  
Leadership qualities (3)  
Producing solutions (3)  
Hardworking (2)  
High self-confidence (1)  
Reliable (1)  
Helpful (1)  
**Profession of Guiding (39)**  
Being open to learning (9)  
Studying history/art (7)  
Enjoying travelling (6)  
Good level of foreign language (5)  
Enjoying guiding (4)  
Commitment to business ethics (3)  
Researching (3)  
Curious (2) |
| | 1.2. Leadership and Teamwork | |
| | 1.3. Guiding-oriented | |
| **2-Weaknesses** | 2.1. Professional Qualifications | **Professional Features (15)**  
Low Foreign Language Level (8)  
Inexperience (3)  
Inability to communicate (2)  
Inability to lead (1)  
Disliking travelling (1)  
**Emotional Control (8)**  
Being overemotional (6)  
Shyness (2)  
**Negative Personality Traits (11)**  
Forgetfulness (4)  
Laziness (3)  
Impatience (2)  
Introversion (2) |
| | 2.2. Emotional Control | |
| | 2.3. Negative Personality Traits | |
| **3- Opportunities Perceived to Work as Tourist Guides** | 3.1. Tourism Potential of Turkey | **Tourism Potential (11)**  
Potential and diversity of tourism (10)  
Being a cheap country (1)  
**Sectoral Opportunities (9)**  
Meeting new people (5)  
Earning high wages (3)  
Touristic investments (1)  
**Education (6)**  
Faculty and city of education (4)  
Opportunity to study abroad (2) |
| | 3.2. Sectoral Opportunities | |
| | 3.3. Education | |
| **4- Threats Perceived to Work as Tourist Guides** | 3.1. National Problems | **National Problems (13)**  
Political Changes (4)  
Terrorism and war incidents (12)  
Non-adoption of sustainable tourism concept (3)  
**Sectoral Features (11)**  
Decreasing touristic demand (4)  
Working conditions (3) |
| | 3.2. Features of Tourism Sector | |
| | 3.3. Elements Directly Threatening Guides | |
P26: "My foreign language level is fine and I learn quickly. I am a person who likes to travel and I like to be moving. Having these features for the profession of guiding can be my strengths."

P31: "I can express myself very easily. I can easily communicate with people and quickly socialize. I think I will succeed in managing the groups. I am also eager to see new places and gather information about them. These are my strengths."

P34: "I am a successful person in terms of communication. I'm also a person open for learning. I like to read on art and mythology and to research. I usually like to tell people about what I learn. These can give me an advantage when I work in this profession."

P40: "Those who work as tourist guides will travel frequently. I am a person who enjoys travelling. I will not have difficulties about concordance as I am a person open for learning and innovation in every way. I emphasize on business ethics and work hard. I can speak English at a good level. I think I will communicate well with people. I love the profession of tourist guiding and I think I will do it successfully."

The weaknesses that third-year students see in themselves for tourist guiding have been grouped under three sub-themes. 40% of the students with the sub-theme of professional characteristics express that their foreign language levels are not sufficient. In addition; inexperience, inability to lead, difficulty in communication and dislike of travel have been expressed as weaknesses. In the second sub-theme, called emotional control, 30% of the students said they are over-emotional and 10% said that they are shy. The last sub-theme of weaknesses is negative personality traits. Among these personality traits are forgetfulness (20%), laziness, impatience and introversion. Some of these students' statements about weaknesses are as follows;

P22: "One needs to have a good level of foreign language knowledge to work as a tourist guide. My foreign language level is not at desired level. My biggest weakness is that my foreign language is inadequate."

P27: "I have difficulty communicating with people in some situations. I also think that my aspect of leading in terms of directing crowded groups is weak."

P31: "I am a person who acts with my emotions, I immediately cry I feel down. My motivation drops quickly. I'm also a forgetful person. I do not deviate away from my convictions, which may cause me to have troubles in the service sector in terms of customer satisfaction."

P34: "My weakness is speaking foreign languages. Sometimes I'm fragile because I'm an emotional person. I also do not like long travels as they are tiring. Forgetfulness is another one of my personal traits and this poses a disadvantage for tourist guiding."

P39: "I think I'll get tired quickly in the high tempo. Sometimes I can be lazy. I also think my memory is weak because I forget quickly. These features are things that should not be in the tourist guide. These are my weaknesses."

The occasions that third-year students see as opportunities for tourist guiding have been grouped under three sub-themes. In the first sub-theme, 50% of students considers
that Turkey's tourism potential is high, and one person considers that Turkey being cheap as a tourism country is an opportunity. The second sub-theme is sectoral (tourism) opportunities. 25% of the students have expressed that meeting new people who have expertise in their jobs within the tourism sector is an opportunity. Earning high wages and making tourist investments have been considered as opportunities for those who will work as tourist guides. In terms of opportunities, the last sub-theme has been named education. 20% of the students see the faculty and city where they are studying tourist guidance as an opportunity on their behalf. Two students consider taking language education abroad as an opportunity. Some of these students' statements about opportunities are as follows;

**P23:** "I think that one can earn a good income in this profession. I can also receive education in the foreign language schools overseas and have the opportunity to develop my foreign language skills. I might also have a chance to work as a guide in other languages. When I start to work in the tourism sector, I can meet new people and establish business relations."

**P26:** "Thanks to this profession, I can meet with many people. I have an interest in learning from different cultures. I can get a chance to meet people from different cultures thanks to tourist guiding. I also think that if I specialize in the profession I will earn good wages."

**P29:** "Turkey is a country that receives much attention by foreign tourists. Çanakkale is also one of the most visited places. I think the school we are studying is one of the schools that offers the best tourist guiding education. I think it is a good opportunity for us to live and be educated in Çanakkale and we should make use of it well. We can also learn a lot from people we will meet in the sector. I think these situations that I listed are important opportunities for tourist guides, that is, for us."

**P34:** "Turkey has a lot of appeal in terms of both natural and historical attractions. Many of the ancient civilizations lived in the Anatolian geography. Especially in terms of culture, I think that Turkey is a tourist attraction. I think Turkey will offer many opportunities for tourist guides."

**P38:** "Turkey's tourism potential is increasing with new archaeological excavations. In addition, increasing the investments for tourism and making promotions will make more tourists come to Turkey in the following periods. Thus, tourist guides can obtain more area of work."

The occasions that third-year students see as threats for tourist guiding have been grouped under three sub-themes. In the first sub-theme, expressed as the national problems, 60% of students have noted that terrorism and war incidents will damage the tourism, therefore the tourist guides. Four students think that the political changes and three students think that the failure to adopt sustainable tourism concept are threats for tourist guiding. The sectoral characteristics, second sub-theme, includes decreased tourist demand (20%), working conditions, increasing number of Arab tourists and negatively affecting family life in the tourism sector. In the third sub-theme, the statements about situations that directly threaten tourist guides are included. 25% of the students regard the field guides working as tourist guides and 20% of them regard the illegal guiding activities as a threat to make a profession of tourist guiding. Some of these students' statements about threats are as follows;

**P24:** "Recently there have been changes in tourist profiles coming to my country. I think the fact that Arab tourists start to prefer Turkey is one of the biggest threats for me
to do work in this profession. There is also destruction in nature and historical monuments. The fact that the geography we are in is constantly at war is one of the most important obstacles in the development of tourism."

P28: "There is a tendency to employ illegal guides without any licenses within the tourism sector. I think that the political changes in Turkey negatively affect tourist demand. Besides that, there's the field guiding issue. Field guides working as tourist guides is another element that threatens the profession of tourist guiding."

P29: "Sometimes terrorist attacks affect tourism movements negatively. Therefore, when tourists do not arrive, tourist guides have difficulty in finding a job. It may be difficult to work in this profession for those who want to build a family in the long run because the profession of tourist guiding has a dynamic business structure. Even though I want to work in this profession, I am afraid not being able to spend time for myself and my family when I build a family in the long run."

P33: "I think Turkey currently experiencing problems in foreign affairs decreases the number of foreign tourists. In addition, it is a great injustice that field guides take the jobs away from guides. I think the biggest problem that threatens the profession of tourist guiding is field guides."

P36: "I think the terrorism incidents in the neighboring countries and the state of war negatively affects Turkey. Recently there has been a decrease in the number of tourists coming to my country due to these reasons. Besides, destruction of tourist attractions will adversely affect tourism. I also think that the tourist guide working conditions are a bit intense, and I do not know if I can withstand these conditions in the long run."

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

In the research, interviews have been made with the first-grade students that recently started their education and third-grade students that have completed their internship, are more knowledgeable regarding the profession and are relatively more experienced. Tourist guidance students who want to continue their career as tourist guides are asked to assess themselves within the scope of SWOT analysis in terms of being able to carry out this profession and the findings of these assessments are compared in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
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| **Communication** (18) 
Good communication (10) 
Enjoying narrating (4) 
Being friendly (4) | **Communication** (33) 
Good communication (15) 
Persuasiveness (3) 
Empathy (3) 
Addressing the crowd (2) 
Sign language (1) 
Enjoying narrating (2) 
Being good-humored (3) 
Being friendly (4) | **Professional Features** (15) 
Low foreign language level (8) 
Inexperience (3) 
Inability to communicate (2) 
Inability to lead (1) 
Disliking travelling (1) | **Professional Features** (26) 
Low Foreign Language Level (13) 
Inexperience (4) 
Lack of Concentration (6) 
Inability to use time (1) 
Inability to lead (1) 
Not being able to produce solutions (1) | **Emotional Control** (8) 
Being overemotional (6) 
Shyness (2) | **Emotional Control** (11) 
Being overemotional (8) 
Excitement (2) | **Negative Personality Traits** (11) | **Negative Personality** (1) |

**Table 3: Comparison of Self-SWOT Analysis Results for Two Groups in Terms of the Profession of Tourist Guiding**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traits (18)</th>
<th>Patient (6)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Being unnecessarily hypercritical (5)</td>
<td>Enjoying travelling (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indecisiveness (2)</td>
<td>Enjoying guiding (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laziness (1)</td>
<td>Commitment to business ethics (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prejudiced (1)</td>
<td>Profound knowledge (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambitious (3)</td>
<td>Enjoying history / art / mythology (11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambitious (3)</td>
<td>Sociable (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Researching (4)</td>
<td>Enjoying guiding (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curious (2)</td>
<td>Good level of foreign language (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliability (2)</td>
<td>Commitment to business ethics (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience (2)</td>
<td>Researching (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curious (2)</td>
<td>Ambitious (3)</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived Threats</th>
<th>Perceived Opportunities</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>1st Grade Students</strong></td>
<td><strong>3rd Grade Students</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Problems (11)</td>
<td>Tourism Potential (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic and Political Changes (6)</td>
<td>Potential and diversity of tourism (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorism and war incidents (4)</td>
<td>Being a cheap country (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-adoption of sustainable tourism concept (3)</td>
<td>Sectoral Opportunities (12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sectoral Features (11)</td>
<td>Meeting new people (4)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Seasonality (4)</td>
<td>Job opportunities (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working conditions (2)</td>
<td>Sector growth (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being affected from external factors (2)</td>
<td>Earning high wages (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitor countries (2)</td>
<td>Lack of qualified guides (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working conditions not being suitable for family life (1)</td>
<td>Education (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threats towards Guides (9)</td>
<td>Faculty of education (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field guides (5)</td>
<td>Opportunity to study abroad (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illegal guiding (4)</td>
<td>Family support (1)</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Upon assessing the students in terms of strengths, there are students in both groups who state that they can communicate well, they enjoy narrating and they are friendly. In addition to these, there are students who are more persuasive, empathic, know sign language, good-humored and can address to the crowd according to the statements of third grade students. It can be said that the communication skills of the experienced students are higher. Tourist guides are the most important helpers of tourists when they want to communicate with local people, tourism workers and other tourists (Huang et
al., 2010). Guides must constantly explain where and how tourists should behave (Cohen, 1985). Tourist guides are therefore expected to communicate well and enjoy narrating, and since the students are aware of this, they have expressed these traits as strengths. In the context of direct leadership and teamwork, the codes for experienced students (38) are higher than codes for first grade students (11) according to the statements of students. In this context, although there are reliable, confident and hardworking students with leadership qualities and that create practical solutions, we observe that experienced students possess this characteristic further especially in terms of leadership quality. Experienced students are a group of people who concord to teamwork, have patience, adapting, and are committed to their work plan. Managing the tours that tourists buy is one of the most important tasks of guides (Bowie and Chang, 2005). Leadership, by many authors, is considered to be one of the most important features a guide must possess (Fennell and Eagles, 1990, Moscardo, 1998, Haig and McIntyre, 2002, Ormsby and Mannle, 2006, Reisinger and Steiner, 2006, Randall and Rollins, 2009). Therefore, it is considered that the most important reason behind students' expressing leadership qualities as strengths is due to the ability to manage the tour. When it is evaluated in terms of features directly related to the profession of guiding in strengths, it is observed that codes (39-38) for experienced students are close to each other. In both groups, there are students who love to read history-art or mythology, who love the profession of guiding, possessing foreign language knowledge at a good level and state that they like researching, are curious and committed to the job ethics. In the first-grade group, students who are open to learning and liking to travel have considered these characteristics as strengths in being engaged in this profession, while third grade students have evaluated the strengths as being sociable, experienced and ambitious.

The weaknesses expressed by the students in terms of profession of tourist guiding are covered in the scope of sub-themes of professional features, emotional control and negative personality traits. Students should develop themselves in the context of emotional control. Because, among the researchers conducted in Turkey are researches stating that tourist guiding is an emotionally back-breaking profession (Köroğlu and Köroğlu, 2011; Güzel et al. 2013). In the context of direct professional characteristics, the codes for experienced students (26) are higher than codes for first grade students (15) according to the statements of students. In both groups there are students who state that their foreign language level is low, they are inexperienced and have weak leadership qualities. 65% of third-year students have stated that they are weak in terms of foreign languages. While among the experienced students are those stating that they lack concentration and have difficulty in creating solutions, there are students who experience difficulties in communication and do not enjoy travelling among the first graders. Experienced students seem to have more weaknesses than first-year students. However, in this study, students assessed themselves and may have expressed weaknesses more easily because the group considered to be better informed about their profession has more knowledge about professional requirements. For example, there are more students in recent years who say that the level of foreign language is lower. They may be better aware of their own shortcomings due to the fact that they have done their internship at the site, or they may be self-assessing against YDS language exam, which requires a score of 75. As a result, first-year students may not be aware of language levels because they have no experience of YDS or field experience. When the students
are assessed in terms of emotional control, similar results have been obtained. Both groups have extremely emotional and shy people. In addition, among the experienced students are those stating that they get excited before a tourist group. From this point of view, the first-year students may not be aware whether they are excited since they have not yet made a presentation before the group. There are impatient and lazy individuals in both groups within the scope of negative personality traits. While there are forgetful and introverted persons among the first-year students, there are students among experienced students expressing that they are unnecessarily hypercritical, indecisive and prejudiced. Within this sub-theme, third-year students (18) have reported more occasions than first-year students (11). In this study, it is considered that senior students are more aware of their weaknesses due to their knowledge and professional experience.

Within the scope of the opportunities perceived by the students in terms of the profession of tourist guiding, the sub-themes of Turkey’s tourism profession, sectoral opportunities and education. Students in both groups have stated that the tourism potential and tourist attraction of Turkey is high. Students from both groups have stated that Turkey being a cheap country in terms of tourism is an opportunity. According to these statements, they regard the fact that more tourists will come in the previous periods as an opportunity. Being able to meet new people (within the sector) within the scope of sectoral opportunities and to earn high wages is considered as an opportunity in two groups. There are some experienced students who see job opportunities as well as the opportunity to have unqualified people among the existing guides in the sector. This is also thought to be due to the fact that senior students are relatively well informed about the sector and therefore have opinions about current guides. The occasions deemed as opportunities in terms of education are similar to each other. In both groups, there are those who regard the faculty and city where they receive tourist guiding education as opportunities. Since Çanakkale is a city that is visited by domestic and foreign tourists, it offers an environment where students can practice and benefit from experienced guides. In addition, some of the students consider overseas language schools as opportunities. Some think that they can develop their language and others will be able to introduce new languages into their guiding cockades.

The threats perceived by the students in terms of the profession of tourist guiding have been assessed in three sub-themes: national problems, sectoral characteristics and threats towards the guides in carrying out their professions. Student opinions are very close to each other in terms of national problems. In both groups, there are students who think that political and economic changes negatively affect tourism. In addition, the terrorist attacks to which Turkey is exposed and may be exposed to, as well as the fact that the neighboring countries of Turkey are at war, are considered to affect the tourism activities towards Turkey negatively. Students have expressed that the adverse effects on tourism will limit the job opportunities of tourist guides. Some students from the two groups expressed the view that the non-adoption of sustainable tourism concept jeopardizes tourism supply resources. The disappearance of supply resources supports the perception of this situation as a danger since it will diminish touristic demand. With the perceived threats within the scope of sectoral characteristics are considered, it is stated that working conditions of the tourism sector and these conditions are difficult in terms of family life. Experienced students have also expressed as threats the tourism sector being seasonal, tourism being influenced by external factors and the competitor countries in terms of tourism. When seasonality is considered, tourist guides work
during certain periods of the year and cannot do business for the rest of the year (Güzel et al., 2013). In the context of direct threats to guides, the codes for experienced students (23) are higher than codes for first grade students (9) according to the statements of students. Both groups deem the field guides and illegal guides as threats. Because some field guides are being employed like tourist guides because they go on tour at low rates. In addition, some foreign language experts (teachers, interpreters, foreign nationals, etc.) are engaged in illegal guiding activities. In addition to causing the job opportunities of tourist guides to be taken from them, this also results in the field guides being insufficient in tourist satisfaction since they are not expert guides. Therefore, it is a consequence that is expected to be perceived as a threat since it damages tourism and tourist guides. Guide candidates in the other faculties, experienced guides in the sector, guides damaging the reputation of the profession, the profession having a bad image, prejudice against female guides and not being preferred because of that are other threatening elements expressed by third grade students. In particular, guide candidates in other faculties are perceived as threats because they are regarded as competitors. This is due to the new faculties and departments opened in recent years. It is probable that the school that is opened without consideration of needs and the students who are accepted will turn to other works in the coming periods.

In conclusion, the characteristics and competences that students see in themselves are in line with the needs of the profession of tourist guiding. Again, the weaknesses they see in themselves are within the features and competencies that must be in the tourist guide. Students have shortcomings about foreign language level in particular. In addition, students need to develop themselves in leadership and management skills, concentration and emotional control. In these matters, it is necessary to develop the education and practices given to the schools, and the students who want to do this profession need to make individual efforts to improve themselves. This study has been conducted using interview techniques with 40 students and includes students studying in only one school. In order to evaluate the professional qualifications of the students and to improve the educational processes, it is necessary to carry out studies which utilize quantitative methods and include wider sample groups in the coming periods. In this way, both training programs can be developed and the training of the qualified workforce needed by the tourism sector can be contributed.

REFERENCES


Chapter 49

Traditional Afyonkarahisar Cuisine and Local Dishes

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INTRODUCTION

The basic elements that carry the societies from past to present are expressed in the context of the culture concept. In this sense, it can be said that the culture shapes a society and forms it with abstract-concrete images. While abstract images like religion, beliefs, values, attitudes and perceptions constitute the basic dynamics of culture, concrete images such as institutions, festivals, traditions, and customs can be considered as structural elements of the culture. The process that individuals learn the culture is also referred to as the process of socialization and the notion of “how to behave in a cultural structure” is learned within this process. In socialization, which is also described as the process of acquiring identity, social relations, social sharing and social cohesion are important elements. Many social events such as birth, marriage, circumcision and death are noteworthy in terms of reflecting social cohesion, sharing and behavior (Sağır, 2012).

Agriculture was one of the decisive factors for human beings in dominating nature, continuing their existence and establishing civilizations. Perhaps beginning cultivating (with the Neolithic period) was the most important progress in the history of mankind, as they were dependent on nature for hundreds of thousands of years. Agriculture, along with the basic characteristic of providing constant food essential for human life, became determinant in the story of mankind with the developments it enabled (Toprak, 2015).

Civilizations with diverse characteristics on the history scene were undoubtedly influenced by the geographical conditions they had lived in, their cultivated crops, and their cultures, which were transmitted from generation to generation, in their own eating and drinking habits and culinary cultures. While every society was shaping its own culture, they had followed the traditions and customs inherited from their ancestors. Besides, culture brought out different regional cuisines and had a significant impact on the eating and drinking habits of the societies (Avcı & Şahin, 2014).

Every country, every region, even every city has its own food and drink. If there are a large number of crops grown in the geographical region in which humans live, these products will be effective in the cuisine of that region (Odabaşi, 2001).

Diet, the production, consumption and preparation of food are completely related to the cultural items of traditions, likes, dislikes, beliefs and taboos. In other words it is one of the most important cultural codes. Anthropologists treat eating habits in a cultural context. According to the rules of cultural relativism, behaviour patterns vary
from one society to another. While people’s hunger and eating for hunger are a general biochemical event; how, when and which food they choose to eat is an anthropological and therefore a cultural phenomenon. In addition to these, each culture can also have a different approach for enjoying and being affected from the things they eat and drink. A food item that is considered disgusting in a society may be the most important example of delicious food in another society (Toprak, 2015).

With this characteristic, the food culture contains both diet which means "the intake of the nutrients necessary for the body" and cuisine culture meaning the food and beverage types and their preparation, cooking, storage and consumption processes. It also contains the place, equipments for preparing and consuming foods, the eating and drinking tradition and the holistic and unique cultural structure composed of the beliefs and practices of those elements (Toprak, 2015).

**TURKISH FOOD CULTURE**

The Turkish cuisine consists; foods and drinks; their preparation, cooking, preservation and all necessary tools and techniques for these operations. Also dining etiquette and practices and beliefs about the food culture exist in it (Arlı & Gümüş, 2007). Historical accumulation and diversity, the richness of the geography, and the quality products are the main units that form the basis of the Turkish cuisine. The possibilities of these have also improved the characteristics of the Turkish cuisine (Önçel, 2015). The Turks have lived in different geographical regions and in the historical process; this has led to the development of the culinary cultures.

The Turkish culinary culture can be traced back to Central Asia, 200 BC and it has experienced some changes over time. It reached to the present state with the rich product variety of Asian and Anatolian lands and the interactions with other cultures. The Turks’ history began in the Central Asian region. The Turks had been a nomadic society in Central Asia. Later they reached to Anatolia, their culinary culture richened and their eating and drinking habits changed (Kızıldemir et al., 2014).

The structure of the Turkish culinary culture can be examined in four periods. These are firstly, pre-Islamic and Islamic Middle Asian Turkish Cuisine, Seljuk Cuisine, Ottoman Cuisine and finally Republican Period Cuisine. With the influence of Islam, in Central Asian Turkish culinary culture, the foods and beverages that Islam has forbidden were no longer used. This is the most important fact that shapes the cuisine. With the acceptance of Islam, the culinary cultures of the Turks continued but the religious prohibitions and the necessities started to be applied (Kızıldemir et al., 2014).

In the historical process of the Turkish kitchen culture, the Seljuk period created a unique culinary culture with their dish varieties, cooking and preservation techniques. In the Seljuks there were two meals called mid-morning and evening (zevale) meal. In the mid-morning the filling dishes were chosen. There were plenty of varieties in the evening meal and the meal was eaten before it gets dark. During the Seljuk period, meat, flour and oil were seen as symbols of eating habits. Lamb, goat, horse and chicken were the most eaten animals. Secondly birds and fish were eaten. In the Seljuks offal was eaten much, but vegetable dishes were not preferred (Güler, 2010). The names of dishes such as trotter, pita (thin bread) with meat, tutmaç (a soup made with chickpeas, dough and lentil), hoşmerim (halva with cream, fresh cheese and walnuts), molasses, boza (thick, slightly fermented millet drink), sucuk (turkish style fermented sausage), and pastrami (cured spiced beef) have been unchanged since the Seljuk period
In Ottoman cuisine, Ottoman palace kitchen is the first thing comes to mind. Enrichment of the variety and fame of Ottoman cuisine started with Topkapı Palace kitchen. The Ottoman Empire had a relatively simpler cuisine until the 17th century, but it was varied after the 17th century and reached its peak in the 19th century. Hundreds of chefs and chef assistants were working in Ottoman palace kitchen. They had specialties in rice, kebab, vegetable, dessert, pastry, fish, and halva (a sweetmeat like dessert mostly made with semolina or flour). The palace desserts were made in helvahane (the kitchen where desserts were made) and desserts called with names of halva, paste and hosaf (fruit stew). Okra was a prominent food and had an important place in Ottoman palace kitchen. Okra dishes took part in every sultan’s meal. In the 15th and 16th centuries, mutancana (a dish made with lamb meat and dried nuts) was one of the most frequent dishes in the palace (Akkor, 2017).

Döner Kebab, pita (flat bread), lahmacun (very thin turkish pizza covered with seasoned minced meat and onions), Turkish bagel (ring-shaped bread covered with sesame seeds), gözleme (Turkish pancake), patty, wrap, meatball, stew, tandoor kebab (kabab made in tandour), kebabs, fish, pastrami, sucuk, cheese, olives and some offal are the symbol of the Anatolian cuisine. It is possible to see all the fruits and vegetables in Anatolian cuisine. As dry legumes, lentils, chickpeas and rice are the most famous ones. Soup dishes in Anatolia are lentil soup, ezogelin soup (made with rice, lentil, cracked wheat, and tomato paste), tarhana soup (made with dried yoghurt and vegetables) (Kızıldemir et al., 2014). According to Güler (2010), especially tarhana soup, yoghurt soup, flour soup, lentil soup is among the most consumed and known soup dishes.

Pudding, baklava (multilayered flaky pastry with walnuts, pistachios etc), kadayif (oven baked shredded pastry with pistachio filling in thick syrup), sülțaç (milk pudding with rice), tulumba (syrup-soaked pastry), lokma (yeast fritters in thick syrup), cake and cookies are the most common desserts in Turkey. Ayran (diluted salted yoghurt drink) is the most common drink. However, with the influence of globalization, fizzy drinks like coke or alcoholic beverages are consumed too. In addition, seafood, red meat and white meat are among the foods consumed according to the region. Pork is not consumed by the people of the country with the effect of Islam but some enterprises cook it for the tourists (Kızıldemir et al., 2014).

Turkish culinary culture has many examples of healthy and balanced food with different taste. Even there are examples of vegetarian cuisine. The characteristics of the Turkish cuisine can be listed as follows (Önçel, 2015):

• The main food ingredient in Turkish cuisine is bread.
• Habits play an important role in Turkish cuisine.
• Pastries in Turkish cuisine are among the most important kind of dishes.
• In Turkish cuisine, vegetables are commonly cooked with meat, onion, tomato and tomato paste.
• In Turkish cuisine especially in rural areas, self-grown herbs, mushrooms and roots are used extensively.
• Oil is very important in Turkish cuisine. Olive oil is mostly used in Western Anatolian cuisine. Oils obtained from milk and suet, tail fat is widely used in every region of the country.
• Yoghurt is an important food source in Turkish cuisine. Spilling yoghurt (plain or
with garlic) on the dishes and ayran is common.

- There is not much sauce service in Turkish cuisine. In recent years, with the influence of western cuisines, serving sauces with food has become widespread, but old traditions still continue on many places.
- Various spices are used in Turkish cuisine. In salads, soups and dishes, the use of wet and dry mint and parsley is common.
- Turkish cuisine does not give much importance on ornamentation in dishes. In dishes, taste is more important than the look.

In Turkey, cuisine culture varies according to the climate of the region and grown vegetables and fruits (Güler, 2010). Aegean Region features the most characteristic examples of Mediterranean cuisine in Turkey. When the cuisine culture of Aegean Region is examined, it can be seen that Aegean coast cuisine is different from inner areas. Aegean Cuisine is moving away from the Mediterranean identity as it goes from coast to inland. İzmir cuisine, located in Aegean coast, consist the most beautiful examples of light, healthy and olive oil dishes. Vegetable dishes are also important in İzmir Cuisine. Artichoke dishes, green beans and aubergine are often cooked. Gerdan kebab (made with lamb chuck) and meat stew are some of the dishes made with red meat but red meat generally does not used in Aegean Cuisine (Kılıç, 2010). On the other hand, in Afyonkarahisar, which is located in the inner parts of the Aegean Region, it can be said that the meat dishes are common and the number of dishes made with olive oil is low.

**AFYONKARAHISAR FOOD CULTURE**

Afyonkarahisar is located within the boundaries of the Inner West Anatolia part of the Aegean Region, Turkey. Since the Old Bronze Age, many civilizations have lived there. The excavations in the Sandıklı Kusura Höyük showed that local pots from the Hittite period, rock temples for the Mother Goddess Kybele from the Phrygian period and local sculptures from the Roman period are prominent features. It is seen that Afyonkarahisar was a bridge for other cities in Anatolia with these features (URL 1). Urbanization in the region began after 1000 BC. The Phrygians established a city in Göynüş Valley and Old Döger Rocks in the district of İhsaniye. Kelenia (today's Dinar) was the first established ancient city (AIKM, 2018).

The name of the city "Afyon" comes from poppy, which is the essence of the poppy plant used in medicines. It is understood from the coins from Synnada (Şuhut) city, which has poppy relief on it, that poppy plant, which is “Opium” in Latin, was planted from the beginning of the second century BCE. The spelling and pronunciation of opium, which means sap in Latin, was changed in time and became ofium, afiom, afion and finally afyon (URL 1).

Due to the hosting of many old civilizations, Afyonkarahisar has different historical and cultural values. This is also reflected in the food culture and its products. Afyonkarahisar also features products with different geographical indications.

According to the Decree Law No. 555 on Protection of Geographical Indications, geographical indications are divided into two parts as designation of origin and geographical indication. A product with designation of origin from a region or an area must bear the following conditions to take a name: a) it has to be a product originating in an area, region or in a very particular case a country with geographical boundaries; b) the product’s compositions or characteristics have to be derived from natural and
human elements specific to this region or area; c) The production and processing of the product have to be made entirely within this region or area. The name of a region or area originating a product indicate the “geographical indication” if the following conditions are met: a) it has to be a product originating from a region or area with geographical boundaries; b) it has to be a product specified with this region or area in respect of its distinctive character, reputation or other characteristics; c) At least one of the production, processing and other operations of the product is made within the boundaries of the specified region or area (URL 2). According to the Turkish Patent and Trademark Office, the products with geographical indications belonging to Afyonkarahisar province are "Afyon Kaymak (clotted cream of milk)" as designation of origin and "Afyon Pastrami (cured spiced beef)" and "Afyon Sucuk (Turkish style fermented sausage)" as geographical indications (URL 3).

Sucuk, which is one of the meat products consumed by the Turks since the Middle Asia with pastrami and fried meat, is identified with Afyonkarahisar province. Sucuk production is basically the same as pastrami making: cooking raw meat with salt and spices. The best time to produce sucuk is October and November. The most delicious sucuk is obtained from middle-aged meat animals. Afyonkarahisar has developed itself in the field of sucuk producing and today has a reputation for having integrated plants and registered its brand nationally (URL 1). Besides, in Afyonkarahisar, water buffalo meat is used about 30-50% in sucuk, and it increases the colour and taste of the sucuk and makes it known as Afyon sucuk (Gürler, 2015).

Turkish delight (lokum) is another food identified with Afyonkarahisar. Turkish delight is unique to Turkey and internationally recognized. Although its production began in 14th and 15th century, it has reached its present form in the 19th century. It is a unique Turkish food that has become famous with its Turkish name abroad. Turkish delight is made of sugar, corn starch and water and adding fruit and nuts. It is cooked at a suitable temperature and time in an open boiler or steam-fired, automatic mixer boiler. In 18th century, it was taken to Britain by a British tourist and lokum was recognized as 'Turkish Delight' in Europe and thus entered into international confectionery literature. In Afyonkarahisar, which is an important city in this respect, confectionery, which is one of the important areas of manufacturing industry and food trade, plays an important role in the city economy especially with the production of kaymak candy, Turkish delight, kaymak and sucuk (URL 4). Development of Turkish delight producing was started with confectioner Salih Usta in the early 20th century in Afyonkarahisar with kaymak candy, Turkish delight with kaymak and other confectionery types and today it has been referred with the name of Afyonkarahisar in Turkey (URL 1). Apart from kaymak candy and Turkish delight with kaymak, the most important confectionery products of Afyon are stuffed kaymak (traditional name of akide candy (hard candy) made of kaymak), Turkish delight with poppy seeds, small Turkish delight, sultan Turkish delight (made with semolina), grand vizier Turkish delight (made with pudding) and Turkish delight in the shape of sucuk, akide candy, halva (a sweetmeat like dessert mostly made with semolina or flour) and Turkish delight with roasted chickpea producing in Sandıklı district (URL 4). Besides, kaymak is a product unique to Afyon and is among the indispensables of Afyon cuisine. Kaymak is consumed for breakfast with honey and jam, as well as it is used in desserts made from fruit and also used in ekmek kadayif (crumpets in thick syrup) (Ertaş & Karadağ, 2013). Kaymak is a product made from the fatty part of the milk obtained from the water buffalo and cow.
However, the kaymak obtained from water buffalo milk is preferred. Because the kaymak obtained from water buffalo milk is tastier, white and durable (Baytok et al., 2013).

According to Baysal (1991), when agriculture and livestock are common in a city, this situation is also reflected on local foods. When the Afyon regional dishes are examined; it is seen that, meat dishes, pastries and vegetable dishes are common. There are over 100 different kinds of food in the city. The intensive use of some regional products (eg. poppy seeds) in local foods is dominant in variety richness. Poppy seeds and opium oil (especially in pastry) are commonly used in Afyonkarahisar cuisine (Ertaş & Karadağ, 2013; URL 5). Opium oil is obtained from poppy seeds (40-45%). Among the vegetable oils, opium oil is one of healthy oils, rich in Omega 6 and Omega 3 acids. Vitamin E is also found in opium oil. It has antioxidant properties and has a preventive effect on heart diseases and heart attacks. Opium oil is a healthy fat, but nowadays its use is low because of the inability to produce it due to the prohibition of poppy cultivation between 1971 and 1974, and the change of people's taste and its distinctive heavy smell (Baytok et al., 2013).

Meat use is common in local dishes. In Afyon cuisine, meat dishes are cooked with their own oil. Extra oil is not added. The most commonly used foods in the region are göce (made from wheat), düğü (ground bulgur) and chickpeas. For example, the chickpea is added to all musakkas (vegetables fried in oil and cooked with minced meat and tomato sauce). Suet which is made from meat or kidney oil is used in dishes. Pastry is important in Afyon cuisine. Poppy seeds are mostly used in pastries, especially lentil, cheese, potato and minced meat are used as a stuffing. Many vegetables are used in Afyon cuisine. Aubergine, zucchini, leeks and parsley are the vegetables used in musakkas. Aubergine has an important place in Afyon cuisine and more than 20 kinds of food are made from it. The aubergine patty is specific to Afyon. Plain rice dish isn’t made much in Afyon. The rice dish is cooked together with vegetables such as tomatoes, carrots, aubergine or legumes such as lentils and chickpeas (Ertaş & Karadağ, 2013; URL 5).

In Afyonkarahisar food culture, dishes are (URL 6):
• Foods Made From Wheat:
  1) Dishes made of Bulgur (cracked wheat), 2) Wedding Dishes (Çullama Meatball (meatball with bulgur), Sulu Meatball (stewed meatball), İbada Dolma (stuffed patience dock), Sırt Dolma (stuffed aubergine) etc.) 3) Dishes made of Göce (split cereal) (Göce Meatball, Göce Tarhana (dried vegetables and yoghurt), Keşkek (a dish of mutton or chicken and coarsely ground wheat)) 4) Pastry (Arabaşı (a kind of spicy chicken soup eaten with cooked dough), Ağzialçık (a kind of patty stuffed with cheese or minced meat), Bükme (a kind of patty stuffed with potatoes or lentil), Bazlama (flat bread), Börek Keníri (a kind of patty with square shape), Patty with Poppy seeds, İkiz Börek (a kind of patty), Katmer (crisp flaky pastry), Ocağ Bükme (a kind of patty made in a pan), Şepit (a thin bread), Çızdırma (a patty made with corn flour and poppy seeds), Çücü (a kind of patty), Çörek (muffin), Chickpea Çörek, Dolama (a round patty), Homemade Hamuraşı (a kind of pasta), Homemade Pasta, Muska Hamuraşi (a kind of stuffed pasta), Sakala Çarpan (a soup with patty and lentil), Velense Hamuraşi (a kind of pasta in shape of triangle), Miyane soup (made with flour and chicken), Peskimet (a kind of biscuit), Ak Pita (a thin bread with sesame), Pita made with Poppy Seeds, Stuffed Pita, Yalm Pita (stuffed with cheese), Ring Pişi (a kind of bread cooked in oil),
Lokma Pişi (in small pieces), Regular Pişi).
• Meat Foods:
  1) Meat pieces, meat with yogurt, 2) Tripe dishes (soup, minced meat, roast, boiled), 3) Uzbek rice dish (rice with meat and vegetables), 4) Paçık (trotter soup)
• Vegetable food:
  1) Afyon salad, 2) Aubergine dishes (Aubergine patty, aubergine with meat, yanı yarma (a kind of kebab), aubergine with chickpea, aubergine with fried meat, roasted aubergine, stuffed aubergine, fried aubergine with yoghurt and garlic, imam bayıldı (eggplant cooked in olive oil with onions, garlic and tomatoes), aubergine meatball, çöp shish with aubergine (grilled small pieces of meat and aubergine on wooden skewers), aubergine dip sauce, aubergine pilaki (a kind of stew), stuffed aubergine with meat, aubergine stew with meat, aubergine salad, rice dish with aubergine, aubergine oturma (a dish made of ground meat and vegetables), Hünkar Beğendi (sultan’s delight, lamb stew served on mashed aubergine), aubergine gömme (fried aubergine with yogurt), aubergine pickle), 3) Stuffed Dock, 4) Sırt dolma (stuffed aubergine), 5) Şakşuka (dried fried aubergines in tomato garlic sauce), 6) Zürbiye (a soup with onions and meat).

Local culture has an important place in Afyonkarahisar's social and cultural life. The traditions and customs of the food culture and ceremonies improve the relationship between people and families, strengthen sharing and cooperation and help the province's social cohesion. According to another classification, Afyonkarahisar's main dishes are (Baytok et al., 2013):

  1) Soup Dishes: Wedding soup (made with meat and yoghurt), Tarhana soup (Dried vegetables), Toyga soup (made with chickpeas), Sakala Çarpan soup (made with patty and lentil), Göce Tarhana soup, Rice soup, Arabaşı (a kind of spicy chicken soup), Poppyseed soup.
  2) Meat Dishes: Tas Kebab (a kind of stew made of meat and vegetables), Ramadan Kebab (a kind of stew made of meat and vegetables), Whole Meat, Trotter, Çullama Meatballs (thick pancakes), Duvaklı Turkey (covered with flat bread), Keskek (a dish of mutton or chicken and coarsely ground wheat), Baked Saç (meat baked on a thin pan), Aubergine Piyaz, Göveç (stew), Stuffed Meatball.
  4) Pastry: Afyon Bread, Ak Pitta (Flat bread with sesame), Yalım Pitta, Pişi, Afyon Öğme (patty in the shapes of knot), Pita with Poppy seeds, Katıklı (stuffed) Pita, Ağzı Açık, Bükme, Katmer (thin bread with opium oil), Ocağı Bükme (Patty made in bakeries), Lokul (wrapped bread) with poppy seeds, Patty with poppy seeds, Hamirsız (a bread made with opium oil), Çizdirma, Ikiz Börek, Spinach Patty, Gurabiye (Biscuits), Kedikülümbe (made of sugar and suet), Cيمق Hamuraşı (patty in shapes of small pieces), Göce Köttüsü (Göce meatball), Chickpeas Patty, Thin Patty, Göce Patty.
  5) Rice dish: Rice dish with Poppy Seeds, Lentil Rice dish, Uzbek (Wedding) Rice dish
  7) Desserts: Fig Dessert, Ekmek Kadayif (crumpets in thick syrup) with Kaymak,
Cherry Ekmek Kadayif, Pumpkin Dessert, Baklava with Kaymak, Quince Dessert, Elmasiye (a dessert made with sour cherry), Güllaç (rice wafers stuffed with nuts), Hösmerim (a sweet made of unsalted cheese), Fırma Baklava (Baklava in shapes of meatball), Açure (Noah’s pudding), Kalbura Bastı (riddled egg shaped sweet pastries), Flour Halva, Palize (made of wheat starch), Su Muhallebi (starch pudding with rose water), Kırma Halva (made of boiled grape juice), Tez Pişti (made with crushed walnut), Poppy seed Dessert.

8) Hosafs (Fruit Stew): Apricot Hosaf, Cherry Hosaf, Plum Hosaf, Grape Hosaf, Apple Hosaf, Quince Compost, Rosehip Hosaf, White Cherry jam.

Afyonkarahisar's food richness is seen in meals given on weddings, births and ceremony of joining the army. These meals, which are eaten on big tables with 10-12 people, are based on traditional table manner and order special to Afyonkarahisar. It is called "Sıra (Row) Meal" because it follows a certain order. It starts with a soup followed by meat dishes (whole meat dish, Afyon kebab, fried meat with rice dish, etc.). Then it is followed by dishes made of seasonal vegetables. Patty is the indispensable food for these meals. The sour cherry hosaf is served with patty, followed by desserts (Ekmak kadayif with Kaymak, baklava, semolina halva, dates dessert, etc.). Finally okra dishes are served. Meals end with the milk puddings or fruits (URL 5).

Special meals and feasts seen in Afyon are: -Birth feast, -Funeral meals, -Circumcision feast, -Hadji (Pilgrim) feast, -Zinardi feast, -Groom henna feast, -Güvey Koyma feast, -Dowry feast, -Gezeks. In these feasts, different presentations are made to the guests according to the feasts’ feature (URL 7):

1) Birth Feast is served with food that close relatives bring. In the naming of the baby feast, relatives bring the food. The food served to the guests called "The Team”, and serving is called "Team Arranging". Soup, palize, kaymak, chicken or meat, donut and fruits are served in this feast.

2) Funeral Feast is prepared by close friends and relatives, just as in birth feast. While nearby relatives and neighbours prepare meals, distant ones send patties and hosafs. There are soup, kebab, moussaka, stuffed vegetables, güllaç, okra and patty at the feast.

3) Circumcision Ceremony and Feast, in Afyon, these ceremony meals are prepared by cooks. Unlike the other feasts, rice dish with meats or Özbek rice dish, hosaf, patty, dessert or fruit and okra is served in the circumcision feast.

In Afyon, at engagement and weddings, soup, double turkey, trotter, apple tufane, aubergine mousakka, pot kebab, pudding, stuffed vegetables, güllaç, chicken stew, patty, erişte (homemade fettuchini) baklava, okra, rice dish and hosaf are served as “Sıra (Row) Meal”. Fifteen kinds of dishes can come to the table. Among these meals there are four kinds of meat and four kinds of dessert. The cook assistant is responsible for arranging the so-called "meals-saving (if the dishes run out, the cook assistant cooks other dishes)".

4) Hajji Feast, before or after going to the Hajj (pilgrim), close relatives and friends are invited and the same as in the circumcision feast rice dish, patty and hosaf is served. “Sıra Meal” is rarely served.

5) In the Zinardi feast, after the engagement, grooms’ family come to the bride’s house and mother-in-law and bride’s family pin jewellery. According to Afyon customs, the groom and bride buy each other clothes for engagement and it is called "Esbap Düzme". The clothes bought for "Esbap Düzme" are shown in the tray in the
engagement night. This feast is called Zinardi because it is hold after the engagement ceremony.

6) The Groom Henna Feast is a party organized by groom and his friends in groom’s house. Such a feast is also given when a boy joins to the military. In addition to “Sıra meals”, a variety of appetizers and drinks are also served. At the feast, the rice soup, whole meat, aubergine moussaka, stuffed vegetables, bread kadayif with kaymak or baklava and finally okra is served.

7) Gıvey Koyma Feast, bride’s family do not join this feast. The elderly people and the groomsman come to this feast. “Sıra meals” are served.

8) Dowry Feasts are the biggest feast as kinds of food in Afyon’s feast. Both groom’s and bride’s families serve foods in this feast. In both cases the food is prepared by the cook. “Sıra (Row) meal” is served by both families. Rice soup, whole meat, moussaka, pudding, trotter, chicken stew with chickpeas, baklava, okra, green beans and rice dish is served. Fruit is also available according to the season. At least three types of meat meals and three kinds of desserts are served. The bride's family may also serve forty (40) kinds of dishes and desserts like stew, patty, rice dish, hosaf, pudding, güllaç.

9) Gezeks (a feast given by turns), which have an important place in the social life of Afyon, are a multi-dimensional unity and cooperation activity. In the old Afyon gezeks; rice soup, whole meat, moussaka (chickpeas, zucchini and aubergine moussaka), puddings, elmasiye, baklava, okra, and fruits were served as “sıra (row) meal”. These dishes could be changed. For example, Uzbek rice could come after the soup, then patty and ağzı açık, bükme, hosaf (sour cherry or apricot), stuffed vine leaves with olive oil, kadayif (oven baked shredded pastry with pistachio filling in thick syrup), bread kadayif with kaymak as dessert could be served. In the 1930s, 1940s, serving turkeys was a tradition. It was called "Duvaklı (bride’s veil)" because the cooked Turkey was covered with Yufka (thin bread). The other two important dishes made and eaten in the old Afyon gezeks were "Arabaşlı" and "Halva".

Apart from all these feasts, there are Ramadan, Hıdrellez (Turkish celebration of spring), Joining to Military, Bairam (religious festival) and Bride feasts. Sıra (row) meals are served in these feasts. Soup, kebab, moussaka, stuffed vine leaves, pudding, green beans, dessert (bread kadayif, baklava) and okra is served (URL 7).

“Afyon Bread” has an important place in Afyonkarahisar. It can be cooked in neighbourhood bakeries by getting in-line. Other pastries are also baked in these bakeries (such as bükme). In Afyon this process is called "watch". When the bread is baked, the price of one bread is paid to the baker (Oğuz et al., 2006). A similar case is made in Kastamonu. Prepared "breads with pastirma" are baked in the neighbourhood bakeries (Avcı & Şahin, 2014).

METHOD

The main aim of the research is to determine the importance of Afyon cuisine in the food culture. According to this main objective, the following questions were sought.

1) What meals are made on special occasions and feasts in Afyonkarahisar?
2) What are the place and the importance of these meals in the Afyonkarahisar culture?

In this context, in the research, purposeful sampling methods of criterion sampling and convenience sampling, which are frequently used in qualitative researches, were
used. 14 different participants, who have the qualities determined by the researcher, had been determined in the direction of the aim of the research. The criteria set by considering convenience sampling are as follows:

1) To reside in Afyonkarahisar for 20 years and over,
2) Being over 50 years old,

In order to determine the food culture with the opinions of people living in Afyonkarahisar, case study, which is one of the qualitative research designs, was used. The focus of the study is on "the relation of dishes made in special occasions and feasts in Afyonkarahisar with culture". Semi-structured interviews were carried out with the participants and interview forms consisting of basic and sub-questions determined within the scope of the research. These questions were organized and implemented. As a result of the interviews, the opinions and expressions of the participants about culture and food were coded, analyzed and described. The analysis of the data was directly supported by the quotations. The names of the participants were not given in the study and were coded as K1, K2, ... K14.

**FINDINGS**

In the scope of the research, local dishes of Afyonkarahisar which were frequently preferred on special occasions and feasts (wedding, circumcision, funeral, engagement, etc.) were given in Table 1.

| Table 1. Local Dishes Made for Special Occasions and Feasts |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|
| **Soups**                      | **Frequency (n)** | **Pastries** | **Frequency (n)** |
| Wedding Soup                   | 5               | Bükme        | 11               |
| Tarhana Soup                   | 7               | Şepit        | 9                |
| Sakalaçarpan Soup              | 7               | Pişi         | 5                |
| Okra Soup                      | 10              | Afyon Bread  | 8                |
| **Meat Dishes**                |                 |              |                  |
| Çullama Meatball               | 7               | Patty        | 9                |
| Kebab                          | 3               |               |                  |
| Chickpeas with Meat            | 6               | Ekmek, Kadayif with Kaymak | 8 |
| **Vegetable Dishes**           |                 | Baklava      | 7                |
| Stuffed Vegetables             | 12              | Semolina Halva | 9            |
| Mousakka                       | 5               | Hosafs       |                  |
| Beans                          | 5               | Sour Cherry Hosaf | 10         |
| **Rice dish**                  |                 | Apricot Hosaf | 9             |
| Rice dish with Meat            | 11              | Grape Hosaf  | 9                |
| Rice dish with Lentils         | 7               | Quince Hosaf | 5                |

According to the participant's opinions, the dishes which are frequently cooked on special occasions and feasts were given in Table 1. In this context, okra soup (n = 10) is often served in Afyonkarahisar on special occasions and feasts. Tarhana soup (n = 7) and sakala çarpan soup (n = 7) are also frequently served to guests after okra soup. Kebabs (n = 3) and chickpeas with meat (n = 6) and çullama meatballs (n = 7) are preferred on special occasions and feasts as meat dishes. In vegetable dishes, stuffed vegetables are the most preferred dishes (n = 12), rice dish with meat (n = 11) and
bükme (n = 11) are the most preferred dishes for special occasions and feasts. Sour cherry hosaf (n = 10), apricot hosaf (n = 9) and grape hosaf (n = 9) are preferred together with rice dish and bükme. When the preferred desserts in Afyon food culture are examined, semolina halva (n = 9), bread kadayif with kaymak (n = 8) and baklava (n = 7) are frequently preferred.

Examples of participant views about food and culture can be listed as follows:
"Okra soup, chickpeas with meat, rice dish, hosaf and village bread are given at our weddings" (K7).
"In funerals, neighbours bring foods in the first week, after a week rice dish with meat, okra soup and stuffed vine leaves are served” (K12).
“Our wedding feasts last three days and during this time Rice dish, Okra soup, Hosaf is served” (K1).
“Wedding feasts usually starts on Wednesday and last till Sunday. At wedding feasts, okra soup, dessert, rice dish and vegetable dishes are served” (K4).
“The wedding feasts last for a week. On the first day of the feast, a cattle is butchered and there will be meals for a week. Okra soup, rice dish with meat, semolina halva, stuffed vine leaves are served” (K8).
"Sıra (Row) Meal is served at the circumcision and wedding ceremonies" (K2).
"While some people serve four kinds of dishes as they used to be, some people serve pita with meat and coke" (K6).
"Bükme is served on the funeral. On Thursday a wedding meal is served. Forty days later, pişi is served” (K10).
"Before wedding feast begins, all friends and relatives are gathered and cook şepit (thin bread)”. (K3)
"In the past, wedding ceremonies were celebrated on the streets and aubergine moussaka, tarhana soup and bread kadayif were served” (K5).

Afyonkarahisar’s food culture and dishes were evaluated in this study. The results showed that soups and pastries have a significant place in Afyonkarahisar cuisine. Particularly, pastries (bukme, sepit, agzı acık, pisi) have an important place. Also semolina halva has an important place in special occasions and feasts. In the main course category, rice dish with meat, stuffed vine leaves and stuffed vegetables are frequently preferred. Especially the bread kadayif with kaymak is often served to the guests. When the opinions and expressions of the participants were evaluated, it can be said that old local culture is different from nowadays in terms of kinds of dishes and number of days in feasts. Number of days in feasts is shortening and fast foods like pita are preferred on some occasions.

CONCLUSIONS
Elements such as the geographical location, climate, agricultural activities, historical process (old civilizations) are influencing food culture of a region. Growing crops, different spices lead different culinary cultures and regional dishes to be formed.

When the regional dishes of Afyonkarahisar province were examined, it was seen that meat dishes, pastries and vegetable dishes are prepared more. The poppy seed has predominantly used in both desserts and pastries; aubergine is mostly used in vegetable dishes and okra has an important place. In terms of desserts, it was determined that bread kadayif with kaymak, pumpkin dessert and semolina halva were the most prominent.
In Afyonkarahisar it was seen that the sour cherry hosaf was served especially with patty or bukme and the cherry, grape and apricot hosafs were mainly served. According to Avcı & Şahin (2014), this situation is also seen in Kastamonu’s local cuisine. According to them, grape, fig, apricot, uryani plum (thin-skinned plum), sour plum hosafs are frequently served in Kastamonu cuisine.

At Afyonkarahisar wedding feasts, wedding soup, rice dish with meat or Özbek rice dish, patty, okra, hosaf, desserts or seasonal fruits are served. According to Odabaşı (2001), wedding dishes in Konya are similar to Afyonkarahisar. Wedding (Toyga soup) soup with yoghurt, pita or rice dish with meat was served. Then, semolina halva, okra soup, rice dish, hosaf or melon and grapes were served. Nowadays, instead of meat, roasted beef cubes are served and instead of hosaf, concentrate orange or sour cherry juice is served.

In this research, according to the relationship between dishes made on feasts and culture, it was seen that in Afyonkarahisar, regional dishes are served as sıra (row) meals. And the prominent foods are okra, rice dish with meat, sakala çarpan soup, bukme, stuffed vine leaves and vegetables, sour cherry hosaf.

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Chapter 50

Transformational Leadership at Hospitality Industry: A Conceptual Evaluation

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INTRODUCTION

In today's competitive environment that characterized with high technology, global economy and, long-run strategic plans (Bennis & Nanus: 1985: 14) businesses have to make significant and major changes to compete and sustain their assets (Yukl, 1989: 269). In this process, by acting like a change agent in the direction of the enterprise's purpose, the leaders are called "transformational leaders (TLs)" who take responsibility, encourage continuous change, ensure that followers take more responsibility, improve them, raise their level of need and take management action to meet their needs (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino, 1991: 9). The concept of TL which has first used to identify political leaders by Burns (1978) was developed later by management researchers (Bass, 1985, Bennis & Nanus, 1985, Tichy & DeVanna, 1990, Bass, 1990, Bass et al. 1993) and continued to develop.

The recent economic recessions, corporate mergers and/or acquisitions, differentiation of activities offered, over-constructing, lack of qualified labour and differentiations in the labour force cause large-scale fluctuations in the hospitality industry (Dobyns & Crawford-Mason, 1991, cited by: Hinkin & Tracey, 1994: 49). In the industry, since the tourism demand is indirectly influenced from many economic, social, natural, political conditions and depends on the subjective decisions of the participants, enterprises are more affected by these fluctuations (Kozak, Kozak & Kozak, 2012: 38-40). Parallel to the rapid changes in tourists’ enjoyment, trend and habits, demands and needs of the tourists are ever-changing. This reality makes it difficult to prediction of future and makes constant change obligatory to hotel enterprises. These rapid and continuous changes also cause the change of the manager profile in the hotel enterprises. Increased importance of reducing costs in the intensive competition and rapid change environment, improvements in field of service quality and performance, and the labour-intensive nature of hotel operations entail effective usage of human resources in the enterprises and the need for TLs has increased. TLs make motivation, commitment, and continuous improvement possible by articulating vision and mission, enabling employees to adopt organizational goals, creating a working environment with high performance, and encouraging job creativity and innovation (Tracey & Hinkin, 1994: 19-23). Indeed, Bass & Riggio (2006: 83-84) state that the ideal leadership style is TL where fast and constantly changing circumstances
exist. Tichy & Devanna (1990: 122) assign that TLs are at the forefront at change/transfrom by identifying the strengths and weaknesses of businesses, combining them with environmental opportunities and motivating the employees to realize potential changes. Therefore, TLs play a vital role in the long-term success of businesses in the labour-intensive hospitality industry, where continuous and large-scale changes are taking place (Tracey & Hinkin, 1994: 21, Padron, 2011: ii).

1. CONCEPTUAL EVALUATION OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

After the 1980s, researches on leadership began to focus on issues such as how leaders transform and renew organizations, and the need for leaders with transformational and innovative characteristics in this period has begun to increase. Accordingly, there has been an eager tendency in the scientific world to investigate the leadership features that will motivate and realize change. As a result of this tendency, the concept of transformational leadership (TL) has begun to be searched at the beginning of the 1980s. Burns (1978: 4), who accepted as a pioneer of TL concept, defines transformational leaders (TLs) as those who recognize the needs or desires of potential followers; benefit from existing needs/demands; investigate potential leadership instincts in their followers; meet high-level needs; evaluate their followers in all aspects; and who transform their followers into leaders through mutual stimulation and morale. On the other hand, Bernard M. Bass, who implements organizational leadership by developing TL approach, defines TLs as individuals who motivate their followers to perform more than they expect and develop their leadership capacities through vision, self-confidence, and inspirational motivation (Bass, 1985: 17-20). Bass has developed this approach on the basis of Burns’ (1978) political leadership study and House’s (1977) charismatic leadership theory. According to Bass, TLs inspire followers to evaluate their work from a new point of view, raise awareness about mission and vision of team/organization, develop their followers’ skills and competencies (job enhancement), and develop followers’ own interests in line with organizational goals (Bass & Avolio, 1994: 2; Bass & Riggio, 2006: 4).

Within the context of organizational transformation, TL refers to individuals who demonstrate the need for change in the organization, create a new vision for the employees and the organization, enable the commitment of employees to the vision and change the organization as a whole (Tichy & Devanna 1990: 4). In this process, TLs ensure their followers to have a trust and respect themselves and motivate them to exhibit extra role behaviours by raising awareness about the importance and the value of work, encouraging them to move beyond their personal interests through the benefits of organization, developing their abilities, reassuring them to take more responsibilities within the organization and providing support and encouragement to continue their enthusiasm and efforts in cases of physical fatigue, difficulty and obstacles (Yukl, 2010: 292). Bennis and Nanus (1985: 18), which deals with TL in a strategic way in relation to culture, state that TLs emerge when there are problems in organizations that are new, complex and cannot be solved without a leader. In this context, TLs are leaders who are responsible for reshaping organizations in order to adapt organizational practices to environmental changes; they manage the organizational change by empowering followers to find new ways of working, create a vision for the future by foreseeing potential opportunities and remove resistance to the change among employees. Thus,
they prepare organizations for future conditions and transform their organization (Bennis & Nanus, 1985: 17-18).

Burns who forms the basis of TL, states TL as an individual transformation of transactional leadership (Bass, 1985: 22). Therefore, in order to define TL extensively, it is firstly necessary to understand the transactional leadership (TCL) and the characteristics of it. The TCL, represents a combination of leadership models (Burns, 1978: 4). The transactional leaders (TCLs) in the organizations, basically determine and explain the roles and tasks required for expected performance, assign needs and desires of the followers, and finally identify how these needs and desires will be met if the foreseen performance is achieved (Bass, 1985: 12). In TCL, the followers are motivated by the words, praise, or rewards of the leaders or the errors are corrected with negative feedbacks, criticisms, threats and disciplinary punishments (Bass & Steidmeier, 1999: 184). TCL focus more on performance-based conditional rewarding between leaders and followers, by prioritizing to tasks and performance defined to achieve organizational goals (Bass & Avolio 1994: 3; Shivers-Blackwell 2004; cited by: Calloway & Awadzi 2008: 19). In contrast to TLs, the TCLs who ignore the individual needs of their followers and their development (Northouse, 1997: 137), are exhibit contingent reward, active management-by-exception, passive management-by-exception, and Laissez-Faire behaviours (Northouse, 1997: 137-139; Avolio & Bass, 2002: 3-5; Burns, 2003: 22-25; Bass & Riggio, 2006: 8-9; Clarke, 2013: 24).

![Figure 1: Ideal Leadership Profile](source: Bass & Avolio, 1994: 5.)

TCLs who exhibit economic transaction cost approach take into account the needs of their followers like TLs. But they are not able to provide higher levels of motivation with certain behaviours such as being role model and etc. like TLs (Bass, 1985: 15). Therefore, the effectiveness of the TCLs within the organization is relatively limited.
Indeed, the "Full Range of Leadership" model developed by Bass and Avolio (1994: 4-5) suggests that the effectiveness of leaders decreases as TCL behaviours increase (see Figure 1).

The model in Figure 1 demonstrates how often leaders in the leadership position exhibit leadership behaviours within organizations and explaining the active or passive behavioural styles of leadership. The model also forms a frame for TL behaviours. Accordingly, TLs exhibit four determinant behaviours in or inter organizations that called as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration (Bass, 1985: 32; Bass & Avolio, 1994: 4-5; Avolio & Bass, 2002: viii, Bass & Riggio, 2006: 5-7).

**Idealized Influence:** The idealized influence behaviour identifies that TL form a role model for the followers by gaining their enthusiasm, respect and trust (Bass & Avolio, 1994: 3). TLs, in this process, leave an indelible impression on their followers for the future, showing that they can achieve their goals that are considered as impossible to achieve. Thus, they ensure that follower’s take role models themselves (Avolio et al., 1991: 15). In his previous researches to measure TL behaviours, Bass regarded idealized influence behaviour as a charisma, and defined charisma as inspiration and encouragement to followers with respect and trust in the leader (Bass, 1985: 209). However, in his following studies Bass emphasizes that the concept of charisma is not sufficient, because it expresses a vast range of meanings to describe related behaviours, and it creates the same perceptions (charismatic) in the mind about different personalities from the appreciated people to the exciting and handsome people (Bass, 1995: 471). Due to the disadvantages of using charisma, in his recent researches, Bass renamed charisma as idealized influence, and he evaluated it in two sub-dimensions called as behavioural idealized influence and attributed charisma (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999: 444, Humphreys, 2001: 151). Within this context, to exchange ideas with their followers about important values and beliefs, to communicate closely with followers in the direction of common goals, to encourage them to achieve common interests/goals (Grant, 2012: 459), to sacrifice on behalf of the organization, to create examples for followers and to form high-level ethical standards express the content of idealized influence behaviours (Li & Shi, 2008: 572, Li, Arvey, Zhang & Song, 2012: 235, Eisenbeiß & Boerner, 2013: 55) in this process, mutual respect between leader, desire to recognize with the leader and desire to imitate the leader constitutes attributed charisma, while being a role model with leadership behaviours states idealized influence (Huang and Liao, 2011: 6, Chi, Lan & Dorjgotov, 2012: 1017). Idealized influence behaviour have two facets. First facet is behaviours of leader and second one is specific features of leader attributed by followers and other associates. Leaders with a high level of idealized influence are risk takers. However, they act consistently, not accidentally. TLs are leaders who do the right things and who exhibit high standards of ethics and moral (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

**Inspirational Motivation:** In the TL approach, inspirational motivation constitute attributed charisma with behavioural idealized influence (Humphreys, 2001: 151; Tim, Bakker, Xanthopoulou, 2011: 123). Bass & Avolio (1994: 3) describe inspirational motivation as inspiring followers by explaining them importance of the work and making the work meaningful, developing team spirit, enable enthusiasm and optimism in the organization, stimulating the future in the minds of followers, creating expectations to achieve, and enabling commitment to common goals and vision.
Inspirational motivation, which is important for organizational success, is considered as a kind of motivation that enhances followers' commitment to achieve organizational goals by Peter Senge (Jandaghi, Matin & Farjami, 2009: 212). TLs must take advantage of convincing language, symbols, and descriptions to inspire their followers and to be focused on collective efforts (Bass, 1997: 21; Hoffmann, Bynum, Piccolo & Sutton, 2011: 780). Previous leadership successes, high-level communication skills, role modelling to other leaders are the main elements that constitute the potential for TLs to inspire their followers in this process. This potential becomes evident in the process of mutual interaction among the idealized influence, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation behaviours of the leader (Avolio et al, 1991: 14). In this process, leaders provide an important vision for the future, link this vision with shared values through idealized influence (Grant, 2012: 460). Furthermore, TLs raising up motivation and creating a common understanding of success in followers by transforming vision-building elements into tangible elements (Whittington, Goodwin & Murray, 2004: 596). This insight, taught to followers by the TLs, also emphasizes the realization of common goals in response to the stimulation of individual interests (Simola, Barling & Turner, 2012: 230) by developing collective self-esteem and self-competence within the organization (Nemanich & Vera, 2009: 22). Consequently, followers motivated by the TLs contribute to the transformation of the organization by re-evaluating the work they are doing and organizational structure with a broader perspective, and providing constructive suggestions and recommendations (Liu, Zhu & Yang, 2010: 191).

**Intellectual Stimulation:** Intellectual stimulation means a) enhancing the abilities of followers such as awareness of the problem and problem solving; b) improving followers’ thoughts and imaginations, c) stimulating values and beliefs, and d) create change in all these dimensions. While TLs encouraging followers to exhibit extra performance with idealized influence and individual consideration behaviours, they stimulate this effort with intellectual stimulation (Bass, 1985: 98-99). In this process, the TLs encourage creativity within the organization by questioning basic assumptions, re-evaluating existing problems, approaching current/old business methods and conditions with new perspectives, and asking followers for new and creative ideas to solve problems. They also help followers to make their efforts innovative and creative (Avolio & Bass, 1995: 208, Dubinsky, Yammarino & Jolson, 1995: 318, Northouse, 1997: 136, Avolio et al., 1999: 444, Bass & Riggio, 2006: 7).

TLs generally exhibit four different behaviours while they are stimulating their followers intellectually, in order to enhance innovation and creativity. These behaviours are described by Bass (1985: 110-112) as follows. Rationally Oriented intellectual stimulation: The leader emphasizes competition, independence in the market, industrial relations, easy adaptation capacity and efficiency by focusing heavily on formal organizational structure. Such leaders are intended and purpose-oriented people. Existentially Oriented intellectual stimulation: This type of leader prefers to stimulate informal processes and beliefs on the assumption that intellectual stimulation will occur when an individual interact with his/her environment. These leaders use their intelligence to support others. Empirically Oriented focused intellectual stimulation: These leaders focus on safety, protection, security and continuity, and they use a hierarchical decision-making style in which a multitude of information is assessed to find the best solution. These leaders are also excellent TCLs, since they are succeeded at providing information, making observations and effective coordination within the
current organizational structure. Idealistically oriented intellectual stimulation: Idealist leaders who attach importance to growth, adaptation, learning, cognitive goals, diversity and creativity rely on intuitive data produced within the enterprise. The idealist leaders successfully recreate the change in their minds and gather the necessary resources like charismatic leaders. Idealist leaders are also TLs who have a high level of creativity, is willing to take risks, and who value processing speed, adaptability, intuition and consensus.

Intellectual stimulation as an important function of leadership behaviours plays a crucial role in promoting the importance of knowledge in enterprises and encouraging the use of information, since it promotes creativity and innovation among employees and promotes an innovative culture. However, TLs need to be in touch with their followers and support them in order to benefit from the most of creative ideas. Bass (1985) described these types of behaviours exhibited by the TLs as individual consideration.

**Individualized Consideration:** TLs play a role of coaching and mentoring for the success and development of the followers by addressing their needs, within the context of individual consideration. Thus, it is possible to increase the potential of the followers successfully (Bass & Avolio, 1994: 3, Bass & Riggio, 2006: 7). TLs, while exhibiting individualized consideration, perceive each employee in the organization as an individual and deal with their needs, desires and concerns individually (Dubinsky et al., 1995: 318). In this context, the TLs first conduct mentoring and orientation activities by individualization of followers. In this process, self-esteem of the followers is increased with mentoring activities and actions are taken to satisfy followers’ needs. By the individualization of followers, mutual communication is developed with the follower, differences in follower needs are determined, and taking responsibility of followers is provided through delegation. In ongoing process, leaders meet followers’ information needs and unique needs, and improve their sense of ownership and personal responsibility (Bass, 1985, 84-95). At the end of this process, which constitutes the general framework of individual consideration behaviours, the potential of the followers is increasing and they perform beyond expectations.

The effectiveness of the individual consideration behaviours exhibited by the TLs can vary in the context of certain factors. Avolio and Bass (1995: 205) describe these elements as the needs and development level of the follower; exhibiting individualized consideration directly to targeted follower or indirect perception of follower these behaviours; being independent, dependent or interdependent in the organization; and differences at personal development. However, there are some potential disadvantages of individualized consideration such as favouritism and triggering negative competition among followers, as well as its’ many advantages (Bass & Steidlmieier, 1999: 189). For this reason, TLs should act by taking into account differences in personal development, the nature of needs, and the negative tendencies of followers.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) as face-to-face interviews and observations with the ninety leaders conducted one of the most important studies on the TL. In the study, leaders were asked “What are your strengths and weaknesses”, "Are there certain experiences and events that affect your life, your management style and your philosophy?”, ”What are the important decision points in your career and what do you think about your previous preferences regarding to those decision points?”. Based on the answers, researchers have put forward four strategies that effective TLs use to
transform their organizations. These strategies are development an open vision, open communication, trust building and supporting personal development. Bennis and Nanus (1985) consider the vision, as the starting point of the transformation of all TLs. They define vision as the creation of a mental image about the firm position in the future. Researchers also define vision development as the first feature of the TLs and emphasize it as the key element that sets the difference between leader and executive. A clear, realistic and believable vision is needed to be shared with open communication. Thus, "Leaders are stronger make as much as they can convey their ideas" statement express this reality very well. Emphasizing that the leader must be a good "social architect/designer" for this, Bennis and Nanus (1985) state that the TLs recreates the movements, values and norms of people in organization as social architects. According to Bennis and Nanus, "trust" is an important factor in achieving the goals of the TLs. Trust is considered as an emotional tie that connects the leader and the follower. They (1985) state that trust is a phenomenon that can be won by the leader as a sum of the legitimacy of his/her. Hence, employees' trust in their leaders is a priority for the realization of the vision. Based on their interviews, Bennis and Nanus (1985) point out those leaders focus on responsibility, consistency, knowledge, risk taking, loss acceptance and learning. Accordingly, TLs are constant learners and educators and these are distinctive feature of them.

Tichy and DeVanna's (1990) research on how organizations change and how leaders transform organizations is another important research about TL. The researchers, who focus on how leaders perform their transformation process in their organizations, accept TL as a phenomenon of change, innovation and entrepreneurship. Tichy and DeVanna argue that a charismatic genius alone cannot achieve a strategic transformation, and that organizational transformation is something like a play of theatre consisting three curtains: to realize the need for change, to create new vision and to realize change. Tichy and DeVanna note that pressures in the environment push the organizations to change, while in the inner environment employees are in an attitude of being favour of maintaining the current structure and the status quo, as expressed in the metaphor of "boiling frogs". At this point, the leader as a representative of change, must take risks, intervene the organization and start the process of change. Tichy and DeVanna, who pointed out the starting point of the change process as "the creation of a new vision," expresses the vision as a route map, which shows organization’s future position and its future activities. Researchers, who emphasize that the vision should be formed not only by the leader but also in a participatory manner, draw attention to the importance of mission as a vision statement. Emphasizing that the realization of the new vision will bring about a systematic change at the organizational level, Tichy and DeVanna point out that the transformation means changing the culture with the structural elements as well. The realization of cultural change is directly linked to the acceptance and participation of employees. For this reason, it is necessary that the leader should care and enable active participation. According to researchers, there are basic characteristics that differentiate TLs from classical ones such as being change agents, being brave, trust and believe followers, being value-oriented, being a lifelong learner, and visionary who have the ability to cope with complexity (Tichy & Devanna, 1990).
2. TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN HOTEL ENTERPRISES

Depending on whether leadership is a concept related to people, it is possible to say that leaders have similar functions in all businesses. However, certain features of service make leadership more important at service businesses than other businesses. Production in service enterprises is an environment where human being is the basic input and it realize with instant customer-worker contact. In addition, the service is an intangible and subjective structure that is difficult to standardize. For this reason, management of service enterprises requires a very good vision, organizational system, qualified workforce and high organizational values. Moreover, complex organization structures change and competitive pressure stemming from rapid change requires adaptation of leadership approaches that the values properly determined and management with these values, instead of traditional approaches assuming that bureaucracy, rules and instructions can manage the employees. Leaders who want to be successful in the operation of service businesses should ensure that all employees develop themselves and increase their leadership potential within the enterprise by coaching, developing and giving responsibility. TL is about changing people's values, judgments and behaviours. In contrast to traditional leaders, TLs who are in favour of change, know that change at the organizational level is possible with the attainable, well-planned service-vision. TLs are aware that the service-vision can be transformed into reality as an ideal, only with the participation and support of employees. For this purpose, they should adopt two approaches named as leading by examples and empowerment.

Researches carried out in relation to TL behaviours in the hotel business indicates that there is an increasing interest on TL especially in the last two decade, as a means of organizational effectiveness and success (Brownell, 2010: 365). As a result, the number of researches on TL seems to be increasing. In these researches, TL was evaluated in the dimensions of emotional intelligence (Scott-Halsell, Shumate & Blum, 2008), extraversion, clarity and honesty (Zopiatis & Constanti, 2012). The effects of TL on work stress, burnout syndrome (Gill, Flaschner & Shachar, 2006), empowerment (Gill, Fitzgerald, Bhutani, Mand & Sharma, 2010), brand attitude (Uen, Wu, Teng & Liu, 2012), organizational effectiveness, leader’s effectiveness (Erkutlu, 2008), creativity (Brown & Arendt, 2011; Cheung & Wong, 2011; Wang, Tsai & Tsai, 2014; Mittal & Dhar, 2016), employee performance (Brown & Arendt, 2011; Cheung & Wong, 2011) job satisfaction (Rothfelder, Ottenbacher & Harrington 2012), organizational commitment and department performance (Patiar & Wand, 2016), employee voice (Liang, Chang, Ko & Lin, 2017), turnover intention (Chen & Wu, 2017), psychological capital and service innovation behaviour (Schuckert, Kim, Paek & Lee, 2018) were also searched in relevant researches.

Scott-Halsell et al. (2008: 107-110), in their study conducted on the students training about hospitality, found that there is a strong link between emotional intelligence and leadership behaviours. For this reason, hotel enterprises should have programs to develop emotional intelligence in orientation and training programs in order to be able to train successful leaders. Zopiatis and Constanti (2012: 97) have found TL behaviours are positively related to extraversion, clarity and honesty, and that highly honest and hardworking individuals exhibit transformative leadership behaviours more easily.

Gill et al. (2006: 477), who evaluated the effects of TL behaviours on stress and
burnout levels in hotel operations, found that TL behaviours were closely related with work-stress and had a reduction effect on burnout syndrome arising from high work-stress. Researchers also state that, to exhibit effective TL behaviours, leaders need to know the goals set by top management very well and to internalize them before conveying these goals employees. Gill et al. (2010: 269-270), in their survey conducted on hotels operating in Canada's Lower Mainland and the Punjab region of India, found that when employees perception about TL behaviours raise up, their willingness to empowermen is also increasing. In the research conducted by Uen et al. (2012: 26) in Taiwanese hotels, it was determined that TL behaviours had direct and indirect positive effects on creation of organizational brand climate and employees’ brand attitude. Erkutlu (208: 720-721), who searched the effects of TL behaviours on organizational effectiveness and leadership effectiveness in hotel enterprises, in his study conducted at 722 participants working at 60 boutique hotels, has determined that TL behaviours enhance organizational commitment and employee satisfaction and consequently employees perform better. According to the researcher, TL behaviours to be exhibited at all levels of the organization should be used in fields such as recruitment, employee selection, employee training and empowerment. Wang et al. (2014: 87), who examined the influence of the creative role identity, creative self-efficacy and job complexity on the relationship between TL and employee creativity have identified that TL has significant effects with regard the fostering the creativity of individual employees. Furthermore, research results show that increasing employee creative role identity and creative self-efficacy are both related to increase in their performance of creativity. Another important result of the study is that the relationship between TL and creative role identity of employees differs concerning the departments (frontline employees-back office employees) in which they work. Hereunder, employees in more complex jobs like frontline work are likely to have a higher level of recognition of their creative role identity, those in more routine jobs. The authors also suggest that, hotel companies should make more efforts to train their supervisors and encourage them to improve their dual relationships with their employees. Supervisors also should be aware of the direct and indirect influence of TL in the psychological process that relate to creativity. Mittal and Dhar (2016: 125), in their study assign the effects of green transformational on green creativity. The study results show that green TL play an indirect role in promoting green creativity. According to the researchers, hotel managers should lead training programmes to understand environmental friendly activities that they can appeal to the promotion of green TL and green organizational identity amongst their employees to enhance their employees’ creativity. Brown and Arendt (2011: 45) in their study conducted on front office employees of 34 hotels, found that managers' TL behaviours were positively affect positive attitudes of employees, safety, carefulness at using materials and participation/punctuality, thereby employee performance was raising up. They have also found that TLs exhibited inspirational motivation and idealized influence behaviours more than individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation. Cheung and Wong (2011), in their study conducted in service enterprises (restaurants, hotels, retail stores, banks and travel agencies) operating in Hong Kong and subjected the effects of TL behaviours on creativity,concluded that TL influenced employee creativity positively. Researchers also have revealed that TLs are constantly deal with and taking into account the socio-emotional needs of employees, thus they lead thinking that is more creative.
Rothfelder et al. (2012: 211-212), who examined the influence of transformational and other leadership styles of hotel supervisors on job satisfaction of employees, reveal that all dimensions of (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation) TL were positively related to employee job satisfaction. According to researchers, the adequate leadership behaviour for managing hospitality employees is primarily transformational, because transformational behaviours increases employee job satisfaction. In hotel enterprises, supervisors as transformational leaders should be explained to the employees thought, process and strategies behind the task or orders in order to realize their visions. Leading by example becomes particularly important in the hotel industry due to the close contact between employees and supervisors. Hotel managers, as a transformational leaders need to pay more attention to their intellectually stimulating leadership behaviour to create a climate in which employees feel themselves relaxed and freedom.

Patiar and Wang (2016: 599-601) in their study that aims to examine the effect of TL and organizational commitment on department performance, conceptualized that organizational commitment has a mediating role on influence of TL on performance. According to the results of the study, authors suggest that hotels must selectively recruit managers who demonstrate a capacity for TL to fulfilling their organizational mission and vision. In addition, hotels should make TL training mandatory. Liang et al. (2017: 385-387) who aims to explore the relationship between TL and employee voice behaviour in the hospitality industry found that TL cannot inspire employees to voice suggestion directly, but fortified it. However, TL had positive effects on employees’ relational identification, work engagement and voice behaviours. Furthermore, identification has full mediating effects between TL and work engagement. In this context, it is possible that TL influence work engagement through identification. To improve employees’ voice behaviour, supervisors should care more about their staff and constitute healthy interaction with their employees. If this were happen, employees may feel themselves free to voice behaviour.

Chen and Wu (2017: 1926-1928) who reveal the effects of TL, leader-member exchange and psychological contract breach in the increase in turnover intention of employees, determined that supervisors’ leadership behaviour can directly affect the employee-employer relationship. Hotel supervisors’ TL behaviours can weaken the perceptions of psychological contract breach and leader-member exchange mediates the relationship between TL and psychological contract breach. The results of the study show that in the context of hotel industry, both leader-member exchange and psychological contract breach play a key causal relationship between TL behaviour and turnover intention. In addition to this, TL influence employees perceived psychological contract breach and employment relationship between employees and supervisors/organization. Hotel managers who engage in TL behaviours are more likely to improve employee-supervisor exchange relationship and decrease employees’ willingness to leave organization. Schuckert et al. (2018: 789-790), in their study test a research model which investigating the effects of authentic leadership and TL on follower service innovation behaviour with follower psychological capital. The results of the study suggest that authentic leadership has greater effect on follower service innovation behaviour with follower psychological capital than TL. The authors attribute this to the fact that authentic leadership includes not only for organizational activities, but also for employees’ interests. Besides, results highlight that both TL and authentic
leadership effect on psychological capital more than on service innovation behaviour.

CONCLUSION

When TL approaches are examined, it appears that TL is related with transforming and changing individuals based on ethical values, standards and long-term goals, and it includes both visionary and charismatic leadership concepts. TL, believed to be necessary for change and crisis environment, clarifies such issues as "why employees sacrifice for their leaders, friends and organizations" and "why employees strive to achieve organizational change even if they do not receive any awards", which traditionalist leadership cannot account for. Because TLs influence their followers, build trust, bewitch employees, empower and develop them, and give the message that common goals can be achieved by act in unison (Kanungo, 2001). TL, unlike traditional approaches, focuses on emotions and values, thus making the leader's symbolic behaviours and role-playing more meaningful.

In the light of the above-mentioned research results, in hotel enterprises, it is seen that TLs have positive effects such as increasing organizational and occupational performance, empowerment, reducing work stress and burnout syndrome, developing emotional intelligence and developing creativity in employees, reducing employee turnover intention, organizational commitment and performance, job satisfaction, employee voice behaviour, psychological contract, psychological capital. When discussing the studies about transformational leadership in hotel enterprises, it seems that new business environment and the operational activities in hotel enterprises makes transformational leadership necessary to maintain competitiveness. The studies held in hotel enterprises emphasized that TL qualities is desirable in selection process of person who recruit at supervision position. In addition, studies bring out the importance of training programmes about TL qualities in activity process of hotel enterprises. In addition, it is also important to point out the positive effects of the managers' transformational leadership qualities on issues such as job satisfaction, empowerment, creativity and commitment, stress and reduction of intention to leave job and burnout syndrome. The change and adaptation in today's business environment is the key to competitive structure and business sustainability in all sectors as well as in hotel enterprises. To be effective in these new conditions, leaders must have transformational leadership qualities rather than traditional ones (Bass 1999).

REFERENCES


Chapter 51

Job Embeddedness: A Ten Year Literature Review

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INTRODUCTION

One of the most important goals of Organizational Psychology is to develop an understanding of attitudes and behaviour in the working environment. An important component of the attitudes and behaviour in organizations is turnover. Indeed, as the global economy becomes increasingly knowledge-based, organizations that can successfully retain their human resources have an advantage over those organizations. Indeed, a number of studies have shown that turnover negatively affects performance (Felps et al., 2009). When the literature is examined, it is revealed that studies centre mainly on turnover and the antecedents and the results of turnover. In addition, many variables in organizational behaviour have been predicted by turnover (Cunningham et al., 2005; Huselid, 199; Besich, 2005; Brawley & Purv, 2016; Chan et al., 2015; Griffeth et al. 2000; Mitchell et al., 2001a; Mitchell & Lee, 2001b). Intent to leave has a distinct value for the organization and the employee because it is an important antecedent of turnover and organizations give importance to long-term employment. This is because turnover or intention to leave brings about many negative consequences both in terms of the employee and the organization. Therefore, researchers are conducting research on the reasons why people choose to work in the organization they are employed, why they are motivated to perform well, and why they decide to stay in the organization. Recently, however, researchers have been focusing on the question why employees stay on their jobs rather than seeking an answer to the reasons of turnover. The turnover model introduced and entitled by Mitchell et al., (2001a) is called job embeddedness, and the authors associate the fact that employees do not leave their current jobs despite better job opportunities, to job embeddedness.

In terms of its consequences, job embeddedness has become one of the important factors that not only affect working life but also social life. For this reason, it is extremely essential to be aware of the factors that encourage employees to stay on their current jobs. Thus, the conceptual studies aimed at determining the antecedents and consequences of job embeddedness have been increasing in recent years.

Driven by the idea that it could be important to explain why employees keep working in their current jobs with the new turnover model, this section focuses on the concept of job embeddedness. A review of the literature was conducted on the conceptual framework, and antecedents and consequences of the job embeddedness; and the definition, emergence, and conceptual content of the concept of job embeddedness were addressed together. In addition, this study aims to examine the international publications published on job embeddedness between the years 2009-2018.
within certain parameters. For this purpose, a search was conducted in the title "Job Embeddedness" in the database of Web of Science Core Collection and bibliometric data related to publications were obtained. By this means, the construct of job embeddedness would be introduced in more detail and researchers working in this field would be provided with the relevant information about the structure of this field. For this purpose, relevant publications were examined within the context of the number of publications by years, document type of publications, language of publications, citation analysis, research areas, and the journals of the publications. In this context, an answer was sought for the following questions:

1. What is distribution of the publications by years?
2. What is the distribution of the publications by document type?
3. What are the languages of the publications?
4. What are the research areas of the publications?
5. What is the distribution of the publications by journals?
6. What are the h-indexes of the publications?

It is believed that the findings revealed by the study will contribute to the production of academic knowledge in terms of determining and evaluating the trends and publications followed in this field.

**Literature Review**

Felps et al. (2009) and Holtom & Inderrienden (2006) theories on employee turnover evolved over the last 60 years through traditional and nontraditional frameworks. The traditional theoretical framework on employee turnover includes attitudinal models, such as March & Simon’s (1958) notion of perceived desirability or job satisfaction, in contrast with perceived ease or dissatisfaction. Many traditional attitudinal theories on turnover emerged throughout the 1980s and 1990s with new ideas on job satisfaction, commitment, and alternative job search (Holmes et al., 2013). In order to understand the job embeddedness concept, many articles and authors have referred to the “voluntary turnover” or “intention to leave” concepts (Rajappan et al., 2017). It has been observed that job embeddedness is associated with the factors that encourage employees to remain with their current jobs (Birsel et al., 2012: 51). Lee et al., (2004) state that job-embedded individuals are motivated to keep working in their current jobs and workplaces, and thus tend to display high performance. As originally articulated by Mitchell et al. (2001a), their driving research purpose was to “present a new construct called job embeddedness … a key factor in understanding why people stay on their jobs” (Kiazad et al. 2015). Job embeddedness refers to “A broad set of influences on an employee’s decision to stay on the job” (Holton, Mitchell, and Lee, 2006: 319). The theory of JE is considered to be a relatively new perspective, focusing on factors that encourage an employee to remain with an organization. The job embeddedness model introduced by Mitchell et al. (2001a) is associated with three dimensions that express the sum of on-the-job and off-the-job factors on the individual, which are links, fit, and sacrifice. Job embeddedness suggests that various on the job (organizational) and off the job factors outside the traditional models may be the determinant of the turnover. There are three dimensions of the model:

1) Attachment degree of individuals to other people and events,
2) Familiarity or the degree of compliance between work of individuals and their
communities or another point of living space and

3) Especially when individuals were forced to move to another city and home, what they can waive from, do sacrifice as organizational or societal.

These three dimensions are briefly called as links, fit and sacrifice. These three dimensions have a significant effect on an individual’s commitment to the organization and/or society. These influences include on-the-job factors such as bonds with colleagues and the fit between one’s skills and what the job demands. In addition, it includes off-the-job factors. Some examples of off-the-job factors are personal and community commitments (Holtom, Mitchell & Lee, 2006). Three dimensions of JE are important in the organizational and community context and these are perceived to have negative relation with the intent to leave (Shafique et al., 2011). In conclusion, employees with high levels of JE are involved in and tied to projects and people (i.e., links), they feel they fit well in their jobs and can apply their skills (i.e., fit), and believe they will sacrifice valued things if they quit (i.e., sacrifice) (Sekiguchi et al., 2008: 764).

Table 1. Dimensions of Job Embeddedness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>On –the- job embeddedness or organizational embeddedness</th>
<th>Off- the- job embeddedness or community embeddedness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Links</td>
<td>Formal and informal connections and support among the person and colleagues, work groups, supervisors, and the organization as a whole</td>
<td>Connections in a social and familial web, including non-work friends, spousal employment, groups, churches and community organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fit</td>
<td>Degree to which the person’s personal values, career goals and future plans fit with the organization culture, experienced job and career realities</td>
<td>Fit with preferences for the general culture of the location of residence, including weather, amenities, political and religious climates and the arts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sacrifice</td>
<td>What the person would sacrifice if she left the organization. Perceived costs of leaving the organization include giving up colleagues, perks, projects, benefits, job stability and advancement</td>
<td>What the person would sacrifice if she left the community. Perceived potential of loss of desirable community attributes, including school quality, neighbourhood safety and feeling of belonging</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it is seen, Links are defined as formal or non-formal connections between an individual and institutions or other people. According to Mitchell et al. (2001a), individuals have a great number of links at various points in their lives. Embeddedness refers to the number of channels that provide the links in social, psychological, and financial networks which include the physical environment of an employee and his or her family, and the society, and friends and groups from workplace and outside of work. The greater the number of links between the individual and the network, the more he or she is committed to the job or organization, and so the decision to leave is very low. The second dimension Fit is defined as an employee’s perceived compatibility or comfort with an organization and with his or her environment. According to our theory, an employee’s personal values, career goals and plans for the future must “fit” with the larger corporate culture and the demands of his or her immediate job (e.g., job
knowledge, skills and abilities). In addition, a person will consider how well he or she fits the community and surrounding environment. We posit that the better the fit, the higher the likelihood that an employee will feel professionally and personally tied to the organization (Mitchell et al., 2001). Social factors are also essential in an individual’s compatibility with the job. The individual’s life comfort, weather, and general culture are among these factors. A person who perceives person-organization fit would find it difficult to leave an organization. People take jobs for other fit reasons, including proximity to extended family, climate considerations, and culture (Valle, 2006). JE was significantly enhanced by off-the-job, or community fit. Perceptions of fit within an organization and in the community would likely lead to decreased turnover intentions (Lee et al., 2004). In a nutshell, better fit will mean a more satisfied and committed employee to the organization, both personally and professionally.

Sacrifice, the final aspect of job embeddedness, is characterized by ‘the perceived cost of material or psychological benefits that may be forfeited by leaving a job’ (Mitchell et al., 2001a: 1105). For example, a group of medical representatives from Belgian pharmaceutical companies intended to remain with their employer because moving would mean sacrificing valued benefits such as a company car and employer-sponsored travel to attractive locations. Additionally, losing a supportive organizational environment was too costly for employees at a manufacturing facility to consider changing employers. Financial (e.g. high pay or attractive benefits) and psychological (e.g. organizational support) losses that would be incurred by leaving an organization deter turnover (Bambacas & Kulik, 2013).

Based on the information given, employees are engaged with their work as a function of the total forces that encourage them to remain in the organization. Organizational and social links established by employees, their fit into the organization and society, and the interests they can sacrifice are the factors that motivate them to stay in the organization.

The Relation between Job Embeddedness and Organizational Consequences and the Results of Bibliometric Analysis

Luthans & Avolio (2009) found positive causal relationship between positive psychological characteristics and positive organizational behaviour. Past studies have shown that job embeddedness has effects on organizational outcomes such as job involvement, long-term employment, and performance (Halbesleben & Wheeler; 2008, Karatepe & Karadas, 2012; Karatepe 2016; Karatepe 2013; Wijayanto & Kismono, 2004; Lev & Koslowsky, 2012) support of colleagues (Karatepe, 2016), organizational socialization tactics (Allen, 2006), empowerment (Karatepe & Karadas, 2012), leader-member exchange (Harris et al., 2011), trust to manager (Purba et al., 2016; Akgündüz &Cin, 2015), organizational justice (Shahriari, 2011), innovative behaviour (Ng & Feldman, 2010) and organizational cynicism (Nafei, 2015), work spirituality (Rajappan et al., 2017), turnover (Garcia-Rivera et al. 2013), organizational climate (Hashim et al., 2015), identity (Yang et al., 2011), organizational integration (Takawira et al., 2014), different cultural environment (Mallol et al., 2007; Gong et al., 2011), life quality (Nafei, 2015, Eren & Hisar, 2016), leader/member exchange (Soleimani, 2017, Harris et al., 2011), job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Swider et al., 2011; Crossley et al. 2007; Cunningham et al., 2005; Van Dijk & Brown 2003; Fletcher, 2005; Harman et al., 2009; Holtom & Inderrienden, 2006; Holtom & O’Neill, 2006; Holtom & O’Neill,
2004; Holtom et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2004; Mallol et al., 2007; Ng & Feldman, 2010; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010; Tanova & Holtom, 2008; Harris et al., 2011; Wheeler et al., 2010a; Wheeler et al., 2010b). In addition, studies have also shown that the job embeddedness reduces the voluntary turnover (Candan, 2016; Felps et al., 2009; Tanova & Holtom, 2008).

Table 2: Distribution of Publications by Years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Frequency (n)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4,11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4,84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>8,23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>11,86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>10,41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>11,38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>15,01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12,10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>14,28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>7,74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the distribution of 413 studies published between the years 2009-2018 on job embeddedness is analyzed according to the years, it is seen that the maximum number of the studies was published in 2015 (n = 62). The studies published after 2015 make up the 49.1% of the total number of publications.

Table 3: Distribution of Publications by Document Type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document Types</th>
<th>Frequency (n)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Article</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>86,44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proceedings Paper</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>8,95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4,35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Editorial Material</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0,72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book Chapter</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting Abstract</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Distribution of Publications by Language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Frequency (n)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>98,06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0,24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0,24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0,24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkish</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0,24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the studies were analyzed according to the types of publications, it was determined that six different types of publications were released, and since some studies were considered in the context of more than one type, calculations were made on 419 publications. Among the types of publications, the highest percentage belongs to articles and proceeding papers, which constitute 95.4% of the total publications.
Studies were published in seven different languages in total, and 98% of the 413 studies were in English. This is followed by French and German (0,48%) respectively, and the language of the 0.24% of the publications is Turkish.

**Table 5. Classification of Publications by Research Areas**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Areas</th>
<th>Frequency (n)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business Economics</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>60,77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>33,17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences Other Topics</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>12,34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>7,50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3,39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Administration</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2,90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthropology</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2,17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Sciences Ecology</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1,93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1,93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Science</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1,69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Educational Research</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1,69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Law</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1,45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Environmental Occupational Health</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1,45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science Technology Other Topics</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1,45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demography</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0,96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Science Library Science</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0,96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts Humanities Other Topics</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0,72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0,72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Studies</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0,72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic Studies</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Science Technology</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Care Sciences Services</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operations Research Management Science</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychiatry</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 shows the distribution of the studies by research areas. Studies were conducted in the field of Business Economics by 60,7%, which corresponds to a large part of the publications, followed by Psychology by 33,1% in and Social Sciences Other Topics by 12,3%
Table 6: Journals of the Publications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Number of Publications</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Applied Psychology</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Vocational Behaviour</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource Management</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Journal of Human Resource Management</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Development International</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Organizational Behavior</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Managerial Psychology</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel Psychology</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel Review</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academy of Management Journal</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Relations</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Networks</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource Management Review</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Management</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academy of Management Review</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Journal of Hospitality Management</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Occupational Health Psychology</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization Science</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia Pacific Journal of Management</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the journals of the publications are analyzed, it is seen that the Journal of Applied Psychology is the magazine with the highest number of publications (n = 18), followed by the Journal of Vocational Behavior with the second highest number of publications with 11 publications.

Table 7: The Number of Citations by Years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Number of Citations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>1088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018</td>
<td>570</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average citations per item</td>
<td>11.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H-index</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When the number of citations were examined according to years, it was determined that the highest number of citations to 413 studies were made in 2017 (n = 1088). When it is considered according to years, it is observed that the citations received increased every year and there was a significant leap after 2016 within the framework of the citations. The average citation value of publications is 11.1 and the H-index is 35.

CONCLUSIONS

This study aims to determine the bibliometric properties of the studies that have been published on job embeddedness and scanned in international citation indexes. The survey data include 413 studies on job embeddedness published between the years 2009-2018 and scanned at the Web of Science database. Information about the number of publications, document types of publications, language of publications, citation analysis, research areas and journals of the publications was obtained according to years for the 413 publications in the scan of the web of Science Core Collection database on the topic "job embeddedness". Studies were evaluated on the basis of the relevant parameters, and the Hirsch index (h-index) for the publications was also calculated. The results of the analysis showed that the interest in the field increased significantly with respect to the number of publications after 2015, and so did the number of citations after 2016. The studies were mainly published as articles-proceeding papers and in English. The highest number of publications was in the field of Business Economics, and the Journal of Applied Psychologist was the magazine with the largest number of publications. It is believed that the study will contribute to researchers in terms of revealing the current situation and trends in this field and the areas in which future studies should focus on. In addition to this, it can be stated that more studies on job embeddedness should be carried out in Turkish.

REFERENCES


Ramesh, A.; Gelfand, M. J. (2010). Will they stay or will they go? The role of job


Chapter 52

Assessment of Type A and Type B Personality According to Typologies of Recreational Leader in the Tourism Industry

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INTRODUCTION

Leadership perceived as power and power in the early ages and in the Middle Ages has begun to be encountered more often today with the spread of democratic structures. Leadership, which in the past has been regarded as a subject of state administration and religion, is at the forefront of issues that are often relevant to businesses after the industrial revolution and globalization movements (Şahne & Şar, 2015: 110). Leadership is all about the ability to gather a group of people around certain goals and to have the skills, talents and experience necessary to mobilize the group within these defined goals (Eraslan, 2006: 2; Aslan, 2009: 257; Silva, 2016). The leader creates enthusiasm and enthusiasm for the team. Leader should manage not only people but also knowledge properly (İnce et al., 2004: 438). Recreational leaders motivated human power works more efficiently in its own way and carries out the assigned tasks by adopting (Tunçer, 2011: 63). The recreational leader is a recreation specialist who supervises and directs special events, and can take part in the management of playgrounds, parks or recreation centers (Kılbaş, 2010: 202). Recreation leaders don’t force team members to do a job; on the contrary, they try to motivate members or inspire members. Recreation leaders live according to the basic beliefs and principles that attract members, and when they see a better way they initiate change (Low & Ang, 2012: 6). Recreation leaders guide and contribute to empowerment and social development of individuals in terms of their physical, social, and psychological aspects, as well as their development of personal skills and abilities (Karaküçük & Gürbüz, 2007: 47-51). Leaders demonstrate appropriate leadership behavior. Some of those; democratic leadership, autocratic leadership, permissive leadership, transactional leadership (tradition and historical leadership), transformational leadership and charismatic leadership (Başaran, 2016: 411). Leadership is defined as autocratic leadership with full authority over team members, bureaucratic leadership that follows rules rigorously and allows staff to monitor procedures in full, democratic leadership that includes team members in the decision-making process and makes final decisions on their own, allowing team members to work on their own leadership. Unlike these, there are various types of leadership such as charismatic, transformational, servant, creative, corrective according to their personal characteristics (Amanchukwu et al., 2015).

Due to reasons such as industrialization, technological developments, increase in income level and prolongation of human life, leisure time of people is increasing day by day and thus participation rates in recreational activities are increased. In addition,
people have turned to recreational activities for reasons such as stress, crowd, noise, pollution that urban life presents. The qualities and personality of the recreation leader as well as the content of the recreational activity are also very important in order to manage these recreational activities in a correct and healthy way. The purpose of this research is to evaluate personality types of recreational leaders in tourism activities in accordance to the leadership style. It is thought that the evaluations and recommendations made as a result of the work will provide recreation leaders with a perspective on human resource managers both during the selection phase and during the assessment of their suitability for work.

Thanks to these results, the tourism industry will be able to choose the recreational leaders more accurately in their labor-intensive businesses and thus bring out healthier, quality and successful businesses. It can be argued that the results of the work will be a significant contribution to the managers of the tourism and recreation industry as well as the literature. The concept of recreational leadership, leadership roles in the first part of the study, recreational leadership typologies in the second part, personality traits of type A-B in the third part, evaluation of the appropriateness of A-B personality types according to recreational leadership typologies conclusions and recommendations in the later sections are given.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Recreational Leadership Concept and Leadership Roles

The recreation leader is a person that includes people in their activities in accordance with their wishes and needs, aims and targets, taking into account age, gender, marital status, ethnicity and other factors, guides them in accordance with their goals, helps them to socialize by establishing close communication with group members, is the person who ensures that members enjoy the highest level of activity (Yayla, 2014: 158-159). In the tourism sector, a recreation leader should be well-defined, self-assessing his strengths and developing weaknesses. Leader must accept his mistakes and learn from his mistakes, and he must do his utmost to correct these mistakes. It is necessary to have a large liaison network and environment. Participants should benefit and respect them. The leader should arrange programs according to the needs of the person and be in good contact with the people (Tekin & Zorba, 2001: 34). Leadership is the power and the art of influencing individual and group behavior with organizational point of view (Keçecioğlu, 2003: 11). Leadership roles can be played in different ways under the influence of different factors. In this case, the role to be fulfilled by the leader, the characteristics of the leader's situation, the personality traits of his teammates, and the leadership role in the case of differences in the leader's personal characteristics may vary. What a recreation leader should pay attention to is; it is necessary for the leader to be able to select and implement the role appropriate to the situation during the activities. It is useful to know the differences between the leader roles for this choice (Hacıoğlu et al., 2015: 46).

Adviser Leadership: According to Emek (2017), The consultant leader provides the organizational commitment and the movement of team members together. This leadership is one of the most appropriate roles for recreation leadership. The adviser leader will consult the group members and take the views of the members before making any decision (Gökdeniz & Erdem, 2008 cited in Hacıoğlu, 2015: 45). Michael (2016) suggests that first, the team needs to cultivate a conversation in order to be an
effective adviser leader. This is to ensure that members do not hesitate to criticize and other reasons when they are expressing their opinions, so that they can express their opinion clearly (www.leadershipgeeks.com).

Controller Leadership: Controller leadership provides great social and economic benefits. The Controller Leadership later passed a bureaucratic office culture from factory conditions. But controller leadership has become a fashionable past leadership approach at the end of the 1960s. Nevertheless, the leadership has revived at the beginning of the 21st century, when it found ways to use the scientific rational formula to control employees and increase productivity by imposing all the important things about target and control cultures (Western, 2013: 160-165). The controller leader closely follows the group members, keeping all details under control. All rules and decisions are determined by the leader. A coercive harmony and solidarity is required among the group members (Hacıoğlu, 2015: 46).

Irrelevant Leadership: Irrelevant leadership is a widespread but unrealistic and immature leadership role to meet rapidly growing quality, innovation and efficiency demands. These leaders are obliged not to strengthen their authority but to give responsibility and authority to their team members to get rid of their responsibilities (Thompson & Strickland, 2001 cited in Hacıoğlu, 2015: 46). Irrelevant leadership gives the leader the ability to take over or abandon the role. This leadership role does not predict whether or not to interfere and support. The leader does not care what followers do and is busy with his own work. Irrelevant leadership is seen as the dark side of the authority. This weak leadership role often causes adverse effects within the team. Another negative aspect of irrelevant leadership is excessive representation (Kelly, 2003: 4). In an irrelevant leadership role, the leader leaves his followers to his own and does not use management authority too much. In this case, leadership behaviors are not displayed and communication is avoided (Okçu, 2011: 447).

Dedicated leadership: This kind of leadership is a more appropriate choice for recreation. For example, in a competition for a water slide, group members may not qualify but if they can enjoy the pleasure of being together, the recreation is achieved (Hacıoğlu, 2015: 46). It is the leading role in controlling the operation of members according to predetermined principles and methods within the team. It serves the team members and supports them to do these tasks. Leader supports the implementation phase after determining what tasks, when, and how to do it (Akat et al., 2002: 290). With this approach, the leader is able to effectively plan the activity, focus on developing new ideas and achieving success (Yüksel, 2007: 79).

Today, different and new types of leadership have emerged that take into account the personal characteristics of the leader (Hazar, 2014: 82).

Autocratic Leadership: The group members in the autocratic and bureaucratic societies have the advantages of being suitable to the expectations of the group members, giving credibility and confidence to act independently, and enabling more effective and faster decision making. But it can lead to a reduction in job satisfaction, motivation and creativity by not giving the group members a say in order for the leader to act excessively selfishly (Hazar, 2014: 82). The leader does not feel trust in the management, and their opinions are also worthless. Members hesitate to contact the leader (Karaküçük, 2008: 272; Kilbaş, 2010: 197).

Freedom-Centered Leadership: Leadership, fully self-aware, was motivated by the audience to find themselves the best solution to their problems. According to this
approach, the primary task of the leader is to provide resources. The leader only gives his opinion when he is asked about his opinion on any matter. The leader only gives his opinion when he is asked about his opinion on any matter. However, the opinion of the leader is not binding on the viewers. These types of leaders leave their powers to their subordinates (Hazar, 2014: 82). When the level of education and expertise of the group members is high, it is a positive leadership type (Karaküçük, 2008: 273).

**Democratic Leadership:** Leader in the form of democratic leadership, guides and leads employees. The decision-making process supports and encourages the participation of employees. The leader, guided by the group's decisions, except for crisis periods. This type of leader applies the reward system rather than punishment (Hazar, 2014: 82). The democratic leader lifts the obstacles, helps people to manage their own education and management, and observe and manipulate them. The leader helps guide and make decisions here (Karaküçük, 2008: 272; Kilbaş, 2010: 198).

**Charismatic Leadership:** Charismatic leadership is a type of leadership that is seen in those who have resilient and extraordinary qualities and strong personality traits that emerge in a crisis environment. In these types of leaders, strong common personality traits, self-confidence, courage, fascination, persuasion, and motivation (Hazar, 2014: 82).

**Transformational and Interactive Leadership:** Interactive leadership is a tradition and a history-based leadership style that involves motivating viewers through the elimination of individual needs for high performance against organizational goals. Transformational leadership focuses on the future, innovation, change and reformation (Hazar, 2014: 82). The transformational leader releases the power, moves the workforce and establishes action plans. The transformational leader should understand how people will deal with change (Keçecioğlu, 2001: 169).

**Recreational Leader Typologies**

Recreational leaders, according to the approach adopted in society; planning recreational activities, evaluating weather conditions and geographical features, preparing the activity areas to minimize the risks that may arise, informing the participants and ensuring that their activities are carried out safely. To realize recreational activities, people with leadership skills are required (Hazar, 2014: 82-83). The different recreational leader typologies are as follows:

**Face-to-Face / Direct Recreation Leader:** The face-to-face leadership role is played in examples such as activity teaching in a club or holiday village. In this level of leadership, as much as the trait features; personality traits that are relevant to roles such as enthusiasm, counseling, persuasion and mediation are important. Leaders who are in face-to-face contact with the group gather at their highest level of responsibility for member satisfaction and skill and talent development. Human relationships need to be as strong as the technical skills of lower-ranking leaders (Hacıoğlu et al., 2015: 47). In the face-to-face leadership style, leaders are inspired by team members. They motivate people and help them to develop. They do not like to manage where they live. Such leaders want to constantly meet face-to-face with team members and get members’ opinions (http://www.diversecti.com). According to Tekin (2012), these types of leaders can be employed in many positions, such as tennis coaches, dance instructors, camp counselors, travel guides, or recreational organizations. These types of leaders work directly with customers, members, exhibitors, or on the road. The attitudes and abilities
that must be in the recreation leader are vital for such recreation leaders (Hazar, 2014: 83).

**Supervisor / Consultant Leader:** Supervisor leadership is defined as behavior that aims to provide guidance, support, and compelling feedback for team members' day-to-day activities. Supervising leadership involves critical masses of individuals or teams, while focusing on accomplishing tasks. This leadership type includes short-term and medium-term implementations (Pechlivanidis & Katsimpra, 2004: 214). According to Auxter et al. (2001), this role is played by mid-level managers. The sports chef responsible for the execution of the recreation programs is not in contact with the members in positions such as the animation chief. Leadership roles played on face-to-face leaders (Hacıoğlu et al., 2015: 47). Leadership is a concept of small groups and the dynamics of these groups. A supervisor leader in an organization should be recognized by the group as being under supervision. The supervisor takes the leader's power from the organization (Diker, 2014: 79).

**Manager / Managerial Leader:** It is the role played by recreational leaders in top positions such as the club manager or Chef de Village. These leaders have two-way responsibilities, such as the development of recreational programs on the one hand and classical hotel operations on the other. In this respect, the attributes desired in the managerial leadership are similar to those desired in the senior managers (Hacıoğlu et al., 2015: 47). Executive leadership is the selection of a specific system by people in the executive branch. According to Talan (2016), executive leadership is related to organizing tasks to develop and maintain the organization. According to Tekin (2012), the managerial leader is also responsible for financial management and control, long-term strategic planning, resource development and political practices (Hazar, 2014: 83).

**Other Typologies:** In addition to these basic groupings, the most widely accepted functional distinction is; "outdoor and indoor area activity leader". Outdoor leadership is leadership in outdoor areas such as mountain, countryside, sea, stream, park and pool. For example, tourist guides or facility managers in city parks. Indoor recreation leaders are involved in recreational activities, such as gymnasiums and fitness centers, built around a certain room, room, or stage. For example, the leaders in the show group are like the stage animators. It is also seen in leadership that leadership types are focused on more specific lower recreational areas. For example, camping, hiking, mountain biking, hunting guides or leaders. For example, camping, hiking, mountain biking, hunting guides or leaders. Leaders in sporting activities are "trainer" and "coaches" (Kozak, 2017: 87).

**A and B Type Personal Traits**

Personality is defined as the consistent pattern of behaviors that arise from the individual and the processes within the person (Burger, 2006: 23). About thirty years ago, some medical doctors realized that not only were the blood pressure, weight and inactivity enough to cause any type of people to have advanced heart disease difficulties, but they also had to look at different personalities as well. Jenkins (1971), Friedman and Rosenman (1974) have demonstrated the existence of a number of behavioral patterns associated with cardiovascular disease. These behaviors classified the personality according to patterns as personality type A and B (Burger, 2006: 299-300). The table below shows A and B personality traits by different researchers and writers.
Table 1: A And B Type Personal Traits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A TYPE PERSONAL TRAITS</th>
<th>B TYPE PERSONAL TRAITS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This type is motivated to come and succeed from challenges (Burger, 2006: 299-305). They like to enjoy power and recognition from the competition, they quickly get angry and act (Burger, 2006: 299-305). They do not like their time wasted, they want to do their job as quickly as possible (Burger, 2006: 299-305). Type A people see people more comfortable than themselves as a source of frustration (Burger, 2006: 299-305). Type A people tend to work hard without external pressure, such as raising a job on time. Secondly, Type A people compete against time. They think that time is important and should not be spared (Gastorf, 1980 nar. from Burger, 2006: 299-305). Type A tends to react more often to anger and hostility than to type B (Glass, nar. from Burger, 2006: 299-305). Effort, time pressure, and hostile reactions result from the desire to control the people and situations that type A people meet (Yarnold, Mueser, &amp; Grimm, 1985’den akt. Burger, 2006: 299-305). They showed that A types are trying to be more dominant in a group discussion than B types and that they do not give up working on that task, even if someone else successfully performs a task (Strube, Berry, &amp; Moergen, 1985 nar. from Burger, 2006: 299-305). Type A continues to want it even when someone else is told it can not have something (Rhodewalt &amp; Comer, 1982 nar. from Burger, 2006: 299-305). How they reacted to the difficulties encountered by people of type A and B were researched through research (Holmes, McGilley &amp; Houston, 1984 nar. from Burger, 2006: 299-305). Type A people may not like to admit that they are about to lose control over a difficult task (Burger, 2006: 299-305). Type A people are single-angle personalities that are mobile, passionate, enjoying competition, hostile and hostile (Baltaş &amp; Baltaş, 2001 nar. from Durna, 2004: 199).</td>
<td>Type B people are more relaxed and unattractive (Burger, 2006: 299-305). Sometimes they work hard, but they do not put themselves under pressure as people of type A (Burger, 2006: 299-305). These people are not as competitive as the type, they do not get angry or move easily (Burger, 2006: 299-305). Type B people are less competitive than Type A (Gastorf, 1980 nar. from Burger, 2006: 299-305). Type B people tend to delay work (Gastorf, 1980 nar. from Burger, 2006: 299-305). The person with type B behavior is in a more balanced and relaxed approach to life, with less conflict over time (Durna, 2004: 191). Type B personalities are defeated to the challenge type A for senior management positions (Baltaş &amp; Baltaş, 2001 nar. from Durna, 2004: 200). They have little interest in time, they are not hasty, they are patient, they do not like bragging, they do not enjoy games / sports, they enjoy to have fun, they can relax easily, they do not get under pressure immediately (Luthans, 1995 nar. from Durna, 2004: 201).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Evaluation of Type A and Type B Personality According to Recreational Leader Typologies in the Tourism Industry

Recreational activities are extremely important in terms of improving individuals' physical, social, psychological, emotional and social aspects and improving personal skills. These activities are activities that can be carried out individually as well as in teams and with the leader. As well as the choice of recreational activity, leaders who motivate the individual in that activity are also very important in terms of the tourism
and recreation industry. Within this context, leaders have a very important task in the tourism and recreation industries in terms of realizing recreational activities in a healthy way. Moreover, the managerial roles and personality structures that the leader has adopted are affecting the way in which the team members succeed. On the basis of these reasons, the purpose of this research is to examine the recreational leader typologies and to reveal the personality structures suitable for recreational leader typologies.

It is important for human resources management to plan recreational activities, to organize, direct, motivate, coordinate, and supervise people, and to screen out those who do not have personality traits at the time of recruitment. When recruiting in the leisure and recreation industry, the tourism industry should be careful to ensure that these individuals do not have qualifications that are well below or above the qualities required by the job and that they are appropriate to their personality type. Because recreational leadership can lead to job dissatisfaction when individuals with personality structures that are incompatible with typologies fail on the assigned task, and this dissatisfaction may cause job discontinuation over time. These results can lead to a permanent loss of labor. Tourism and recreation businesses that provide better quality services can be created by the findings set out in the survey. In the results of the research, it has been tried to develop suggestions to tourism and recreation industry managers.

First of all, what are the "recreational leader typologies"? and "what types of recreational leaders are appropriate for the types of personality? questions came out of the framework. Detailed literature has been searched because recreational leadership typologies have not been examined in terms of personality types before. The relevant literature review involves the use of published or published sources of results as a result of previous studies for different purposes (Ural & Kılıç, 2013: 65). Secondary data sources have been utilized in the research and various master and doctoral theses, national and international articles, journals and books have been used in the study. These reviews were made between November 15, 2017 and January 20, 2018 by Google Scholar, Science Direct, Ebsco Host, etc. data bases and thesis screening pages of the Higher Education Council (YÖK).

*In Table 2, the characteristics of the types of persons A-B in Table 1 were used to determine the personality types that are suitable for recreational leader typologies.

Table 2: Recreational Leader Typologies, Leadership Roles, Tasks and Appropriate Personality Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recreational Leader Typologies</th>
<th>Leadership Roles</th>
<th>Tasks</th>
<th>Compliance of Recreational Leaders to A-B Personality Types</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Face-to-Face Leader / Direct Recreation Leader:</td>
<td>There is a face-to-face contact with the group members. This leader has an aggressive, advisory, persuasive and mediatory role. This leader gives the group members the opportunity to be satisfied and to</td>
<td>Activities planner / organizer in a club or holiday village, Camp Advisor, Tennis Coach, Dance Instructor,</td>
<td>B Type</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
develop their skills. This leader type establishes strong human relationships. These leaders do not like managing from where they live. This leader is the lower level leaders of the hierarchy.

| Supervisor / Consultant Leader | This leader supports the day-to-day activities of team members.  
|                                | • This leader is the individual and the team, while focusing on the achievement of their duties.  
|                                | • This leader takes his or her power from the organization.  
|                                | • This role is played by mid-level managers. |

| Executive / Managerial Leader | This type of leadership is the responsibility of classical hotel operations, as well as the development and implementation of recreational programs in the desired manner. This leader is also responsible for financial management and control, long-term strategic planning, resource development and political practice. These leaders are senior managers. |

| Other Typologies | These leaders lead in outdoor areas such as mountain, countryside, sea, stream, park and pool. These leaders manage recreational activities, such as sports halls and fitness centers, built on a closed area, such as a certain hall, room, or stage. |

| Results and Recommendations |

Today, recreational activities are more often resorted to by people who escape from the adverse environments that urban life is exposed to. They have started to see these recreational activities in open and closed areas as an individual need. As a result, new recreation areas and businesses have begun to emerge both in terms of tourism and the recreation industry. Responsible recreational leaders who manage these activities and teams, who have planning and programming skills, and who can direct people / groups, have gained importance in Turkey. Recreational leadership is a dynamic...
process, which can vary according to activity, time, team members and circumstances. Leadership and personality adaptation are important for successful recreational activities to be achieved and healthy. According to recreational leader typology, the appropriateness of personality structure can be a sign that recreational leaders can carry out their duties in a healthy way. Recreation leaders have power and influence on the outcomes of their activities. For this reason, in this study, in the tourism and recreation industry, the types of personality which are suitable for various recreational leaders who motivate their teams and which direct recreational activities are examined.

The results of the review are given below:

Participants in middle-level management, such as sports instructors, club or recreation managers, who provide support to Face-to-Face Leader / Directly Serving Recreation Leaders and team members in a holiday village with groups such as activity organizer, tennis coach, tour guide, Supervisor / Supervisor Leaders seem to be more appropriate to choose from Type B personality types.

It can be argued that the Manager / Managerial Leader, who is responsible for classical hotel operations, such as a club manager or general manager of a fitness facility, is a more appropriate choice of Type A personality types.

It can be argued that the open and closed field leaders among the other typologies are more appropriate to choose from Type B personality types. According to the research results of Karaküçük and Yetim (1996), they have indicated that the type of leadership behavior, which is mostly valid in recreational activities, is democratic, which is considered as the middle point of autocratic and liberal approaches at the extreme ends. This suggests that recreational leaders in lower and middle management need to carry soft B-type personality traits that work directly with customers, participants, members, and people, and that also exhibit more balanced, comfortable approaches to life, while contrary to the management of the organization and recreational programs it can be argued that senior managerial leaders who are responsible at the top level from the planning, top of the difficulties, motivated to achieve and who like power, competition and hard work should carry A personality traits. According to Kozak et al. (2017), indoor activity leaders need to have certain personality traits, while outdoor activity leaders need to be careful to develop behavioral aspects such as being resourceful. Durna (2004) states that the personality structure has a great influence on the attitudes and behaviors of the persons, their relations, their position at work, their experiences, their decisions, their adaptation to the environment and so on (Durna, 2004: 205).

Kozak (2017: 80) also points out that the realization of leisure time activities by leading a leader is important both for the development of social capital and for ensuring social peace.

The managerial roles and personality structures that the leader adopts in terms of the realization and execution of recreational activities in a healthy manner will lead the team members to success or failure. It is important for human resources management to plan for, organize, motivate and coordinate recreational activities, and to prevent the loss of manpower and the speed of the recruitment of individuals who are not skilled in coordination and supervision and whose personality traits are in the recruitment stage. In this study, a theoretical study on recreational leadership was carried out. In this context, proposals have been developed for tourism and recreation industry managers. It can be argued that the work will contribute to the tourism literature. Future research can
do field research to see the effects of recreational leadership and personality dimensions on the tourism sector.

REFERENCES


Chapter 53

Salep Orchids and Ecotourism: A Multidimensional Evaluation for Sustainable Orchid Habitats, Case of Northwestern Anatolia

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INTRODUCTION

Rapid urbanization, which began in the 1960s in Turkey, caused unconscious use of natural and natural landscapes, regardless of the conservation-use balance. These practices have increased the interest and sensitivity to sustainability and landscape management. Especially forest habitats in landscape are the ecosystems most affected by environmental threats. For this reason, it is necessary to give importance to their management. However, it seems that some sanctions are needed to protect the important species and habitat diversity in the forests. Therefore, responsible are trying to find a sustainable solution to the problem with a number of national and international agreements and legal regulations. One of the non-wood forest products evaluated in the context of sustainable forestry is salep obtained from orchids (Anon., 2014; Anon., 2015).

The Orchidaceae family, which has become recognized by the society with salep, stands out in flowering plants with its diversity and striking morphological structure. Orchids can be found in all terrestrial ecosystems except polar and arid desert habitats. Species make the widest spread, especially in tropical habitats. Salep is obtained from the underground tubers of orchids (IUCN2/SSC3 Orchid Specialist Group, 1996; Anon., 2015).

Dressler (1993) considers the presence of 19,501 species of 803 orchid genus in the Orchidaceae family all over the World. He indicates that they offer more diversity in tropical regions than other ecosystems. Tropical habitats provide a living environment for 10,849 orchid taxa belonging to 36 genus, corresponding to 56% of total species potential (IUCN/SSC Orchid Specialist Group, 1996).

In flora of Turkey, on the other hand, Davis (1965-1985), Davis et al. (1988), it is stated that Orchidaceae family contains 187 orchid species belonging to 24 genus, and also according to Kreutz & Çolak (2009) there are 170 orchid species belonging to 23 genus and 30 taxa of them are endemic (Babaç, 2004; Bakış et al., 2011; Anon., 2015).

Salep is obtained from mainly Orchis spp. and also other tuberous species such as Anacamptis spp., Ophrys spp., Serapis spp., Himantoglossum spp., Barlia spp., and

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1This research was presented in the IFS 2016 - International Forestry Symposium held in Kastamonu University on 07-10 December 2016 and published as abstract. This chapter is prepared by further developing of the presentation note.
also orchid species with split tubers such as *Dactylorhiza* spp. In recent years *Platanthera* spp. species have also been used in the production of salep (Sezik, 1984).

The salep orchids mentioned in medical books since the Roman period; besides the use of food such as ice cream, yoghurt and beverage, it is now seen to be used in medical-aromatic and pharmaceutical fields (Anon., 2015; URL1).

As the main habitats for salep cultivation in Turkey; Taşköprü county of Kastamonu province, Safranbolu county of Karabük province, Northern Anatolia, Bucak settlement of Burdur province and Muğla, Antalya, Silifke and their surroundings, southwestern Anatolia, Kahramanmaraş, Adıyaman, Malatya, southeastern Anatolia, Van, Mus and Bitlis, eastern Anatolia and Antakya-Hatay, eastern Mediterranean region stand out (Sandal, 2009; Söğüt & Sandal, 2010; Anon., 2014; URL1).

All orchids need different habitats. When natural habitats are taken into consideration, it is seen that they prefer forest, maquis, olive grove and agriculture fields on weak soil in terms of amount of potassium, nitrogen and lime (Anon., 2015).

Increased habitat losses and unregulated orchid collecting practices in Turkey, which have diversity in terms of orchid species and habitat potential, have brought the issue of urgent protection of the family in national and international status (Söğüt & Sandal, 2010; URL1).

Turkey has signed the CITES Convention on the International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora and the Bern Convention aimed at protecting the wildlife and habitats of Europe to legally protect threatened species and habitats, including orchids (Anon., 2015).

It is known that the Kastamonu salep orchids are prominent in the North Anatolian region and are trading in high prices (Sezik, 1984). Because of the high demand, it is no doubt that the loss of orchid species and habitat will occur in the area.

**Kastamonu province's salep orchid species and habitat protection practises**

Kastamonu province has productive forest habitats and according to the Turkish Plant Data Service, has many endemic plant species. In terms of orchid species, the province is hosting 34 taxa (Mayer & Aksoy, 1998; Babac, 2004; Bakış et al., 2011). The most important regions of Salep production in the province are Araç, Devrekani, Daday, Azdavay, Taşköprü and Ilgaz (Sezik, 1984) (Table 1).

**Table 1:** List of species according to the regions where the species from which the salep is obtained (Sezik, 1984)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Species</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Araç</td>
<td><em>Orchis mascula</em> ssp. <em>pinetorum</em>, <em>Dactylorhiza romana</em> ssp. <em>romana</em>, <em>O. purpurea</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Devrekani</td>
<td><em>O. mascula</em> ssp. <em>pinetorum</em>, <em>O. purpurea</em>, <em>O. simia</em>, <em>Anacamptis pyramidalis</em>, <em>O. tridentata</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daday</td>
<td><em>O. mascula</em> ssp. <em>pinetorum</em>, <em>O. purpurea</em>, <em>O. simia</em>, <em>A. pyramidalis</em>, <em>D. romana</em> ssp. <em>romana</em>, <em>O. tridentata</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Azdavay</td>
<td><em>O. mascula</em> ssp. <em>pinetorum</em>, <em>O. purpurea</em>, <em>A. pyramidalis</em>, <em>D. romana</em> ssp. <em>romana</em>, <em>O. pallens</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taşköprü</td>
<td><em>O. mascula</em> ssp. <em>pinetorum</em>, <em>O. purpurea</em>, <em>D. romana</em> ssp. <em>romana</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilgaz</td>
<td><em>O. mascula</em> ssp. <em>pinetorum</em>, <em>O. pallens</em>, <em>D. romana</em> ssp. <em>romana</em>,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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The Ministry of Forestry and Water Affairs, General Directorate of Forestry carried out applications in six regions in Turkey as part of the Salep Action Plan, which aims to protect endangered salep orchids. One of these areas is the Kastamonu Forest Regional Directorate. Here, firstly inventory was collected for species growing in the region and protection plans were prepared. Afterwards, by choosing the appropriate type of production method, the number of saleps has been increased. The transfer of the orchids produced in the nurseries to their natural environment is an important process for species and habitat continuity. It is also another important application of action to identify species threatened by extinction, to provide gene supply and to form seed gardens, to educate local people and administrators and to reduce species and habitat damage. In this scope, various applications were made in Daday and Küre districts (URL1; URL2; URL3; Anon., 2015).

Salep orchid species and habitat protection studies of Taşköprü district of Kastamonu province

The Ecological Research Group of the Underwater Research Association conducted a case study on orchid and habitat conservation studies in Taşköprü district. The project team, entitled 'The project of protection of endemic and endangered orchids', consists of 3 persons. The project team, which received assistance from the San Diego Country Orchid Society, selected pilot areas rich for the diversity of orchids such as Bafa, Milas and Kastamonu in 2010 and started field studies. It was aimed to raise awareness with the conscious consumption of orchid species in the evaluations made with collectors in the field and the applications about the formation of seed gardens. In the evaluations made with collectors in the field, it was tried to increase awareness by informing about conscious consumption of orchid species and formation of seed gardens. In the project, which has a result that the collection of salep orchids as an important source of income for low income families, significant conservation messages were given to the local community and the collectors from the outside, and most importantly to the consumer sector (Underwater Research Association, 2010).

Sezik (1984) and Kreutz & Çolak (2009) indicate that both orchids and intensive salep production can be observed in various rural settlements of Taşköprü district. Sezik (1984) states that *Orchis mascula* ssp. *pinetorum*, *O. morio*, *O. purpurea*, *O. coriophora*, *Platanthera chlorantha*, *Listera ovata*, *Limodorum abortivum*, *Cephalanthera rubra*, *C. damasonium*, *Dactylorhiza* spp. species are distributed in the district.

MATERIAL AND METHOD

The research focuses on the salep orchids and habitat protection in the Taşköprü district of Kastamonu province, which is located in the Western Black Sea Region of Turkey and has important forest assets (Figure 1).

In this context, Sezik (1984) was taken into consideration in the selection of the salep orchids located in Taşköprü forest ecosystems. As a method for investigation in terms of habitat protection, IUCN/SSC Orchid Specialist Group (1996) Orchid Action Plan phases were followed.

In this research, it is aimed to investigate species of *Orchis mascula* ssp. *Pinetorum*, *Orchis purpurea* and *Dactylorhiza romana* ssp. *romana* that are, according
to Sezik (1984), spread in the terrestrial ecosystems and mostly used for production of salep, and their habitats, to evaluate threats have pressure on them and also to form conservation strategies to protect them (Table 1).

In the light of the literature review, the general characteristics of the species and the living area are described in detail below:

**Orchis mascula (L.) L. ssp. pinetorum (Boiss. & Kotschy) G. Camus**

English name of this taxon widely spread in Turkey, is Early Purple Orchid and its Turkish name is 'Erkil Salep'. This name is given to it due to being a species, in the family, that blooms earliest in spring (Grieve, 2016).

This taxon, which has a general distribution in countries like Turkey, Lebanon, Greece, Aegean, Cyprus, Palestine, Latakia, is the element of Eastern Mediterranean. This perennial herbaceous plant blooms in the 5th and 6th months. Conifer forest areas between 150-2400 m high, Fagus orientalis forests and Quercus spp. shrubs are their natural habitats (Davis, 1965-1985; Babaç, 2004; Bakış et al., 2011).
**Orchis purpurea** Hudson

The English name of this orchid species is Lady Orchid or Lady Brown Orchid, and the Turkish name is 'Erguvani Salep'. Another known name of this taxon is Hıdırellez Flower (URL 4; 5).

It is a perennial herbaceous plant which is a European-Siberian element. It blooms in 4th and 5th months. Openings in deciduous forests in between 1100-1750 m in height, shrub ecosystems and calcareous lands, form its general habitat. Members of this non-endemic species in Turkey is the External and Terrestrial Anatolia. Population of this species spread in the North, West, Central and Southern Europe, Cyprus and the Caucasus (Davis, 1965-1985; Babaç, 2004; Bakış et al., 2011).

**Dactylorhiza romana** (Seb.) Soo ssp. romana (Seb.) Soo

This taxon also known as 'Elçik' or 'Çam kökü' in Turkish, is bloomed in April, May and June. Natural spreading areas are calcareous slopes between 0-2000 m elevations, pseudomaquis, Quercus spp. shrubs and coniferous forests. This taxon, a Mediterranean element, is a perennial herbaceous plant. It grows in Turkey, Crimea and some Mediterranean countries (Babaç, 2004; Bakış et al., 2011). It is commonly found in meadows, and in habitats that are close to water resources and have high ground water level (URL4).

For this purpose, in the first step, general information about salep orchids, their distribution and habitats has been given. In the second stage, orchid species used in the production of salep at Kastamonu and Taşköprü provinces have been defined, and threats on species and habitats have been identified, and current applications for conservation have been mentioned. The literature notes on the area and the subject, the photos taken during the field studies, the oral interview notes made with the local people and collectors and the field observations were evaluated together and recommendations for the protection, sustainable orchid trade, ecotourism, mass communication, education, and actions regarding legal regulations, were put forward.

**RESULTS**

**Salep orchid species of Taşköprü Rural Landscape and their investigation in terms of habitat protection**

Fieldworks in Taşköprü district were carried out in Taşköprü city bazaar, Köçekli and Çambaşı countryside. During the investigations in the district market and in the village of Köçekli, oral questions were asked to local public about the orchid species and habitat protection and the following findings were obtained:

- Local people specify that they observe natural orchids usually:
  - In forest openings and areas of sparse tree communities,
  - in grassland used as pastures,
  - in untreated agricultural areas,
  - in long-term unspoiled empty lawn areas.

- It is noted that near many of these areas, there is a non-stationary water source such as fountains, creeks or water leaks. In addition, local residents expressed that they took soil samples from the growing areas of orchid individuals and laid them on their fields. According to other information gathered, successful orchid cultivation has been realized in these lands where salep seeds planted, and seed gardens have been created in the village of Badembekdemir in the district.
The name of Köçekli Village has been frequently given by many as an important production area. And also; It has been learned that natural growing areas of salep orchids are exist in the villages named Halisaray, Badembekdemir, Rahat, Köçet, Bürüm, Öküzcü, Bey, Çambaşı, and Paşa, and on the Elek Mountain.

In the Taşköprü district of Kastamonu, an important point for North Anatolia's salep production, local people earn significant amounts of economic profit from the salep trade. Despite this benefit, it has been stated that the plant individuals are unconsciously collected from their habitats without considering the protection-use balance, and now they come across the threat of extinction today.

As a result of the fieldworks, it has been determined that the changes in especially agricultural and urban land-uses adversely affected orchid habitats. However, other adverse factors are mostly overgrazing, plantation, uncontrolled tree cuttings, touristic and recreational activities and unconscious and excessive amounts of orchid lump collection.

Taxa mostly used for the production of salep in the Taşköprü district are Orchis mascula ssp. pinetorum, Orchis purpurea and Dactylorhiza romana ssp. romana.

When the general habitat characteristics of these taxa, which are elements of Euro-Siberian and Eastern Mediterranean, are evaluated; It has been determined that they are located between 0-2400 m altitudes, in pure beech forest communities, on the lower cover of pure conifer forest communities, on forest edges and in forest open spaces. In addition, it was observed that they exist on the lower cover of deciduous forest communities of the calcareous slopes, on the forest edges and in the Quercus spp. shrubs and pseudomaquie ecosystems.

During the field studies in Köcek and Çambaşı countryside, Orchid coriophora L. has also been encountered and it was determined that these species were collected in order to obtain salep and sold on the market. This taxon is a perennial herbaceous plant with widespread distribution in Turkey. It blooms between 4th and 6th months. Its habitats are moist meadows between 20-1930 m high, streams, dry sandy fields and forests. General spreading areas are Northern, Western and Central Mediterranean countries, Caucasus, Turkestan, Northern Iraq, Northwest and Western Iran (Davis, 1965-1985; Babaç, 2004; Bakış et al., 2011).

Taşköprü district has an important potential in the production and trade of salep. Many people come to Taşköprü from outside the city for the purpose of collecting salep (URL6). Oral interviews showed that unconscious collectors at Taşköprü put a heavy pressure on orchid species. It has been learned that, collectors, via preventing the development of new orchid individuals, gather orchid tubers from their nests in flowering season and prevent the plant from forming seeds.

In addition to this, another factor affecting species and habitats negatively is the orchid conservation plans, stated in Anonymous (2015), that are being applied in Turkey. In this context, dismantling species from habitats they live in, re-planting in other areas, and production processes in different environments harm them. In fact, action plans for conservation purposes can sometimes cause more harm to the present situation. It was determined that similar application problems were experienced in the town of Taşköprü during the field studies and verbal negotiations.

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

The habitats of orchids collected to obtain salep at Taşköprü are usually forest
areas, forest borders, open forest grassland and meadows. A total of 176,647 ha of forest ecosystems spread within the boundaries of the Taşköprü Forest Management affiliated to the Kastamonu Regional Directorate of Forestry. 113,518 ha of which are closed forest ecosystems and 63,129 ha are open forest areas (The General Directorate of Forestry, 2016). The forest openings cover about half of the forest ecosystem in Taşköprü. These open lawns and meadows provide an important habitat environment for orchids. For this reason, sustainable management of forest ecosystems has great importance for the survival of Taşköprü orchid populations against threats. Not paying attention to sustainable use suggests that serious steps need to be taken to protect it, despite legal sanctions. Because as with many assets, this potential is still not well understood.

Members of this family who are threatened by many factors face more pressure of extinction, today. As a result of the investigations; It has seen that the most threatening factors on Natural salep orchid species and their habitats are habitat loss and over-gathering. Sustainable management of the salep orchids in the Kastamonu province, which meets the demand for salep production in the North Anatolian Region, is of vital importance for Taşköprü District. In this context, local and foreign collectors should be trained in conservation and use of orchid species. The prevention of the flowering orchids from being collected from the nature and allowing them to form seeds will give life to new orchid individuals.

It is necessary to preserve the orchids and their habitats and transfer them to future generations. In this way, sustainable tourism and habitat protection integrity, which interact with each other, will be ensured and the economic benefit will increase. Visitors and researchers who come to the county to see the examples of the family, to investigate and to take their pictures will have the opportunity to recognize many other local values at the same time.

Also, it should not be forgotten that the salep trade, which has become a big business, can be maintained without any problems with the understanding of sustainability. Therefore, legal regulations should be updated as needed; their implementation should be supervised by orchid expert groups. Especially for endemic species, effective protection should be provided to prevent species and habitat losses.

Natural habitats of the orchid species under threat of extinction in the Taşköprü district must be evaluated and defined accurately and completely. As indicated by Ari (2000), one of the plant genetic preservation methods appropriate for each species must be selected and applied (In-Situ, Ex-Situ or In-Vitro) before it is further delayed.

According to The Official Gazette (2011; 2014), in the direction of Bern and CITES contracts, methods and principles for achieving the sustainable use of orchid species threatened in terms of species and habitat and for controlling foreign trade have been published in The Official Gazette. Orchid species and their habitats in accordance with the provisions of the 'Regulation on the Implementation of the Convention on the International Trade of Endangered Wild Animals and Plant Species', are under protection, and must not to be destroyed.

According to Article 20 of The Environmental Law and in accordance with The Official Gazette (2006), The Ministry of Forestry and Water Affairs started to apply the criminal procedure to the people who collects the protected salep tubers from their habitats. These sanctions should be brought not only to orchid collectors, but also to those who destroy species by changing the habitats of the orchids or by causing habitat
fragmentation.

The Orchid Action Plan developed and presented by IUCN/SSC Orchid Specialist Group (1996) is quite different from other action plans. While the other plans are focused on which species is the most endangered, this action plan deals with both how habitats with high diversity will be preserved and what are important orchid populations. The orchid action plan in Turkey should also be prepared and implemented by orchid expert groups in the direction of CITES. The plan should include useful and helpful data on implementation of orchid and habitat conservation strategies.

Ensuring the continuity of orchids and habitats grown in Taşköprü ecosystems will contribute to rural green economy and tourism. Moreover, it will also enable rediscovery of regional traditions, ecotourism serving sustainable tourism, rural landscape potential of North Anatolia, at national and global scale. In the training activities for salep collectors, the responsible of botanical gardens, orchid nurseries, Kastamonu-Bartin Küre Mountains National Park, nature conservation areas, orchid associations, non-governmental organizations and local governments should, work together and contribute to sustainable ecotourism, production and trade.

In summary, Northern Anatolian Forests for salep and other natural endemic forest products should be managed with an ecosystem approach and ecotourism, species and habitat losses should be considered in the sustainable tourism trade and marketing of products.

Notes.

2 IUCN: International Union for Conservation of Nature
3 SSC: The Species Survival Commission
4 CITES: Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora

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An Assessment on the Floristic Variety of Province of Şırnak-Turkey In Terms of Botanical Tourism

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INTRODUCTION

Turkey has a considerably rich flora with more than 10000 plant species, and 3649 of them are endemic. The endemism ratio of Turkey is 31.82% (Güner, Aslan, Ekim, Vural & Babaç 2012). "Endemic" refers to plants or animal species which are native and restricted to a specific place on earth and this state or quality means "endemism". This limited spread in endemism has brought Turkey a unique position for plant diversity (Yoğunlu, 2011: 1).

Humankind has collected plants from nature and cultivated plants in fields from Neolithic period to nowadays. Botanical gardens are made for the cultivation and display of live plants by scientific methods. The botanical gardens, which were initially set up for ornamentation and a pleasant appearance, were later started to be used for science and education (Özçelik et al., 2006). Indeed, we have seen in recent times that plants are used for a variety of purposes, such as medical, food, cosmetics and landscape (Boz, 2014: 103). Plants are important for people in terms of food, culture and society. Furthermore, plants contribute to the development of the country's tourism by allowing different kinds of activities such as botanical tourism (Demircan, Öz, Stephenson & Karahan, 2006; Boz, 2014:103).

The province of Şırnak, the research area, has a unique biological diversity with its natural habitats. A wide segment of Şırnak province (Küpeli Mountain, Cizre and Silöpi, Cudi Mountain, Tanin Mountains) has been identified as an important natural area in Turkey. As it is a transitional area between two main geographical regions, it adds an important value as altitude, climate, land structure and vegetation, which reflects the wealth of biological diversity that the province has (Erdoğan & Kalay, 2016:71).

For the researchers, we have assessed that the province of Şırnak has the potential of botanical tourism. We have reviewed the botanical tourism potential with the help of literature review and secondary source analysis. We have revealed the botanical tourism and Şırnak plant species and put forward suggestions. Şırnak may provide a new alternative for botanical tourism compared to other destinations for its plant diversity. In
this context, this study is of an importance for the subject has not been addressed until now and for revealing the potential.

1. BOTANICAL TOURISM

The concept of botanical is derived from the word "botanique" in French and means plant science (TDK, 2018). Humankind is basically curious to recognize and identify living objects (Flora & Fauna) around them. The fact that it utilizes the other components of nature, which it is a part of, has led to recognition and definition, and in the course of time, a classical taxonomy / systematic knowledge has emerged. Classical taxonomy known as Alpha-Taxonomy; aims to present leading distribution maps in internationally well-named and defined taxa and biodiversity studies. It forms the basis of all biodiversity activities and preserves its validity today (Davis & Heywood, 1963). Today, by including the classical taxonomy as well as molecular, palynological, karyologic and anatomical techniques, the subject has moved to the molecular, pollen, chromosome and anatomical dimensions. However, as mentioned above, the classical taxonomy based on the identification of taxa still maintains its validity.

Wood (2002) handles botanical tourism in the context of eco-tourism within tourism and defines it as "a tourism type based on the nature-awareness activities". Benfield, (2013) defines botanical tourism as a concept that encompasses the activities carried out in the botanic gardens, which have historical and urban themes and include many plants. Botanical tourism is also defined as a type of tourism created to be examined in terms of different plant species and geographical characteristics in the world. One of the most important characteristics that distinguish one country from another in botanical tourism is endemic plant diversity (Ateş et al. 2016: 22). We observe that the concept of botanical tourism is expressed as garden tourism in various sources (Colburn, 2012; Utama, 2015a).

The botanical gardens have an important place today, which have been established for plant examination, cultivation of medical plants, and prevention of extinction of plants (Başarangil & Tokatlı, 2016). Today, the social responsibility that the botanical gardens have significantly contribute to the preservation of the plants and creatures and bringing them into future (Hepecan & Ozkan, 2005). This contribution can be realized through project, education, conferences and community-based projects that botanical gardens perform periodically. Botanical gardens not only display the plants but also exhibit applications regarding the plant growing and create a recreational area for people. Some of the activities of some botanical gardens provide good examples of how botanical gardens can be used. For example, the disadvantaged groups are brought to the botanical gardens and they are informed about them and are channeled to engage with nature with the Community Greening Program in Sydney (BGCI Report, 2010).

The botanical gardens around the world cover a large area and contain a considerable amount of plant species. There are 30 botanical gardens in Switzerland, which hosts about 20% of all European plant species, with 3000 species of plants, although it has an area of about 41,000 square kilometers (about 4 per thousand of Europe) in particular. Those who have significant tourist potentials among them are the Basel Bruglingen Botanical Garden with an annual visitor number of 80,000, the Geneva Botanical Garden with an annual visitor number of 300,000, and the Botanical Garden of Neuchatel University with an annual visitor number of 20,000. The Gallen Botanical Garden with an annual visitor number of 60,000, Zurich University New
Botanical Garden with an annual visitor count of 130,000 and the Zurich Cactus Plant Museum with an annual visitor count of 30,000 (URL 1, 2018).

According to the International Association for the Protection of Botanical Gardens, there are 3364 botanical gardens that are active in the world. Considering the country rankings, the U.S. has the top place with 813 botanical gardens. However, there is no clear evidence of the total number of visitors to botanical gardens in the United States. Table 1 provides the botanical garden visitor numbers in some countries (Çarbuğa & Pekerşen, 2017: 30).

**Table 1:** Active botanical gardens and annual visitor numbers by country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of Botanical Gardens</th>
<th>Annual Number of Visitors (Million)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>31.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Çarbuğa & Pekerşen, 2017: 30.*

Turkey has different types of vegetation and a very rich flora for Turkey situates in a pivotal region where intersects of Mediterranean and European-Siberian and Iranian-Turanian phytogeographical regions and where Europe and Asia unites. In addition to this special geographical location, it has enabled the cultivation of a wide variety of plant species in these lands where the topography is changed at short distances, have different geological and geomorphological structures, contain various types of soil and bedrock types and are under the influence of different climate types. The number of the taxa in Turkey has been identified as 11707 as the "Turkey Plants List and Vascular Plants" book has been published, which is the recent and comprehensive book in Turkey and the rate of endemism has been observed as 31,82% (Güner et al., 2012). Turkey's potential for vascular plants has not been determined yet. Because, new plant species been added to the flora of Turkey in every year.

There are numerous botanical gardens/parks, which are established for recreation, health and botanical studies. These are (URL 2, 2018, URL 3, 2018).

- Istanbul University, Alfred Heilbronn Botanical Garden (1935)
- Zeytinburnu Medical Plant Garden (2005)
- Bakırköy Botanical Park (2013)
- Atatürk Arboretum (1982)
- Hevsel Gardens / Diyarbakır
- Soğanlı Botanical Park (1998)
- Çukurova University Botanical Garden
- Ankara University Botanical Garden
- Ege University Botanical Garden and Herbarium Application / Research Center
- Gaziantep Botanical Garden
• Süleyman Demirel University Botanical Garden
• Bursa Botanical Park,
• Karaca Arboretum,
• Köyceğiz Arboretum,
• Akdeniz University Botanical Garden and
• Ordu Botanical Park

We can observe that there are some activities for plants; botanical gardens are used for touristic purposes by using them as a farm or park. For example, Antalya Department of Forestry has carried out a project, called "Botanical Tourism, as an Alternative Tourism" in the region of Akseki-Ibradi (URL 4, 2018). Isparta, which has succeeded in attracting thousands of tourists with its lavender plant gardens, is one of the best examples of recent times (URL 5, 2018). However, we can say that the evaluation of botanical gardens within botanical and ecotourism is inadequate.

Considering the profile of the botanic tourists, they respect and are interested in nature (Wood, 2002). The tourist profile of botanical tourism is 50 years old and over tourists. Female tourists are more inclined to botanical tourism than men. The botanic tourist profile consists of gardeners, who are knowledgeable about their jobs and forming a smaller group, and cultural-oriented tourists, forming a larger group and locals, who regularly visit such places through activities (Bauer-Krösbacher & Payer, 2012: 59-60).

The expectations of the botanic tourists can be collected under the following basic motivations (ITB, 2014 quoted by. Çarbuğa & Pekerşen, 2017: 28);

- Engaging in activities that are harmonious and less harmful to the natural environment,
- To discover and to feel a sense of relief accordingly,
- Spending time in a friendly environment,
- To be able to acquire new friendships,
- Providing cultural benefits in the environment where we have fun and observe.

Botanic tourism distinguishes itself from other tourism activities for it provides the feelings of discovery, relaxation and "returning to self" or "returning to nature"all together through activities carried out in the botanic gardens (Utama, 2015a). The location of the botanical gardens facilitates the participation of the activities of the urban population in botanical gardens. From another point of view, the botanic gardens provide a room for living in the city (Çarbuğa & Pekersen, 2017: 28).

1.1. Botanical tourism potential of Şırnak


We have analyzed the 11 volume of Turkish flora, and reviewed checklists and publications and examined the floristic research concerning the city of Şırnak to present the plant diversity of Şırnak. Research findings illustrate that there are 1141 taxa in the province of Şırnak and 86 of which are endemic. 6 of the 1141 taxa are the members of the Pteridophyta, 1135 of them are Spermatophyta. Of the spermatophyta members, two
are Gymnospermae and 1133 are Angiospermae. Three of the endemic or non-endemic yet rare plants have been assessed as "DD" (not enough data), four "CR" (critical), six "EN" (endangered), 42 "VU" (vulnerable), and 54 "LC" (low risk danger).

Some endemic plants identified in Şırnak are mentioned below.

3. Crataegus yaltirikii (Dönmez, 2005)
4. Clinopodium serpyllifolium (Fırat, Akçiçek and Kaya, 2015)
5. Kemulariella tahirlicii (Fırat, 2016)
6. Spiraea cudidaghense (Fırat & Aksoy, 2017)
7. Prospero cudidaghense (Fırat & Yıldırım, 2016)
8. Bellevalia behcetii (Pınar, Eroğlu & Fidan, 2016)
9. Stachys namazdaghensis (Yıldırım, 2005)
10. Muscari sirnakense (Yıldırım, 2010c)
12. Sanguisorba sirmakia (Yıldırım, 2014b)

In addition to these plans, a type of tulip, called as reverse tulip or crying tulip (Fritillaria), which grows in many places such as Şırnak, Adıyaman and Hakkari, is an important plant, which should be utilized.
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Aiming to determine the floristic diversity of Şırnak and assessing it for botanical tourism purposes, this study has identified that Şırnak has important local and regional endemic plants and has a significant potential for botanical tourism. The insufficient research at Cudi, Tanin and Gabar, which are the important mountains of Şırnak, indicates that the plant diversity may be higher. However, it has been observed that this floristic richness is not used for botanical tourism, ecotourism, medicine industry and rural development.

A strategic plan must be prepared for the botanic tourism to contribute both to Şırnak and Turkish economy. Potential is not everything. Setting up botanic gardens, using them for touristic purposes and pharmaceutical industry with a good planning will positively affect the development. In addition, botanical gardens will contribute to social and cultural development as recreation and education areas.

The floristic diversity of Şırnak, which is one of the underdeveloped province of Turkey, needs to be used in the tourism, pharmaceutical industry and education in order to contribute to the development of the province. It would be good to put forward some suggestions for utilizing existing floristic diversity.

- The Cudi Mountain in Şırnak should be declared a national park and the existing plants and other living creatures should be preserved.
- The research should be permitted to add new plants to the plant diversity and take the inventory of the plan diversity in the Şırnak.
- Routes should be set up for botanical walks to existing natural areas upon taking the inventory.
- A large botanic garden should be established in Beytüşşebap and Uludere, in which several plants are available.
- Botanic gardens should be promoted and marketed.
- Research should be conducted for usability of existing plants in pharmaceutical
industry.

- Trainings should be organized to raise awareness of all institutions and people (children and adults) on nature conservation and development.
- Corms of the existing endemic plants can be offered on sale.

This study only assesses the botanic tourism under floristic diversity of the Şırnak. Therefore, generalization cannot be made. Further research should be conducted for presenting the floristic diversity of Turkey. Utilizing the Turkish fauna & flora may contribute to Turkey for becoming an attraction center and also provide momentum for several industries.

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Chapter 55

A Study on the Perception of Plateau Tourism of the Ilgaz Kırkpınar Plateau Community*

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INTRODUCTION

The travel phenomenon began with the existence of mankind and developed rapidly over time and reached its present extent. Travel activities, which have become a mass human movement nowadays, have been transformed into sector based movements in itself due to the high level of economic gains and have led to the formation of the Tourism Industry. According to the WTO estimates, it is natural that countries want to benefit more from the tourism sector that provides the most economic income after oil in the world with the anticipation that the increase in tourism movements will continue in the future (Bilgiç, 2007: 13).

The tourism sector, which is defined as an economic-based service industry that meets various socio-cultural needs such as food and beverage, entertainment, accommodation, belief, treatment, sports and curiosity, has become increasingly popular in alternative tourism types (Ürger, 1992: 11, Aktaran Kalaycıoğlu, 2017: 7). In this direction, it is aimed to meet the interests of this tourism based activities on the supply-demand balance scale as a result of giving different tourism types such as eco-tourism, rural tourism and soft tourism which are considered as nature friendly in the tourism policies of the states (Aydın, 2012:39). One of the countries that include alternative tourism in its tourism policies is Turkey and Turkey has one of the alternative tourism activities in plateau tourism. The relatively untouched natural scenery, traditional culture of life and their quiet environment make Turkey’s plateaus increasingly popular touristic attractions. Especially in the summer season, the suitable climate of the mountainous areas at the middle height levels adds recreational function to the traditional plateau activity (Doğanay, 2001: 94-96, cited in Doğanay, 2010: 225). Various arrangements have been made since 1990 to open up the Black Sea Plateau to tourism. In the framework of these arrangements, several designated plateaus are identified as tourism centres. In the Development Plans it was said that designated places will be put under protection and opened up to tourism in order to diversify tourism activities. In this regard, subsidizing traditional activities such as plateau festivals by the local governments was realized. In these festivals local tourism was supported by promoting the plateaus (Yağcılarp, 2010: 46). In addition, by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, besides the tourism mainly focused on sea, sun and sand, within its efforts started to diversify tourism and spread to 12 months, plateau tourism was promoted as an alternative to cultural tourism in the Black Sea Region and begun.

* This study was presented at the First International Sustainable Tourism Congress held on 23-25 November 2017 in Kastamonu, Turkey.
its work to develop plateau tourism. These types of activities, also known as "Green Tourism" are fairly new (Aydnözü, 2004: 206).

The studies on tourism’s perception in rural areas indicate that economic dimension is prominent. Because the economic effects are income-generating characteristics, it draws more attention to the country as a whole and the local people. However, the impact of rural tourism on the socio-cultural and physical environment is also the evident (Cengiz and Akkuş, 2012:65, Aktaran Ata, 2018:2). Besides the positive effects, also negative effects emerge as the tourism develops in a region. Especially, not taking into account of local communities’ attitude towards tourism in the developed policies and after that, unchecked realization of tourism planning causes an increase in the negative effects and discomfort to local communities. As a response to the perceived negative effects, local communities show increased hostility towards tourism.

The benefits of the local communities being less than the negative effects causes more and more negative perception and attitude towards development of tourism (Güneş, 2014: 1).

In this context, with this study, it is aimed to identify the views of the local folk who live in the Kırkpınar Plateau located in the Ilgaz district of the Çankırı province, regarding opening of the plateau to tourism.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Plateau Tourism

According to the Turkish Language Institution dictionary, a plateau is defined as, “a mountainous, high altitude place which is left inhabited due to harsh living conditions in winter, while in summer used as an animal grazing ground and resting place due to its chilly weather (TDK, 2018). The idiom plateau is also used for high altitude places used as a past time spending and resting grounds. Places where local people go out for sanitary, touristic, sports and various activities in summer are called a plateau as well. Nowadays, it is regarded that some of the plateaus are important tourist attractions centres (Özgür, 1993: 1). Since especially the 1950’s, due to improvements in transportation, education, infrastructure services, important developments took place regarding industrialisation and urbanisation. These developments also affected plateau visiting and thus, dramatic functional changes emerged in the plateaus. Lots of plateaus changed their main function, due to animal husbandry losing its importance and currently are being used for recreational purposes (Tapur, 2009: 475).

Plateau tourism is a tourism activity realised in high altitude places by people who like to be in nature with an aim to one day or short term stay (Oktayer and et al., 2007:137, cited in Batman and Ulusan, 2010: 248). Plateau tourism is regarded as a related to other tourism types but a complementary tourism product. At the same time, it has different features than traditional tourism, initiated by more specific motives. Mountains, winter, green, forest, nature, cave, stream, natural nutrition, being distant from noise and other pollution; sports, hiking, rafting, skiing, swimming, grass hockey, golfing, festivals, hunting, if available using thermal waters are among the factors that makes plateau tourism attractive (İTO, 1997:36). Plateaus have an important place among the efforts carried out by Ministry of Culture and Tourism to diversify tourism in Turkey. In this direction, plans were laid out to diversify tourism in plateaus such as camping, golf, skiing, caving, paragliding, rafting, horse riding, ballooning, fishing,

2.2. Perception of Tourism

Perception is identification, recognition, definition, interpretation and explanation in individual’s cognitive structure of any object, event, phenomenon, word, concept etc. with the help of the five sensory organs and intuitions (Usal and Kuşluvan, 2002, cited in Güneş, 2014: 32). The way of perception of tourism’s social, cultural, economic and environmental effects shapes the society’s total perception of tourism. The total tourism perception of local people varies according to the different perceptions of tourism. In addition, all positive or negative developments in the tourism sector are directly or indirectly reflected to the lives of the local people, either positively or negatively (Türker ve Türker, 2014: 82).

There is a process of perception of the effect of tourism’s development on the local community by the individuals in the destination. In order to this perception process to begin, the individuals in the destination has to perceive the effects of development of tourism. After the perception of development of tourism, effects of tourism on the local community shows itself in the daily life, either positively or negatively (Kim, 2002, cited in Güneş, 2014: 32). Besides, initial studies on the assessment of attitudes of local people in the tourism sector are based on positive effects of tourism. The studies in the later periods which assess attitudes focused on negative effects as well. More systematic and balanced studies about both positive and negative effects of tourism emerged in 1980’s and 1990’s (Parlak, 2018: 58).

Tourism is largely dependent on the goodwill of local people, their support is essential for a successful, sustainable tourism development. If the local people's tourism perception is positive, they will contribute to the development of tourism together with volunteering with the tourists. When tourism planning is carried out, the ideas of the local community must be taken into account and their support must be ensured. In this way, the feelings and behaviours that may arise between tourists and local people such as anger, resentment, indifference, and mistrust can be prevented (Yoon et al., 2001; cited in Ertuna et al., 2012: 60).

2.3. Related Studies

Previous research conducted in relation to the mentioned subject has been examined and the main areas have been referred to below.

Doğanay (2010) stated in his work that Taşköprü plateau, plateau-mountain tourism is very popular and that there should be planning to raise awareness with the local residents of the area, of the plateau tourism and the specifics of the surrounding nature/culture.

Çavuş and Altaş (2010) Tourism Centre undergoing development in Trabzon: Has found in his work named Kayabaşı Plateau that Kayabaşı holds an important potential for tourism, however due to lack of advertisement the local and foreign tourists do not know of the existence, should the relevant advertisement take place the popularity of the plateau will increase and the un-used houses in the area will be refurbished into to hostels which will make a significant contribution to income.

Referring to work completed Ertürk and friends (2000), plateau areas have an incredible nature and should the relevant infrastructure be done in these areas, it can be open to recreation and lead to additional income for the residents of the plateau area.
Haberal (2011) had referred to in his work, that tourism was the most important factor for the development of Rize after examining the plateau’s in the area. Nature, plateau, winter, rafting (stream) etc. related tourism activities should be developed, the cultural architecture should be promoted, and measures should be taken to prevent unplanned settlement, while these are done action should be taken not in accordance to trade but protection.

Ata (2018) states that the local residents had concerns in relation to any adverse impact tourism may have on their socio-cultural inheritance. However, stated that the residents believe in development such as road buildings, electricity works, sewage and water work, which will be linked with tourism.

Research conducted by Kervankıran and Bulut (2015) focused on determining the knowledge of the local residents in central Antalya in relation to tourism. As a result of their findings, it was stated that the local residents mainly did not positively approach the idea of tourism, however that the politics, planning’s where not in place to support the naturel resources in the area: therefore, they had the idea that the visiting tourist where not conscious.

3. METHOD

The residents of Ilgaz Kırkpınar Plateau took place in the research, easy sampling method was used in relation to 11 individuals, who took part in a survey. The research was filtered via literature, the data obtained through the research aims to determine the willingness of the local residents in Kırkpınar Plateau for tourism activities. In accordance to this, the survey was handed out to the candidate taking place, which was designed for the purpose of this research.

The data obtained by the research was examined via constructive analysis method. Research studies: are studies which follows a natural course and is conducted via qualitative analysis of meetings, examining’s, document analysis, and the examination of the reactions and understandings of the natural environment and the establishment of realistic and integrated findings (Yıldırım and Şimşek 2016: 239).

Descriptive Analysis; are a type of qualitative data analysis, which have been determined in relation to templates and is awaiting evaluations and analysis. This analysis method enabled the researcher to make direct references to their views and their meetings with individuals and give place to direct findings. The main aim of this analysis is to provide the reader with evaluated and analysed findings, obtained through research (Yıldırım and Şimşek 2016: 239). The answers given to the surveys have been provided with a table and analysis through the findings of the research.

4. FINDINGS

4.1. Findings Regarding the Demographic Features of the Participants

Among the local people living in Kırkpınar Plateau, 11 people who were determined according to the Convenience Sampling Method were interviewed at the research.

During the interviews, a total of 7 questions, 2 of which are demographic, were directed to the participants. The answers given to these questions are shown as follows.

The distribution of the answers to the questions asked to determine the demographic features of the research participants is shown in Table 1.
Table 1. Demographic features of the participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Surname</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>İbrahim</td>
<td>Uzun</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>Retired Police Commissioner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>İbrahim</td>
<td>Yavuz</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>Retired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mehmet</td>
<td>UGHURLU</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>Retired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arif</td>
<td>Uğurlu</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>Retired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Osman</td>
<td>Küsmez</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>Retired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yunus</td>
<td>Yavuz</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>Retired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recep</td>
<td>Ünal</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>Retired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arif</td>
<td>Kırkpınar</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>Retired Soldier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talat</td>
<td>Kırkpınar</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>Farmer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Murat</td>
<td>Kırkpınar</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>Farmer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>İbrahim</td>
<td>Kırkpınar</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>Head of the Village</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 1, the conclusions about the demographic features of the participants are as follows:

- All of the individuals involved in the research are male.
- The average age of participants is 74.
- According to the occupational status of the participants, it is seen that 8 of them are retired, 1 of them is the head of the village and 2 of them are farmers.

4.2. Findings about the Attitudes of the People of the Plateau towards the Plateau Being Opened to Tourism

Regarding the question “Do you want the plateau to be opened to tourism and other people to benefit from your plateau”, the thoughts of the individuals who participated in the research were classified in two different statements (see Table 2).

The participants numbered 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 emphasized that they would support tourism activities in the plateau by stating "We want the plateau to be opened to tourism and we would give the necessary support for it”.

The participants numbered 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 stated that they don’t want tourism activities in the plateau by saying “No, we don’t. Opening the plateau to tourism will do harm to the plateau.”

Table 2: Status of Wanting the Plateau to be opened to Tourism and Other People to Benefit from the Plateau

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer No</th>
<th>Participant’s Answer</th>
<th>Participant No</th>
<th>Total Participant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>We want the plateau to be opened to tourism and we would give the necessary support for it.</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4, 5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>No, we don’t. Opening the plateau to tourism will do harm to the plateau.</td>
<td>6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second question asked to the participants is the question “When your plateau is opened to tourism, do you think the region will yield financial earning from it?” The participants answered this question with one statement. The statement of the participants is shown at the Table 3.
Table 3: The status of thinking the region will yield financial earning from it when your plateau is opened to tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer No</th>
<th>Participant’s Answer</th>
<th>Participant No</th>
<th>Total Participant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The local people can sell their yogurt, butter, bake bread and sell it. In Ilgaz, bazlama local flat bread) has become famous. Bakeries in Ilgaz have started to bake bazlama. Bazlamas that our mothers baked once are started to be sold in bakeries. In other words, the people can market everything they have. They can sell the fruits that they collect from their fields, gardens, because people who come there for tourism purposes come to take a rest and spend money there.</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is understood that the participant focused on the thought as “the positive aspect of the economic earning that opening the plateau to tourism lead”.

The research participants’ thoughts on “whether or not they want to benefit from them if the state loans and incentives are given and if the plateau is opened to tourism” are classified in 2 different statements (see Table 4).

The participants numbered 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 emphasized that they would support tourism activities in the plateau by stating “We want to benefit from the incentives to be given when the plateau is opened to tourism”.

The participants numbered 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11 stated that they don’t want tourism activities in the plateau by saying “No, we don’t”.

Table 4: The status of wanting to benefit from them if the state loans and incentives are given when the plateau is opened to tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer No</th>
<th>Participant’s Answer</th>
<th>Participant No</th>
<th>Total Participant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Yes, I would like to benefit from them</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4, 5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>No, I don’t.</td>
<td>6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fourth question directed to the participants at the research is the question “would you open your house to guests if your plateau is opened to tourism?” The participants gave 2 different answers to this question. The statements of the participants are shown at the Table 5.

Table 5: The status of wanting to open your house to guests if your plateau is opened to tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer No</th>
<th>Participant’s Answer</th>
<th>Participant No</th>
<th>Total Participant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Of course, let me say this, we can prepare additional places to accommodate next to my house if the question is tourism.</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4, 5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>No, I don’t open</td>
<td>6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participants numbered 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 emphasized that they would support
tourism activities in the plateau by stating "Of course, let me say this, we can prepare additional places to accommodate next to my house if the question is tourism”.

The participants numbered 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11 stated that they don’t want tourism activities in the plateau by saying “No, I don’t open.”

The research participants’ thought on the question “what is the most important problem in your plateau?” were classified in 2 different statements (see Table 6).

The participant numbered 1 emphasized that the local people living in the plateau has negative attitude towards tourist by saying “the people living the plateau has negative attitude towards the people who come from outside”.

The participants numbered 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 stated that the biggest problem of the plateau is the garbage thrown away in the plateau by the same day visitors.

Table 6: What is the most important problem in your plateau?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer No</th>
<th>Participant’s Answer</th>
<th>Participant No</th>
<th>Total Participant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The garbage thrown away by same day visitors who visit the plateau is seen as the most important problem of the plateau, moreover, it is stated that animals that eat plastic bags and papers are dying. The Governor’s office and the District Governor’s office make some operations for cleaning time to time; however, no continuity is achieved. As another problem, on the point where the road entered Kazanci the village lead way to Kırkpınar, a small office to sell tickets to entry was established; however this practice was lifted due to various problems.</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>In my opinion, the biggest problem is the people going to the plateau are inconsiderate people. They don’t want anybody to go there because they think these people can steal lumber etc from the forest for their own comfort and peace. There is no other problem. In order to prevent people to come from outside or go, they put a small office where the road entered in Kazanci lead to Kırkpınar. They were collecting money from people who came there. I was not able to go there previous year and so. This is really ridiculous. They say Kadincayiri is bringing money. Establish the same facilities in Kırkpınar and earn the money there, too. All the installations and infrastructure were established in Kadincayiri. There is everything there; hotel, places to rest.</td>
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5. RESULT AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Studies in relation to plateau activities is relatively low in Turkey. There has been no findings in relation to research carried out in relation to Kırkpınar Plateau. The Kırkpınar Plateau is currently experiencing change. There has been an ongoing reduction in relation to livestock farming since 1960. The visitors of the plateau are mainly formed by individual’s visiting on a daily basis. This has established a littering problem in the plateau. It is vital to resolve the negative thoughts of tourism for the local residents in the area.

Just like other areas of Tourism, activities in relation to plateau tourism should be completed in accordance to the regulations of the relevant law 2634 numbered Tourism Encouragement Law, in order to benefit from this law. Many governmental organisation and ministries are carrying out work in relation to developing plateau tourism in Turkey. Plateaus are now open to reconstruction in line with Tourism Encouragement Law to develop plateau tourism. Nevertheless, Kırkpınar has not been a part of these encouragements. There awareness should be raised in relation to this and Kırkpınar Plateau should be open to tourism.

As a result Kırkpınar reserves the potential to be the centre of plateau-mountain tourism with the attractions and the nature it holds as a plateau. For it to achieve this, the following resolution suggestions should be taken into account:

- For the littering problems to be resolved, certain points of the plateau should be placed with littering containers
- Plateau type houses should be constructed, enabling visitors to stay overnight
- Advertising brochures in relation to Kırkpınar plateau should be completed, alongside other advertisement activities
- There is an adverse effect on plateau activities in Kırkpınar due to the area not having access to electricity supplies.
- To enable access to the area, the roads should be placed with informative road signs.
- It is important to establish tourism through the needs and wills of the local resides in the plateau.
- To have an approach to bring together the local residents and tourism via, horse riding, or on feet walks, watching views, ATV rides, camping, photography, mountain and nature walks, presentation of doves, fishing and other activities which can be done in the plateau area should be promoted.
- The Kırkpınar plateau has natural beauties. It is important to complete the relevant infrastructure and superstructure works to open the area to tourism. As a result the villagers will have access to additional income.
- In accordance to another suggestion tourism should be brought to the area without the views of the local villagers. As a result of establishing tourism through this method, central management will be in charge and the local residents cannot withstand this idea. The villagers will not breach the law and therefore accommodation places will be built next to their homes for the stated tourism purposes. These kind of suggestions are also given in relation to tourism.
- Upon the assessment of the potential the plateau has for tourism; it is noted that the area is suitable for those who wish to walk on feet or ride horses, to watch views, camping, caravan stays, ATV tours, photography, mountain and nature walk ,
observation of birds and butterflies, fishing, hunting, turf skiing and botanic tourism. Upon the completion of the relevant planning’s it is possible for the area to be the centre of tourism.

- It is further suggested that the local residents of the village and individuals managing the area, should unite before any decisions are made to make mutual agreements.

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Chapter 56

Green Tourism and Legendary Edible Evergreen Myrtus

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“Mediterranean is not one, but many seas that follow each other. It is not one, but many civilizations that are piled on one another”. Fernand Braudel

INTRODUCTION

Tourism has been evolving to environmental responsibility, local economic vitality, cultural diversity and experiential richness. Due to air pollution, noise, long working hours cause stress, the quality life of the city dwellers has reduced. The side effects of drugs and genetically modified fruits and vegetables have led people to consume healthier and organic nutrition. This sensitivity is also reflected in tourism movements positively. Natural areas are viewed as magnet attracting tourism (Baker, 1986; Driml & Common, 1996). Therefore, tourism could only be tailored to fit the needs and principles of biodiversity conservation if ecological impacts are taken into account, and common policy recommendations about nature protection and cultural values are applied (Catibog-Sinha, 2010; Liu Li, & Pechacek, 2013). These necessities have led to emergence of alternative tourism types such as; ecotourism, wildlife tourism and green urban tourism. To create green urban tourism, some superstructure investments were needed to develop urban tourism in the cities. Although initially investments seem to be made for tourism purposes, it is known that the local people have benefited much more in the end.

Meanwhile new concepts and new applications were developed to increase the quality of life in the cities. For example; “green edible infrastructures, edible forest gardens, edible urban forests and edible urban greening and so on”. The objective of this study is to raise awareness and emphasize the knowledge on the importance of urban green tourism and particularly when implementing an edible green plants approach as it can offer improved resilience and quality of life in cities. Within the “green urban tourism” myrtus as an example of having significance of folk culture, historical and legendary back ground. Moreover, to raise awareness the importance of planting local myrtus instead of exported expensive-non-fragrant short-lived plants in urban Mersin landscape.

Some aromatic plants play important roles in human life. Aromatic medicinal plants and especially wild species provide an invaluable source of genes for the improvement of cultivated medicinal plants.

These plants have been a part of the accumulation of heritage for their legendary, therapeutic and religious uses as well. The objective of the research is to introduce cultural, legendary and aromatic value of the historical fruits of Myrtus in Mersin Province of Turkey. Furthermore, to create awareness about the assessment of the scope
of "green urban tourism" is a new trend in urban tourism.

Myrtus (Mersin, murt) plant has a pleasant fragrance, bright beautiful leaves, flowers, fruit, and anhydrous dry summers without water. At the present time, cultured easy edible domestic myrtus were also obtained (Karamanoğlu, 1972). When literatures are reviewed, it can be seen most of the studies with this myrtus plant is more biochemical content of fruits. This study is also touch upon the significance of legendary, locally and traditionally importance as well. For centuries, Turkish people have been using herbal medicine for the treatment of some diseases and daily uses. For example; they put myrtus, bay leaves, lavender and jasmine under their winter clothes in summer time, to protect them from harmful insects and keep them nicely smell into the chest. For similar reason they plant aromatic plants to the graveyards and so on. The Taurus Mountains are one of the centers of the Mediterranean Region with rich plant diversity. Accordingly, the traditional herbal medicines are important for the daily life of people. This study was focused on reviewing of the literature botanical, medical, historical and holly use of Myrtus. In addition to obtain information local use of it, face to face interviews was held with local people and folk culture researchers. Natural edible myrtus can also be used for – beautification and improving green urban tourism – in Mersin as well.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Mersin is located Southeast of Mediterranean region of Turkey. It has an important trade harbor and tourism resort, city with its 321 km long coastal. It is a fast growing city with 1 million and 722 thousands dynamic population. It has commercial, industrial and agricultural potentials as well tourism. It has several archeological sites, citadels and towers from antique times and also cultural heritage of nomads present days. It is also famous for its Mountains settlements and traditional lifestyle of moving to the high plateaus of Taurus Mountain during summer for having the cool breeze and being with nature. Industry and commerce are ranked first, agriculture second, and tourism third priority of Mersin’s strategic plan.

While the city is facing to the Mediterranean Sea, and situated on a fertile Çukurova plain, known as Cilicia in the historical period of time. Cilicia is an alluvial fan covering approximately 8000 km² and one of the most fertile regions in modern-day of Turkey. The fertile alluvial plain of Cilicia is bordered by the Taurus and Amanos Mountain ranges to the west, north and east and the Mediterranean Sea to the south. Since the Neolithic Period, Plain Cilicia was an important interface between Anatolia and the Levant. The alluvial plain is dominated by three rivers: Tarsus, Seyhan and Ceyhan. City of Mersin is located at the junction of Anatolia, Syro-Mesopotamia and Cyprus, defined by natural borders: the Taurus Range to the west and north, the Amanus to the east and the Mediterranean Sea to the south. Natural passes through the mountains still form the main routes of access to the lowlands. The “Cilician Gates” (in Turkish, Gülek Boğazı) at an elevation of 1290 m connect Anatolia with the plain and serve as the main passageway for railroad tracks and major vehicular roads up until this day. In the westernmost part of Plain Cilicia, forming the transition to Rough Cilicia, the Göksu Valley (Kalykadnos) stretches north–south from the Konya Plain to coastal Silifke and represented an important connection to Anatolia in antiquity (Rutishauer et al., 2017:20. Newhard et al., 2008:88). The Bahçe Pass in the East leads over the Amanus Range and serves as a passage between Cilicia and the Islahiye Plain. Further
south, the Orontes Valley can be reached over the Belen Pass (Syrian Gates). Tourism is gaining importance and city of Mersin (myrtus) has been preparing itself for tourism.

**Green Tourism and Green Edible Infrastructures for Urbanization**

Climate change is now considered the most serious environmental threat facing humankind (Agbola 2011; Boko et al. 2007; Cohen et al., 2008). It affects all aspects of human activities. Climate change affects such as droughts, floods, forest fires and heat or cold waves have become more frequent (Zoellick 2009), impacting agriculture, cities, biodiversity, tourism and other sectors (Zoellick 2009). The renewed interest in urban tourism since the beginning of the 1980s has changed tourism trends and practices to a high degree.

Therefore, the cities with a historic past and cultural heritage have become tourist attractions, visitors rushing into museums, cathedrals and castles. Heritage, whether cultural or natural, is a very popular issue nowadays. Green spaces fulfil different functions within the urban system: - An environment improvement and conservation function as they purify the atmosphere, reduce pollution and have a moderating effect over the urban microclimate; - A social function as they create natural surroundings with relaxing effects; - A leisure function developed as a consequence of the limited spare time of the working people who prefer to spend it in the open, but within the city or very close to it; - An aesthetic function as their purpose is to embellish buildings and to highlight their architecture (Cianga, and Antoaneta., 2013; Iliescu, 2003:91-104), - A touristic function reflected by the number of visitors that come to such sites because they are attracted by the historic heritage of gardens and parks, design style, flora, entertainment facilities, etc.

These concepts are; incorporated into urban management, planning, design, and sociopolitical practices and policies for climate change mitigation and adaptation. Indeed, urban green Infrastructures (GI) has been found to contribute positively to outdoor and indoor environments (Russo et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2014), while providing many relevant ES – including important health benefits (Coutts and Hahn, 2015). As such, GI delivers measurable and benefits that are fundamental to the concept of a sustainable city (Ahern et al., 2014).

The world’s population is rapidly increasing and will top 9.7 billion by 2050 (United Nations, 2015). By 2025, two thirds of the world’s population will be concentrated in urban areas, increasing the importance of providing not only environmental quality and livable spaces but food security and resilient food systems (Haberman et al., 2014). Their main concerns are urban safety and environmental quality related to food production and potential for contamination from both in-ground and airborne sources. Sustainable and environmentally friendly practices have also been developed, for example: use of organic permaculture-based agricultural methods, water harvesting techniques, and composting system (Alessio et al., 2017:55).

Tourism movement turns in to sustainable development because it is one industry that sells the environment. Integrity and continuity of these products have become a major concern of the industry (Theolbald &William., 2005:168). In present time, tourism industries and their clients force to renewed relation with the environment and interest. In sustainable development with this awareness, tourism evolved from mass tourism to green tourism (Cater 1994, Wight 1997, Swarbrooke, 1999, Gaspart, 2003). Green movement particularly started in the 1992 Earth, 2002 Rio de Janeiro and in
Johannesburg. Tourism authorities contributed valuable efforts to an ongoing process of reassessment. By these progresses tourism also evolved eco and green tourism as well (United Nation Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2002). Protection and respect to local culture and heritage activities are gaining importance. Supporting the local economy through the purchase of local products and acting in an environmentally responsible way is new trends of tourism in present time. Ecotourism has been defined as responsible travel to natural areas which conserves the environment and sustains the well-being of local people. It has been recognized and is being promoted as a viable development option for tourism. Hidden meaning of “green” is usually relate to parks, organic products and recycling. According to the, Green Tourism Association it is far covering more than that. It adapts the World Tourism Organization definition of sustainability and thus refers to four main principles: environmental responsibility, local economic vitality; cultural sensitivity; and experiential richness (Blackstone Corporation, 1996). Specifically, urban green tourism is defined by Green Tourism Association as:

“Green travel and exploration within and around an urban area that offers visitors enjoyment and appreciation of the city’s natural areas and cultural resources, while inspiring physically active, intellectually stimulating and socially interactive experiences; promotes the city’s long-term ecological health by promoting walking, cycling, public transportation; promotes sustainable local economic and community development and vitality; celebrates local heritage and the arts; is accessible and equitable to all” (Blackstone Corporation 1996).

Bringing ecotourism to the city takes advantage of emerging consumer trends and shifting demographics, capitalizes on efficiencies of the urban form to advance sustainable development goals, as well as supporting and enhancing the quality of life and local economies of urban regions. Successful implementation of Urban Green Tourism practices creates demand for more sustainable products and services and offers a unique learning experience to the traveler (Gibson et al, 2003:327).

Even though the City of Mersin is known as fertile plain, vegetables fields and orange gardens and ever green plantation but they are facing extinction due to excessive urbanization and high concrete buildings. Present day for Mersin more and more green open space, protecting natural evergreen edible plants like myrtus resources nearby the city and the maintaining of ecological balance become a necessity.

Alessio (2016:20-27), propose that Edible Green Infrastructures is a rather novel concept that intertwines environmental, social, and economic co-benefits and locates food sources closer to city-dwellers thus increasing food security and lessening food transport distances. It reinforces low-energy and chemical input practices, less human consumption of processed foods, and teaches people from all socioeconomic levels the equitable benefits of locally grown food. An Edible Green Infrastructure (EGI) approach can thereby play a vital role in urban development. City planners and policy makers have to deal with agriculture, ecosystems and environment and further justification for green space conservation.

An Edible Green Infrastructure (EGI) approach indicates that implementing, incorporating, administering, and promoting an urban need some investments. EGI approach will require context-specific expertise, information, and knowledge offered via local governments and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOS) alike (Sheila Jasanoff; 1997: 579). It will need to integrate interdisciplinary practices and experiences
from diverse fields such as urban agriculture, Urban and Peri-Urban-Agriculture and Forestry (UPAF), landscape design, horticulture, agronomy, urban planning, civil engineering, and other. Intergovernmental and nongovernmental (IGO-NGO) collaboration with respect to such activities can help compensate for the lack of capacity in state institutions. NGO involvement in monitoring and enforcement, for example, is widely recognised as essential by students of international environmental regime (Haas, et al., 1993).

Anatolia is located in the middle of the transition point of the Historical Silk Road. Turkish people also migrated from Middle Asia to the Asia Minor by the overland. That’s why Anatolian inhabitants called new comers as a Yörük. It means walkingman (Turkish). Turkish people who settled Anatolia can also be described long distance travelers. Because of historical experience, there are various kinds of idioms describing traveling in Turkish language. For example; “travel broadens the mind”; “refreshing air goes well for human being”; “Passanger should be on the way”; “walking turtle proceeding the road” and so on. Turkish people have been brought their Asian botanical experience as well as their cultural daily life and heritage too. They like nature and familiar with many kinds of plants. They brought many kinds of seeds and plants, such as; Jujuba, silverberry, barberry (Berberis vulgaris) and so on. This study is focus on Myrtus tree and green tourism in the city of Mersin.

**Myrtus Plant**

*Myrtus Communis*, an evergreen shrub with bright green leaves and a length of 1-3 m that opens white flowers during the flowering season (June-July). The essential oil of plant’s leaves has very rich content and this essential oil is widely used in food, pharmaceutical and cosmetic industries. It has been determined in various studies that about 30 components constitute %90 of the myrtle leaf essential oil. However, the essential oil yield and composition varies according to ecological and geographical conditions (Aburjai and Natsheh 2003; Berger 2007).

**Etymologic name of Myrtus (Mersin)**

When the Turkish tribes first came to Mersin, they found the entire region almost covered with some kind of bushes with white flowers. They both like white a white flowers and edible fruits of it at the beginning in winter time and them like it. Afterwards tribes gave the name of myrtus plant on their settlement, known as Mersin today. According to "101 Anatolian Legend" Mersin city name derived from the evergreen, the edible fruit, the fragrant bushes they liked. City of Mersin name means flowers of myrtus region (Sakaoglu, 1976: 80). Meanwhile fruit name is called as – murt- in Turkish, borrowed from Persian, on the other hand the tree name of the myrtus borrowed from Greek (Ozkan, 2012). Mersin tree is sacred in Greek mythology. In the history while Romans settled in a new place, they brought the seedlings of the myrtle tree from their homeland, and planted it around their new homes. They believed that their new life would be infinite (Gezgin, 2010:132). Similarly Turkish people believed the same faith afterwards, so that tradition transmitted to the future.

Myrtle has closely associated names in most European and even some non-European languages; besides English myrtle, German myrte, Estonian mürt, Spanish and Italian mirto, French myrte, modern Greek mirtia [μυρτιά], Russian myrt [мырт], Armenian mrdeni [մրդենի] and Farsi mourd [مورد] and Turkish murt. All these names relate to the Old Greek myrtos [μῦρτος] or myrsine [μυρσίνη] and were typically
transmitted via Latin myrtus. The name derives from Greek myron [μύρον] meaning balm, chrism, ointment, which might be a Semitic loan and thus related to Hebrew mor [dm], myrrh (which is a reddish-brown resinous material, the dried sap of a number of trees, but primarily from Commiphora myrrha). Some other fragrant plants bear similar scientific names, e.g. Myristica (nutmeg), Myrrhis (cicely) or Myrica (gale) (Özkan, Mine and Güray, 2009: 160). Myrtle (Myrtus communis) In spite of being a very well-known species and permanently cited by Andalusi agronomists, we find the first reference to myrtle in the Huertas at the beginning of the nineteenth century, when Samuel Mannin (1822) describes the space between the Alhambra and the Genera life as ‘scrubs of fig, pomegranate and myrtle trees’ (Hernandez, Esteban J., and et al., 2013:66).

Figure 1: Myrtus communis, flowers and fruits.

The great variety of geomorphological, topographical and climatic features is responsible for its large diversity of habitats and richness of endemic plants. Myrtaceae L. is an evergreen shrub (Myrtus communis) belonging to the family of Myrtaceae growing spontaneously throughout the Mediterranean region of Turkey, particularly in the Taurus Mountains and riversides and a typical annual shrub of the other Mediterranean countries such as Greece, Italy, especially Algeria, Tunisia, and Morocco as well (Davis, 1982:947; Kafkas et al., 2013: 1244). The range of Myrtus communis extends from Macaronesia through Western Asia to Central Asia and northern India” (Migliore, 2012). In Turkey myrtle plants grown in the Black Sea, the Aegean and Mediterranean regions, particularly in the intensively can be grown naturally in the Mediterranean marquise (Öztürk, 1970).

Biodiversity has become a unique source for all of us, either as food or medicine for thousands of years. Therefore they were chosen as the subject of your this research. Myrtus a shrub or tree has summer winter leaves (evergreen), multiflorous, plant with long term flowering and a pleasant fragrant plant (Tuzlacı, Ertan, 2007:101). It is still
used with orange blossom as a traditional bridal flower (Bianchini and Pantano, 1974:397). It is a tree-like tree with a height of 1-3 m and not bearing its leaves in winter. The flowers are white, 5-part, male organs are numerous. Fruit is a blackish, purple, very seedy plant of the size of a chick pea. It grows abundantly in the Mediterranean and Aegean mountains. There are also white colored varieties of fruits (Leucocarpa DC.). Around Fethiye in Turkey "Exceeded Mersin" name recognized and used as an ornamental plant.

**Legendary and Holy Plant Myrtus**

Myrtus plant has been influential on religious consciousness with its essence and shape, but this essence and form has been important because of its influence on religious consciousness. Those plants were especially chosen by their "distinctive, unique and medicinal" features.

Neither Phenomenology nor the history of religions can come from ignoring the expression of this inseparable relationship between nature and symbolism that preciousness about the saint makes so precious. The presence of a goddess beside a tree icon confirms a meaning that the tree has archaic iconography and mythology. This, in turn, is an endless source of cosmic productivity. The tree of life, the endless productivity, the symbol of absolute reality; May be related to the great goddess or water symbol can be defined as the source of eternity. Altaics and Scandinavians are also believed "Tree of Life" that placed center of the earth and the branches of it on earth; the root of the tree is in space closer to the god (Mircea, 2005:317).

Some therapeutic knowledge of plants like Myrtus (Mersin) has been transmitted from past to future generations either mythological stories or holy rituals. Myrtus has such a legendary reputation.

"Offered incense in front of the Mountain-Ziggurat, seven cult vessels. I put in place and (into the fire) underneath (or; into their bowls) I poured reeds, cedar and myrtle. The gods smelled the savor and collected like flies over a (sheep) sacrifice” (Tablet XI, The Story of the Flood).

In many cultures, myrtle symbolized various sublime virtues and supernatural powers, such as: immortality and eternity were associated with this shrub in ancient Iran. It also symbolized regrowth and vitality in ancient Iran (Drower, 1937: 206) and, of course, was well associated with fertility, beauty, love, and protection in ancient Greece. Based on the use of myrtle in sacrifice in Sumer, and the important role of myrtle for the Zoroastrians, we suggest that the religious and ritual aspects of this plant originated in Mesopotamia (Amots & Dafni, 2016:229).

It was to the Mesopotamian goddess Ishtar; hence it became the plant of love. In ancient mythology, myrtle was sacred to Aphrodite – Greek goddess of love, sex and beauty – and her Roman equivalent Venus, with its evergreen leaves, elegant white flowers and pleasant perfume. It also symbolized beauty and youth. Plants, which were braided in wreaths, could have been dedicated to various deities: oak, to Zeus, laurel to Apollo, herbs to Ceres, vine to Dionysus, and myrtle to Venus. Venus was the goddess of female beauty, love, awakeness of nature, spring. A legend says that the goddess
Venus (Greek Aphrodite) was born from the Mediterranean Sea foam and by riding the waves she reached the shore, where she covered her nudity with myrtle.

Wreaths made of myrtle’s branches were worn by Greek athletes. Plants that were symbolically used as awards during the Olympics in Ancient Olympia as well as plants used in everyday life throughout the Games. Garlands of honor were made from the aromatic branches of myrtle. Stems of *Myrtus communis* L. with the elegant white flowers, evergreen leaves and pleasant perfume symbolized beauty and love. The garland-makers usually use evergreen Mediterranean summer flowers (Dragana, et al., 2012:347; Papadopoulos et al., 2007, 142). As an object, wreath had a clear function and symbolism. Its presence was usually reflected on the meaning and role of the person who was wearing it, or the space where it was present. Because of these implications, it was transferred to art readily, where its functions and meaning were kept. By crowning the Roman emperors heads and marking them victors, as a motif, wreath became dominant factor in glorification, triumph and apotheosis. Like many other pagan motives, with similar connotations it was conveyed into the Christian art, where it participated in new theological reality, together with the prominent symbolic arrangements. Wreath implies the band, created by braided flowers, leaves, branches or any other material (Rogic, et, al. 2012). It symbolizes the victory, loyalty, dedication, memory and the transition to eternal life (Hunter, 2000:4). The circular shape signifies eternity, completeness, perfection, wholeness, but also the time and sky (Gerbran and Ševalije, 2012:342).

However, during the Roman Empire, myrtle was conspicuously avoided as a component in the bridal crown because of its erotic connotations and association with Aphrodite/Venus, a most unfaithful deity (Versnel 1992: 44, 1997; 208).

However, all the ritual aspects related to myrtle that were recorded in our survey were also found within the ancient cultures of the Mediterranean and the Middle East. Myrtus to be used in the Tabernacle festival-Sukkoth (Leviticus, 23:40). Jewish tradition identified this plant as myrtle and it remains an indispensable part of this festival to the present day. In Judaism (Hebrew) myrtle is known as Hadassah, which is a highly significant name because it was the birth name of Easter, the Jewish queen to a Persian King who saved the Jews from certain annihilation in Persia (Buckley, 2002:99).

In Christianity, myrtus was dedicated to the Virgin Mary as it symbolized purity and fertility (Folcard, 1884:181). For this reason, both the bridge and groom were crowned by the priest blessed the marriage ceremony (Özkan and Güray, 2009; Sumbul et al., 2011; Gezgin, 2013). Westmarck; (1933:110), mentioned that in Muslim tradition, Barakeh –a divine blessing- is ascribed to the myrtle, which has the scent of paradises liked by the angels (Westmarck; 1926:108). The Prophet Muhammad is reported to have said that Adam fell from Paradise but was able to take away three things, the myrtle, which is the chief of sweet scented flowers in this world; an ear of wheat, which is the chief o all kinds of food in this world; and pressed dates, which are the chief fruit of this world (Littell 188:34; Elgood, 1962).

Furthermore, this led to the tradition of holding a wreath of myrtle over a brides head, during wedding ceremonies in many European countries. In the Victorian are Queen Victoria began a royal tradition after she was gifted a bouquet of flowers, including myrtle, by Prince Albert’s grandmother. The myrtle springs planted at Ausborn Palace House on the Isle of White in 1845 and myrtle in the bouquet of the 17
years old Princess Victoria, eldest child of Queen Victoria, when she got married in 1858. The historical custom would continue to be part of every royal wedding to date. Including the 1947 Queen Elizabeth II., the 1981 wedding of Diana Spencer, princess of Wales to Prince Charles. Furthermore myrtle was also included in the bridal bouquet of Kate Middleton for her wedding to Prince William on April 29 2011 (Bilton, 2018).

Based on the use of myrtle in cultic ritual in Sumer, and the important role of myrtle for the Zoroastrians, it is assumed that the religious and ritual aspects of this plant originated in Mesopotamia. Its later use by other religions can be considered a result of syncretism during periods of cultural diffusion and common history.

**METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH**

Research data were obtained by using literature review and face-to-face in-depth interview techniques. Field observations included recording plants species in the graveyards. Oral interviews were held face to face method with 15 informants. The average age of the informants was 55 years old. Interview respondents were 10 female and 5 men. One of them was botanical researcher, three interviewees are cemetery guards, two of them were folk researchers, the other two were archeologist, and one beekeeper and the rest are villagers and Turkish nomads.

**Folk Culture of Mersin Province**

According to the information obtained from ethnography and folklore research, even though Turkish people accepted in Muslim religion, the traditions and the cultures of shamanism, mountain and tree cultures are still encountered (İnan, 1998: 255). The imposing mountains, wide hills, loud and enthusiastic, priceless pastures and meadows for flowing rivers and especially nomadic people filled with countless gods. While people want to thanks some of the gods, they also sacrifice to some others in order to avoid their evil. The tree cult can be seen almost in every region of the Anatolian villages. For example, it is very common to tie the fabric strips to the trees and pray so that they believe their wishes will come true (İnan, 1998: 477). They wish either for marriage or having baby, good harvest so on.

Some animals; the marten, the ant, the insects and the birds also love this plant. But it is known as a good insecticide plant. As these local names also describe, the leaves of this plant, which loves the slopes, are collected in the form of sediments in the pits. However, there are also reports that pharmacists have diarrhea very often. The black little fruity wilderness in the east is called "gıcık", which is a word used in the Arabic cities.

All of the phrases of myrtus that are still used in Mersin are evidence of it being a plant for many years. In old Mersin houses there were citrus trees in the garden and definitely myrtle plants at the door entrance. It was something to be expected to become a tree with white flowers, and this figurine took its place from time to time with inedible and non-fragrant, spiny and flowering celery. In folk medicine the fruits of plants are used in the treatment of various infectious diseases including diarrhea and dysentery. In addition the leaves of myrtus are used for in the treatment of urinary tracts, with antiseptic and anti-inflammatory. They also boiled the leaves and used its water for mouthwash, to heal wounds.

Myrtus has also been used for dyeing carpet threads and woolen yarns in Turkey. These plants are used in coloring and mixing the colors obtained by different dyeing methods. They used them hall and rugs on the textile. Colors have to be compatible
with the carpets and rugs pattern which are preferable. *Myrtus communis* leaves and fruits has been also used to give the mustard and coffee color to carpet threads (Arlı and Ilgaz, 1993:94). Lover plain of Çukurova, people move to the evergreen forests slopes of Taurus Mountains to have fresh and cool air there. According folk culture researcher Can, in Mut town in Mersin. Grandma puts a large bowl of water on the wood stove and put some myrtus leaves, adding some orange and lemon peel in it, in order to get a sweet sleep of her Grandchildren and without any illness in winter time.

**Participant P5:**

“Bees flock to the myrtle tree, and as a late blooming tree it is important in honey production. Pollen collected in the spring is used for the hive’s immediate needs, while pollen collected late in the year becomes surplus honey for the dormant period. A portion of this honey is harvested by the beekeeper. Myrtle honey, once important for food and medicinal uses, is an uncommon commercial honey today.”

**Participants (P6, P7, P8):**

“We are moving to the higher plateaus in the beginning of summer and come back late summer with our goat herds and bees. We always follow the traditional goat paths, with our animals, even dogs and cats, donkeys. Because high plateaus remote places, we buy all necessary food while going. We sustain there our dairy products, planted vegetables an a few fruits to eat there. If someone goes to the village back, it is common question to ask: If the murts (myrtus) have enough blooms? It means on their return at the end of summer if there will be enough ripe myrtus to sell and earn enough money to buy winter necessities.”

According to Hacer Çetin (Participant); Turkish Airlines has been buying myrtus fruits for the pilots because it is useful for their eyes. Myrtus fruits are sold between October and November at the neighborhood markets in Mersin province as well as in the Mediterranean and Aegean town markets (Ertuğ, 2004a).

**Participant (P8, P9, P10):**

“We are yörük tribes. Yörük means walkingman (Nomad). We usually breed animals, goats. We have to move to the high plateau. We need it both our herds and ourselves. Animal are free there and find fresh healthy food, we market here dairy product and vegetables. It takes almost one or two days to arrive there. We are using animal paths instead car roads. We get used to it. We carry seeds with us almost every time. While we are travelling we spread seeds of some plants. It is useful both for us and animals. We are familiar with nature and plants and fond of being with them and sustain them.”

**Participant (P1, P2, P3, 5):**

“When the food was consumed on the migratory roads, both us and our animals saturate their fruits and leaves. For this reason, we never ever waste the seeds. Where ever we go, our seeds, kids, animals, domestic dogs and females go together. We scattered the seeds around the roads. We have to guarantee our future. Our only investment is investing nature. We are the nature, nature is us.”

Fortunately, Mersin University campus is located on the maquis vegetation where
the citrus gardens are located. It is the visual transfer of the people who are interested in planting the university in the Çiftlikköy village where the nomadic Türks-Yörüks are settled. Some of the areas of Campus is covered the watering of the myrtle branches as well.

It has been tested and approved in human history as a long-lived and durable plant in the myrtle gene flow (Albaladejo et al., 2009). Citrus, Quercus infectoria and Myrtus grow in Antalya and in Mersin and Myrtus grows faster (Fioretto et al., 2005). In environmental light factors chlorophyll production was not found statistically significant in terms of sugar in light and shadow leaves (Mendes et al., 2001).

**Funeral and Cemetery Tradition**

Myrtus also had another effects. It could cool, because of the stupor or acting analgesic and trill. Also, it had been used during the deceased sending off (to attract divine protection) or to tribute honor to the departed. In paganism winter solstice was celebrated in December, which marked the path of death and rebirth in anticipation of spring. Myrtus evergreen leafy branches were used for decorating the tombs. Anatolia served as a melting pot for different civilizations and many of the present-day customs had their roots in the religious beliefs of the early cultures dating from historical periods of time. It is known that myrtus has been commonly used for funerals at the Mediterranean coastal regions of Turkey.

To avoid bad smell of the corpse, myrtus branches are added into the boiling water that used for washing the deceased. For the first step, private people called -corpse washer- wash the dead body with soups. Second step the deceased's closest relatives are invited to the bathing place one by one. They take pour the warm and myrtus smelling water from cauldron with a cup and washed the dead body from head to the feet three times and prayed. The other usage of myrtus branches is covering the tombs with fresh with myrtus branches at funerals in Mersin Province in Turkey in order to protect the tomb from insects and other animals (Çıblak, 2002:196; Özkan, et al.,: 2009). Moreover, within the cult of the dead, plants have been part of the funeral rites for most peoples, facilitating the passing of the soul to the other.

Myrtus is known all around Mersin Province as a Murt. There is even a town called with the name of plan Mut. Mersin is closer to the Cyprus Island. It is not surprising that similar traditions related to the same plant are being carried there as well despite they have different religions. The similarity of names plants (murt, Mirt, Myrth), usage of both weddings and funerals reflects common cultures. It is important in the context of the integration of the regional location of the universality of the Mediterranean and the similarities of the Mediterranean belief world. When the bride reaches the door of the house where the bride is to live, there are also leaves of murt in the sieve or Calvary filled with various nuts and candies which are poured down from the top to the bride and guests and called as sazak. People also do not neglect to take them from their branches when they go to place of votives or visit cemeteries (Beratlı, 2000: 17; Keser, 2010:118; Ertuğ 2004a). In order to protect the babies from rashes; the myrtle leaves are pounded and fragrant powder is made. After each the bath, this powder is applied to sensitive areas of the baby. Another tradition related to Murt is bathing the new born child with murt leaves and pine purple water. It is believed that babies be fragrant with if (myrtle) is pounded and mixed with olive oil and applied for 40 days to the body of the baby (Sever, 2004:105-106).
Aromatic Usage of Myrtus

Myrtle - *Myrtus communis* is a typical Mediterranean bush, which leaves and fruits are in use. It is used as an antiseptic, stomachic, aromatic, as a spice or in cosmetics. According to the Bible and the Talmud it was used during various ceremonies and for healing. Myrtle is an evergreen plant, with white flowers and small blue fruits.

It’s an important primitive material in the perfumery industry. Because of antiseptic, blood-cutting and sedative effects, it has been used in the treatment of diseases such as bronchitis, tuberculosis and gonorrhea. It is used against diabetes in Turkey. The amount to take is 10 drops a day. The use of high amounts is dangerous. It irritates the respiratory system and causes bleeding. The "Mersin Water" obtaining of the myrtus essence is used to give fragrance to the fruit juices. Mersin berry is oval shaped, green first, blackish in maturity, purple color, with a 5-part kaliks look on its end. Too much white, hard and small seeds are carried. It can be dried easily on the sun. Fruit contains essential oils, tannins, sugars and organic acids (citric and malic). Mersin fruits are also used for cookies especially for children in Turkey. The medicinal properties of the fruit are similar to those of the fruit. Infusions (2-3%) prepared from fruit are consumed 2-3 cups a day as constipation and antiseptic. The taste of your brewed infusions (infusions) is preferably used because it is less painful than the berry (Baytop, 1999:293-294).

Medical Use of Myrtus

*Myrtus communis L.*, a native of the Mediterranean and Asia Minor (present-day Turkey). Like all evergreen plants with a pleasant aroma, in that region it was also a symbol of strong life force (Heilmeyer and Marina, 2007: 947). In Turkey, the people in the Mediterranean region have named myrtle fruits as 'hambeles', 'murt', 'mersin' and consume them for some medicinal purposes (Baytop, 1984:44). The oils of the fruits are also consumed both in the flavor and fragrance industries. Recent studies have focused on the healthy functions of aromatic and medicinal plants, which have antioxidant, antimicrobial, and mutagen properties due to the dietary intake of antioxidant compounds that are important for health (Duh et al., 1999). Recent studies showed that myrtle fruits have anti-hyperglycemic (Elfellah et al., 1984), antiseptic and anti-inflammatory traits (Al-Hindawi et al., 1989; Diaz and Abeger, 1987: 163-168). Moreover, different parts of the plant find various uses in food and cosmetic industries (Chalchat et al., 1998; Messaoud et al., 2005) and fruits are used in liquors preparation, while its leaves are used as a hop substitute in beer (Buhner, 1998). In the treatment of hemorrhoids and as a preventive, anti-inflammatory, anti-nociceptive, analgesic, wound healing, laxative and purge drugs it is considered that plants with similar potency as folk medicine. Myrtus fruit was used in hemorrhoid treatment for Turkish people (Gürhan & Ezer, 2004: 41-47). In this area, contagious diseases, cardio vascular disorders and cancer were investigated). As a result, It is observed that these plants are used especially for intestinal digestive disorders of the gastro intestinal tract, (21.68%), respiratory tract system disorders (10.43%), heart-blood circulatory system disorders (8.48%), urinary tract system disorders (7.70%), skin disorders (6.48%) and others (Everest & Öztürk, 2005, Ergözan et al., 2003).

Ethnobotanical of Myrtus in Mersin Province

For many years the plant has been in the process of human interactions acquired through trial and error and transmitted orally from generation to generation orally.
Turkey, which include plant with the 11,707 number of plant species, the richest country in terms of natural resources comparing to neighboring countries (Güner et al. 2012:1290). Turkey’s Mediterranean region is also unique in terms of indigenousness endemic plants. That’s why Turkey has a very rich source of folk medicines. In recent years, folk medicine has gain importance. Many researchers and the public studies have been conducted to examine the folk drugs from different angles. So the ethno botanical science was born. In general the ethno botanic term describes as; "the people living in to meet various needs from plants around knowledge and influence on the plant." (Yıldırım, 2004; Heinrich, et al., 2004). One of the researches was about what kind of fruits were often sold in local markets. They found that murt is among the most commonly sold fruit. Even positive results of research, there is also some threats indeed. Many studies carried out on plants and some of the Mediterranean regions. Transmitting knowledge from elder to the young generation has been decreasing because of young generation leaving their town and villages for education and working. So it is very important to register beforehand. Altay & Faruk (2012) studied in Eastern Mediterranean Region of Turkey. They observed that local people used the both the leaves and fruits of the myrtus tree. They gathered the fruits and leaves either from nature or from their gardens they planted. Fruits were freshly consumed (Altay & Karahan, 2012:22).

**Myrtus for Horticultural Urban Landscape**

The geomorphic structure and rich variety of ecological conditions, makes Turkey one of the most important plant species resources in the world. While aiming at creating more beautiful and livable environments using landscape architecture designs, aesthetic characteristics as well as economic benefits should be taken into account choosing the plants to be used. The world’s population is rapidly increasing and will top 9.7 billion by 2050 (United Nations, 2015). By 2025, two thirds of the world’s population will be concentrated in urban areas, increasing the importance of providing not only environmental quality and livable spaces but food security and resilient food systems (Haberman et al., 2014).

Ornamental plants not only decorate the areas but also add value to society and human life in social and cultural terms. According to Schmidt (Schmidt, 2004) ornamental plants are always an inevitable part of human life: when used outdoors, they make the environment beautiful, and when used indoors, health, happiness and creativity contribute to it. It also forms habitats for various living things. Contribution to the protection of environmental health. It indirectly increases the tourism potential of the area as it aesthetically enriches the environment. From these angles, outdoor ornamental plants are of great importance with added value they will create in various ways (Aslantaş & Yeler, 2016). Cities are now widespread in the aftermath of innovations and cultural and sociological changes brought about by time, and the importance of green spaces and public recreation areas has emerged in urban areas.

**DISCUSSION, RESULTS AND SUGGESTIONS**

Sacred groves carries its own legend lore, myths, very ancient rich heritage and storages of biological wealth of the nation, play an important role in religious and socio-cultural life of the local people. They act as an ideal centre for biodiversity conservation. Tourists are also keen to visit a destination where to find mystical, unspoiled natural and authentic heritage and willing to buy them. Demand and
consumption themselves help alter social relations because of the role that commodities play in speaking for their consumers, creating and maintaining social relations and setting parameters for production by creating “taste makers”. That’s why local products foods & goods consumption can be promoted to help local people by the Municipalities. Green urban tourism leading to sustainability was a change in the attitude of local communities towards the protected area in their environment which in turn reduced poaching, timber felling and other consumptive land uses (Krüger, 2005:593). In order to develop green urban tourism in Mersin; can be encouraged to create parks and gardens and green areas with local edible, natural plants specific to the regional climate by a social corporate responsibility projects. It can be organized a riverside for a best garden festival project. The current study reveals that the native folks have good knowledge on traditional uses of plants. But due to the modernization, this knowledge may be lost in due course. Young generation grows up in the big cities, busy enough to study or working and elders could not transmit natural heritage to them. Local habitat courses can create awareness on them. Tourist Guides Associations and universities can have a regional natural habitat course to have natural specialization certificate. The Myrtus habitat can be mapped and conserved in Mersin.

Myrtus usually grow naturally on the edge of the fields, nomadic highland migration roads and around water canals, historical caravanserais, and springs as well. The towns, village, and highland roadsides are usually covered by natural fences by myrtus, blackberry, cherry, cranberry, walnut tree, various colorful poppy, daffodils, and hyacinths. In recent years there is an increasing demand for daily tours or buying a house from the highlands. Due to building new lodges or asphalt road expansion works natural hence has been demolishing. Consequently plants and birds are losing their natural habitat. In recent years due to increase in the residential and agricultural areas, and the decrease in medical plants have triggered the interest in ethno botanical plants throughout the World. Taking precaution uncontrolled medicinal harvesting. Lots of medicinal species have been most damaged by this activity because of their high quality and high selling price on the uncontrolled market. Listing and creating public awareness about smuggling of endangered species of wild flora and fauna’s of Mersin.

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Appendix I

Participant List

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Name &amp; Surname</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Adress</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ayşe EVEREST</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Biologist</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>Mersin University, Faculty of Arts and Sciences, Biology Department; Mersin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Nilgün ÇİBLAK</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Folk Researcher</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>Mersin University, Faculty of Arts and Sciences, Turkish Language and Literature Mersin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Hacer ÇETİN</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>Mersin University, Nursing Faculty Mersin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Halil Çetin</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Farmer</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>Tarsus, Damlama Köyü, Mersin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Teramus, KAPLAN</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Beekeeper and farmer</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>Buluklu-Ayvagediği-Mersin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Sultan DİKBAŞ</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Housewife &amp; farmer</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>Osmaniye, Karaisali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Ayşen AKSAZ</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Housewife &amp; farmer</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>Mut, Asput Village, Mersin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Emine AKSAZ</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Housewife &amp; farmer</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>Mut, Asput Village, Mersin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Münevver Baba</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Housewife &amp; farmer</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>Arpaç Village of Mersin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Bayram Yılmaz</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Retired Librarian &amp; farmer</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>Silifke town of Mersin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ECONOMY and MARKETING
Chapter 57

Virtual Marketing Strategies of Elderly Care Service Providers: Balikesir Case

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INTRODUCTION

Old age is a biological context; aging refers to a process. Ageism is translated into how it is perceived by the continuing individual. Aging is inevitable in terms of individuals. With the old age, some issues are encountered such as the loss of position in the network of social, economic and human relations, the inability to fulfill the biological function, etc.

The quantitative increase in the overall population of the elder people leads to a decline in employment rates, increased health costs and financial losses in the social security system through care services and thus the rise in costs. These negativities cause to perceive aging as a problem. However, employment to meet the care needs of elderly individuals is a small solution to the unemployment problem faced by individuals in the working life.

Parallel to social and economic developments, families are undergoing structural changes. The function that the traditional family carries out in the care of the elderly comes to an end. The presence of the aged at the structural boundaries of the core family is no longer relevant. For this reason, the care has started to be carried out by professional individuals today while trying to provide services for elderly care and elderly people with public services. This, in the final analysis, represents a transformation in business life. Because elderly care is a service paradigm and takes place in the professional category.

Even departments have been opened in universities in order for elderly care to be carried out professionally. However, judging from the employment rates, the number of individuals working in the elderly care service professionally is not enough. Hence, there is an effort to fill this field with semi-professional studies of individuals who have had their past experience, that is to say, in their elderly care during a certain period of their lives. These individuals use communication channels a lot to share their professional experience and fulfill the demands of those in need of elderly care. These communication channels are vitally important and the first one is the Internet. The use of the Internet in this way is the main problem with this work.

Working relationships have undergone a major transformation in recent years. One of the main factors of this transformation is the virtual communication tools. Virtual
communication has changed the habit of individuals doing a particular job in a specific place. In the present case, rather than the spatial presence of an application for a particular job, working styles have been changed, that is to say, commitment of the body in a certain space has been altered. Thanks to the flexible working model, the individual has become exempt from commitment to a specific space and time. For this reason, the study requests are also undergoing transformation.

Working request; the individual works directly in proportion to his or her desire to work rather than to work directly. Instead of this function, it has started to be realized that it can also be done using virtual communication networks. In terms of the individual who wants to participate in the working life, this situation leads to the minimum level of loss of employment by the applicants. It has also helped to make oneself visible through profiles created in virtual networks. Obviously, this new situation in working life is being done intensively with the demands for elderly care.

Why do those who ask for elderly care service use the Internet in this way? How does the internet function as a virtual marketing tool in fulfilling the service? If the internet is functional for virtual marketing purposes, how effective is the sexual, educational and professional experience of the individuals benefiting from it? The answers to these questions that are the problems of work focus on Balikesir's preference for marketing their own professional experience by using the internet for individuals who demand employment in aged care service.

Balikesir on the basis of research done in this last special census conducted in the elderly population ratio of Balikesir province compared to other provinces in Turkey stems from not more. Therefore, the number of those who advertise their professional experience on the internet to be employed in aged care service is more in Balikesir province than the other provinces in Turkey. For this reason, in this study the concepts such as aging and old age will primarily be emphasized first, then the transformation in the working life and the effect of the internet on the working life will be explained and in the last part the basic findings of the researches will be revealed.

1. Definitions of Aging and Old Age

Old age refers to a situation that differs from period to period, from society to society, or even from person to person in the same society. In this respect, it is difficult to make a general definition of aging. However, age refers to the period since birth and is measured in years. Aging is a process related to "age" and old age is seen as a result of this process (Tufan, 2014: 21, Metin, 2016: 5). While aging is a physiological process, it can be different in terms of aging, time and society.

Old age is a physical, social and psychological process in general sense; therefore, the definitions of the concept vary according to the dimensions in question. In physiological sense, changes occur with age, chronological age; psychologically, old age describes the changes that occur in the person's capacity to adapt as the age progresses. Ageing is a label based on the sociological limitations, values assigned to the age group of the society together with roles and statues attributed to the individual society (Birren, 1982, Beğer and Yavuzer, 2012: 1-3).

In addition to the physiological and sociological classification, many different definitions of aging are made considering various parameters. The World Health Organization (WHO) defines the phenomenon of old age as "a permanent decline in vital functions, a loss in the productivity of the whole organism, a loss in the ability to
adapt to environmental factors", and the age of 65 as the lower limit of aging. According to gerontologists, the elderly process is chronologically divided into three different periods: young ages between the ages of 65 and 74, middle-aged between the ages of 75 and 84, fragile old age 85 and over (Canatan, 2015: 18-24). It should be emphasized that aging at this point is a process unique to the person despite the classifications and it should be noted that the characteristics that each individual will develop with aging may vary. The results of research by Euro barometer in European Union countries and conducted in Turkey are striking. According to the findings of the research on the age at which individuals feel themselves older, it is found that the average age of individuals in Turkey at which they perceive themselves as old is the age "58.4", whereas in the EU countries it is found that the average is "63.9" (Eurobarometer, 2012a; Ceylan, 2015:35). Relevant research shows that the perception of aging can vary from country to country, from society to society, even from person to person, so it can be relative (Ceylan, 2015: 35).

2. Demographic View of Old Age

The proportion of elderly individuals in the total population is increasing day by day, compared to the past years. Gerontologists classify societies as "young, mature, old and very old societies" according to the proportion of the elderly in the total population.

Table 1: View of the Elderly Population by Year in Turkey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Total Old Population (65+ Age)</th>
<th>Rate of The Older Population In The Total Population</th>
<th>Old Women Population Rate</th>
<th>Older Male Population Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>628 041</td>
<td>3,9</td>
<td>4,2</td>
<td>3,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>690 662</td>
<td>3,3</td>
<td>4,0</td>
<td>2,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>1 853 251</td>
<td>4,6</td>
<td>5,1</td>
<td>4,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>2 417 363</td>
<td>4,3</td>
<td>4,8</td>
<td>3,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>3 858 949</td>
<td>5,7</td>
<td>6,3</td>
<td>5,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>5 000 175</td>
<td>7,1</td>
<td>8,1</td>
<td>6,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>6 192 962</td>
<td>8,0</td>
<td>9,0</td>
<td>6,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>6 495 239</td>
<td>8,2</td>
<td>9,3</td>
<td>7,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>6 651 503</td>
<td>8,3</td>
<td>9,4</td>
<td>7,3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: http://www.tuik.gov.tr/PreTablo.do%3Falt_id%3D1059

If the proportion of the population over 65 years is less than 4%, it is called as the "young community"; and between 4% and 7%, "mature society "; between 7% and 10% "old society"; and over 10% is classified as "very old society" (Kalinkara, 2016: 110).

In Table 1, the rate of elderly population changes according to years. It is seen that the proportion of the elderly population in the total population was less in 1950 compared to the data of the previous year. This is related to the increase in the number
of elderly individuals and the increase in the number of young and adult individuals. It is seen that the number of elderly women is more in the world as compared to the number of elderly men in Turkey. Turkey was in the young population classification with 3.9% according to the first population census made in 1935. Turkey entered mature community classification with 4.6% as of 1975 and as of 2007, it was evaluated within the elderly community classification. By 2016, the proportion of elderly population in total population has reached 8.3% and the number of elderly population is 6,651,503.

As of 2016, the highest proportion of elderly population is in Sinop with 18.1%. It is observed that this province is followed by Kastamonu with 16.5% and Çankırı with 15.4%. The province with the lowest proportion of elderly population was Sıırnak with 3.2%, followed by Hakkari with 3.3% and Van with 3.6%. Balıkesir ranked as 7th in this list and the elderly population reached 168,888 as of 2016. It is observed that the rate of elderly population in the total population has reached to 14.1% while it has increased by 2.1% compared to the year 2015. It has increased by 2.1% compared to the year 2015 and the proportion of the elderly population in the total population has reached 14.1%. Men constitute 23.3% of the elderly population living alone in Turkey and this rate in women is 75%. In Balıkesir, 25% of the population is composed of men and 75% of the population is women. In Table 2, at the aged population of Balıkesir Province, it is seen that there is a density between 65-79 years.

Table 2: Proportion of Elderly Population in Balıkesir (Source: URL 4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Percentage of Population</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>65-69 years</td>
<td>58,133</td>
<td>%4.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70-74 years</td>
<td>43,889</td>
<td>%3.67</td>
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<tr>
<td>75-79 years</td>
<td>32,002</td>
<td>%2.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80-84 years</td>
<td>21,001</td>
<td>%1.76</td>
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<tr>
<td>85-89 years</td>
<td>9,929</td>
<td>%0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90+ years</td>
<td>3,134</td>
<td>%0.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Elderly Care Services

An elderly individual can not handle his life alone and is in need of care by someone else, physical and mental losses that are caused by age occur. Due to the strong family structure in Turkey, it seems that the needs of elderly individuals are welcomed by family members. Many needs are welcomed by family members, but it is difficult to meet these needs with the family as a result of resolving the traditional family structure. It seems that not only the demands of family members but also the elderly individuals are in this direction. Elderly individuals are asking for institutional care or home care services on the grounds that they disrupt their existing arrangements or they feel themselves as burdens on their children. In these preferences, the result is that the grandparents of elderly individuals or the spouses of their children can also be effective (Baran, 2003: 121-140).

The issue of where the elderly who need special attention day by day, and therefore where to continue their lives, is also a major problem. In Turkish society, home is the center of social contact as a social space and other media can not fulfill this function. For this reason, it is the first goal of the elders to maintain their lives in their own home (Arpacı and Ersoy, 2009: 88). Institutions providing residential care usually have a structure that isolates the individual from the outside world and causing psycho-
social disadvantages on the person. In order to protect the elders from these negative effects, care services are provided to continue their lives in their own home where they have social relations. In this context, instead of institutional care services such as nursing homes, community-based care models such as home care services are at the forefront. The home care of the elders includes the services provided to ensure the comfort of the person, to protect the functioning and to improve the health. Planning and maintaining elderly care services at home increases the need for economic resources and human resources (Hablemitoğlu et al., 2011: 148).

According to the data of TÜİK (2016), the rate of elderly dependency, which indicates the number of elderly people per 100 people in the age of study, was 11.1% in 2012 and when it was 2016, the rate of increase was 12.3%. Care services for elderly individuals in Turkey who do not live with their families are institutional care service and home care service. “The elderly over 60 years who are able to look after themselves by doing personal care themselves do not need to go to centers, and are provided with a residence environment” elderly individuals in need of special care are not admitted to nursing homes. Elderly individuals, who are in need of special care, as it is understood, are not accepted as nursing homes (Kocakoç, 2016:115). Elderly people needing care are covered by the Elderly Care Centers. As the care required for Alzheimer's disease is different from other diseases, it was observed that the Elderly Care Centers could not meet the needs of the elderly individuals with the mentioned disease and the "Alzheimer's Association" opened "Daytime Living House" for elderly individuals with Alzheimer's disease. This is the center of Alzheimer's disease for the elderly living with their family members "to provide the safety of the elderly by removing the risks of staying alone at home, to direct the families to the day care centers and to prevent the accumulation in the nursing homes and to support the elderly and the families through the day care of Alzheimer's patients." (Ministry of Family and Social Policy, 2013). Apart from all these care centers, elderly people living in nursing homes are able to be provided with physical, social and psychological care in the "elderly living house" in the form of an additional unit linked to the establishment, without the need for someone else’s help.

Institutional care services in Turkey can be summarized in this way. Apart from these, home care services, which can be defined as "meeting the individual's care needs in the home environment", are also among the care services provided in Turkey. Home care services are described as "services provided in therapeutic or medical nursing and social care, chronic or terminal illness, recovery period or in home environment for persons with impairment" (Karahan and Güven, 2002; Bilge, Elçioğlu, Ünalacak and Ünlüoğlu, 2014). The evaluation of the elderly individuals who apply for home care services will be announced as soon as possible, either positively or negatively, and if the evaluation is positive, the Ministry of Health provides free care at home. In Turkey, there is a regulation on home care services and the first legal regulations related to it can be evaluated at the beginning stage. Long-term patient care services and supportive palliative care services are internationally accredited by institutions such as JCI (Joint Commission International) (URL 1, Kocakoç, 2016: 130).

Another striking aspect of care services is the potential for job creation for elderly care. Elderly care workers and health technicians are in charge of care needs in care centers and home care services. These people have training in vocational schools for two years for elderly care, both in state universities and private universities in
undergraduate programs. Anadolu University Open Education Faculty is located on-site with the program "to provide qualified and professional care, cultivating high staff awareness" is intended. It is aimed to offer distance learning opportunities to those who work in the field of elderly care but do not have any training process in this area (URL 2). In addition to this, the General Directorate of Lifelong Learning affiliated to the Ministry of National Education offers the opportunity to provide education about the elderly care with the Handicapped and Elderly Care Program. As a result of this training, a certificate is given to participants. In this study, it was observed that the people who advertised through the internet did not receive any education related to elderly care in order to become elderly care element in Balikesir province.

As a result, elderly care services are perceived as a social policy in the form of public service. But in practice this situation is undergoing transformation. The provision of elderly care requires the activeness of both professional and semi-professional individuals. The number of individuals required for elderly care to receive or be trained is increasing quantitatively. In the final case this leads to the formation of a different occupational category in working life. In addition to this, it also leads to the transformation in the qualitative dimension of the work. The conditions necessary for the elderly care follow a course parallel to the transformation of traditional working life understanding. For this reason, it is necessary to understand the structural change that elderly population care services bring to the working life. Individuals who want to take an active role in elderly care and want to fulfill elderly care as a business prefer to market their professional experiences by using the internet. This implies a structural change in the job search process. Both situations constitute a reality that will not escape from the eyes related to transformation of working life.


Agricultural and Industrial Revolutions emerged as major transformations in history. However, the world is in transition towards a new era (Meder, 2001:73). From the invention of the printing press in the fifteenth century to the invention of the telegraph in 1884, from the emergence of the radio in 1920 to the television broadcasts in 1946, many technological changes included social and political influences (Dulkadiroğulları and Altundemir, 2013:61). In the later process, which corresponds to the last quarter of the century we passed, computer technology has been influential in experiencing rapid changes. Extensive use of internet and information technology, politics is beyond technological innovation, economy, culture and even led them referred as identities (Güzel, 2006:1). Rapid changes in information technology lead to the emergence of new forms of work. These changes cause changes in horizontal mobility in all sectors (Göktürk, 2007:2). In other words, there have been changes in many subjects from business structures to business forms (Doğan et al., 2015:376). As a result of globalization and technological advances, periodic changes in the economy, which in turn leads to increased competition, make it necessary to change both businesses and individuals (Doğrul and Tekeli, 2000:13). The biggest catalyst of globalization and its consequences has been the internet (Aksoy, 2012:401). The reflections of this change process are seen at every stage of the job-related process from the job search phase to the end of the business transaction. From the job seeker’s point of view, the process proceeds as follows;
## Table 3: Job Seeker Process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Job Search Process</strong></th>
<th><strong>Job Analysis Process</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wanting to work or change jobs</td>
<td>Choosing the right company</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determination of purpose</td>
<td>Understanding expectations better</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job search with or without the Human Resources</td>
<td>Analyzing the Human Resources demand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responding to the appropriate job ads</td>
<td>Opportunity to advertise individual values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waiting for the results of the applications</td>
<td>Accurate answers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview preparation</td>
<td>Find the right job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appraisal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Gökkoya et al., 2015*

As it can be seen, certain criteria are important in the process of job search and in the process of analyzing job advertisements. In this sense, in the context of position, giving the right answers to the right job and beyond that, advertising the individual values is a matter of priority. Especially with the expansion of the internet the level of importance of these processes has changed. Because of the synergy of information technology, it has become influential in shaping people's behavior patterns. This is why the Internet makes communication possible through new communication channels. In this way, the individuals can communicate with as many foreigners as possible with his/her relatives (Bingöl and Tanrıver, 2011:133-134). Today's developments in the global market influence the processes of getting information and communication of businesses and people. With knowledge becoming important, the emergence of new ideas is important, too. Therefore, human typology which brings new ideas forward is becoming important. Internet services were used for the implementation of more social welfare policies in the 1970s, today they are used for the right purposes and individual intellectual knowledge acquisition (Bingöl and Tanrıver, 2011:134).

Today, the developments experienced in the global market are affecting the information and communication process of the enterprises and the people. "E-Human Resources" and "E-Recruitment" are discussed in business life with the development of technology. With the increase of flexible working patterns, many processes have changed such as job search and recruitment (Güler, 2006:19-21). With these processes, when desired information is reached via the internet, people save time. In the same way, access to wider masses can be obtained through the internet platform (Çalık and Çınar, 2009:85). Institutions have access to potential human resources without being limited to time and space such as job advertisements published on corporate web sites, online application opportunities for candidates, etc. It brings a lot of convenience (Öksüz, 2011:268).

The elderly population is increasing in the world. Old age is both a problem of developed countries and developing countries. Elderly population has begun to increase in Turkey. The increasing population of elderly people causes the issues related to elderly care services to come to the agenda. While some of the family members place their elderly people in eventide homes, some of them take care of themselves. There are internet sites about this and many people who say that they can do elderly care constitute personal portfolios. In a sense, this can be termed as "self-marketing", in which people are marketing themselves. The people who indicate their experience and
personal characteristics of patient care also describe the conditions under which they can work.

As individuals get older, they become more dependent on others in their ability to perform their daily functions. The daily needs of older people are usually met by family, relatives or neighbors. However, if the person needs constant care, this support given by the relatives is inadequate (Ünalan et al., 2009; 19). The relatives of the patient have many psychological difficulties during the care process. When the caregivers are examined, it is seen that negativities such as depression, physical, psychological and emotional health deterioration, depressive disorders, anxiety, behavioral disorders, and burnout have appeared with the increase of care (Kalinkara and Kalaycı, 2017:22). This situation is important for professional care. In addition, it also offers job opportunities for less professional people.

The background of the marketing through the internet of those who want to care for the elderly lies in the quantitative majority of the individuals who want to benefit from these care services. Because in 2016 in TURKSTAT stated that 40.2% of the elderly people wanted to live with their children, and 38.6% of them wanted to get home care services. The rate of those who wanted to go to nursing homes was determined as 7.7% (TURKSTAT, Ages by Statistics, 2016). In this sense, 38.6% of the respondents who are interested in elderly care constitute a large part of the population. The number of elderly population was 6, 651 million in 2016, this rate is applied against our 2.5 million; that is, 38.6% make up a group of 2.5 million elderly people. This 2.5 million population refers to the formation of a certain density in the quantitative sense of the potential to create a labor market. In other words, 2.5 million elderly again means 2.5 million caregivers. The opportunity to reach 2.5 million caregivers who demand elderly care is possible in terms of time and space. Besides, the fact that the total elderly population in Balıkesir province is 168, 088 means that even if at least half of this number is in need of nursing care, that is to say 84,000 people will enter the labor market in the same place. Therefore, choosing to market themselves through web addresses is both time saving and has possible conditions of spatial concentration.

5. Research Method and Findings

This study will focus on the continuous increase in Balikesir province's growing elderly population in Turkey. The growing elderly population has the necessity to develop social policies in terms of care services. The extent and limitations of the department are in the interest of fulfilling the maintenance services. For this reason, the intensity of demand for the fulfillment of home care services of individuals, that is, elderly individuals, has made it easier to become a part of the sector in this field. Especially the development of departments at universities at the point of providing professional services for elderly care services can be considered as developments in this field. On the other hand, the supply of human resources related to this field via the Internet and the meeting of the request in the virtual environment constitute the attractive aspect of this issue.

Those who provide their services to provide elderly care services at home and those who demand services in the virtual environment with this method, which is also known as some kind of service marketing, are passing on information. This method of communication also causes a change in connection with understanding flexible work instead of classical work. It is emphasized how those who want / want to serve elderly
care by working with these and similar changes / developments, through which internet channels these requests, in terms of gender, age and other independent variables. The quantitative data of our work has been obtained from two websites named "teyzesizsiniz.com" and "bakiciburada.com". These two websites are often used by individuals who want to be in the care of elderly, often with work experience, individual histories, and so on. They have been preferred because of their popularity. In this context, these two sites have been examined through criteria such as the profile of those who want to provide elderly care at home, their gender, age, educational status, experience and expectation of wages. The method of evaluating the elderly care services through the two websites mentioned above is an analysis of the data presented in the website. The data required for this analysis was generated in line with the basic information presented in the profiles of the individuals in the study request.

Table 4: Distribution of Gender and Educational Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>EDUCATION STATUS</th>
<th>NUMBER</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MALE</td>
<td>Grammar school</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Associate degree program</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bachelor degree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Postgraduate degree</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEMALE</td>
<td>Grammar school</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Associate degree program</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bachelor degree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Postgraduate degree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This data provides support in the analysis of various parameters, particularly in the comparison of dependent and independent variables. In this respect, we will focus on the distribution of the individuals who make up the profile by sex in the first stage of our work. The proportion of women to men is very high in the distribution of the genders of the elderly care workers in labor market demand. The quantitative superiority of female individuals suggests that there is a high demand for entry into the labor market for women. In the background of the fact that the proportion of women is higher than that of men, it can be expressed here that traditional understanding is related to the imposition of domestic affairs by women. The continuation of the patriarchal structure of the social planet further increases the likelihood of the woman fulfilling the social role played by maternal status.

In the elderly care service, which can be expressed as a labor-intensive job, not only the basic needs of the elderly are met; but activities such as cleaning the house of the individual and cooking as well. For these and similar reasons, the women are more involved in social welfare / obligation when performing the caretaker function in the elderly service care. When judged from a different point of view, the women function for the economic development of the dynasty, even if it is secondary in the role of fulfilling the dwelling in social nature. The most likely factor that can confirm these two facts is the fact that the vast majority of the labor force workers in primary care and high school graduates are in the service of care. In terms of training, women at this level are in the labor market for elderly care, a lack of other steps in education, a decrease in personal and tardy development, and therefore a demonstration of social pressure on the
women. For this reason, there is more frontline in the service of women's elderly care.

The average age of the candidates who provide labor in elderly care services whose profiles are examined is 38. When we look at the experience periods by age groups, it is seen that the candidates in the 41-50 age group are more experienced (See Table 5).

Table 5: Experience Periods and Wage Expectations by Age Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Time of Experience</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Fee Expectation</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-30</td>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Less than 1000 TL</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1000-1500 TL</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-10 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1500-2000 TL</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 10 years</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>More than 2000 TL</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Less than 1000 TL</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1000-1500 TL</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-10 years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1500-2000 TL</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 10 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>More than 2000 TL</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Less than 1000 TL</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1000-1500 TL</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-10 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1500-2000 TL</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 10 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>More than 2000 TL</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 51</td>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Less than 1000 TL</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1000-1500 TL</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-10 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1500-2000 TL</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 10 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>More than 2000 TL</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, it should be emphasized here that a very large proportion of the candidates are not related to the elderly care experience they have. They have stated that they have been doing house work assistances, patient attendance and child care in their site profiles, and they can also help with daily housework such as cooking, cleaning as well as elderly care. It can be considered here that elderly care services at home are carried out by untrained caregivers in this regard.

In the study type preferences, only 9 of the candidates wanted to provide boarding service, 50 wanted to live in, 27 said they could stay boarding if necessary. Other than the 6 candidates, the others preferred to work on flexible hours by agreeing with the opposing party by allowing full-time one day a week.

Experience with more than 10 years of experience candidates are older than 40 years, experience with younger candidates is between 1 and 5 years. The average wage expectation is around 1500 TL and seems reasonable when compared to the hours they want to work.
RESULT

The demographic transformation that accompanies economic, social and cultural developments in the world has brought together an increasingly old population in the world population. Nowadays, the growing population of the elderly has begun to be a social problem not only for the developed countries but also for the developing countries. States are obliged to make adjustments by developing various policies for their elderly people with the increase in their proportion in the total population.

Old age is considered as the last phase of human life and is seen as the last turning point before death. Old age, together with the losses and strains it brings, creates a negative perception on the individual; it is thought that with the social transformations, the elderly individual has progressed towards the end of the period in which they are regarded as "counselors, listeners" in society. These developments have brought about a transformation from traditional broad family structure to modern core family structure. It has been argued that the female members of the family are still seen as obliged to look after their elderly members nowadays; it can be said that with the transformation from the traditional large family structure to the modern core family structure, the participation of the women in the working life has increased and the difficulties in maintaining the care of the elderly individuals in the family have been experienced.

It is stated that elderly people are trying to eliminate the care needs of the elderly people with the help of the caregivers who are compromised by their children as well as care institutions such as nursing homes, elderly care centers, and elderly living houses. While caregivers can be found through agents or acquaintances, individuals are also advertised on the internet as elderly care personnel. By semtinizing the changing working conditions in the study, it has been tried to discuss how the internet is used as a new vehicle where labor and capital are used as a meeting point. Examining the related advertisements, the qualifications of the advertisers who market their labor as a candidate for maintenance personnel are under consideration. This means that caregiving candidates do not graduate from elderly care programs providing education at associate's level in Turkey and do not participate in certificate programs providing relevant undergraduate education; it is seen that they did not receive any training related to elderly care in summary.

Another striking aspect of care services is the potential for employment creation in elderly care. Elderly care workers and health technicians are in charge of care needs in the aforementioned care centers and home care services. There are two-year vocational colleges in these universities, and elderly care associate degree programs in private universities. The aim of the program is to train qualified personnel who can provide qualified and professional care services and to provide high-awareness training to those who are currently working in the field of elderly care but who have not passed any training process in this field, by means of the program which is also included in the Anatolian University Open Education Faculty (URL 3).

In addition, the General Directorate of Lifelong Learning affiliated to the Ministry of National Education offers the opportunity to provide education about the elderly care with the Patient and Elderly Services Handicapped Care Program and the attendance certificate is given as a result of education. In this study, it was observed that the people who advertised through the internet did not receive any education related to elderly care in order to become elderly care element in Balikesir province.

Elderly care is a service that requires its own specific knowledge and approach.
Although Turkey has a young population, aging has become one of the highlighted issues lately. In the field of "Patient and Elderly Services" in the high school which provides vocational education, "Elderly Care" programs at associate degree level at universities, and "Gerontology" at undergraduate level education on old age are given. In addition to these, courses for elderly care are organized by Public Education Centers. However, it has been observed that the people surveyed on internet sites did not receive any education in the field of elderly care. Those who do not have vocational training should be provided with elderly maintenance certificate with courses. In today's modern societies, it is becoming compulsory for people to be documented about their professions (Yıldız, 2016:261). Although aged care services require creating a labor market parallel to the document requirement, those who want to work in this area are trying to conduct / maintain the care services in an unprofessional manner, both in terms of their educational status and duration of experience. From the social and economic standpoint, care services are more integrated with issues such as child care and home care; it was observed that elderly care services have developed as an extension of this, that the features required by the work exhibit a proportional change in relation to the experience, and so on. However, despite this, the labor market for elderly care services is increasing. The main reason for this is the quantitative increase in the elderly population. Therefore, the individuals are trying to realize the labor supply in this labor market without isolating themselves from a number of regulations required by the day. Especially the job posting web pages established on the internet are functional for these individuals. Beyond functional formation, flexible working conditions for the supply of labor are also necessary in the formation of the conditions. Because these web sites shape today's labor market as an intermediary for labor supply and presentation.

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URL 4. Source: https://www.nufusu.com/il/balikesir-nufusu
Chapter 58


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INTRODUCTION

The rapid development of technology and the 21st century concept of a global economy have affected the business models of companies. These companies have switched from labor-intensive production systems to technology-driven production systems; the cost structures of the products produced by the companies have also changed. Along with this change, some developments and changes in the genetic codes of the companies have occurred, and this process will continue.

The production environment has been affected by this development process that has advanced over the years, and the modern production environment of today has been created with the application of advanced production techniques such as CIM (Computer Integrated Manufacturing), FMS (Flexible Manufacturing Systems) and management approaches such as Total Quality Management (TQM), Just-in-Time Production (JIT). Cost accounting and management accounting have also been affected by these changes, and new cost and management accounting systems have been developed in order to provide quality information that will serve the modern production environment in the right place at the right time (Türk, 1999:199). A new system called product life cycle costing has been developed for this purpose. This new system provides information to the business to help management understand and measure the costs incurred during the entire life cycle of a product; thus, it is based on planning, costing and pricing decisions.

PRODUCT LIFE CYCLE CONCEPT

Measured in monetary terms, cost can be defined as the amount of money incurred to achieve a specific objective (Büyükmirza, 2007:44). For commercial businesses, the cost of a product is the cost of a product purchased, and the sum of all costs incurred in obtaining the product (transportation, insurance, commission, storage, etc.). For production businesses, the cost is expressed as the monetary amount of goods and services, which are used and consumed related to production (Çetin & Atmaca, 2009:314).

The product life cycle is an approach to product strategies in marketing management, and is defined as the demand structure for any goods or services within the time dimension (Güneş & Aksu, 2003:44). In other words, it means that a product presented to the market has a lifespan that includes various periods and stages. Each product has a normal life cycle. The product life cycle has 4 stages: introduction, growth, maturity and decline (Karakaya, 2006:574). In the face of new developments, the product planning and development stage is added to these stages and it has taken its current structure. In this context, the product life cycle consists of five stages. It is
difficult to say whether all products follow all five stages of the product life cycle. It is important to remember that some products may fail in the first stage and their life cycle may be interrupted.

The product life cycle concept has different meanings depending on the point of view. In terms of marketing, it starts with the introduction stage and ends with a decline stage. In terms of the manufacturer, it starts with product development and ends with after-sales services. For the consumer, it starts with the purchasing of the product and ends with disposal of the product (Aksu & Apak, 2014: 238). The stages of the product life cycle are presented in Table 1 according to different views.

**Table 1: The Stages of Product Life Cycle According to Different Views**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product Life Cycle for Marketing</th>
<th>Product Life Cycle for the Manufacturer</th>
<th>Product Life Cycle for the Consumer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Introduction</td>
<td>1. Product idea or concept</td>
<td>1. Purchasing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Rapid Growth</td>
<td>2. Product design</td>
<td>2. Usage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Decline</td>
<td>5. Logistic support</td>
<td>5. Disposing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Throughout the product life cycle, the measurement, accumulation and reporting of the costs help managers to better plan the product life cycle. In short, this method enables managers to make a good pricing decision and to determine the profitability of the product.

**PRODUCT LIFE CYCLE COSTING METHOD**

The life-cycle costing method or analysis was first used by the US Department of Defense in the 1960s as a strategic decision-making tool in the procurement process. Following this, especially with the increasing competition in the 1980s, this method was further developed and has become a method that has been used as a strategic decision making tool, both in the commercial field, in the field of procurement, and also in the production process (Dunk, 2004:402).

The method is a cost management approach based on the costs of the product, starting with the pre-production phase and continuing to the end of the utilization. This approach focuses on the management of the costs at each stage of the product, from birth to death (Öztürk, 2009:84). At the same time; it also helps managers to make a good pricing decision, and to determine the profitability of the product. Costing based on the product life cycle is based on cost and profitability analysis. And as a period of strategic planning, it is based on the expected life cycle of a product consisting of the introduction, growth, maturity and decline. The aim of this costing is to maximize the profit for the business with appropriate marketing and production decisions that the managers make at different stages of the product life cycle (Özkan & Kuzu, 2011).

The product life cycle costing method deals with product costing from a broader perspective by determining all the costs of the product development and logistic support within the stages of the product life cycle. This method is in opposition to the conventional method, which only places great importance to costs associated with physical production. The total cost resulting from the calculation of the product life cycle costs represents the total product life cycle cost. The calculated total product life
cycle cost is the estimate, because the calculation is based on assumptions. In short, the product life cycle costing method helps to estimate and manage the costs, which both the producer and the consumer encounter during the product life cycle (Öztürk, 2009:85).

The basis of the approach is to provide the lowest total life cycle cost. During the realization of the objectives, the closest supervision is carried out during the planning and design stages. However, the most appropriate marketing and production decisions are made to target the maximum profit. Businesses will make a profit at different stages of the product life cycle. According to the traditional approach, there is a loss in the decline stage of the product life cycle. However, depending on a lack of competition in the market, if there is a suitable environment, a strategic decision can enable business to make a profit (Alkan, 2001:184)

**CONTENTS AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PRODUCT LIFE CYCLE COSTING**

In marketing, the costs expressed as the “the product life cycle or period”, are the cost of the entire product life cycle. The cost of the product life cycle provides the calculation of the cost of the manufactured product over its life period.

“Product life cycle costing”, a recently developed accounting concept, is often referred to as an alternative title of “terotechnology”. Product life cycle costing is defined as realizing the best use of physical assets with the lowest total cost according to terotechnology within the product life cycle. This is possible when management, finance, engineering and other disciplines come together. Here, the concept of terotechnology includes the design of ownership costs of physical assets, and especially the reliability and durability of the equipment and practical techniques for optimizing maintenance and repair costs, including placement, adjustment, processing, replacement and substitution of physical assets.

The cost management approach for the product life cycle is based on cost and profitability analysis. The characteristic of the approach, as a period of strategic planning, is based on the expected life cycle of a product consisting of the stages of introduction, growth, maturity and decline. The aim of this new approach is to provide the maximum profit for the business with the most appropriate marketing and production decisions that the business will make over different stages (Karcioğlu, 2000:91).

**OBJECTIVES OF PRODUCT LIFE CYCLE COSTING**

The main objective of product life cycle costing, in the product planning stage, is to provide the decision makers with the tools needed to calculate, analyze, report on and manage the costs accrued in each stage of the product life cycle (Güneş & Aksu, 2003:49).

This method is becoming particularly important in environments where intensive product planning and product development, and/or high product abandonment costs (such as closing a nuclear institution) exist. The product lifecycle costing method helps to determine whether or not profit made from a product will meet the cost of developing or abandoning during the production period (Öztürk, 2009:90).
PRODUCT LIFE CYCLE STAGES

Research-Development-Engineering Period

In the course of product development and design, businesses can achieve significant cost reductions. To measure how much the production of the product actually costs means to ignore the fact that “80% of the costs are generated before the production begins”. The desired cost should be determined during the design and development stage of the production in order to achieve cost optimization throughout the design and development of the product (Türk, 1999:201). This stage includes the following elements:

- Market research is conducted, customer needs are identified and ideas about new products are born.
- With the help of the relevant technical persons, the product is designed and technical specifications are determined.
- Product development is done to ensure customer satisfaction, product specification, prototyping, production process and identification of the necessary special tools and equipment.

In line with the research, 80% -90% of the total life cycle costs are determined by the decisions made at this stage. The 1 unit expenditure made during this stage can provide 10-15 units’ savings in production and post-production stages (Özkan & Kuzu, 2011). To reduce costs in this stage, there are various methods which can be applied. One of these methods is target costing.

Target costing, referred to as a strategic profit and cost management process, is based on the concept of targeting a specific cost, and defined as the “acceptable cost in which the product is expected to make a profit”. Target costing is a method used in the first stages, before production methods of a new product are designed and created. In this method of costing, transactions are shaped according to the customer’s demands, it is focused on production design and takes into account the entire product life cycle. The objective of this method is to create the production process that will provide the desired profit. The target costing approach is the opposite of the traditional approach, 

\[ \text{Price} = \text{Cost} + \text{Profit} \]

The main objective of the target costing approach is to reduce the costs during the design and planning stages that can accrue throughout the product life cycle. This approach, which is used by businesses and is a cost management tool, focuses on customer needs and product design. The target cost is the cost obtained by subtracting the targeted profit from the sales price determined according to the market conditions for the product (Gümüş, 2007: 39).

Production and Sales Period

The costs of this period, which is the main focus of the traditional costing method, are greatly influenced by the decisions made during the previous period of research and development and engineering. There is less freedom in determining the costs relative to the previous turn. In this period, fewer decisions are made about costs. As a result, the actual costs increase (Özkan & Kuzu, 2011).

Production costs refer to costs incurred during the production process. It includes the components of all production costs (raw materials and supply costs, direct labor cost, general production costs) and various costing methods. In this stage, production
costs can be reduced by utilizing advanced production techniques. In the production stage, the concepts of planning and control of the cost are important (Öztürk, 2003:98).

In this stage, advanced manufacturing techniques are utilized to reduce costs. These techniques include: computer supported design, computer supported manufacturing, and material requirements planning. The most appropriate costing method that can be used at this stage is Kaizen costing. Kaizen costing is the process of making improvements in order to reduce continually the production cost of existing products. The aim of this method is to minimize especially the variable costs (Özkan & Kuzu, 2011).

Kaizen is a philosophy that aims to develop all the factors associated with the process that turns inputs into outputs. Kaizen costing is the application of kaizen techniques to reduce the costs of parts and products through a pre-determined rate. In other words, it is the prevention of waste and the reduction of costs through continuous improvement. Costing systems determine which products are unprofitable or at risk of being unprofitable during the reporting of product costs. Along with the identification of these products, Kaizen costing is being active. The most important productivity measure is the number of projects produced per employee (Alkan, 2001:183).

**After-Sales Services and Product Termination**

This stage begins when the customer receives the product. Since plans and strategies have already been established, there is no reason to include them in this period, and the costs have already been reduced quite substantially. However, as sales increase for businesses that provide after-sales service, actual costs of liabilities also increase (Özkan & Kuzu, 2011). After-sales services can generally be classified as installation, warranty, maintenance-repair, supplying spare parts, monitoring products, monitoring customer complaints, requests and replies, accepting temporary returns and meeting the customer’s needs.

Post-production (sales) costs are a matter of concern for both the producer and the customer. In terms of the producer, these are the costs incurred due to after-sales guarantees and services. In terms of the customer, these are the costs incurred due to the usage or consumption. Today, another issue for the customer that is as important as the cost of obtaining the product is the cost of using the product. If we think of a car as an example, the fuel that the car will consume and maintenance costs during its lifetime will require much higher operating costs than its production cost (Öztürk, 2003:103).

Considering all the factors that reduce cost in design, development and production stages, the costs that can occur after sales are generally lower.

R & D and Design Stage + Production Stage + After Sales Services

Target Costing + Kaizen Costing + Post-Sales Costing = Total Life Cycle Costing

These three stages can also be referred to briefly as planning, production and abandonment. We can mention three cost calculation methods in the product life cycle.

We can incur target costing in the planning stage, Kaizen costing in the production stage, and product life cycle costing, which is used especially in the planning stage, and takes into account the entire life cycle of the product (Özkan & Kuzu, 2011).

If target costing, which was the previous stage of Kaizen costing, and Kaizen costing are applied together, cost reduction can be achieved through the product design, development and production stages. According to target costing, the decisions made at the product design and engineering stages also affect the costs of the product production...
and service stages. For this reason, there is a focus on the product design and engineering stages. It is envisaged that an extra cost for manufacturing activities in the design and engineering stages will save much more money in the production and post-production stages. Kaizen costing is the application of Kaizen (continuous improvement) techniques to reduce the costs of parts and products through a predetermined rate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target Costing</th>
<th>Kaizen Costing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planning Stage</td>
<td>4+ Production Stage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1: Product Life Cycle Stages**

Kaizen costing for businesses operating in a competition-based market aims to make small but continuous improvements by focusing on preventing waste and reducing costs in every activity the business undertakes (Altunay, 2007:17). In this regard, product life cycle costing can only be effective when used in combination with target costing, Kaizen costing, and other auxiliary techniques. These three techniques, which are decision-making tools based on product costs, are so important that they cannot be neglected in product costing (Köse, 2002: 85).

**PRODUCT LIFE CYCLE COSTING CALCULATION**

Product life cycle costing is a process. For this reason, while calculating, it is necessary to consider the process, purpose, area of use and all factors including process. Apart from the similarity of the stages of the product life cycle, the fact that even products with similar stages have different dates regarding the beginning of the stages and the length of the process, this requires making different calculations.

In this method, the applicant is of great importance. To be able to get healthy results, the person who will make the calculations should be familiar with the general economics and financial calculation techniques, as well as the product, the production stages and the process in general. Of course, in order to collect and prepare the data related to the product, production stages and process, it is necessary to act together with R&D, production, marketing and management units. It is also a decision making tool beyond a cost method. So, what is of primary important is to be able to determine the figures that will help to make the right decision (Güneş & Aksu, 2000:58)

As an example, two of the formulas that can be used in the calculation of the product life cycle costing are given below (Güneş & Aksu, 2000:59).

**Manufacturer PLCC** = Raw Materials and Supplies Cost + Plant and Manufacturing Expenses + Present Value of Operating and Maintenance Expenses + Present Value of Cost of Production Records + Present Value of Materials to be Renewed

**Consumer PLCC** = Purchase Price + (Annual Energy Cost * Present Value of Expected Life Cycle) + (If any) Present Value of Scrap

**CONCLUSION**

The globalization of recent years, increasing competition, constantly evolving and complicated technologies, increasing costs, energy problems, uncertainty etc. have affected the business environment and activities, and has increased the need for a new
and better knowledge regarding management. In a global competitive environment, the superior competitive strength, competitive advantage and sustainability of businesses depend on cost advantage. Competition encompasses all activities that the business has already completed, or will make, in order to thrive. In today’s economy, where there is more international competition than regional competition, businesses will be able to gain competitive power to the extent that they are able to win and succeed against the counter efforts of business competitors. Competitive priorities are based on the differentiation of products and the reduction of product costs.

To ensure a cost advantage, businesses should focus on the product life cycle costing approach, which takes into account all costs before, during and after production. In order to ensure the success of the product lifecycle costing method, cost management systems such as target costing and Kaizen costing should not be disregarded. Because the product life cycle costing approach is based on an analysis of the cost and profitability, and is based on the expected life cycle of the product, including introduction, development, maturity and decline stages as the strategic planning period, Kaizen costing becomes even more important in the product life cycle costing approach. In order to continue having an advantage in competitive markets, these methods should not be regarded separately, but used together.

REFERENCES


Chapter 59

The Effect of Green Marketing Mix on the Green Product Purchasing Behaviour of Consumers

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INTRODUCTION

Although the concept of green marketing entered marketing literature in the late 1980s and early 1990s, it first emerged as the concept of "ecological marketing" by the American Marketing Association in 1975 (Polonsky, 1994). While states are working to protect the environment through laws and international agreements, with the importance of environmental factors in terms of businesses; production, product or service formation, and marketing strategies along with them have changed significantly and new marketing insights have emerged that include environmental awareness (Khare et al., 2013). Green marketing which is one of new marketing insights has been defined as a business effort in producing, pricing, promoting and distributing products in a way that does not harm the environment (Pride & Ferrel, 1993). Recently there has been an increase in the demand for environmental products, environmental labels, green buildings along with environmental awareness and increased sensitivity. Consumers expect companies to produce sustainable products that do not harm the environment (Taşçıoğlu & Yener, 2017). In the face of increasing environmental awareness, businesses need to have social awareness and social responsibility in order to survive in this challenging, competitive environment (Varinli, 2000). Green purchasing behaviour is defined as "consumer behaviour developed to protect the environment, minimize pollution, develop responsibility for the use of non-renewable resources, and protect other living species" (Mostafa, 2007).

Today, the reasons such as environmental pollution, environmental destruction and the reduction of natural resources are problematic for the country. For example, the OECD indicates that about 28 thousand people die because of air pollution annually in Turkey (OECD, 2017). In order to prevent such problems, it is necessary to increase the demand of consumers for products that are sensitive to the environment, do not pollute the nature and consume natural resources, can be recycled or maintained. This research is aimed at demonstrating how product, price, placement, and promotion (marketing mix) affect the buying behavior of consumers while buying green products and it is important to guide the companies operating in marketing. Thus, by making their production in this direction, the enterprises will enable the consumers to tend to the green product.

In this study, it is aimed to reveal the effect of green marketing mix on the green purchasing behaviour of consumers.
1. Green Marketing

According to purchasing behaviour of consumers, 1960s are regarded as "awakening" stage, 1970s are regarded as "taking action" stage, 1980s are "producers and consumers taking responsibility together" stage and 1990s "having power in the market" stage (Makover, 1993, Kalafatis et al, 1999)

Although the concept of green marketing entered marketing literature in the late 1980s and early 1990s, it first emerged as the concept of "ecological marketing" by the American Marketing Association in 1975 (Polonsky, 1994). When the literature on green marketing is scanned it is seen that there are concepts of "Sustainable Marketing", "Ecological Marketing" and "Environmental Marketing" which are used in a similar way to the concept of green marketing. These concepts represent an environmentalist perspective in marketing (Dua, 2013). Green or environmental marketing is all kinds of environmental and nature friendly marketing activities to meet consumer demands and needs. Attention should be paid to minimize the harm to the natural environment while meeting these demands and requirements. Kotler deals with environmental marketing in a broader framework, under the concept of "social marketing" (Kotler, 1997). Green marketing refers to marketing activities that involve the production, pricing, distribution and promotion of nature-friendly products that will enable the business to achieve its goals while fulfilling the needs and desires of the consumers (Çabuk S., et al. 2008). Yücel and Ekmekçiler (2008) defined green marketing in the contemporary sense as green and environmental marketing, all kinds of environment and nature friendly activities to meet consumer demands and requirements. The perception of green marketing proposes the comprising of green quality starting from packaging of the product, through the use of product and until being a waste after consumption and for this purpose, it gives priority to informative signs and explanations in the process of product and service presentation (Düren, 2000; Onurlubaş, 2016).

Table 1: Differences between Traditional Marketing and Green Marketing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional Marketing</th>
<th>Green Marketing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Company and Customer</td>
<td>Counterparties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-Customer Satisfaction</td>
<td>Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-Operation Satisfaction</td>
<td>1-Customer Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economical Responsibility</td>
<td>Corporate Responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal Requirements</td>
<td>Ecological Demands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict or Passive Attitude</td>
<td>Green Pressure Groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Company, Customer and Environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-Operation Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social Responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-Reduction of environmental harm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Production for environment beyond legal requirements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Open Relationships and Cooperation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Chamorro and Banegil, 2006

Table 1 shows the differences between traditional marketing and green marketing. Unlike traditional marketing, environmental responsibility and social responsibility are considered as well as economic responsibility in green marketing.
When the definition of traditional marketing is re-interpreted with an environmentalist approach; green marketing should be created in such a way that it will harm the natural environment at the least level in order to demonstrate the willingness to satisfy the needs and desires of the society and to apply easily (Hacıoğlu & Girgin, 2008).

2. Green Consumer

The green consumer searches for and evaluates the environmental impact of applications used in every phase of production such as raw material selection, production, and consumption of the product (Karaca, 2013). In the utilitarian consumption theory, shopping is an obligation or an activity that takes place within necessity for the consumers. For this kind of consumer, the need arises and the consumer buys the most appropriate goods or services for his or her own budget by making a comparison of the brand and the firm (Doğan et al., 2014). In the past, while consumers were only interested in purchasing and consuming, conscious green consumers emerged who are now also interested in the details of the production process that consumes scarce resources. The increase in the number of green consumers has created a large market for businesses. Green consumers constitute a difficult target group for marketing managers to persuade (Emgin & Türk, 2004).

The green consumer tends to avoid products with the following characteristics (Keleş, 2007):
- Threatening the health of human health and other living things,
- Damaging the environment during the production, use and removal,
- Causing unnecessarily large amounts of consumption of resources,
- Causing unnecessary waste because of too many packaging and excessive features,
- Using materials found in hazardous areas,
- Leading to torture of animals,
- Having an effect against other countries.

3. Green Marketing Mix

3.1. Green Product

Green or environmentally friendly products are products that do not pollute nature, do not consume natural resources, can be recycled and protected (Turhan et al. 2015).

The green product is expected to carry the following characteristics (Moisander, 2007):
- It should not be dangerous to human or animal health,
- It does not damage the environment during the manufacturing, use or disposal processes,
- It does not consume excessive amounts of energy and other resources during manufacture, use or disposal,
- It should not cause unnecessary waste because of excessive packaging or short life span.

In order to be successful in environmental product development strategies, three principles can be taken into consideration (Erbaşlar, 2012):

1. In order to environmentalize the product, it is necessary to adopt a direct and serious approach and to evaluate to the environmental impact of the product throughout the life.
2. To adopt an approach that is maximizing recycling, minimizing waste of resource and amount of waste by focusing on production process and technology from a long-term perspective

3. To be in continuous cooperation with the consumers, to produce high quality, always accessible and safe products.

3.2. Green Price

One of the most important criteria for determining the product price is manufacturing cost of this product. Any savings that can be made at the cost of the product are directly reflected to the product price. From an environmental point of view, considering the eco-efficiency as a production strategy helps to save manufacturing costs or to provide new income sources for the enterprises (Öztürk & Yılmaz, 2016). On the other hand, investments that are made to develop green products may cause additional cost to the product, accordingly an increase at the product price.

It should be possible to tell people that the cost of living and living well is a cost and that the contribution they will make by buying these environmental products will save them from irreversible vital consequences in the future. If this can be achieved, the cost of environmental investments can be included in the price. For example, green cars that save fuel can be demanded although they are more expensive. Because consumers will decide by considering the cost of fuel they can save during the period of use (Erbaşlar, 2012).

In order for green pricing to be successful, the following points have to be taken into consideration (Uydacı, 2002):

1. Quality: The product should be high quality so as to satisfy the consumers.
2. Credibility: The consumer should be persuaded about the green character and environmental benefits of the product.
3. Simplicity: Green products should be simple and easy to understand for users.
4. Marketability: Markets should be divided into zones and appropriate marketing strategies should be developed.
5. Specificity: Renewable resources and developed technologies should clearly be explained to the consumer.
6. Visibility: Products, projects, etc. should be in front of the consumer.
7. Concreteness: In addition to the total benefit of the products, the benefit for the consumer as an individual must also be specified in concrete terms.
8. Society: Society should be supported by being informed about green products.
9. Strategy: Institutions should produce products that are compatible with their strategies and introduce their products with their places within the strategies.

3.3. Green Place (Distribution)

An important part of the distribution process for green products is that who has sold products to the final consumer among the retailers. Retailers often share responsibility for the producers of green products, and for this reason they aim to fulfil consumers’ demands. "Quality and performance", "appearance and texture" affect customer satisfaction in storage. A problem for retailers is the high prices of green products. A common trend is the opening of green retail stores to stock green products (Lampe & Gazda, 1995).

Distribution is one of the key activities that the company aims to minimize the environmental costs. Firms are looking for ways to reduce raw materials by modifying
packaging to reduce distribution costs directly or indirectly. Businesses spend about 5-10% of the total revenues for logistics activities (Yener, 2014). Entrepreneurship, such as the integrated transport system and the Internet, reduces the impact of the distribution function on the environment as it requires less transport activity. However, the most complex advances in distribution have been in the field of "reverse logistics" where firms collect packages and used products from consumers through back channel. The first phase of this innovation was partly started in the early 1990s with the new regulations applied by Germany, which was obligatory for companies to recycle their wastes, and the second phase was a step further and the companies started to take back unwanted products. In fact, reverse logistics is not a very costly activity for the logistics company; it provides the flow of the products from the consumers as well as the input flow for the production and also allows the company to convert the returned products to the money. The Xerox Company reprocesses copiers and parts of these machines to repair other machines. In addition, it is a matter of considerable importance that the reproduction is tens of millions of dollars. For this reason, it would be more logical to regard reverse logistics as an opportunity which generates additional revenue rather than a costly activity (Polonsky & Rosenberger III, 2001).

It is also possible to give a different example of the green distribution strategy. In the past, milk was distributed in glass bottles that can be reused and replaced with empty ones, nowadays it is presented in plastic or cardboard boxes. The reason for this is that the cost of carrying heavy products is high. Especially beverage-producing enterprises, because of these costs, prefer plastic bottles instead of recyclable bottle (Mason, 2004).

3.4. Green Promotion

The promotion activities need to be carried out by taking the environmental activities of the enterprises into account. When selecting the appropriate promotion strategy, the entire environment in which the business is involved should be considered. The promotional activity which is mutually carried out with the environment must contain genuine information on the product or service. The features which do not reflect the product’s characteristics, or in other words which show non-environmental characteristics as environmentally-friendly, can lead to negative results of promotional activities (Tayfun & Öçlü, 2016).

The fact that claims about products are convincing, that they are far from being exaggerated, that their promotional activities are used to improve the level of consumer knowledge, that the product is offered by third parties and that eco-certification is important should be the most important features in green promotion activities. In addition, word-of-mouth spread and internet use are also important contributions (Tirkeş, 2008).

Environmental advertising should be understandable, supportive, detailed, but without exaggeration, useful but true information. Announcing that a product is better for the environment leads the consumer to seek a benefit for that product. If the product damages the environment less than its counterparts, it will be perceived as a benefit by the consumer. If the benefits of the product to the environment are minimal, the consumer may not choose this product. For this reason, advertisers should emphasize realistic, consistent and concrete benefits of environmentally friendly products. Because the vast majority of consumers respond positively to environmental advertisements that
contain detailed information and believe that they are really beneficial for the environment (Marangoz, 2003).

4. METHODOLOGY
4.1. The Method, Scope and Constraints of the Research, the Sample of the Research

In the study, field research was conducted and face to face survey technique was used to obtain the data. The study was limited to people who bought green products in Ankara. The most important limitation of the research is the lack of time and financial resources and the implementation of this project is only in the center of Ankara. Population in Ankara Province was taken from TÜİK data and sample volume was determined. According to TÜİK data, the population of Ankara is 5,445,026 in 2017 (TÜİK, 2017). The sample size has been determined with the help of the equation below (Baş, 2008);

$$n = \frac{N \ast t^2 \ast p \ast q}{d^2 \ast (N - 1) + t^2 \ast p \ast q}$$

n; Number of the individuals that are to take part in the sample, N; 5,445,026, p; Probability of occurrence (0,50), q; Probability of non-occurrence (0,50), t; Standard normal distribution value (1,96), d; Sampling error (0,05)

The sample size that are to be surveyed was determined within 95% confidence limits and 0,05% error margin. As the result of the calculation, the sample size was determined as 384. As data collection method, convenience sampling method was used.

4.2. Aim and Research Model

In this study, it is aimed to reveal the effect of green marketing mix on the green purchasing behaviour of consumers as seen in the research model. The study is important in that it acts as a guide for many sectors and leads them to form their marketing strategies by setting marketing mix effect of businesses on purchasing behaviour of the consumers.

Within this scope, the following research model has been developed;

Based on the research model hypothesis are as follows;

**H1:** The green product has a positive effect on the green purchasing behaviour.

**H2:** The green price has a positive effect on the green purchasing behaviour.

**H3:** The green place (distribution) has a positive effect on the green purchasing behaviour.

**H4:** The green promotion has a positive effect on the green purchasing behaviour.
4.3. The Survey Form, Scale and Data Analysis

In this research, face to face survey method, which is one of the data collection methods, was used. The surveys were applied to consumers who bought green products in Ankara in September 2017. Research data analysis was performed by using the SPSS 22 package program. While preparing the questionnaire, studies of Abzari et al., (2013), Paço et al (2013), Viani Parlan et al (2016), Yıldız and Barut (2016) were used. While preparing the survey questions, the foreign resources have been used by being translated into Turkish. 5-point Likert scale has been used for the scale of green marketing mix within this scope, the scoring ranges from “Strongly Disagree=1”, “Disagree=2” “Undecided=3”, “Agree=4” and “Strongly Agree=5”.

In this context, in the first part of the survey demographic questions were asked, and in the second part questions about measuring the effect of green marketing mix on green product purchasing were asked. (There are 21 statements about the scale of green marketing mix and 7 statements about the scale of purchasing behaviour). Later, reliability analysis performed before factor analysis. Reliability analysis was applied to green marketing mix and green product purchasing scales. Cronbach's Alpha value for all the Scale of green product mix which consists of 21 items was found as 0,959. This means that the scale is highly reliable. Cronbach's Alpha value was found to be 0,907 for all the scale of Green Purchasing consisting of 7 items. This means that the scale is highly reliable.

Prior to the factor analysis of the data, a normality test was conducted to determine whether the test results obtained show normal distributions. In the normality test, kurtosis and skewness values of data sets were examined. The skewness and kurtosis measurement of sets with values between +2 and -2 values can be regarded as having a normal distribution (George & Mallery, 2010). Therefore, it can be said that all tests have normal distribution. Thus, the use of parametric tests in the analyses was considered appropriate. Before testing research hypotheses, the relationship between GMM and green purchasing was calculated by the Pearson correlation coefficient. It was determined that there was a significant, positive and high level of correlation between GMM and green purchasing. Subsequently, a multiple regression analysis which shows the effect of green marketing mix on the behaviour of green purchasing was conducted.

RESEARCH AND FINDINGS

Table 2: Demographics of the Consumers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>(f)</th>
<th>(%)</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>(f)</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>52,9</td>
<td>18-23</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>12,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>47,1</td>
<td>24-29</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>12,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>30-35</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>12,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Status</td>
<td>(f)</td>
<td>(%)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(f)</td>
<td>(%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school graduate</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>15,4</td>
<td>42-47</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>12,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school graduate</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>27,6</td>
<td>48-53</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>13,8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In table 2, it is seen that 52.9% of the respondents in the survey are women, and 47.1% are men. 12.2% of the respondents who participated in the survey are aged between 18-23, 12.8% are aged between 24-29, 12.8% are aged between 30-35, 11.7% are aged between 36-41, 12.2% are aged between 42-47, 13.8% are aged between 48-53, 13.3% are aged between 54-59, 11.2% are aged 60 and over. Respondents stated that 47.4% are married, 44.5% are single, and 8.1% are divorced.

According to the results of education data, 15.4% of the respondents are primary school graduate, 27.6% are secondary school graduate, 10.9% have associate degree, 29.9% have bachelor's degree, 13.3% have master's degree and 2.9% have doctorate degree.

When the monthly average household income of the families is examined, it is seen that 8.1% have an income of 1000 TL and below, 8.9% have 1001-2500 TL, 15.1% have 2501-3000 TL, 19.5% have 3001-3500 TL, 13.0% have 3501-4000 TL, 16.1% have 4001-4500 TL, 8.9% have 4501-5000 TL and 12.5% have 5001TL and above. When the occupations of the respondents are examined, it is found that 32.3% of them are civil servants, 26.3% are private sector employees, 3.4% are housewives, 6.8% are labourers, 3.6% are self-employed, 17.7% are students, 2.3% are businessmen (merchants and industrialists).

In the literature, if the skewness and kurtosis values are within the range of +2.0 and -2.0, the data have normal distribution (George & Mallery, 2010). In the study conducted, it is seen that the distribution of the data is normal or close to normal. The scale of green marketing mix is seen that the distribution of the data is normal or close. Skewness=-.554, Kurtosis=-.423.
According to Özdamar (1999), if the Cronbach's alpha reliability value is between 0.80 and 0.90, it is quite reliable, and if it is between 0.90-1.00 it is highly reliable. As a result of the reliability analysis performed before the factor analysis, Cronbach's Alpha value for all the Scale of green product mix which consists of 21 items was found as 0.959. This means that the scale is highly reliable. Later, factor analysis was applied to the data of the scale of consumers’ green marketing mix used in the research. Prior to this, it was tested by KMO and Barlett's test whether the data set is suitable for factor analysis. The result of the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) test was found to be 0.963 (Table 3). This value indicates that the data set is suitable for factor analysis. As the Barlett's test p-value is 0.000, or in other words p<0.05, it has been determined that the variables have a sufficient level of correlation to perform factor analysis.

**Table 3: KMO and Bartlett Results of the Scale of Consumers’ Green Marketing Mix**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>Variance Explained (%)</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>Green product is the product which is not dangerous for human or animal health</td>
<td>.781</td>
<td>20,749</td>
<td>.924</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The conditions of the factory where the green product is produced does not harm the environment</td>
<td>.751</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The green product does not consume excessive amounts of energy and other resources</td>
<td>.618</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No hazardous materials are used to damage the environment when producing green products</td>
<td>.615</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The green product does not cause unnecessary waste because of excessive packaging or short life span</td>
<td>.553</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Four sub-dimensions emerged as a result of the factor analysis of the scale data of consumers' green marketing mix. Factor 1 is green product, factor 2 is green price, factor 3 is green place (distribution) and factor 4 is green promotion. Four factors that explain 73,264% of the total variance were obtained as a result of factor analysis. The first factor explains 20,749% of total variance, the second factor explains 20,501%, the third factor explains 19,411% and the fourth factor explains 12,602% of total variance.

**Table 4: The Scale of Green Marketing Mix**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>The green product is the product which does not pollute the world and does not finish the natural resources</th>
<th>.500</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The lower price of a green product will encourage consumers to buy an environmentally friendly product</td>
<td>.770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>When the price of green product is higher, importance should be placed on the promotion of differentiated green product</td>
<td>.740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>When the price of green products is high, I would like to know to what extent the product does not harm the environment</td>
<td>.703</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The cost of distribution of green products can be reduced to make prices more affordable</td>
<td>.698</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>If I believe that the green product does not harm the environment, I will consume whatever the price is</td>
<td>.596</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3</td>
<td>Green product distribution should be done with less fuel consumption</td>
<td>.810</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Entrepreneurships such as the integrated transport system and the Internet, damages the environment less as it requires less transport activity</td>
<td>.738</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provided that it does not damage the environment, distribution channels should be wide in green products and the products should be transported easily</td>
<td>.670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vehicles which are energy-efficient and use sustainable resources must be used in green distribution</td>
<td>.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Carbon emissions that damage the environment must be reduced by optimizing distribution and transportation in green product distribution</td>
<td>.551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Environmental awareness in distribution processes must be prioritised</td>
<td>.528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 4</td>
<td>In green product promotion activities, the message should be transmitted to the consumers in an understandable way</td>
<td>.830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In green product advertisements, messages about nature-friendliness</td>
<td>.608</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
and environmental sensitivity of the product and the company, should be clearly expressed

Emphasis should be placed on green product advertisements and the public relations

,544

Factor load value’s being equal or greater than 0,45 is a good measure for the selection (Büyüköztürk, 2011). Since the factor analysis loads are greater than 0,45 in the current scale, they are acceptable values. Therefore, none of the 21 statements that took place in the scale was omitted. It has been determined that factor 1 is composed of 7 items and factor load values of the items under this dimension are changed between 0,500 and 0,781; Factor 2 is composed of 5 items and factor load values of the items are between 0,596 and 0,770; Factor 3 is composed of 6 items and factor load values of the items are between 0,528 and 0,810, Factor 4 is composed of 3 items and factor load values of the items are between 0,544 and 0,830 (table 4).

The Scale of Green Purchasing is seen that the distribution of the data is normal or close. Skewness=-.443, Kurtosis=-.214

As a result of the reliability analysis performed before factor analysis, Cronbach’s Alpha value was found to be 0,907 for all the scale of Green Purchasing consisting of 7 items. This means that the scale is highly reliable.

Table 5: KMO and Bartlett Results of the Scale of Consumers’ Green Product Purchasing

| Kasiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) | 0,873 |
| Bartlett Sphericity Test | χ² (Chi-Square) | 1693,214 |
| df (Degrees of Freedom) | 21 |
| p (Possibility) | 0,000* |

In table 5, Factor analysis was applied to the data of the consumers’ green purchasing scale used in the research. The result of the KMO test is 0.873 and the result of Bartlett's test is p = 0,000, p<0.05. According to these values, factor analysis can be conducted to the variables.

Table 6: The Scale of Green Purchasing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>Variance Explained (%)</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I buy products whose packaging are solubilized in nature</td>
<td>.814</td>
<td>65,500</td>
<td>.907</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I buy products whose packaging can be recycled</td>
<td>.816</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>From two similar products, I buy unattractively packaged one if the paper and plastic used in the package of it can be recycled</td>
<td>.801</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I do not buy spray products</td>
<td>.792</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I buy as much reusable products as</td>
<td>.822</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Factor load value’s being equal or greater than 0.45 is a good measure for the selection (Büyüköztürk, 2011). Since the factor analysis loads are greater than 0.45 in the current scale, they are acceptable values. Therefore, none of the 7 statements that took place in the scale was omitted. Green purchasing scale is aggregated under one factor. It has been determined that Factor 1 composed of 7 items and the factor loadings of the items under this dimension change between 0.792 and 0.822. (In table 6).

Correlation Analysis and Regression Analysis

Table 7: Relations between Scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GMM (Green Marketing Mix)</th>
<th>GMM</th>
<th>Green Purchasing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>r= 1</td>
<td>r=.868**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p&lt; .01</td>
<td>p&lt; .01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green Purchasing</td>
<td>r=.868**</td>
<td>r= 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p&lt; .01</td>
<td>p&lt; .01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Before testing research hypotheses, the relationship between the GMM and the green purchasing was calculated by the Pearson correlation coefficient. A significant, positive and high correlation was found between the GMM and the green purchasing as in Table 7, in which all the sub-dimensions were evaluated together, as p<0.01 with the value of r=0.868.

Table 8: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Green Product</td>
<td>-.256</td>
<td>-.212</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.821**</td>
<td>.823**</td>
<td>.770**</td>
<td>.931**</td>
<td>.826**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Green Price</td>
<td>.116</td>
<td>.855</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.742**</td>
<td>.735**</td>
<td>.894**</td>
<td>.808**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Green Place</td>
<td>-.165</td>
<td>1.005</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.773**</td>
<td>.928**</td>
<td>.779**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Distribution)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Green Promotion</td>
<td>.086</td>
<td>.114</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.895**</td>
<td>.763**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. GMM</td>
<td>-.554</td>
<td>-.423</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.868**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Green Purchasing</td>
<td>-.443</td>
<td>-.214</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** p < .01; (2-tailed) (N = 384)**

When Table 8 is examined, it appears that there is a relationship between the green marketing mix sub-dimensions and green purchasing at different levels. Here, the highest correlation with green purchasing was found between the green product sub-dimension (0.826; p<0.01), while the lowest correlation was found between the green promotion dimension (0.763; p<0.05).
After correlational analysis and significant relationships between dependent and independent variables were determined, regression analysis was conducted to determine the effect and direction of these relationships. Before performing regression analysis, it is necessary to look at the skewness and kurtosis values in order to examine the normal distribution assumption of data (Hair et al., 1998). In the literature, if the skewness and kurtosis values are within the range of +2.0 and -2.0, the data have normal distribution (George & Mallery, 2010). In the study conducted (Table 8), it is seen that the distribution of the data is normal or close to normal. Before the regression analysis, the correlation values of the variables in the model were examined and it was seen that some of these correlation values obtained were more than 0.80. Since each correlation value should be less than 0.80 in order to avoid multicollinearity, VIF and tolerance values are looked at to determine whether there is a multicollinearity problem (Büyüköztürk, 2011). As can be seen from Table 9, the fact that the variance inflation factor (VIF) value is less than 5 and the tolerance value is higher than 0.20 indicates that there is no multicollinearity problem. Then, Durbin Watson (DW) statistical results were used to determine the autocorrelation among the variables. The closer the Durbin-Watson value is to 2, the more autocorrelation for the multicollinear regression model becomes doubtless (Field, 2013). It is understood that there is no autocorrelation as the D-W statistic is close to 2.

In models with more than one independent variable number, it is stated that $R^2$ value is not sufficient and it is more accurate to make a comment according to the adjusted $R^2$ value (Akgül & Çevik, 2005, 333). In the study, the $R^2$ value of the model was found to be 0.762 and the independent variables in the model explained about 76.2% of the total variance of the dependent variable and the adjusted $R^2$ value was 0.759 and it explained 75.9% of the total variance. When we look at the variables in terms of effect power on adjusted $R^2$ (Table 9), it is seen that among the independent variables, green price positively and significantly affects green purchasing ($\beta = 0.307; p<0.05$).

**Table 9: Multiple Regression Analysis Results Which Show the Effect of Green Marketing Mix on the Green Purchasing Behaviour of Consumers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Collinearity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>S.Error</td>
<td>$\beta$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.138</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td>4.028</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green Price</td>
<td>.249</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>.307*</td>
<td>6.678</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green Product</td>
<td>.243</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>.302*</td>
<td>5.573</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green Place (distribution)</td>
<td>.099</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>.165*</td>
<td>3.426</td>
<td>.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green Promotion</td>
<td>.139</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td>.178*</td>
<td>4.069</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>.762</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted $R^2$</td>
<td>.759</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$</td>
<td>302,705</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Durbin-Watson Stat.</td>
<td>1,798</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent Variable: Green Purchasing</td>
<td>*p&lt; .001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In other words; it is predicted that as the level of green purchasing activities increase, the green purchasing will also increase.

It was determined that the GMM; green product (β = 0.302), green price (β = 0.307), green place (distribution) (β = 0.165) and the green promotion (β = 0.178) were positively related to green purchasing (p<0.001). As the sig. of the coefficients is * p<, 001, it is statistically significant. In addition, the fact that the significance value of F statistics is 0.000<0.05 means that the model parameter is statistically significant. The fact that the coefficients are positive reveals that the variables of green marketing mix have an effect on increasing green purchasing.

**CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION**

Rapidly advancing technological developments in the world lead to the destruction of the environment. Recently, the demand for environmental products has increased in direct proportion to the increase of environmental awareness. In this study, the effect of green marketing mix on green purchasing behaviour was researched. At the same time, four sub-dimensions emerged as a result of conducting exploratory factor analysis to the consumers' green marketing mix. These dimensions are green product, green price, green place (distribution), green promotion. The green purchasing scale, on the other hand, is composed of one factor as the result of the exploratory factor analysis.

Then, the relationship between GMM and green purchasing was calculated by Pearson correlation coefficient and it was determined that there was a significant, positive and high correlation between them.

It has been determined that relationships between the sub-dimensions of green marketing mix and green purchasing are at different levels. The highest correlation with green purchasing is found between the green product sub-dimension and the lowest correlation is found with the green promotion sub-dimension.

According to the research conducted, green marketing mix which are green product, green price, green place (distribution) and green promotion are determined to have a positive relationship with green purchasing. The fact that the coefficients are positive reveals that the variables of green marketing mix have an effect on increasing green purchasing. The results obtained are similar to the study results of Ranaei and Bouzanjani (2012), Boztepe (2012), Zanganeh et al. (2015), Nemati and Sajadi (2015), Yıldız and Barut (2016). As a result of his research, Boztepe (2012) found that green product price, green product characteristics and green promotion activities positively affected green purchasing. Yıldız and Barut (2016) found that green product and green price have a positive and significant effect on green product purchasing behaviour. Ranaei and Bouzanjani (2012) examined the impact of the green marketing mix on the green purchasing intent. According to the results of the structural equation analysis, whereas green price, green promotion and green place (distribution) has a positive effect, green product has an effect in nonsignificant and negative direction. Nemati and Sajadi (2015) examined the effect of green marketing mix on consumers' purchasing behaviour of sporting goods. As a result of structural equation model analysis, it was determined that price and distribution affects consumers' purchasing behaviour positively, while the effect of product and promotion was not determined. Grail research's (2009) study of the impact of green product and green price on green purchasing behaviour shows that green product price hinders green purchasing.

With the influence of developments in the industrial sectors, the competition
conditions of the enterprises have increased considerably. Businesses determine customers' demands and needs and are looking into how their services can be designed and offered. After determining the customer needs and demands, the businesses first set out a product, then price it according to market conditions, next deliver it to the consumer, and finally try to promote the product in the market. The increasing consumer awareness with globalization has increased the demand for environmentally friendly, non-polluting natural resources and recyclable products. Consumers want to conserve their natural resources and reduce the harm to the environment by consciously choosing what they will do. For this reason, enterprises should show efforts to design, promote, price and distribute products in a way that will not harm the environment while producing their products.

When reviewing the literature on green product purchasing behaviour, it is emphasized that green marketing mix have an important place in consumers' purchasing of environmentally friendly products. In this research, it has been determined that green product marketing mix of companies has a positive effect on green purchasing behaviour. For this reason, it is necessary for the sectors operating in this field to form marketing strategies with an emphasis on green marketing mix and to increase the consumers' green purchasing behaviour.

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Chapter 60

Assessment of Financial Performance of Agricultural and Livestock Companies Traded at BIST using the Topsis Method

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INTRODUCTION

The agriculture and livestock sector is considered the locomotive sector of countries from past to present. This sector always maintains its importance regarding food production, input to other sectors, and foreign trade. Countries aim to be self-sufficient to provide food security irrespective of their development level (Doğan, 2009:367).

Agricultural is an important sectoring Turkey as well as the entire World. The agricultural industry maintains its presence in the economy due to as it provides employment, promotes exports, and has input in the industrial sector (Miran, 2005:9). However, economic data indicates that the agriculture sector in Turkey, as an agricultural country, has gradually reduced. Moreover, the share of agriculture in GDP, which is a main indicator of the economic status, continues to decrease.

![Figure 1: Share of Agricultural Sektor in GDP (%)](Source: TUIK, Temel İstatistikler, 2018)
As seen in Figure 1, a 40% share in agriculture, in 1968, decreased to 30% in the 1970s. The share of agriculture in GDP has fallen below 10% since 2000, although it was between 10% and 20%, in the 1980s and 1990s. Despite the decrease in the share of the agricultural sector, the industrial sector share rose from 16% to 23%, while the share of the service sector increased from 40% to 54% (TUİK, 2018). The high rate of dry farming, fragmented agricultural lands, lack of effective production planning, lack of care for agricultural policy, increased imports in agricultural products and high input costs in agriculture lead to a decrease in agricultural production in Turkey (Narin, 2008:186-187). However, the decrease in the agricultural production in Turkey can also be attributed to the economic structure and the level of technology use, depending on the causes of nature and climate conditions (Günaydın, 2006:12).

The share of agriculture in the national income in Turkey decreased but remains the highest employment sectors. The proportion of people employed in agriculture has remained 20% in the last ten years

The agriculture sector is beginning to achieve the industrial sector in creating employment (Table 1). While the service sector is in the first place with 54.1%, the construction sector is the sector that creates the least employment with 7.4%. If the unregistered employment in agriculture is considered, this ratio would be higher. The high proportion of agriculture shows the necessity of state subsidies and incentives for this area, thus, implying a financial burden on the state budget (Doğan, 2009:383).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Economic Activity by Years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Years</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
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<td>2007</td>
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<td>2008</td>
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<td>2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** TUİK, Temel İstatistikler, 2018

Agricultural policies implemented in Turkey vary over time. Agricultural input subsidies, base price practices, and the market price supports constituted the main agricultural policies until 1980. However, in the process of transition to the free market economy after 1980, the scope of supportive and protective state policies towards agriculture have been narrowed (Yalçınkaya et al., 2006:103). This change can be attributed to the constraints of public financing and the process of harmonization with the EU Common Agricultural Policies, the obligations of the World Trade Organization Agricultural Agreements and the Structural Adjustment programs of the IMF and the
World Bank (Narin, 2008:190). Moreover, the basis of recent EU harmonization policies lies in the effort to establish more efficient and more regular profit and loss analysis agricultural enterprises. Although financial analyses in the agricultural enterprises of small family businesses in Turkey, are not given much weight (Source: TUIK, Basic Statistics, 2018), they are essential considering the business outcomes (Acar, 2003:23-24).

Thus, the present study aimed to analyze the financial performance of the companies between 2012 to 2016, operating in the agricultural and livestock sector, which is traded on the BIST, using the “Topsis” method. Moreover, the results of this study will help competitors, prosecutors, and shareholders in their decisions.

**LITERATURE**

Avcı and Kaya (2008) examined both the Turkish agricultural sector and the agricultural performance of countries called “transition economies” between 1992 and 2004 with data envelopment analysis and Malmquist productivity index. Many countries assessed in areas such as technical efficiency, technological development, and total factor productivity, showed a favorable increase. Although Turkey has remained the same, being average among countries regarding technical efficiency value, it is below average regarding technological value and total factor productivity.

Kaya and Aktan (2011) evaluated the productivity of the Turkish agriculture sector with ‘data envelopment analysis’ and calculated the agricultural total factor productivity using the ‘Malmquist productivity index.’ The study was based on 2000-2009 years. Although the average factor productivity of the agricultural sector was determined as a result of the increase, a decrease was found in the analysis of technical efficiency in the study.

Simonovska et al. (2012) analyzed 26 Macedonian agricultural companies’ financial performance using Gecking-Order and trade-off theory between 2006 and 2010. They examined the impact of earnings, capital and financial business structure on the financial performance of agricultural companies. Therefore, agricultural companies have adopted different strategies to increase profitability in the short run, and these companies prefer more assets than a loan in the long run.

Mackek and Spicka (2013) analyzed the productivity increase and expenses of firms in the Czech agricultural sector by partial factor productivity of inputs using accounting data between 2004 and 2011. Total factor productivity index and growth rates in Czech economy were compared in the analysis. The comparison showed that the productivity increase of agricultural enterprises is not proportional to economic growth.

Basovnikova (2014) analyzed the economic performance of the agricultural and livestock enterprises in the Czech Republic in the context of the Common Agricultural Policies implemented with the EU. They investigated the possible effects of the EU Agricultural Policy Reform, which is expected to be implemented in 2014-2020 based on 80 farms in the study. Their results indicate that the new form of subsidy after the reform might negatively affect the agricultural and livestock enterprises.

Fenyves et al. (2015) measured the financial performance of agricultural enterprises by introducing the data enveloping method between 2009-2012. In their study, traditional financial indicators were used in performance appraisal, and the results showed that the analyzed companies need to increase their productivity.
Koç et al. (2016) evaluated the performance analysis of agricultural and livestock companies in the BIST using the panel data method with seven ratios such as the activity period, cash turnover period, stock turnover rate, active growth, growth in net sales between 2010 and 2015. These ratios have a significant influence on the study. Apropos the variables, the assets are efficiently used in companies located in the agriculture and livestock sectors in Turkey to improve their performance.

Reiff et al. (2016) examined the differences in agricultural performance of EU countries using multiple criteria analysis tools between 2010 and 2013. Although the World Bank development indicators were used in the study, the Hellwing method was used in the country order, and the Ward method was preferred in the cluster analysis. The former and new member countries show significant performance inequality among the agricultural sectors, while the results of the applied methods are consistent.

Öziç et al. (2017) showed that the financial performance of businesses in the agricultural and livestock sector traded at the ICS was determined using G1 relational analysis. The liquidity, activity, profitability and financial structure ratios of the years 2015-2016 were used in the evaluation and the results were consistent with financial ratios.

TOPSIS METHOD

This method, developed by Hwang and Yoon, is based on the assumption that the alternative ideal positive solution to be selected should be in the shortest distance and the farthest distance from the negative ideal solution to solve the multi-criteria decision-making problems (Jadidi et al., 2008: 763). The method was later improved by Lai and Hwang (Zavadskas et al., 2006: 602).

The steps of the topsis method can be expressed in a series (Jahanshahloo et al., 2006: 1547):

1. Calculate the normalized decision matrix. The normalized value \( r_{ij} \) is calculated as
   \[
   r_{ij} = \frac{x_{ij}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{ij}^2}}, \quad i = 1,2,\ldots,m; \quad j = 1,2,\ldots,n.
   \]
2. Calculate the weighted normalized decision matrix. The weighted normalized value \( v_{ij} \) is calculated as
   \[
   v_{ij} = w_j \cdot r_{ij}, \quad i = 1,2,\ldots,m; \quad j = 1,2,\ldots,n
   \]
   where \( w_{ij} \) is the weight attached to criterion \( j \).
3. Determine the positive ideal and negative ideal solution
   \[
   A^* = \{(\max_i v_{ij} | j \in J), (\min_i v_{ij} | j \in J^c) | i = 1,2,\ldots,m\}
   \]
   \[
   A^- = \{(\min_i v_{ij} | j \in J), (\max_i v_{ij} | j \in J^c) | i = 1,2,\ldots,m\}
   \]
   where \( J \) and \( J^c \) are benefit and cost criteria respectively
4. Calculate the separation measures, using the n-dimensional Euclidean distance. The
separation of each alternative from the ideal solution is given as

\[ s_i^* = \left( \sum_{j=1}^{n} (v_{ij} - v_{ij}^*)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}, i = 1,2,\ldots,m \]

and

\[ s_i^- = \left( \sum_{j=1}^{n} (v_{ij} - v_{ij}^-)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}, i = 1,2,\ldots,m \]

(5) Calculate the relative closeness to the ideal solution. The relative closeness of the alternative \( A_i \) with respect to \( A^+ \) is defined as follows:

\[ c_i^* = \frac{s_i^-}{s_i^+ + s_i^-}, 0 < c_i^* < 1, i = 1,2,\ldots,m \]

(6) Rank the preference order. For ranking alternatives using this index, we can rank alternatives in decreasing order.

**APPLICATION OF TOPSIS METHOD**

The financial performance of companies operating in the stock exchange Istanbul (BIST) agriculture and livestock sector was evaluated between 2012-2016. The information used in the study was obtained from the annual financial statements published on the official website of the Public Disclosure Platform (KAP, 2018). Three companies operate in BIST, which can access financial data during the period of the study (Table 2).

**Table 2: Agriculture and Livestock Companies Operating in BIST**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Firms</th>
<th>Firms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>İz Hayvancılık Tarım Ve Gıda Sanayi Ticaret A.Ş</td>
<td>IZTAR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Taç Tarım Ürünleri Hayvancılık Gıda Sanayi Ve Ticaret A.Ş</td>
<td>TACTR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Yaprak Süt Ve Besi Çiftlikleri Gıda Sanayi Ve Ticaret A.Ş</td>
<td>YAPRK</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The liquidity ratios, activity ratios, profitability ratios and financial structure ratios of the enterprises in the study were used. The financial ratios used are a result of the literature review of the studies on financial performance analysis. Financial performance criteria are equally rated, and the effect of the criteria on the financial performance is weighted as ‘1’ and the criteria weights are evenly distributed. Financial performance indicators are shown in Table 3.
Table 3: Financial Performance Criteria, Codes, and Weights

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Financial Performance Indicators</th>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Weights</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Current Ratio</td>
<td>L1</td>
<td>0,091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quick Ratio</td>
<td>L2</td>
<td>0,091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inventory (Stock) Turnover Ratio</td>
<td>F1</td>
<td>0,091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equity Turnover Ratio</td>
<td>F2</td>
<td>0,091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asset Turnover Ratio</td>
<td>F3</td>
<td>0,091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Liabilities / Total Assets</td>
<td>M1</td>
<td>0,091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total equity / Total Liabilities</td>
<td>M2</td>
<td>0,091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Liabilities / Total Assets</td>
<td>M3</td>
<td>0,091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Profit- Loss / Net Sales</td>
<td>K1</td>
<td>0,091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Profit- Loss / Total Equity</td>
<td>K2</td>
<td>0,091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Profit- Loss / Total Assets</td>
<td>K3</td>
<td>0,091</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Evaluations for each company in the TOPSIS method were calculated using Microsoft Office Excel 2007 program and achieved in 6 steps as described below.

In the application of TOPSIS method, Decision Matrix was formed in the first steps. Table 4 shows the standardized decision matrix for the year 2016.

Table 4: Agriculture and Livestock Sector Standardized Decision Matrix (2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Firms</th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
<th>F1</th>
<th>F2</th>
<th>F3</th>
<th>M1</th>
<th>M2</th>
<th>M3</th>
<th>K1</th>
<th>K2</th>
<th>K3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IZTAR</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>8.51</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TACTR</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>5.07</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>-0.59</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YAPRK</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>5.55</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After standardized decision matrix is created, normalization of these values is calculated. Table 5 shows the normalized decision matrix for the year 2016.

Table 5: Normalized Decision Matrix (2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Firms</th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
<th>F1</th>
<th>F2</th>
<th>F3</th>
<th>M1</th>
<th>M2</th>
<th>M3</th>
<th>K1</th>
<th>K2</th>
<th>K3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IZTAR</td>
<td>0.437</td>
<td>0.446</td>
<td>0.750</td>
<td>0.712</td>
<td>0.695</td>
<td>0.630</td>
<td>0.556</td>
<td>0.540</td>
<td>-0.023</td>
<td>-0.044</td>
<td>-0.057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TACTR</td>
<td>0.266</td>
<td>0.275</td>
<td>0.446</td>
<td>0.368</td>
<td>0.263</td>
<td>0.672</td>
<td>0.308</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td>-0.988</td>
<td>-0.969</td>
<td>-0.930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YAPRK</td>
<td>0.859</td>
<td>0.852</td>
<td>0.489</td>
<td>0.598</td>
<td>0.669</td>
<td>0.389</td>
<td>0.772</td>
<td>0.446</td>
<td>0.152</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td>0.363</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In step 2, all w_ij were multiplied by the values in the columns of the decision matrix normalized to be 0.091. Then, weighted normalized matrix is obtained. Table 6 shows the weighted normalized matrix and positive ideal solution (PIS) and negative ideal solution (NIS) for the year 2016.
Table 6: Weighted Normalized Matrix and Positive Ideal Solution (PIS) and Negative Ideal Solution (NIS) (2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Firms</th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
<th>F1</th>
<th>F2</th>
<th>F3</th>
<th>M1</th>
<th>M2</th>
<th>M3</th>
<th>K1</th>
<th>K2</th>
<th>K3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IZTAR</td>
<td>0.0398</td>
<td>0.0406</td>
<td>0.0682</td>
<td>0.0648</td>
<td>0.0633</td>
<td>0.0574</td>
<td>0.0506</td>
<td>0.0492</td>
<td>-0.0021</td>
<td>-0.0040</td>
<td>-0.0052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TACTR</td>
<td>0.0242</td>
<td>0.0250</td>
<td>0.0406</td>
<td>0.0335</td>
<td>0.0239</td>
<td>0.0611</td>
<td>0.0280</td>
<td>0.0649</td>
<td>-0.0899</td>
<td>-0.0882</td>
<td>-0.0846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YAPRK</td>
<td>0.0782</td>
<td>0.0775</td>
<td>0.0445</td>
<td>0.0544</td>
<td>0.0609</td>
<td>0.0354</td>
<td>0.0702</td>
<td>0.0406</td>
<td>0.0138</td>
<td>0.0219</td>
<td>0.0330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A*</td>
<td>0.0782</td>
<td>0.0775</td>
<td>0.0445</td>
<td>0.0648</td>
<td>0.0633</td>
<td>0.0611</td>
<td>0.0702</td>
<td>0.0406</td>
<td>0.0138</td>
<td>0.0219</td>
<td>0.0330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-</td>
<td>0.0242</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.0406</td>
<td>0.0335</td>
<td>0.0239</td>
<td>0.0354</td>
<td>0.0280</td>
<td>0.0406</td>
<td>-0.0899</td>
<td>-0.0882</td>
<td>-0.0846</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The largest value in each column of the weighted normalized decision matrix for the ideal (A*) set is chosen as the lowest value in each column of the weighted normalized decision matrix for the negative ideal (A-) set. Then, the distance of each alternative from PIS(S*) and NIS(S-) can be shown as follows:

\[ S^* = (0,07664; 0,21789; 0,04393) \]
\[ S^- = (0,16542; 0,04334; 0,22193) \]

Table 7 shows the final ranking of agriculture and livestock sector. Depends on the scores, the ranking of the agriculture and livestock sector regarding financial performance from top to bottom are YAPRK, IZTAR, TACTR

Table 7: Rankings of Firms and Performance Scores of Firms (2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Firms</th>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YAPRK</td>
<td>0,83475</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IZTAR</td>
<td>0,68337</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TACTR</td>
<td>0,16591</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The same steps are made for the year 2012-2015. Table 8 shows the performance scores between the periods of 2012-2016.

Table 8: Rankings of Firms and Performance Scores of Firms between the periods of 2012-2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scores</td>
<td>Scores</td>
<td>Scores</td>
<td>Scores</td>
<td>Scores</td>
<td>Scores</td>
<td>Scores</td>
<td>Scores</td>
<td>Scores</td>
<td>Scores</td>
<td>Scores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YAPRK</td>
<td>0,835</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0,819</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0,768</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0,670</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,595</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IZTAR</td>
<td>0,683</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,317</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,403</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,712</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0,633</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TACTR</td>
<td>0,166</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0,149</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0,228</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0,288</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0,254</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was observed that YAPRK company exhibited the best performance in the last three years when the performance values of the companies were examined between 2012 and 2016 (Table 8). Although IZTAR company displayed the best performance in 2012 and 2013, the financial performance of the company has declined in the last three years. The TACTR company ranks third in performance ranking conducted in the past years.

CONCLUSION

Agriculture, the oldest occupation of humanity, is a vital sector with ever increasing importance and strategic dimensions. Therefore, measuring the productivity of this industry is imperative. Thus, the present study analyzed the performance of
companies operating in agriculture and livestock sectors in BIST between 2012-2016. The data obtained from the financial statements of companies were analyzed with the ratios used to measure the financial performance in general with the TOPSIS method, which is a multi-criteria decision-making method in the analysis and the results obtained are evaluated over the years.

The results showed that the YAPRK company had the best performance and TACTR performed the worst based on a 5-years performance study of the companies. A comparison of the study results with those of Öziç et al. (2017) for the same sector for 2015-2016 by Gri relational analysis method indicated that YAPRK showed the best financial performance. However, the performance results for 2015 differ for other companies. Thus, different research techniques and ratios used in the studies may have different consequences.

Therefore, the evaluation of the efficiency of the companies analyzed will help the investors, shareholders, competitors, and buyers to make decisions regarding the sector. Moreover, the study can be improved using different inputs and methods, and the results of the analysis can be used as a benchmark for companies and other sectors.

REFERENCES


Chapter 61

Applications of Data Mining in E-Commerce

Melih ENGİN
Dr.; Bursa Uludag University, Inegol Faculty of Management, Bursa-Turkey

1. INTRODUCTION

Organizations and institutions in the digital economy need to follow rapidly advancing technologies and evaluate how these developments will affect business processes. They have to predict future changes in order to speed up business processes with digitalization and to stand out from their competitors in this respect. E-commerce applications and solutions have become widespread thanks to the acceleration of data transfer on the Internet and the development of fast data processing technologies. In the digitalizing world, the relationship of businesses with each other and with customers also changes. Today e-commerce also has applications that are not only operated from business to consumer (B2C) but also from consumer to consumer (C2C). There are many tools and methods for businesses that want to take part in this digital world. Now that many transactions can be done on the internet, many data belonging to the businesses and the customers are saved thanks to the internet. This data is a great opportunity for businesses to get to know their customers, reach out to them, anticipate their needs and provide quality service. Businesses seeking to capitalize on this, need to make use of data mining techniques that are developed to process and transform this type of data of different types and over-sized volume. In order to be able to benefit from these tools and methods and integrate them into business processes, businesses need to make some transformations in their resources and operations.

Today, societies have increased their ownership of technological devices, internet access rate and internet access speed. Now much more data is circulating on the internet, and with the increase of the capacities of data storage media, this big data can be stored. For example, when we shop at a store, the information about our general personal (age, sex, province, etc.), what product we bought when, and what product we chose together with this product is recorded. The data are usually stored in relational databases and these data need to be analyzed by conscious experts in order to be able to make meaningful deductions from many sources. The large number of data makes it difficult to perform general statistical analysis on this data.

For this, some special analysis algorithms have been developed and different solutions are sought with the name Knowledge Discovery in Databases (Frawley, PIATETSKY-SHAPIRO, & Matheus, 1992).

2. Data Warehouse

The information discovery process in databases encompasses the creation of a data warehouse and the stages of fulfilling data mining operations based on this information (Mitra & Acharya, 2003) Data Warehouses are the structures where data required for data mining applications are hosted. The data warehouse first introduced by William H. Inmon in 1991 is defined as collecting data obtained from various sources by using the
time variant in order to support the management's decisions. In other words, data taken and united from multiple databases is stored in data warehouses. The nature of data warehouses is that they can provide different levels of detail for users. While the lowest level of detail relates to the archived records itself, higher levels relate to the collection of more information such as time. Data warehouses require significant investment and take a year or more to implement (Mackinnon & Glick, 1999). Thus, data warehouses are places where the data which will be used in the data mining is stored. Data warehouses are created for read-only purposes and the data in the data warehouse is stored in a format that facilitates analysis.

3. Data mining

The discovery of information is the acquisition of information from data which is not known beforehand and important in principle. Looking at Figure 1, it is seen that one of the most important steps in the KDD process is Data Mining. Data mining can be defined as a new discipline that interacts with statistics, database technology, pattern recognition, machine learning and secondary analysis of unpredictable relationships in large databases (Hand, 1998). In another definition, data mining is defined as the ability to ensure that key predictor variables are isolated from thousands of potential variables (Kitler & Wang, 1998).

Figure 1: Steps of KDD (Fayyad, Piatetsky-Shapiro, & Smyth, 1996)

Models used in data mining are examined under two main headings as Predictive and Descriptive (Akpinar, 2000). In predictive models, it is aimed to develop a model by moving the results from known data and to use this established model to estimate the result values for data clusters whose results are unknown.

In descriptive models, it is possible to identify patterns in existing data that can be used to guide decision making. An example of descriptive models is the determination of the likelihood that families with X / Y income with two or more cars and children have a similar purchasing pattern with families with no child and whose income is lower than the X / Y range.
Referring to Figure 2, all data available in the predictive and descriptive models can be transferred. Otherwise, only one part of the data can be used to train the model to generate the Predictive Models, the other part can be tested with this data to verify the model and finally to estimate the model error rates.

As shown in Figure 2, in order to develop a data mining model, the problem must first be identified. This step is a kind of research question for us. We need to know what we are looking for to meet what we need. As an example, a problem such as "What are the features of my customers who delay paying installments?" is what we are investigating. Once we have identified our problem, we need to be able to determine which data we need to solve this problem. With this second phase, the data to be used in the data mining is obtained from the identified sources. The missing data are extracted from the obtained data and the data warehouse needed for solving this problem is prepared. The next stage is the discovery phase of knowledge. This is the phase in which we have reached the findings of the data relating to each other and the findings that reveal the power of these relations. At this stage the available data are described by basic statistical methods. Findings obtained at this stage need to be interpreted with caution. With this phase in which the data are discovered and analyzed, we form and summarize the data. After this step our data will be available for further analysis techniques. We first divide the formatted data to create a model. While some of the data is used to construct the model, the other part is used to test and measure the success of
this model. The first part we set up to build the model is training data; the second part we reserve for testing this model is called test data. Generally, 80% of the data is reserved for the training data so that a good model and test measurement can be made and the rest is reserved for the test data. If a statistically significant result is obtained for the model whose validity has been tested, the model is created. Obtained model can be integrated into different automation programs or used for reporting.

4. Web 3.0 and its effects on E-commerce

With the progress of technology and the widespread adoption of the infrastructure, Internet access has increased in households, businesses and mobile devices. The new internet where static pages are one-way exchange of images and texts for informative purposes only, interactive web applications (blog, wiki, social media, internet banking, etc.) where users can send information later is called Web 2.0 (Tripathi & Kumar, 2010). O'Reilly, who introduced the concept of Web 2.0, insistently refrained from introducing a definition to the concept (O'Reilly, 2005). Similarly, Conole and Alevizou content themselves to note that there is no single definition of the concept, and that there is a common belief that web 2.0 performs many functions in the context of computer-based communication and digital media networks (Conole & Alevizou, 2010). Web 2.0 which has user-centric, interactive web applications and services is applications where users can share media and information, produce content (Wilson, Lin, Longstreet, & Sarker, 2011). With Web 2.0, virtual communication platforms between businesses and customers have increased rapidly and it has been instrumental in revitalizing e-commerce. Applications such as social media marketing, search engine optimization (SEO), online shopping, mobile shopping, virtual stores, virtual POS are the reflection of Web 2.0 which brings businesses and customers together on the internet. Thanks to these applications, the basic functions of the e-commerce enterprises have also been digitized and the business processes have changed accordingly. Firms that can adapt to these changes have taken place in this global marketplace and have been able to provide more services to customers.

The Web 3.0 era will be a period in which content is produced specifically for the user by the software itself, in which contents are also analyzed and evaluated accordingly. The work in which Web 3.0 also known as Semantic Web is explained in the context of interviews with various experts has been put into practice by Kate Ray, who studied journalism at New York University. From the perspective of e-commerce, Web 3.0's goal is to take advantage of a wide range of social network. With new and improved ways of interpreting the habits of Internet users, it is possible to learn the interests of the client's interests (inside and outside of their current behavior) and provide them with a very personalized e-commerce shopping experience. Unlike today's targeted advertising, for example, one can detect that a user is making an internet search for a wedding dress, which results in the advertisement after the advertisement of the non-specific wedding dresses.

Especially with the recent development of the internet, semantic web applications used in the context of Web 3.0, Web-based services and applications of web users with more knowledge are emerging to enable them to easily find the information they need and to share information efficiently.

The understanding of businesses connecting customers to them online, getting closer to customers, and enabling customers to reach their customers from their own
sites has increased Web 3.0 applications. At the heart of many innovative applications presented by Web 3.0 are the processing of large data and data mining techniques.

5. Prominent Data Mining Applications in E-Commerce

The purpose of data mining is to derive qualitative models that can be easily transformed into business models, logical rules, or visual presentations. Data mining techniques in e-commerce have the potential to provide businesses competitive advantage in optimizing the use of information, and these potential applications include:

Consumer Profiling and Personalization

The term consumer profiling is expressed as the identification of different consumer groups in order to focus marketing activities on consumer segments. The work in this area is more dependent on factors such as shopping motivation, shopping value and consumer decision-making styles (Jamal, Davies, Chudry, & Al-Marri, 2006). A customer profile is a factor that helps the marketer decide the right strategies and tactics to meet the needs of this customer. In this sense, widespread applications of data mining include cross-selling opportunities and market-basket analysis, which has developed an association rule to determine the similarities of products. This practice is also known as a customer-focused strategy in e-commerce. Classifying customers who are potentially buying from visits data can help companies reduce their selling costs. Personalization is to provide content and services for individuals based on their needs and behaviors. These systems can be divided into three groups: content based, social data mining and joint filtering. Data generated by individuals as part of daily activities is an important source of information for companies. Most e-retailers create different versions of their catalogs and promotional campaigns based on the behavior and preferences of different customer groups and send targeted emails.

Sensitivity Analysis

Sensitivity analysis is the examination of the effects of changes on the input factors on any decision process on the final decision to be taken (Beenhakker, 1976). Data mining techniques are now being used to understand the attitudes, ideas and emotions of the customer. In order to help customers meet the right product or service, advertisers use data mining practices while analyzing the data that they get from customers according to their sensitivities. Recently, especially e-commerce firms which sell content producers and content and products have often resorted to sensitivity analysis. In this context, in general, with sensitivity analysis, opinion form, emotion, subjectivity, evaluations, attitudes, appraisal, effects, analysis of sentiment expressed in the form of text is performed and helps to determine the cause of success or failure of a product.

Advice Systems

The aim of the advice systems is to bring the information that the user asks and needs as soon as possible to the user (Cleger-Tamayo, Fernandez-Luna, & Huete, 2012). When advice systems were first used, content filtering features were used in a simple sense, but these systems are now trying to relate data to many features of users by using more complex calculations and algorithms. Advice systems are being used by an increasing number of e-Commerce sites to help find products to be purchased by the consumer. Advice systems offer collective privatization of e-commerce sites using information gathered from a variety of sources such as best-selling product lists,
consumer demographics, feedback gathered about these products, and emotional analysis.

Sales Forecast
It involves the process a customer spends buying a product and attempts to predict whether the customer will buy it again. When there is no sales forecast, short-term changes in returns are delayed, inadequate service, lost orders, inefficient production resources become reality. In the long run, financing and marketing decisions may lead to poor distribution of resources, so even the existence of the operator will be questionable (Heidi & Adamantios, 2003). By predicting customer purchasing habits it is possible to calibrate customer loyalty and permanence, to target marketing and promotional activities, to analyze customer segments, customer profitability, customer lifetime value and customer acquisition effectiveness and to manage customer relations.

Product Planning
Data mining techniques are used to benchmark different stocking options in stocking products and to provide recommendations for optimizing the use of the physical space. Nowadays, with data mining applications, serial goods planning process can be done both in retail and wholesale.

Market Segmentation
Customer segmentation is one of the best uses of data mining. The large number of obtained data can be divided into different and meaningful segments such as income, age, gender, occupation of customers. The direction of the market segment helps a company to identify its competitors. Apart from these, data mining techniques are also used to enable damage reduction, high cost detection to serve orders or customers, risk scoring, credit scoring, audit targeting and financial management through application targeting.

6. Challenges in Data Mining Applications for E-commerce
One of the major challenges with data mining is the inability to convert large data volumes to useful information due to data aggregation, irrelevant data, or problems with data cleansing and conversion difficulties. The right kind of data gathering from business events is especially necessary to effectively discover E-Commerce data (Bulusu, 2014).

One of the challenges facing data mining companies in e-commerce is that web content is examined with spider identity and it takes time for search engines to reach the content. It may sometimes be necessary to index web pages in the primary information resource role for companies. This is one of the difficulties.

One of the other difficulties is data conversion. Data conversion is that data is subject to the goal-oriented conversion before analysis. Categorization is often done in data conversion. For example, categorizing people under 25 years old as “young”, over 25 years old as “adult” are data conversion processes. Such applications are difficult for data mining tools. Nowadays, the data needed to transform can be obtained from only two different sources; one of which must include an active and operational system for the data warehouse and a second, some new activities such as column assignment, data collection and aggregation.
7. Web Mining

Web mining tools can be expanded and programmed to respond to almost any query. Web mining can provide an administrative perspective to visitor profiles which is a way for companies to help senior executives perform strategic operations accordingly. Through Web Mining, the company can obtain some subjective measurements of the effectiveness of marketing campaigns or marketing research that will help to improve and align marketing strategies in a timely manner. In the business world, building mining can be very useful in determining the link between two or more commercial Web sites. This allows accounting, customer profiles, inventory and demographic information to be associated with web browsing. Through Web Mining, the company can identify the strengths and weaknesses of the web marketing campaign and then make strategic arrangements to see improvements and receive feedback from Web Mining.

The emergence of e-commerce changed the traditional way of doing business, and also changed the relationship between sellers and buyers. Data mining technology can help sellers understand customer behavior and improve site productivity. Thus, data mining techniques are widely used in e-commerce design, customer relationship management, internet marketing and the internet.

8. Implementation of Association Rule

Association is a modality that defines certain types of data relationships. Thus it is a descriptive model. When a product is bought, another product is purchased alongside this product and this situation gives an association rule. When it comes to products and these products are taken together, the rules of association are mostly applied to the enterprises operating in the retail sector. In the model Agrawal and his colleagues explain association rule, they define a set of \( I = \{ i_1, i_2, ..., i_m \} \) that is named "products" (Agrawal, Imielinski, & Swami, 1993). All movements in data integrity are represented by "D", each movement of products is represented by "T" and each movement is represented by "TID" reagent. Based on this if we consider that A and B symbolize the work or objects made, the association rule can be defined as follows;

\[
A_1, A_2, ..., A_m \rightarrow B_1, B_2, ..., B_n
\]

To explain this rule, "A_1, A_2, ..., A_m" indicates when the work or objects come into play,

"B_1, B_2, ..., B_n" indicates that the work or objects are involved in the same event or action.

This rule often indicates that "B_1, B_2, ..., B_n" occupy objects or events in the same event or movement when "A_1, A_2, ..., A_m" occurs (Zhu, 1998). Customer purchase habits are analyzed by finding the associations between products purchased by customers in the rules of association, which are often used in market basket applications. Two criteria are examined in the rules of association: support and confidence. The support criterion determines how often the relation between the data is and the confidence criterion determines the likelihood of product A with product B. Therefore, the reliability of the rules to be determined, are determined by the support and confidence values. For example, \( A \rightarrow B \) [support = 3%, confidence = 70%] tells us that the transaction of taking A and B products together is seen in 3% of all transactions. It also indicates that the probability that a customer who receives product A also receives product B is 70%. In addition to these, a threshold value is needed to
compare support and confidence criteria. The support and confidence criteria are expected to be greater than the threshold, and the greater the criteria, the stronger the association rule is. One of the algorithms that help us examine these association rules is the Apriori algorithm.

Figure 3: Data mining applications on e-commerce data.

Figure 3 shows a server where data for a company’s e-commerce site is stored, a program that implements data mining applications on this server (in our example, the R program), and a software interface where data mining applications can be viewed if desired. How to extract these data from the server and prepare an application that will display the results except for the R program subjects have been left unanswered. This shape is drawn to be explanatory for those who do not have system software and programming knowledge.

In Figure 3 it is assumed that the data product about purchased products made in an e-commerce site has been taken from the database by SQL and transferred to the excel program, tabulated and transferred to the purchasedProducts.csv file. You will see an example of an Apriori algorithm built on this program using the R program and interpretation of its results. If desired, the R program can be used to connect directly to the database server. This process has been tried to be schematized in Figure 3.

Implementation Example of Apriori Algorithm with R Program

In the study, 7500 sales data in a ready-made data set assumed to belong to an e-commerce site were used. The products taken together in each sales data are on the same line. An image of the purchasedProducts.csv file containing the data is shown in Figure 4. However, as we mentioned earlier, the data can be retrieved directly from the database server if desired. In order to make it simpler, ready Excel data is used in this study.
Figure 4: A section from the purchased Products.csv file.

A rules package, which is a special package prepared by Hashler and Oth (2005), must be loaded first for R studio and the coefficient algorithms (Step 1). After loading, next step is Step 2. This step will allow you to use the apriori () function that comes with arules.

```
[Step 1] >install.packages('arules')
```

The code in Step 3 is executed to read our data set. Here we our data is in
'purchased Products.csv' file in which we enter the data we have obtained from the server and saved in the same directory as this R project.

[Step 3] >dataset = read.csv('purchasedProducts.csv', header = FALSE)

With Step 4 we display the data that we have loaded. This image looks like Figure 5 below.

Figure 5: Data uploaded to the project

Figure 5 shows a total of 7500 purchases of 20 different products. There is a list of products taken at the same time in each row. In some cells, the data is empty because it is a sparse matrix. A data structure similar to this is called a sparse matrix. Step 5 is followed to remove the repeating records and reload the Data set as a sparse matrix. As a result of step 5, it is seen that 5 records repeat.

[Step 5]>dataset = read.transactions (‘purchasedProducts.csv’, sep = ‘;’,
  rm.duplicates = TRUE)

Step 6 provides detailed information about the data. Then next step is Step 7.

[Step 7]>itemFrequencyPlot(dataset, topN = 10)

With Step 7, a graph of the most frequently sold products as in Figure 6 is obtained.
Step 8 is followed to create our model. In this step our rules are created. When the minimum support rate is set to 0.004 and the minimum confidence criterion is set to 0.2, our code will be as in step 8.

```
[Step 8]>rules = apriori (data = dataset, parameter = list(support = 0.004, confidence = 0.2))
```

As a result of Step 8, it is seen that 811 rules have been created. Step 9 is applied to view the 10 strongest rules.

```
[Step 9]>inspect(sort(rules, by = 'lift')[1:10])
```

The result obtained from step 9 is as shown in Figure 7.

```
> inspect(sort(rules, by = 'lift')[1:10])

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>lhs</th>
<th>rhs</th>
<th>support</th>
<th>confidence</th>
<th>lift</th>
<th>count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>{light cream}</td>
<td>{chicken}</td>
<td>0.00432729 0.2905983</td>
<td>4.843951 34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{pasta}</td>
<td>{escalope}</td>
<td>0.005865885 0.3728814</td>
<td>4.700812 44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{pastas}</td>
<td>{shrimps}</td>
<td>0.005065991 0.3220339</td>
<td>4.506672 38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{eggs,ground beef}</td>
<td>{herb &amp; pepper}</td>
<td>0.004132782 0.2066667</td>
<td>4.178455 31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{whole wheat pasta}</td>
<td>{olive oil}</td>
<td>0.00798933 0.2714932</td>
<td>4.122410 60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{herb &amp; pepper,spaghetti}</td>
<td>{ground beef}</td>
<td>0.006399147 0.3934426</td>
<td>4.004360 48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{herb &amp; pepper,mineral water}</td>
<td>{ground beef}</td>
<td>0.006665778 0.3906250</td>
<td>3.975683 50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[tomato sauce]</td>
<td>{escalope}</td>
<td>0.005332622 0.3773585</td>
<td>3.840659 40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[mushroom cream sauce]</td>
<td>{escalope}</td>
<td>0.005732569 0.3006993</td>
<td>3.790833 43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[frozen vegetables,mineral water,spaghetti]</td>
<td>{ground beef}</td>
<td>0.004399413 0.3666667</td>
<td>3.731841 33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

**Figure 7:** 10 Association rule obtained as a result of Apriori Algorithm.

Looking at Figure 7, 29% of the people who get ‘light cream’ got ‘chicken’. Likewise, 30% of those who buy ‘mushroom, cream and sauce’ bought escalope.
The entire code of the program is as follows:

```r
[Step 1] >install.packages('arules')

[Step 2] >library(arules)

[Step 3] >dataset = read.csv('purchasedProducts.csv', header = FALSE)

[Step 4] >view(dataset,'Datas')

[Step 5] >dataset = read.transactions('purchasedProducts.csv', sep = ',',
                             rm.duplicates = TRUE)

[Step 6] >summary(dataset)
```

**CONCLUSION**

Data mining for e-commerce companies is essential to survive and continue in a competitive environment. Data mining offers a number of advantages to e-commerce companies and allows them to plan their goods, analyze customers’ buying behavior and estimate their sales so that they can earn more revenue by placing their sales on other companies. Data mining also plays an important role in providing customer-focused services to enhance customer satisfaction. It has become clear that using data mining tools is a requirement for e-commerce companies in this global competitive environment. In order to benefit from these advantages, data scientists who can watch and manipulate the instantaneous data have become a vital factor in digital enterprises. It is seen that countries need to pay close attention to macro level education policies and investments in order to provide the human power to meet this need.

**REFERENCES**


Chapter 62

**Developments in Turkey’s Housing Market: Analysis of the Housing Bubble Risk**

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1. INTRODUCTION

The latest developments in the global economy are important in terms of emphasizing the effect of fluctuations in housing prices on macroeconomic stability and prosperity. Especially excessive volatility of housing prices, the only large asset from the perspective of households, may reduce prosperity levels. The increase in housing prices in Turkey in recent years is more noteworthy than at any other time. Led by Istanbul, the rise in new housing and commercial properties has changed the landscape in large cities. This development is met positively by many sectors; however, rising real estate prices lead to the suspicion there may be a bubble in the national housing market. The most important concern related to this topic is that if there is a bubble in housing prices in Turkey, this will result in a rapid fall in prices in the future and the expectation that these developments will not only affect homeowners but simultaneously the banks and the national economy.

When housing markets are examined in the world in general, large price increases occurred in many countries like Spain, Australia, Canada, China and the USA, especially towards the end of the 1990s. Until the 2008 global crisis, there were significant levels of increase in housing sales prices globally (IMF, 2015). In fact, in many countries housing prices increased more rapidly than income. While housing prices increased more quickly than income in countries like New Zealand, Austria, Sweden, Luxembourg and Switzerland, the housing price increase rates were lower than income for countries like Spain, Poland, Italy, Korea and Slovenia. The increase in housing prices was high compared to housing rental in countries like Colombia, Canada, New Zealand, Sweden and Israel and Turkey is included among these countries (IMF, 2015). Within the last few decades, boom-burst cycles are observed in line with the noteworthy increase in housing prices in emerging markets. In Turkey, the high increases in housing and real asset prices are one of the interesting examples in this category due to fragility created by macroeconomic and political uncertainty.

Many economists agree that extraordinary asset price bubbles were experienced causing global financial crises historically in the USA and some other countries. The factor or factors playing a role in this rapid increase in housing prices is one of the topics debated in the economic literature. It is possible to list a range of causes such as income increases, popularity of mortgage housing credit, fall in loan interest rates, regulations of the government about the housing market, the increase in housing construction quality due to technological developments, the desire of people to exchange aging housing for housing considered to have higher quality and comfort and linked to this credit demand increases.
The large changes in the financial liberalization field in the 1990s, especially, caused great competition in the mortgage markets. In many countries, mortgage credit standards were relaxed which lowered the cost of borrowing and caused a significant increase in credit supply (Andrews, 2010). These developments strengthened technological developments in communication tools and data processing and lowered processing costs for mortgage credit. Many studies have emphasized the role of liberalization of the mortgage market in increasing real housing prices. For example, Rouwendal (2007) emphasized the large effect of new regulations of the mortgage market and discounts in tax and interest rates on the rapid development of the housing market in Holland. These types of regulations affecting the housing market increase the capacity of economic agents to pay for housing. Falls in interest rates increase the demand for housing credit. After the global financial crisis, expansionary monetary policies applied in developed countries lowered interest rates and caused a housing explosion in the world in general (Ceritoğlu, 2017a).

When individuals buy a long-term asset like housing, they consider many factors due to the great importance it carries in terms of their lives. The housing stock has a significant share of total wealth of households and affects consumer spending (Chang, 2010, Ceritoğlu, 2017b) causing households to monitor developments in the housing market. Though housing is not liquid, it is seen as a reliable investment tool in Turkey. Housing is one determinant of the household cost of living and at the same time is an element of wealth. Sierminska & Takhtamanova (2007) and Benjamin et al. (2004) stated that the wealth effect ensured by housing on household consumption was greater than the wealth effect ensured by financial tools. The increase in housing prices is perceived by households as increasing housing wealth and creates a positive effect on consumer decisions. However, as savings by households with continuing housing debt are spent on credit repayments, their consumption reduces. As a result, variations in housing prices may affect the debt limitations of households and affect savings levels. Thus, it is possible to say there is a relationship occurring between housing prices and total demand based on the wealth effect.

Additionally, a significant portion of credit given by banks is housing loans and in situations where the house is shown as guarantee, the reflection of volatility of housing prices in credit recycling reveals the importance of developments in the housing market in terms of the banking sector. Housing is important in terms of being a monetary transmission mechanism. As a result, as the housing market both affects economic growth and is a sector most affected by economic conditions, it is carefully monitored by politicians, investors, bankers and households. Developments experienced in the housing market affect the national economy and macroeconomic changes affect the housing market making it necessary to carefully monitor this market and possible fragility that may form in this market. From this aspect, the main aim of this study is to analyze whether Turkey’s housing market is a bubble or not. Within the scope of this target, the 2nd section will deal with the housing bubble and housing bubble markers, the 3rd section will include a review of the literature, the 4th section will assess developments in Turkey’s housing market in recent years using basic markers and the 5th section will investigate the underlying reasons for the increase in housing prices and the housing bubble risk. The final section includes conclusions and assessments.
2. HOUSING BUBBLE AND HOUSING BUBBLE MARKERS

The effects of the housing bubble on the economy and individual prosperity has been a topic of debate for many years (Hoyt, 1933; Barlowe, 1958; Zarnowitz 1992). There appear to be different definitions, criteria and approaches developed about whether the increase in the price of an economic asset qualifies as a bubble. For example, Case and Shiller (2003) defined the situation where public expectations that the price of an asset will rise in the future causing temporary price increases as an asset bubble. An abnormal interaction between housing prices and market bases may be interpreted as a housing bubble (Hui & Yue, 2006). However, as it may be misleading to see sudden and high housing price increases alone as definite proof of a bubble; there are those who think it is necessary to determine some concrete values related to this topic. For example, Meyer (2011) proposed that 20 percent, 30 percent, or even 40 percent, increases in housing prices over two or three years may indicate a bubble. Baker (2008) proposed that a bubble has its own dynamics, while Augustyniak et al. (2013) proposed it showed cyclicality linked to a variety of factors in favor of demand and supply in the housing supply market. Studies about the housing bubble emphasize the importance of expectations about the future. Kindleberger & Aliber (2005) propose that rather than return on investment rates, a housing or asset bubble is linked to the expectation that it can be sold to another at a higher price. Shiller (2014a) saw the housing price bubble as a period with high housing sales possibilities for those who believe they will be compensated by greater price increases in the future. In this period, buyers wishing to buy housing at any price have reduced fear that this price will not be matched. Linked to these factors, housing prices rapidly increase. Thus, they deviate from basic values and over valuated housing prices occur.

In recent years, there is no satisfactory explanation of the increase in housing prices based on just explaining increases in construction costs. Currently, there is a real estate explosion in the world in general. The majority of these occur due to a speculative drive. Thus, assessing the housing market not just from an economic aspect, but from the “speculative psychology” dimension will provide a more rational viewpoint on the topic. The common sense that housing is a large investment resource may begin with a speculative attack in the housing market. There is a general consensus that speculative behavior affecting housing prices will result in the bubble bursting and this will affect governments, businesses and individuals (Akerlof & Shiller, 2009; Shiller, 2007). Shiller (2007) stated this psychological state induced in the public was the “speculative bubble” and defined it as a feedback mechanism operating via public observations about price increases and future price increase expectations. This feedback at the same time is explained by a social outbreak of certain public opinions and thoughts causing emotional speculative interest in markets. Hlaváček & Komárek (2009) proposed that increasing rents increased housing demand by people to become homeowners and increased returns affect housing investments due to speculative reasons. Shiller (2007) considered the world had entered a new capitalist era with the housing explosion before the global crisis and this created a world of extraordinary economic growth and at the same time those with excessive gains and those with excessive losses. According to Schiller (2007), the story of this new period of capitalism caused people to enter the capitalist world and stimulated them to buy houses. Birol & Xiao (2014) researched whether news shocks triggering general expectations related to the housing market caused the housing cycle or not. Flawed and
noisy news reports create excessively optimistic or pessimistic expectations. Excessive optimism causes an increase in housing stocks and viability of the housing market creating a housing explosion not based on fundamentals. When the news reports are understood to be wrong and mistaken, investors reverse their behavior and recession develops in housing markets. As this situation changes the equity of economic units, it causes reflection of the housing cycle within the whole economy.

In the economy, increases in real income levels and falls in credit interest rates may cause demand shocks and these shocks may be strengthened by increases in asset prices. The expectation that price increases due to demand increases will continue causes new buyers to enter the market which causes further increases in asset prices. A second wave that may create increases in asset prices is increasing wealth of economic units who own these assets and linked collateral increases leading to expansionist credit policies by banks. This causes further increase in demand in the economy and asset prices. However, negative expectations related to future asset prices; in other words, expectations that the prices will not increase, speeds up housing sales causing economic units to avoid buying and a rapid fall in asset and housing prices.

In summary, it is possible to define the housing bubble as virtual enrichment occurring due to rapid rises in housing prices. Generally, price bubbles form when the relevant asset or housing price is above market value. The expectations of economic units are important in this occurrence. If expectations are positive, in other words if there is a positive expectation that the house can be sold at a higher price in the future, it causes a spiral of prices climbing upward. Thus, for formation of a housing bubble, there must be behavioral and “speculative psychology” affecting and strengthening rises and falls in prices.

The IMF (2009) stated it was necessary to monitor some variables related to bursting of asset bubbles and these variables included the share of credit within GDP, growth at output level, inflation rate, increase in stock prices, and the share of housing investment in GDP. However, the housing bubble experienced in the USA recently is an interesting example of how difficult it is to predict a housing bubble. For example, Shiller (2005), Krugman (2005) and Stiglitz (2007) proposed the USA housing market was within an apparent bubble, while Himmelberg et al., (2005) and Smith & Smith (2005) did not identify that housing was overvalued in the USA.

A range of markers have been developed to determine whether there is a bubble in the housing market or not. When previous experience related to housing bubbles are examined, it appears to be important that there is a market perception that the prices will continue to rise continuously and rapidly. As a result, the most common marker used to assess bubbles in the housing market is real house price increases. For example, in the USA housing prices before the global crisis had 86% real increase from the end of 1996 to the beginning of 2006 according to the S&P/Case-Shiller Home Price Index. It is necessary to remove the effect of inflation to be able to calculate the real increases in housing prices. At this point comparisons of housing price index with the consumer price index are commonly used. For example, in periods when the housing bubble case was observed in the USA and Spain, it was observed that the increase in housing prices significantly exceeded the “consumer” price index.

When assessing housing markets, one of the approaches commonly used around the world is the ratio of house price to rental value. The duration of when the fund invested in housing would be repaid by total rental amounts affects investment in
housing and demand. When real rental increases in the period 1996-2016 in the USA, are examined, they only rose by 4%. This number shows that housing price rises in the USA occurred without economic fundamentals. As real rental costs and real construction costs followed each other, only real housing sales prices did not follow these (Shiller, 2007). Thus, an important marker to use when assessing the housing market is the size of the difference between real sales prices and real rental costs of housing. If the housing prices in a country are below the housing rental increase rate, housing demand will increase; in the opposite case where housing rental is below the housing price increase rate, then it is expected housing demand will decrease. However, Meen (2006) stated there was no simple correlation between housing prices and rents. Ambrose et al. (2013) stated the rental-price ratio did not provide the full picture of the housing market. One of the international comparison methods used to assess housing bubbles is the relationship between housing prices and income. The ratio of housing prices to income is important in terms of identifying the availability of housing and whether there is correct pricing of housing or not. However, there are some problems with ratio analysis. Calculation of “income” is largely problematic.

In the literature different ratios are recommended to assess the housing bubble. For example, Smith & Smith (2006) recommend the price-rent ratio for housing. However, Himmelberg et al. (2005) stated that comparisons of only price-income and price-rent ratios that did not consider long-term interest rate variations, expected inflation, expected housing price and tax would not be sufficient. Cameron et al. (2006) stated that without including other important factors like demographic variations, housing construction, loan conditions and other asset prices, ratio analyses to determine housing bubbles would not be very informative about the presence or absence of a bubble. As a result, systematic and comprehensive models are applied to analyze housing bubbles.

From another aspect, in terms of seeing the elasticity of an economy faced with demand and growth of housing supply, construction permits and usage permits are used as markers. This marker is important in terms of monitoring the progress of construction and real estate sectors. Construction permits and building use permits are one of the elements affecting housing sales. When assessing whether the increase in house prices is really a bubble or not, it is important to determine what amount of this increase is due to quality increases and what amount is due to pure price changes. Hülagü et al. (2016) stated it was necessary to separate these two different effects from each other, and that if a significant portion of the increase in housing prices is due to quality increases, it may be misleading to interpret these increases as a bubble.

3. LITERATURE

Smith (1969) was one of the first to attempt to develop a full model of the housing market. This model dealt with the housing market in terms of housing construction cycles, availability of loans, structure of financial organizations providing mortgage credit, the cost of housing and permanent disposable income. Goodhart & Hoffman, (2008) and Chaney et al. (2010) proposed that one significant element increasing house prices in an economy was housing investment. Thus, as housing investment increases, housing prices increase. Studies from previous periods appeared to explain the housing demand cycle in terms of both income and employment levels. For example, Quigley (1999), Case & Shiller (2003), and Arestis & González (2013) proposed that permanent employment caused increased wealth and this increased housing demands. Björklund &
Söderberg (1999) stated that in addition to basic factors like income and income increases, housing prices were affected by macroeconomic variables like interest rates, unemployment rates and GDP. Some other studies proposing that macroeconomic variables are closely related to variations in housing prices include Case & Shiller (1990), Abraham & Hendershott (1996), Tsatsaronis & Zhu (2004), Egert & Mihaljek (2007), Mikhed & Zemcik (2009), and Mahalik & Mallick, (2011).

One of the most comprehensive studies on this topic is Andrew (2010) showing that real housing prices in OECD countries are affected by a range of macroeconomic, structural and political factors. Andrew (2010) observed that housing prices increased proportionally with household disposable income, and that consumer price increases increased real housing prices. In environments with low housing supply flexibility, there is a tendency for more rapid elevation of housing prices. Another important determinant of real housing prices was identified as real construction costs. Estimates showed that an 10% increase in construction costs caused a 4% increase in real housing prices. There is a negative correlation between real interest rates and the housing market and generally a fall in real interest rates increases housing prices. Banking regulations affect volatility of housing prices and even made a significant contribution to the last financial crisis. Financial liberalization in OECD countries was identified to increase real housing prices by 30%. There was consistency observed as more competition in mortgage markets lowered loan costs and increased the housing loan repayment capacity of debtors. However, unemployment rates were identified to be associated with real housing prices. In OECD countries a 2-point fall in unemployment rates was determined to increase real housing prices by nearly 8%. Additionally, the effect of increasing population due to migration on housing prices was identified to be greater than natural population increases.

In general, just as variations in house prices may affect varying macroeconomic fundamentals, they may be affected by speculative behavior or a combination of both. Case & Shiller (2003) in a housing bubble analysis using income per capita, population, employment, unemployment and mortgage interest rates for the period from 1985-2000 in the USA and stated there was no housing bubble; however, from 1995 onward the expectations about the rise in housing prices in the USA were affected by elements like missing opportunities, excitement and excessive optimism. Park & Xiao (2010) proposed that basic demand factors like GDP, fees or population had a limited effect on house prices in the short term. Dovman et al. (2012) proposed that the increase in real estate prices had no link to any of the fundamentals of the market but was directed by expectations. In such a situation the expectations of an increase in real estate prices cause increased desire for capital gains, along with demand, by investors. If real estate prices deviate from basic values when these deviations are determined once, it makes it easier to determine whether a bubble exists or not. However, it is difficult to fully explain the role of basic and speculative behavior related to deviations from basic prices. Investigating the relationship between housing prices and rent in Amsterdam in the long term from 1650 to 2005, Ambrose et al. (2013) showed it was difficult to definitely know when an asset price bubble would burst, that price inflations did not end with the bubble burst; however, as prices approached true value the bubble could slowly deflate. Kindleberger & Aliber (2005) proposed that these bubbles always burst as they involve unsustainable price variations.

It appears that price-rent and price-income ratios are frequently used to predict
bubbles in housing prices. As in studies by Hamilton & Schwab (1985), Malpezzi (1999), Campbell et al., (2009) and Engsted et al. (2015), the bubble may be assessed using value ratios like rent-price ratio or price-income ratio. If the present ratio is much above previous means, this situation indicates a bubble. Hamilton & Schwab (1985) found a negative and significant correlation between price-rent ratios and future rent increases. Malpezzi (1999) assumed an important and significant correlation between housing prices and household income and used the price-income ratio as a determinant of housing price variations. Mikhed & Zemčík (2009) researched the gains related to housing in house prices based on price-rent ratio using data from the USA housing market from 1975-2006. They revealed that before 2006 there was a housing price bubble experienced in the USA. Similarly, Campbell et al. (2009) used price-rent ratio to determine predictable variables of returns expected from house prices and proposed that these ratios explained the majority of variation in expected returns. Himmelberg et al. (2005) compared the annual housing costs for a single family in 46 metropolitan regions in the USA with rent and income and found that high price-income and price-rent ratios can be explained by variations in real long-term interest rates and that housing was overvalued. Engsted et al. (2016) used data from 18 OECD countries in econometric analysis to identify bubbles in housing markets using price-rent ratio and obtained evidence that housing bubbles existed in many housing markets.

In the literature related to the housing market, apart from price-rent and price-income ratios, it appears basic economic variables affecting housing prices are used. These include variables like home owning rate, housing stock, construction costs, population increase, real fees, GDP per capita, interest rates and unemployment rates. For example, Abraham & Hendershott (1996) found that real income, construction costs and employment increases were associated with metropolitan housing prices based on data from the USA. Holly & Jones (1997) used a dataset from 1939 to 1994 in studies dealing with a range of factors like real income, demographic structure, interest rates, housing stock, low and high inflation and found that real income was the most important basic variable affecting housing prices in England. Chen & Patel (1998) found total household income, short-term interest rates, stock exchange index and construction costs were the main determinants of housing prices. Stern (1992), Barot & Yang (2002) and Hilbers et al. (2008) proposed there was a positive and clear effect of household income on housing prices; in other words, high income positively affected housing demands and caused an increase in housing prices. The common point of these studies is that the variation in housing prices was explained as being linked to economic fundamentals. Similarly, Jud & Winkler (2002) showed that from 1984 to 1998 real housing prices in the USA in general were strongly affected by real variations in population growth, income, construction costs and interest rates. Egert & Mihaljek (2007) analyzed the housing price dynamics in eight transition economies in Central and Eastern Europe and 19 OECD countries in terms of traditional fundamentals like real income, real interest rates and demographic factors and concluded there was a positive correlation between housing prices and household income and wealth and a negative correlation with real interest rates. Karol (2009) identified that in Switzerland the increase in housing prices and dynamics of construction activity were more sensitive to variations in population and construction costs and that contrary to common empirical data from other countries, real GDP caused only a small effect in the short term.
It appears the econometric analyses are commonly used in the housing market literature. Kim (2004) used the Kalman filtering method to research the link between housing and the Korean economy, investigating the correlations between house prices, consumer spending and inflation and identified several bubbles were experienced in the Korean housing market from 1992-2001. Mahalik & Mallick (2011) used synchronicity test and VECM to investigate the causative relations between house prices and five determinants – real income, short-term real interest rates, real stock price index, real effective exchange rate and true non-food bank loans – and identified that real income significantly positively affected housing prices in India, while non-food bank loans negatively affected this in the long term. Mallick & Mahalik (2012) in a study used Granger causality and VAR models for 1999:Q2-2009:Q3 data for the Chinese housing market and determined the increase in housing prices was affected more by speculative factors compared to economic fundamentals. Chen et al. (2013) researched whether there was a bubble in the Peking housing market from 1998 to 2010 using basic economic variables like interest rates, inflation and supply costs (construction costs). They identified that for the short period from 2004 to 2007, the Peking housing price index was significantly larger than balance values.

When academic studies to determine whether there is a bubble in the Turkish housing market are examined, there is no strong evidence of a bubble in the housing market. Binay & Salman (2008) found no evidence of any real estate price bubble in Turkey. However, they showed with a simulation that the current loans and nominal cost of credit for average income individuals in Turkey would not allow them to buy an average house. Additionally, as real estate loans have 2.5% share of GNP, it was considered the rapid growth in credit numbers would not increase financial fragility. Kaya et al. (2012) stated that because the increase in housing price index was due to high inflation, real housing prices are rising slowly and there was no evidence encountered of a housing price bubble. Büyükduman (2014) proposed there was no housing bubble in Istanbul for the period 2003-2012. Erol (2015) researched the level of explanation of the increase in housing price index with basic economic and demographic markers (population, urban population, construction costs, mortgage interest rates, rent and employment); however, in the period from July 2007 to December 2012 the increase in housing prices in Turkey was largely explained by these markers and they proposed that there could be no mention of a housing bubble bursting due to the low financial leverage rates in Turkey. However, if the price increases occurring in 2012 continue at the same rate for 6-7 years, the risk of a housing bubble may come to the agenda. Zeren & Ergüzel (2015) investigated whether there were housing market bubbles in three large cities – Istanbul, Izmir and Ankara – in the period from January 2010 to June 2014. They concluded there was no real estate bubble in the Turkish housing market and mean price increases were only experienced in the short term, not the long term. Yener & Jadevicius (2017) proposed the housing prices in Turkey did not display bubble formation; however, in the period from 2010 to 2014 some potential over valuation caused significant levels of increase. This may be explained by market dynamics like growth in housing ownership, falls in lending standards, ease of obtaining funds and high degree of securitization.

A comprehensive study of the housing market in Turkey by Coskun et al., (2017) used the boundary test to analyze whether a housing bubble exists or not, OLS/FMOLS/DOLS, Kalman filtering and ARIMA models to analyze two different
time periods in Turkey of 2007-2014 and 2010-2014. Empirical analysis included these variables: housing index published by the TCMB (2010-2014), the index published by Reidin (2007-2014), real domestic production, construction production index, housing rent index, real mortgage interest rates, construction permits, occupancy permits, construction loan volume, broad money (m2) and BIST National 200 index. The results showed that the Turkish housing market experienced some cases of overvaluation; however, there was no bubble. Though findings obtained from static models show housing rent cost and construction cost index have significant and positive effects on housing prices, real mortgage interest rates have a negative effect on housing prices. With the hedonic price index calculated by Hülagü et al. (2016), they proposed that hedonic housing prices in Istanbul, Ankara and Izmir continued at the same level until 2012, and this trend changed after 2012. Accordingly, 95.4 percent price increases occurred in Istanbul, with 72.5 percent increase in Izmir and 53.2 percent increase in Ankara. They determined that one fifth of the housing price in Istanbul was due to quality increase.

4. ASSESSMENT OF BASIC MARKERS FOR TURKEY’S HOUSING MARKET

When economic policies after 2002 in Turkey are examined, it appears growth was targeted based on the construction and housing sector. The construction sector and more than 250 subsectors linked to this sector gained “locomotive sector” characteristics and they were very important sectors for economic policy makers due to employment and income increases created in the economy. Approaching direct share of 8% of the GDP, the sector and linked sectors reached 30% share indirectly (Gayrimenkul Yatırım Ortaklığı, March 2017, p. 100). This large share belonging to the housing market within the economy caused the government to pass a range of applications supporting the housing market. The TOKI example, providing housing supply to those with low and high income, is one of the markers showing active participation of the central government in the housing market.

Positive movement in housing production and sales in Turkey is clearly observed when basic markers are examined. For example, in 2013, total housing production reached 707,312 units, which was a 355% increase compared to 2004. According to occupancy permits (marker of housing demand) and construction permits (marker of housing supply), floor area of residential buildings increased by 582% and 278%, respectively from 2004 to 2014. When another marker of market activity of housing sales are examined, this was 1.40 million in 2017 and it appears the increase in the number of households played an important role. According to TÜİK, the number of households was 15 million in 2000 and increased by nearly 36% to reach 20.4 million in 2013, before reaching 21.6 million in 2016. The home owning rate was 60.9% in 2006 reaching levels of 67.3% in 2015.

One of the markers examined to identify viability of the real estate market and to understand demand structure is sales numbers in the primary and secondary markets. Secondary markets are important both in ensuring viability by allowing rapid transactions to occur and in terms of determining prices that will form in primary markets. Generally, the number of transactions in secondary markets is higher compared to primary markets. When housing sales in Turkey are examined, in 2015 the number of houses sold for on the primary market was 598,667, while the number in the
secondary market was 690,653 (Gayrimenkul Yatırım Ortaklığı, 2016). As can be seen, the housing sales are greater in the secondary markets. First-hand sales represented 46.5% of mean total sales from 2013 to 2017, while the second-hand market, important in terms of liquidation, had 53.5% market share.

The fall in interest rates is largely effective on developments in the housing market in Turkey. Mortgage loan interest rates of 55% in 2002 fell to 11% in 2015. The fall in mortgage rates significantly contributed to the increase in activities related to property. In the first 11 months of 2017, of 1 million 276 thousand house sales occurring in Turkey in general, nearly 439 thousand were mortgage sales. Mortgage sales appear to be very sensitive to interest rates. With the beginning of the rise in housing credit interest rates in 2015 (especially above monthly 1%), the mortgage sales began to lose their share of total housing sales, while in 2016 both these trends reversed. Housing loan amounts increased at rates of 31,215 percent from December 2002 to February 2015. The magnitude of construction loans in the same period increased 1,407 percent. The number of mortgage loan holders increased significantly, rising from 0.03 million to 1.8 million from September 2002 to September 2014. The number of housing sales had nearly 173 percent increase between 2008 to 2014 rising from 0.43 million units to 1.16 million units. This increase was affected by falls in mortgage rates, increased income and wealth, good regulatory framework, state support for the construction and housing sectors and increasing international demand in the last decade.

Contrary to these developments in housing supply and demand, fragility in the economy and housing market in Turkey increased concerns about valuation in housing prices at urban and national level. The most important marker to monitor in assessing fragility in the housing market and whether there is a bubble in the market is to use housing indices. The need to carefully monitor the housing market was revealed by price increases observed in housing prices in Turkey in recent years and due to effects of the housing market on the economy in 2010 the TCMB began to publish the Housing Price Index to create a reliable house price index. This index measures nominal variations occurring in housing prices. When the housing price index is examined, from January 2010 to December 2016, housing prices appear to nominally increase by 133%. Housing prices showed noteworthy increase at national level and in the Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir, Adana and Antalya regions. According to the housing price index, the provinces with highest annual change were Balıkesir and Çanakkale at 20.80%, Edirne, Kirklareli and Tekirdağ at 20.29% and Bolu, Kocaeli, Sakarya and Düzce at 20.05%. Between October 2012 and October 2017, the Turkey Housing Price Index results had real price increase of 46.21% with the removal of the effects of inflation for the same period. Second-hand housing sales prices gained speed with 15% increase for 2010-2011, 27% increase for 2012-2013 and 38% increase for 2014-2015 (Cushman & Wakefield, 2016). According to an IMF report, from year-end 2015 Turkey was 6th place in the list of countries with greatest housing price increases on an annual basis.

The increasing trend of the increase in housing prices above the increase in real disposable income of households is a marker of concerns about housing bubbles (Halk Yatırım, 2015). In the period from 2010-2015 income per person increased 67%, while 2nd hand house prices rose by 105% and rents increased by 84% (Cushman & Wakefield, 2016). Turkey appears to be among countries experiencing highest price increases and with price/income scissors opened furthest. At this point, Turkey is different from other markets due to rapid increase in both 2nd hand prices and rents.
However, it should be noticed that there are negative signals in terms of price-income ratio (Cushman & Wakefield, 2016). With the aim of making an international comparison, when Turkish data are added to IMF data, the price-income ratio is second place and the price-rent ratio is 6th place. The IMF found that in nearly half of OECD countries house price increases are above both income and rent increases since 2010 and indicated the need to closely monitor developments in these countries.

When REIDIN Housing Purchase Power Index data are investigated, housing prices are very high when compared with personal income and it only appears possible for individuals to complete repayments in situations where housing loans have low cost and can be given in the long term. For example, according to REIDIN Housing Purchase Power Index data, for a household with average income living in Istanbul to be able to use credit, monthly loan costs need to fall to 0.70% or terms should extend towards 15 years (Gayrimenkul Yatırım Ortaklığı, 2017). Ceritoğlu (2017b) stated the income group benefiting most - compared to both high and low-income groups - from the housing explosion occurring in Turkey was the middle-income group.

For real evaluation of housing price index increases, the price increases and population increases must be noted. For the 2010Q1-2017Q3 period, consumer prices rose 84%, while building construction costs rose 94%. When population increase statistics are examined, for the same period the population of Turkey rose 20%, with average increases of 27% in the three largest cities. The population increase in Istanbul alone was 28.7%. However, the new housing price increase was 99% for the same period. The price increase for new housing increases the price of available housing. When price increases in just the three large provinces (Istanbul, Ankara, and Izmir) are examined, this appears to be about 150%. In other words, there is 44% excess compared to the average for Turkey.

When assessing price volatility in housing markets, variations in construction costs and their effect on housing supply is investigated. Increases in labor costs, increases in exchange rates and increases in interest rates are the most important factors affecting construction costs. To monitor changes in construction costs, TÜİK publishes the building construction cost index (BIME). Published quarterly by the Turkish Statistics Institute, when the building construction cost index and sub-breakdowns are examined, building construction costs rose by 59% from the beginning of 2010 to the third quarter of 2016. When it is noted that housing prices rose 125.6% from the first quarter of 2010 to the final quarter of 2016, this increase appears to be much higher than cost increases.

Another marker examined when assessing developments in housing markets is rent multiplier. The length of time for rented real estate to pay for itself; in other words, the duration to regain the price paid, is called the “rent multiplier”. The rent multiplier is found when the value of real estate is divided by monthly rental income. The ideal number for rent multiplier is between 120 and 180 months. However, due to reasons such as uncertainty in economic conditions in a country, political stability, global economic situation, expectations, supply-demand balance in the region and devaluation, the rent multiplier varies. In Turkey this number is mean 240 months for housing; in other words, 20 years. The rent multiplier even shows variations between large cities like Istanbul compared to counties, especially. Istanbul and some neighborhoods in Istanbul appear to have very high rent multiplier (30 years).
5. CAUSES OF THE INCREASE IN TURKEY’S HOUSING PRICES AND HOUSING BUBBLE RISK

Housing price increases in international markets cause more concern in terms of the credit market. In Turkey the credit market share is still low (globally 50-60% of GDP, in Turkey only 6%) which limits the effect of housing price increases on the economy (Cushman & Wakefield, 2016). When assessing financial risks that may be sourced in the housing market, it is necessary to examine the share of housing loans within personal loans. In Turkey this rate appeared to be 39% from 2016. In EU countries, this rate of 43% from 2014 appears to be very high compared to Turkey (TBB, 2017). With the aim of assessing credit market risks, the “Bank Loans Tendency Survey” may be examined. From 2016, banks tightened credit risk standards against increasing risks and reacted by increasing interest rates (TCMB, 2016). However, there is benefit to monitoring the loan repayments of both personal housing loans and credit obtained by companies in the construction sector; in other words, follow-up conversion rates. According to BDDK (2016) data, the rate of those with overdue loan repayments for housing loans is below 1%. This situation shows the risk due to housing loans is low.

However, debates still continue about whether there is a housing bubble in Turkey or not. The increase in real estate prices in Turkey leads to the consideration that housing prices may not be related to economic fundamentals. Though increases in housing prices can be explained by variations in fundamentals of the economy, higher housing prices compared to inflation, income and construction cost lead to suspicion in favor of a housing bubble. There are differences of opinion about this topic; the IMF (2015) stated Turkey had a housing imbalance, while Moody’s (2016) stated the increase rate in housing prices could not be sustained in the long term. Moody’s stated that if housing prices stabilized with strong crediting applications and macro precautionary measures, a soft landing of the market was probable. International finance and media organizations propose the Turkish housing market is a bubble (New York Times 2014, Forbes 2014), while the majority of academic studies propose that economic markers do not indicate a bubble and the increase in housing prices can be explained by variations in fundamentals of the economy. Emlak Konut (2014) did not assess rising prices for housing as a bubble. Cushman & Wakefield (2014) used traditional measures of price to rent ratio and price to income ratio and showed there was no price bubble. However, according to Roubini (2013), the large city centers in the country are in a bubble. Roubini attracted attention to rapidly increasing housing prices, high price-income ratios and proportionally high mortgage debt within household debt. Pitros et al. (2017) identified a serious housing bubble for 2011 to 2015. In fact, when the housing price index published by the Turkish Central Bank for these years is examined, the annual increase rate for the month of December in 2011 compared to the same month the previous year was 10.25%, this was 11.53% for 2012, 13.81% for 2013, 16.15% for 2014 and 18.41% for 2015. For the last one or two years, the supply excess in the housing sector and increase in housing stock is discussed.

Based on these discussions, it becomes important to investigate the basic causes for the increase in housing prices in Turkey. Below these causes are given under subheadings.
5.1. Changes In Demographic Structure and Urbanization

Developing countries have a younger and growing population and high migration rates from rural areas to large cities compared to developed countries, all of which increase housing needs in developing countries. When analyzing demographic changes affecting housing markets, the internal migration to large cities should be noted (Ceritoğlu, 2017). For a housing bubble to be mentioned, it is necessary to observe increasing trends in housing prices at rates that cannot be explained by basic factors like development of demographic-linked demand and cost increases (Göksun Şat Sezgin & Aşarkaya, 2017). There is much research investigating the effect of demographic elements on the housing market. For example, Miles & Pillonca (2008) stated that at the beginning of the 2000s in OECD countries like Ireland and Spain, one of the factors underlying the rapid increase in housing prices was high rates of migration causing rapid population increase. Gonzalez & Ortega (2009) proposed that one third of the increase in the housing market in Spain from 1998 to 2008 was due to migration flows and that migration flows are an important determinant of the housing market. Even in countries with milder migration flows, like Switzerland, migration is an important determinant (Degen & Fisher, 2009).

Due to internal migration in Turkey, increasing urbanization rates have contributed to population changes and formation of new households. Turkey is a country with migration from village to cities. The 78% urbanization rate is expected to reach 84% in 2023. As a result, housing demand increases are to be expected in cities receiving migration. Turkey also receives migrants from countries like Syria and Iraq which further elevates the increase in housing demands. However, significant changes are observed in the demographic structure of Turkey. Changes to family structure caused by urbanization have changed the demand structure in the housing sector. According to TÜİK data, the proportion of those residing in cities in Turkey rose to 92.1% in 2015, with those living in towns and villages falling to 7.9%. Together with urbanization, the increase in single-child families and tendency to live alone has caused variations in demand according to factors such as housing type, number of rooms, white goods and energy consumption within many linked sectors (Gayrimenkul Yatırım Ortaklığı, 2016, p. 68). When TÜİK population projections are examined, the share of the total population in Istanbul was 18.5% in 2014 which is expected to rise to 19.6% by 2023. As a result, the reasons for greater increases in housing prices in Istanbul compared to the other three large cities should be assessed in terms of internal migration. It would not be wrong to say changes to the demographic structure and the urbanization case are one of the causes of the increase in housing prices in Turkey.

5.2. Urban Renewal

Leading developments directing the housing market in Turkey in recent years is an urban renewal movement involving the demolition of risky structures with the aim of creating settlement areas protected against earthquakes. The Marmara earthquake in 1999, especially, was effective in starting this urban renewal movement. Urban renewal projects significantly contribute to housing supply in urban regions of Turkey. In recent years a certain portion of growth in housing supply and sales and the increase in prices may be said to be associated with urban renewal. New legal regulations, especially were effective on the housing market, with VAT increases and the urban renewal process closely associated with both price and sales volume. The increase in second hand sales
prices may be linked to increasing demand from individual investors wishing to have a share of the value increase in housing renovated by urban renewal (Cushman & Wakefield, 2016). When it is noted that nearly one third of housing sales are financed by mortgage housing finance, urban renewal may be said to increase housing loan volumes by a certain amount. Again, a portion of the increase in construction loan volume used in terms of producer financing may be linked to the effect of urban renewal.

5.3. Regulations by the Government

Legislative changes related to the real estate sector include legal regulations involving both producers and consumers. These regulations have significant effect on the performance of the sector. Among regulations made to keep the housing market in Turkey vibrant are 15% rates of state support given to consumers buying housing, reciprocity laws easing the ability of foreigners to buy property in Turkey, and Treasury guarantees for public projects (Göksun Şat Sezgin & Aşarkaya, 2017).

An important element affecting housing sales in Turkey is the law about “Transformation of Land At Risk of Natural Disasters” which was enforced after publication in the Official Gazette number 28309 dated 31.05.2012. The aim was to demolish buildings at risk and reconstruct them in more earthquake-resistant form via laws enforced in the name of urban renewal and transformation against earthquakes in Turkey. Within this framework, owners of older housing can make agreements with contracting firms in return for new housing (Gayrimenkul Yatırım Ortaklığı, 2016, p. 77). Regulations of mortgage markets, especially, tax and interest discounts caused significant changes in the economy. Since 2016 the “housing aid” was enforced marking another decision of the state within the housing market. Another change closely related to the future of the housing sector in Turkey is the regulation about the sale of Treasury land that has lost forest cover. Known to the public as 2B, law number 6292 “Support for the Development of Forest Villagers and Evaluation of Places Outside Forest Boundaries on behalf of the Treasury and the Law on the Sale of Treasury Agricultural Land” was enforced after publication in the Official Gazette in April 2012.

Changes to the Land Registry Law in 2012 (Law number 6302 Regarding Amendment of the Land Registry Law and Cadastral Survey) removed obstacles to sales to foreigners which increased the interest of foreigners in Turkey. Within the scope of the relevant law, the amount of immovable assets that foreign real persons can obtain in Turkey in general rose from 2.5 hectares to 30 hectares, with no distinction made in terms of character (housing, land, offices, etc.) within this limit. From the beginning of 2017, changes to the Regulation on the Implementation of the Turkish Citizenship Law allowed foreigners owning immovables with value of at least 1 million US dollars to gain Turkish citizenship and additionally the loss of value of the Turkish lira against the dollar in 2017 have created an expectation that housing sales to foreigners will increase. When the balance of payments data from the Central Bank of the Republic of Turkey are examined, from 2011-2016 there was direct capital inflow of 85,391 billion US dollars; of this, 20,065 billion US dollars includes real estate purchases.
5.4. Credit Interest Rates

An important factor affecting the growth rate of home ownership and the number of housing sales is housing loan interest rates. After 2002 in Turkey, falls in interest rates positively affected housing sales numbers and the rate of housing growth. There was a large effect of economic policies after the 2001 crisis on these developments. After the 2000-2001 crisis, rapid growth occurred in the Turkish economy; in fact, Turkey’s economy was among the most rapidly growing economies globally. The World Bank and IMF supported economic policies after the local banking crisis in 2000-2001 contributing to this expansion in a stable macro-economic framework combining well-regulated infrastructure and lending standards. Expansion of loans given by banks had a large effect on this growth. Yağlın & Çoşkun (2014) explained the transformation experienced in Turkey after the 2001 crisis linked to developments in the housing market. They stated that falls in mortgage credit interest rates, especially, played an important role in this development. However, applications of zero stamp tax rates for real estate sales promise agreements and pre-pay housing sales agreements and lowering of the rate of 25% for long-term housing loans to 20% for consumers having difficulty raising capital and precautions aiming to encourage housing purchases and savings (15% state support for housing purchases, etc.) led to positive results for the housing market.

5.5. Income Level Increases

In Turkey, income was identified as the most important element determining home ownership and housing demands (Halıcıoğlu 2007, Ceritoğlu, 2017a). The “Transition to a Strong Economy Program” applied after the 2001 crisis in Turkey and the macroeconomic stability and capital mobility in global markets provided cheap lending contributing significantly to the growth of the economy. The Gross Domestic Product (GDP) continuously increased in the period from 2002 to 2008 rising from 236 billion US dollars to 777 billion US dollars. With the effect of the global crisis in 2008, it regressed but then continued the increasing trend from 2009 to 2013. The GDP in Turkey reached 950 billion US dollars in 2013. When basic macroeconomic markers are examined for the period from 2002 to 2017 (TÜİK, IMF), GDP appears to have increased 3.5 times, with income per capita rising 3 times. The increase rates for national income per capita occurred very quickly from 2003 to 2008. The effect of precautions taken after the 2001 crisis and the stability ensured by the economy was effective on this increase. After the temporary regression experienced after 2008 global crisis, an increasing trend was experienced again from 2010 to 2013. Increasing income led to investment in housing beyond household requirements and increased housing prices.

5.6. Housing as an Investment Tool and Speculation

The housing sector can grow in environments with low loan interest rates and stable income levels. The most important risk created by the vitality of a housing market in such an environment is speculation. An environment with falling interest rates causes economic units to consider that high gains may be obtained by selling housing at a higher price in the future and act, causing increases in demand for housing. However, in an environment with rising interest rates, it may be more profitable to invest in a deposit account instead of investing money in housing. As housing returns will reduce against increasing inflation, amounts lower than deposit interest may be gained. This
reduces speculative demand for housing causing a reduction in housing sales in the market. In such an environment housing loses its appeal as an investment tool.

The temporary increase due to public expectations that an asset will increase in price in the future is defined as an asset bubble. Asset bubbles include a period with high possibility of housing purchases by those who believe they will be compensated by more price increases in the future. As speculation increases vitality of the market, medium and small-scale enterprises are drawn to production and the market expands. However, when the sector legally begins to draw its own assets and attempts to create a ground with more guarantee for its own financing, like housing loans, speculation becomes risky and housing loan risks increase. When assessed from this aspect, it appears housing sales occur with direct financing of Turkey’s construction firms by themselves. For this, companies use funds from both equity and received as debt from financial institutions and spread some of the sales. As a result, narrowing of the housing market causes a financing problem for the construction sector.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND ASSESSMENTS

The high share of the economy of the housing market in Turkey and subsectors linked to this market and the “multiplier” and “accelerating effect” that these cause in the economy are effective in the government choosing a growth policy based on this sector. Linked to the increase in housing supply and demand, greater vitality of the housing market led to increases in prices and high housing prices led to debate about whether a housing bubble was experienced or not. In fact, past experience indicates the market perception that the continuous and rapid increase in prices causes housing bubbles. Generally, price bubbles form when the relevant asset or house price is above market value. The expectations of economic units are important for this to occur. If expectations are positive, the formation of an optimistic expectation that the purchased housing can be sold for a higher price in the future, leads to a rising price spiral.

However, in developing economies, housing prices are more rapidly growing, more volatile, less stable and less synchronous compared to developed economies (Cesa-Bianchi et al., 2015), which are factors increasing risks in the housing market in terms of Turkey. On this topic, the opinions of both international media organizations and those within the academic framework are different. While some propose the Turkish housing market is a bubble, some defend that there is no significant risk. The bubble debate is associated with asset prices diverging from the economic fundamentals. The general outline of an asset bubble is formation of an illogical structure in pricing mechanisms of an investment asset, unrealistic expectations are “generalized”, demand and price inflation, before finally a rapid fall in prices.

Data from Turkey shows the increase in housing prices is higher than the increase in consumer price index, inflation rate and construction cost index both at national level and in some cities. Especially after 2013, a serious increase in housing prices was observed. It appears many factors were effective in the increase in housing prices in Turkey. This situation in house prices goes hand-in-hand with increasing supply, demand, sales, number of loan users, housing and construction loan volume and reducing mortgage interest rates. From 2002 to the present there have been increases in GDP in Turkey and GDP per capita. It is possible to say other fundamentals in the economy (interest rate, housing credit volume, urban population, etc.) have positive explanatory power for this increase. However, it is not wrong to show the propelling
force for all these reasons is the government’s legal regulations of the housing market (urban renewal law), promotion, applications and support.

The causes of increasing housing sales prices and rents in Turkey are distinct from the global markets. This situation may be associated with legal regulations. The increased speed of urban renewal activities, second hand sales with common expectation of value increases for renovated housing and the need for temporary relocation during the renovation process is reflected in rent increase rates. When assessing the correlation of housing prices and rent increase rates in terms of the presence of a price bubble, the increases in both markers in Turkey doubling in the period from 2010 to 2015 is the most important finding. Continuity of this increase in future years will increase risks in the housing market.

It may be said that the demand for housing in Turkey is fed artificially apart from economic fundamentals and legal regulations. In the occurrence of this situation the role of the government, banks and construction sector and individual desires to become a homeowner are effective. Due to economic growth and employment increases, the government is an important supporter of these policies. The continuing vitality in the sector is due to high profits obtained by the construction sector not just from housing construction but from shopping malls, hospital construction, public organizations and power stations. A significant proportion of investments by banks is directed toward personal housing loans and institutional construction credit, increasing gains. However, ensuring a large proportion of housing credit financing by foreign debt forms a risk. On the other hand, urban renewal has ensured significant levels of income for individuals. Continuous valuation of housing as an investment tool has made this market appealing and resulted in increases in prices the majority of the time.

The sustainability of all these developments is controversial. Especially, the increase in exchange rates will negatively affect the housing market by increasing housing costs, inflation and loan interest rates. In fact, when the permits given since 2018 are added to the equation, over 2 million in housing stock is mentioned. This situation is a marker of the artificial increases created by house prices in Turkey; in other words, an indication that the point may come when the bubble begins to deflate. This high level of housing stock cannot be only explained by variations in fundamentals of the economy and at the same time is a marker that the speculative psychology is affecting the housing market. Economic units considering they will obtain higher gains in the future spread optimistic news about the housing market and display more interest in this market. The common belief that housing is a large investment resource causes speculation in the housing market.

Since 2016 in Turkey, it is debatable as to whether available narrowing signals in the housing market have reached critical levels or not. However, the critical situation is the risks caused to the economy in general by growth of housing production independent of demand and needs. Negative developments that may be experienced in the construction sector and linked macroeconomic reflection should be carefully monitored depending on such factors as banks raise interest rates against rising inflation and risks, political uncertainty, the risk of foreign investment decline due to increases in exchange rates and geopolitical risks. The role played by the housing sector in the growth of the Turkish economy to date and the vitality provided to the economy should not be ignored.
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Chapter 63

To Believe or Not To Believe: A Review of Ad Skepticism

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INTRODUCTION

Measuring general attitudes and feelings of consumers toward products, markets, marketing efforts or businesses have always been an attractive issue to study for both academics and practitioners. Within this context, numerous researches have been carried out on attitude toward businesses (Bartol, 1976; Anderson, Engledow and Becker, 1979), marketing (Barksdale and Darden, 1972; Gaski and Etzel, 1986) and advertising (Muehling, 1987; Durvasula et al., 1993; Ang and Eisend, 2018) to determine the attitudes of consumers with regards to these issues.

The major tool used by businesses to persuade consumers in order to use their products or services is advertising, and evaluating the consumer attitudes toward advertising and the determinants of these attitudes is significant to effectively use this tool. Skepticism toward advertising (ad skepticism) is an important factor that affects consumer attitudes toward advertising messages presented via various media. It is a central variable affecting persuadability of advertisements. As consumers’ skepticism increase, they will be more inclined to suspect from the information presented in the ads and they will make more conscious choices. Thus, consumer skepticism toward advertising is an important construct to be considered while evaluating their attitudes.

Although the history of the critical perspectives of consumers toward ads dates back to the first quarter of 1900s, researches on this issue have increased in the last two decades. Therefore, ad skepticism has been subject to limited number of studies despite the varying perspectives it was studied. As a result, making an overall evaluation of the construct, its structure and the studies made on this concept is expected to provide contributions for the literature specifically on attitude toward advertising and marketing, and also on consumer behavior, in general.

DEFINITION OF AD SKEPTICISM

Skepticism is glossed as “an attitude of doubt or a disposition to incredulity either in general or toward a particular object” (Webster, 2018). Businesses invest in high amounts every year for advertising activities in order to introduce their goods or services to consumers and to be chosen by them. These ads also act as sources of information for consumers and as tools that save them from search costs. However, this source of information for goods and services with easy access is not always considered as a reliable tool. Consumers have the knowledge that firms try to persuade them by using ads and thus, they treat ads with prejudice. In addition to their prejudice, consumers do not pay equal attention to each ad presented to them as they are exposed to numerous ads every day. Despite being the product of a refined taste, having a clever content, having almost limitless resources and being used nearly everywhere,
advertising faces with serious problems in realizing its objectives and one of the most important one among these problems is the disbelief of consumers (Obermiller, Spangenberg and MacLachlan, 2005).

Ad skepticism is defined as the general tendency to disbelieve the arguments presented in the ads (Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1998). Consumers who have doubt about the ads believe that advertisers are not honest in the information they provide in the ads about their goods or services. In their research on consumers, Barksdale and Darden (1972) have addressed consumers’ questions on advertising besides business world, product quality, marketing activities, consumerism and government practices. The findings of their study revealed the overall opinions of consumers about ads which are listed as; 1) most of the ads are not believable, 2) ads do not provide reliable information about product quality and performance, and 3) ads do not present a true picture of the products. Calfee and Ringold (1994) also evaluated the results of national attitude surveys which are made since 1930s, and reached the conclusion that about 70% of consumers do not trust in ads. The findings of the study indicated that ads force consumers to buy the things that they do not want to buy, and that ads should be regulated more efficiently, yet despite all its negative aspects, ads provide information for consumers. Consumer attitudes regarding ads remained the same despite the changes that occur in the business world, market structure and competition.

Consumers have developed a feeling of suspect regarding advertisements in the course of time though they consider ads to be an important source of information in some cases (Calfee and Ringold, 1988). This questioning of consumers include skepticism from the content of ads, the motives of advertisers, the value of the information presented in the ad for the individual or for the society, and appropriateness of the ad for various consumer groups (Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1998).

Ad skepticism is a distinct construct from general skepticism and from attitude toward advertising. An individual with general skepticism tendency may not be skeptical of the information presented in the ads or from the intentions of advertisers. However, an individual who is not skeptic may have a skeptical stance on the ads. Similarly, ad skepticism is independent from overall attitude toward advertising. It is one of the factors affecting ad attitude and behavioral intentions of consumers. Individuals with high ad skepticism levels will not consider ads and try to obtain information about the product from other sources.

Ad skepticism is divided into two as general tendency to disbelieve the ads and disbelief toward specific ads (Ford, Smith and Swasy, 1990; Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1998; Forehand and Grier, 2003), which are also referred as dispositional and situational skepticism, respectively. Also, skepticism toward social advertising was developed against the skepticism concept which was primarily used for commercial ads, and the concept was analyzed under two dimensions from this perspective (Thakor and Goneau-Lessard, 2009).

LITERATURE REVIEW OF AD SKEPTICISM STUDIES

Persuasion, which shapes individual attitudes, is affected from various factors and ad skepticism is one of them. Various studies have been conducted to unearth the determinants of ad skepticism.

One of the first studies embracing ad skepticism of consumers as a separate construct was made by Calfee and Ringold (1988). The study compiles findings of
public opinion polls and it is seen that questions measuring skepticism became continuous from 1960s onwards. Previous polls also included questions on skepticism, yet these questions were not repeated in every survey. Findings of the studies revealed consumers’ feelings of skepticism toward ads. In their study in 1994, the authors have repeated their previous research by expanding its scope and found that 70% of the individuals have skepticism toward ads, that ads direct consumers to buy the goods and services they do not need, and that owing to all these reasons, more efficient regulations should be made.

Research on ad skepticism have increased within the last two decades, yet, previous studies measuring ad attitude also measured ad skepticism (e.g. Sandage and Leckenby, 1980; Muehling, 1987; Andrews, 1989; Durvasula et al., 1993). The fact that most of the consumers have a basic level of skepticism (Calfee and Ringold, 1994) and that skepticism is a concept that is related to but different from other ad-related structures (Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1998) have resulted in studies where ad skepticism is handled separately.

Kerkhof, Fennis and van der Meijden (2004) have grouped the factors that affect ad skepticism under the dimensions of consumer characteristics (e.g. age, gender, self-esteem, risk perception), ad-related factors (e.g. claim verifiability, ad appeals) and manufacturer related factors (e.g. manufacturer reliability and reputation). They suggested that the antecedents which can be listed under these groups affect situational skepticism, defined as the response to a specific ad (Ford et al., 1990) whereas dispositional skepticism refers to the general tendency to disbelief ad claims (Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1998).

Ford, Smith and Sways (1988, 1990) claimed that product type affects ad skepticism. They have revealed in their study, which is based on Economics of Information Theory that consumer skepticism levels vary by product type. Accordingly, skepticism levels of consumers for products with search qualities is lower when compared with the skepticism levels of consumers for claims of products with experience or credence qualities as consumers have the chance to make previous research about the product with search qualities. However, for products with experience qualities, consumers have higher skepticism levels regarding product claims as they cannot have precise judgements about the product even if they make research before purchase. Consumers may never have information with regards to credence qualities. Therefore, skepticism toward claims of these products is highest when compared with product claims of search or experience products. Feick and Gierl (1996) compared attitudes of consumers living in East and West Germany, using hypothesis of Ford et al. (1990) and also found that skepticism regarding product claims differ by product type.

Ad skepticism is acknowledged as a concept affecting overall market attitude and therefore, is related to other concepts evaluating market-relevant attitudes. Within this context, Obermiller and Spangenberg (1998) prepared an extensive nomological network for ad skepticism as presented in Figure 1. According to this model, ad skepticism is affected from personality traits and consumption experiences. The concept is suggested to be related to attitudes toward advertising and marketing due to its relevance to advertising.
Figure 1. Nomological Network for Ad Skepticism
Source: Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1998, p.167
In this approach, it is recognized that consumers with ad skepticism will have negative attitudes toward advertising and marketing efforts. Pursuant to the model, ad skepticism moderates the effect of advertising appeals on ad information processing. In the effect of ad skepticism on consequences such as brand belief, brand attitude and reliance on ads, situational variables are effective together with individual factors.

In line with all these effects, Obermiller and Spangenberg (1998) suggested that individuals with high ad skepticism levels would attend to ads less, would be less inclined to form consistent beliefs with claims in the ads, and would be more likely to raise counterarguments to the ad source. As a result, these individuals would be less likely to be persuaded by the ads, less affected in brand attitudes and would rely on ads less for product information. The authors also claimed that ad skepticism shapes the effect of persuasion tools used in the ads on the audience. Accordingly, individuals with high skepticism level will be more susceptible to complex arguments and will not consider peripheral cues. Thanks to the rich cognitive structures of these individuals, their awareness of the strategies used in the ads is higher and therefore, they will be less affected from peripheral persuasion tools.

The reviewed studies on ad skepticism could be analyzed in terms of the nomological network developed by Obermiller and Spangenberg (1998). Accordingly, in terms of personality traits, the studies measured the effect of cynicism (Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1998; Mohr et al., 1998), self-esteem (Boush et al., 1994; Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1998; Kerkhof et al., 2004; Thakor and Goneau-Lessard, 2009), reactance (Thakor and Goneau-Lessard, 2009) and susceptibility to interpersonal influence (Boush et al., 1994; Mangleburg and Bristol, 1998; Kerkhof et al., 2004; Thakor and Goneau-Lessard, 2009). The findings revealed that cynicism, which is a closely related concept with skepticism, is positively related to skepticism and consumers with a cynical perspective will be more skeptical of advertising. Similarly, self-esteem, defined as someone’s belief in one’s own abilities, is negatively related to persuadability and positively related to ad skepticism. The reaction of an individual when his choices are restricted is defined as reactance (Thakor and Goneau-Lessard, 2009) and this personality trait is also positively associated with ad skepticism. While these traits display a positive relation with ad skepticism, susceptibility to interpersonal influence is negatively related to it. The concept is defined as “willingness to conform to the expectations of others regarding purchase decisions” (Bearden, Netemeyer and Teel, 1989) and individuals may be skeptical of the messages given in the ads as their source of knowledge will be individuals they consider important for them, such as family or peers.

With regards to consumption experiences as the second antecedent in the model, the studies measured the effects of age (Boush et al., 1994; Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1998; Obermiller and Spangenberg, 2000; Elpeze-Ergeç, 2004), education (Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1998; Elpeze-Ergeç, 2004) and gender (Obermiller and Spangenberg, 2000; Elpeze-Ergeç, 2004) on ad skepticism. As consumers get older, their experience regarding marketing and advertiser tactics increases, and therefore, they will be more skeptical of ads. Similarly, education is found to be positively related with ad skepticism. With regards to gender, the studies revealed differences in ad skepticism between genders, where female family members are more skeptical of ads.

The literature on ad skepticism also concentrated around individual and situational
factors that moderated ad skepticism related beliefs in the nomological network. Research on individual factors included advertising knowledge (Boush et al., 1994; Kerkhof et al., 2004) and market knowledge (Mangleburg and Bristol, 1998; Ural, 2010). It was revealed by the researches that knowledge on both advertising and marketing is positively associated with ad skepticism where consumers will be more skeptical of ads when their knowledge on advertising and marketing increases.

Studies on the second factor moderating ad skepticism related beliefs in the nomological network – situational factors, tested ad-related factors such as claim verifiability (Kerkhof et al., 2004), product and claim type (Ford et al., 1990), claim repetition and familiarity (Singh et al., 2009) and manufacturer-related factors such as reliability and reputation of manufacturer (Kerkhof et al., 2004) and claim and product evaluation (Mohr et al., 1998). With regards to ad-related factors, the studies revealed that claim verifiability has a negative association with ad skepticism as consumers will be less skeptical of objective claims than of subjective claims. Product type was found as another factor affecting skepticism, where consumers will be least skeptical of products with search qualities and most skeptical of products with credence qualities. On the other hand, studies on manufacturer-related factors indicated that reputation and reliability of the manufacturer negatively affects ad skepticism, just like the effect of ad skepticism on product and claim evaluation where it diminishes the positive impact of these outcomes.

Another factor in ad skepticism related beliefs is ad appeals, which was used by Obermiller et al. (2005) in their research where the authors compared the effect of ad skepticism on emotional and informational ad appeals between groups with high vs low skepticism levels. The results indicated no significant difference between ad appeals for consumers with low ad skepticism, yet individuals with high ad skepticism were more positive in their responses to emotional appeals and more negative in their responses to informational appeals.

Reviewing studies on the consequences of the model reveal that Obermiller and Spangenberg (1998) and Obermiller et al. (2005) tested the effect of ad skepticism on outcomes such as ad response, behavioral response and ad information processing dimensions. The findings indicated that consumers with high ad skepticism should attend to ads less, should find ads less likeable, believable, influential and informative. As a result, skeptic consumers would be less persuaded and affected by the ads, and rely less on ads for product information.

Besides the studies where ad skepticism is evaluated within the general consumption context, other researchers have tried to analyze the concept within different contexts. One of these perspectives is testing the effect of ad skepticism for green consumers or within green consumption contexts (Shrum, McCarty and Lowrey, 1995; Mohr et al. 1998; Matthes and Wonneberger, 2014; Majlath, 2017) where the findings revealed that green consumers display skeptical attitude toward advertising. Other studies have analyzed the skepticism of consumers toward social ads and cause-related claims (Thakor and Goneau-Lessard, 2009; Singh et al., 2009; Bae, 2018). Ju (2017), on the other hand, tested the effect of skepticism regarding drug ads and their evaluation.
CONCLUSION

Ads and consumer attitudes toward the ads have always been a significant issue for both academics and practitioners. Despite providing information for consumers about the products, advertising is criticized for its exaggeratedness and for using tools that persuade consumers to buy the things they do not need. One of the primary objectives of advertising is to persuade consumers to buy the advertised product. Yet, for fulfilling this aim, consumers should acknowledge the information presented in the ads as true.

However, consumers have an innate skepticism toward advertising and they continuously evaluate the truth of arguments in the ads. Skepticism plays an important role in both economic and social analysis of the ads. It is a major determinant of consumer attitudes toward the ad, the advertised product/service and behavioral intentions which will be shaped in line with their attitudes. Therefore, in order to realize one of its fundamental purposes – persuasion, consumers’ skepticism levels, the factors affecting their skepticism and the effect of skepticism on attitudes should be analyzed and understood comprehensively.

As the literature is limited on ad skepticism, it provides ample opportunities to research the issue using novel variables, within different contexts and with varying consumer groups. This review of literature is expected to shed light on and ease the road that academics would take when they are studying skepticism.

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Chapter 64

A Survey on Youth Unemployment in the Axis of Turkey’s Employment Policy

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INTRODUCTION

When we look at the last 50 years of the world economy, it can be observed that major changes in almost every area are experienced. Especially in the labor market since the second half of the 1970s, the countries that faced the problem of unemployment have directed the employment policy to promote employment and facilitate employability in order to solve this problem.

The concept of employment, which means that all factors of production participate actively in production, usually means that the labor force participates in production in the literature of economics. Unemployment, a problem that arises when economies operate at the level of underemployment, is among the major problems in almost every economy. According to TUIK data, Turkey’s population in 2017 is nearly 81 million. Approximately 13 million of this population is from the 15-24 age group. When we look at the population structure and the current employment level, it is clear that Turkey must follow effective, solution-oriented and stable employment policies.

Young unemployment, which refers to the unemployment of the population in the 15-24 age range, has a permanent impact on the macroeconomic systems of all countries and plays a decisive role in the welfare and development of the people of the country. The prevalence of this problem, especially among young people, which form the basis of society’s future and developmental dynamics, can cause negative impacts on macroeconomic balances in the longer term. With this aspect, the issue of youth unemployment is at the forefront of the issues that need to be discussed in detail within the macroeconomic structure.

In the first years of the Republic, the labor force participating in the active population has not been seen as an important unemployment problem due to reasons such as the low number of male population, the surplus of young people taken in the related process and the length of military service. It is regarded as a problem of unemployment in Turkey and to take measures to reduce unemployment began in the Planned Development Period. In 1933, investments in the First Five-Year Development Plan as an extension of the statist policies did not bring the unemployment as a major problem on the agenda of Turkey in this period. Even if we did not participate directly in the Second World War, we were not mobilized and the current army system continued to be preserved (long military periods, etc.) did not lead to a significant unemployment problem during this period.

In the development plans prepared during the period of 1960-1980 called “Planned Development Period”, unemployment was regarded as a problem arising from the structural disorders in the economy and it was argued that the problem would be solved
with rapid development and industrialization. However, these predictions without sound policy bases have not been realized, and the economic depression experienced towards the end of the 1970s has further increased the problem of unemployment (Biçerli, 2004). Since the 1980s, the influence of Outsourcing liberal economic policies and increased international competition has led to debate the issue of evaluation and effective use of the labor force in Turkey. Until the early 1990s, macroeconomic measures such as the fight against unemployment, increasing the speed of development rather than active / passive labor market measures, speeding up industrialization by export incentives and employment creation were emphasized; thus the fight against unemployment and the increase in employment are seen as the result of economic development (Serter, 1993).

Turkey tries to be taken in the field of employment in the various steps of EU cohesion policy axis. Surely the employment dynamics are not the same in EU and Turkey. In this context the basic elements about employment policy different in EU and Turkey can be summarized as follows:

- The process of normalization of the agricultural sector (Turkey: GDP 11%, employment 35% - EU: GDP 2%, employment 4%)
- The fast conversion process that the private sector is living in (Sector crossings)
- Population increase during the working age
- Participation of women in the workforce
- High amount of informality (50% of jobs)
- Size of regional differences
- Qualitative differences (labor force that cannot compete globally).

According to the UN and OECD definitions, the 15-24 age group is defined as the young population. According to the ILO, unemployed are defined as all those who are ready to work, who are actively looking for work, who are not doing any work (not working more than an hour during the reference period), and are ready to start work. When the UN definition of youth and the ILO definition of unemployed are taken together, “young unemployed” is defined as a person between the ages of 15 and 24 who has not worked more than an hour during the reference period, is ready to work and is actively looking for work.

According to UNESCO, the young person is the person who does not have his or her own home, who is studying, does not work to earn his life. Youth constitutes the most dynamic, fluid and active part of a society. Unemployed in the 15-24 age range are assessed in the category of young unemployment. Age group as unique and labor youth unemployment, which for various reasons linked to the structure of the market, both important issues both in Turkey and in other countries brings with it. The young unemployment rates are much higher than the general unemployment rates due to reasons such as the age of entry into the labor market for the first time, the additional cost to the employers due to not having a previous work experience, insufficient recognition of the labor market and an inability to establish an effective link between the education system and the labor market.

**CONCEPT OF YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT**

Young unemployment rates are higher than general unemployment rates in many developing and developed countries. The disadvantaged status of young people in the labor market is an important factor in the high youth unemployment rates. On the other
hand, during periods of economic crisis, young people are more affected by the consequences of the crisis than adults. Many factors, such as not having experience in the labor market, representing a more costly group of employees in terms of employers, problems in transitioning from school to work are particularly influential on young people in the labor market when they face serious difficulties in the labor market, especially when total demand falls and the economy shrinks. High youth unemployment rates indicate a significant economic loss in many countries in the sense that young people are not fully exploiting their potential. The increase in crime rates and the problems of social exclusion can be considered as the social costs of young unemployment.

Studies of youth unemployment in the economic literature appear to have started after the 1970s. Calderon (2004) describes employment as an important element that shapes the social identity of young people, regulates their lives, the development of their independence, their income, their respect, socio-economic and political citizenship. After the Second World War it was observed that especially in the 1960s, the rate of youth unemployment was very high even in the period when the growth rate in Federal Germany was high and the normal rates of unemployment were at very low levels (Kutal, 1990).

Bertola et al. (2007) find a role for unionization rates in reducing youth employment; the former attribute this to wage compression, whilst the latter argue rather more convincingly that unions bargain to protect their core members, prime age males, and are more willing to accept employment losses amongst more peripheral groups such as young people and women.

Today, youth unemployment is considered among the main problems of the country’s economies in international organizations and active policy search for solutions is being continued. The main findings declared in the Global Employment Trends in Youth Report 2017 are:

- Between 1997 and 2017, the youth population grew by 139 million people, while the youth labor force shrank by 34.9 million people. This dynamic is also reflected in a declining youth proportion of the overall global labor force, from 21.7 percent to 15.5 percent.
- The global youth labor force participation rate has declined in the past 20 years from 55.0 percent to 45.7 percent.
- Globally, 70.9 million young people are estimated to be unemployed in 2017.
- In developing countries, the unemployment rate among youth is expected to remain stable at 9.5 percent in 2017, while in emerging countries it is expected to rise to 13.8 percent. In developed countries it is expected to decline from 14.0 percent in 2016 to 13.4 percent in 2017.
- Across OECD countries, almost 18 percent of unemployed youth have been without work for a year or longer.
- The latest data shows that 76.7 percent of working youth are in informal jobs, compared with 57.9 percent of working adults.
- Youth in informality as a percentage of employed youth is 96.8 percent in developing countries, 83.0 percent in emerging countries, and slightly less than 20 percent in developed countries.
- Young people are more likely to transition to stable and satisfactory employment in developed and emerging countries than in developing countries.
In developing countries, young persons are more likely to settle definitively into self-employment. The impact of new automation and digital technologies on employment prospects for young workers will differ across countries, sectors and skill groups. Compared to older workers, young workers are more comfortable with new technologies and likely to adapt faster. The sectors identified as an expanding source of youth employment are: financial services; human health and social work activities; trade, hotels and restaurants; transport and storage and information and communications. Financial intermediation is booming in developing countries while health services are absorbing young workers in more developed countries. Transport and storage, information and communications, as well as trade, hotels and restaurants are absorbing young workers across the globe. Manufacturing employment has declined in most regions, but remains important, especially in Asia and the Pacific, and particularly for young workers. However, skills requirements are changing, with more demand for high and low-skilled workers, and less demand for semi-skilled workers. This trend towards job polarization may be accentuated by new technology which could potentially exacerbate existing inequalities (ILO, 2017).

Table 1: Youth Unemployment Trends and Projections, (by region, 2016–18)

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<tr>
<td>Northern Africa</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>28.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Americas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern America</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arab States</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia and Pacific</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Asia</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South-Eastern Asia and the Pacific</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Asia</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe and Central Asia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern, Southern and Western Europe</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Europe</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central and Western Asia</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: ILO, 2017

Regarding youth unemployment, especially the changes that have taken place since the 1980s:
- The rise of the post-industrial, service-based economy, the decline in traditional
production in advanced societies, the widespread use of computer technology,
- Changes in the structure of the labor market,
- Developments in management policies to increase workforce and flexibility at work,
- The rise of long-term unemployment during the 1980s and 1990s
- An increase in the proportion of young people who continue to stay in advanced training
- Decrease in young population and aging of population
It can be summarized as the feminization of the workforce, which means a constant increase for the young men (Bradley and Van Hoof, 2005). The problem of youth unemployment also brings with it significant problems in terms of the country’s economy and young people. When assessed in terms of the country’s economy, these problems are:
(a) resource waste,
(b) social productivity and slowing in production,
(c) loss of social security revenues,
(d) increase in health expenditures,
(e) lag behind technological developments,
(f) youth unemployment that causes loss of competitiveness.

When social influences are evaluated in terms of young people, these problems are:
(a) late maturation,
(b) a reduction in expectation of employment,
(c) psychological and family problems,
(d) creating economic and social unrest,
(e) reactionally suicide orientation,
(f) alienation from collective and democratic processes.

**BASIC REASONS FOR YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT**

Factors causing youth unemployment; the negative conditions of the labor force, the inability to find jobs according to the educational situation, the existence of young people who will work in a cheaper job, and the attitudes and behaviors of migrants coming from Syria in the form of what they do. These and other such problems are the basis for educated and young unemployed. Undoubtedly the issue of educated unemployment and unemployment is a negative and serious social problem.

Today, unemployment is one of the main problems that young people have to solve. In general, unemployment is examined in macro and micro dimensions. The regional conditions of the youth, the differentiation of the characteristics they possess and some features of the employers constitute the micro-axis dimension. Situations in the face of crises constitute the macro dimension of the event (Murat and Şahin, 2011).

The reasons why young people are not included in the workforce can be sorted in different ways. Among these are those who are not looking for work but are ready to work, those who are not hope to find work, those who are in seasonal work, those who are engaged in housework, those who are in pursuit of education or training most of the time, retired people, those who are not working, housewives and students.
Table 2: Reasons of Young Unemployment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons of Youth Unemployment</th>
<th>Demand Oriented</th>
<th>Supply Oriented</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Current Jobs</td>
<td>Lack of jobs for young people due to economic conditions</td>
<td>Having a lot of low-level jobs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wage Level</td>
<td>Minimal wage and other strict regulations increase the number of low-level jobs</td>
<td>Unrealistic wage demands of young people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobility</td>
<td>Short cyclical temporary jobs cause high unemployment</td>
<td>High mobility of young workers in the labor market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>A business prospect for the future of young people, and the discrimination of the employers in this respect to reduce young labor demand</td>
<td>At the current wage level, young people prefer leisure time instead of working</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications</td>
<td>Acquisition of attributes during operation</td>
<td>Lack of training and experience of young people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapid growth of young population</td>
<td>The labor market produces many new jobs for young people, especially summer</td>
<td>Unpredictable increase in young population</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Gündoğan, 1999

Macroeconomic Reasons

At the forefront of the most important causes of youth unemployment is macroeconomic factors. In this context, due to the cyclical fluctuations in the economy, total demand reduction and inadequate economic growth negatively affect the creation of new employment opportunities. Adequate economic growth performance not only affects all segments of the labor market but also has serious consequences for young people.

The fluctuations in total demand affect young people more than adults. The main reason for this is that young people are more likely to voluntarily leave their jobs than adult workers. Young people’s first experiences in the labor market are often “market research”. It is suggested that the opportunity cost of market research is lower for young people, as the need for young people to have a job to care for the family is lower than for adults (O’Higgins, 2001; Mroz and Savage, 2006).

Structure of Labor Market

The most important reason why young people who enter the labor market for the first time face more difficulties in finding employment than adults are information asymmetry in the labor market. In countries where public and private labor market institutions and other labor market information resources are not sufficiently developed, information flows from personal networks, especially family and friends, play an important role in bringing jobs to job seekers (WB, 2012).
A growing economy, a stable macroeconomic and political environment are key conditions for job creation and employment for all age groups. However, even where growth is positive, young people have different characteristics in the labor market than adults. For example, employers may not have full knowledge of the skills and productivity of young people applying to them, and young people may experience uncertainty about what they want to do. As a result, job change rates are higher in young people than in adults, and young people can take longer to find permanent jobs (IEG, 2013).

The disadvantaged positions of young people in the labor market and the obstacles to their recruitment can be explained by the lack of skills as well as the lack of working experience in both general and specific areas. To put it more generally, many firms think that young people are not able to be employed after they graduate from school or college and that they first need intensive in-service training to create value for their business (Vogel, 2015).

Youth Population Growth

Considering the demographic structure of the underdeveloped and developing countries in particular, there is considerable concern about the negative impact of the increase in the young population on youth unemployment. The more young people there are in the labor market, the more jobs they will need to hire. This situation is undoubtedly directly related to the economic growth of the country and the employment creation capacity. Research on the relationship between young population growth and youth unemployment suggests that the effect of macroeconomic and labor market conditions, particularly aggregate demand, is greater for younger population growth, suggesting a negative impact on youth unemployment (Freeman and Wise, 1982).

Wage Differences, Experience and Skill Incompatibility

It is also argued that relative wage differentials among young and adult workers may increase youth unemployment rates. The higher the wages of young workers than the adult wages, the younger the employment is affected negatively. While this approach is based on the assumption that young and adult workers are substitutable for each other, the situation does not always apply, especially in relation to qualified adult workers (O’Higgins, 2001).

Another important factor underlying the weaknesses of young people’s integration with the labor market and the high unemployment rates is the incompatibility between labor market qualifications and labor market demands, in other words, skill mismatch. Skill incompatibility is an important question that indicates that the transition from school to work is not healthy (Coenjaerts et al., 2009).

Problems during the transition from school to work focus on the inadequacy of educational achievements, the high rates of unemployment and job change, and the weak relationship between education and employment. Firms suffering difficulties in finding suitable staff for the qualifications they are looking for can cause jobs to be filled due to skill incompatibility, even if there is a quantitative balance between open jobs and job seekers, or they are forced to be employed in jobs that do not fit their qualifications (Ryan, 2001).
YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT AND EMPLOYMENT POLICIES IN TURKEY

Measures taken by governments to prevent unemployment are the fulfillment of the obligation to become a welfare state. The 1982 constitution states: “The state takes necessary measures to raise the level of life for workers, protect workers to improve working life, support employees and create an economic environment favorable to preventing unemployment”. To this end, governments have prepared various development plans in each period. However, the targets set in the programs are not sufficiently achieved.

To carry out activities related to the regulation of the labor market in Turkey in 1946, the Employment Agency has been established. For many years, the agency has been the sole agency responsible for regulating the labor market. However, due to changing conditions in the job market new law enacted in 2003, Turkey Business Association (TEO) was established. The new law provides for a structure to implement active labor market policies and also allows private employment bureaus to operate by removing the institution’s monopoly authority (Koray, 2005).

Table 3: General Structure of Labor in Turkey (2017-2018)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population 15 years old</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and over</td>
<td>(Thousand)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>59567</td>
<td>60415</td>
<td>30091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor Force</td>
<td>30855</td>
<td>31520</td>
<td>19379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>29956</td>
<td>28166</td>
<td>1998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>5036</td>
<td>4983</td>
<td>2864</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-agriculture</td>
<td>21920</td>
<td>23182</td>
<td>16515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>3900</td>
<td>3354</td>
<td>1438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not in the labor force</td>
<td>28712</td>
<td>28895</td>
<td>20360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor force participation</td>
<td>51,8</td>
<td>52,2</td>
<td>32,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rate (%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>33,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment rate</td>
<td>45,3</td>
<td>46,6</td>
<td>27,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate</td>
<td>12,6</td>
<td>10,6</td>
<td>9,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-agricultural</td>
<td>14,8</td>
<td>12,5</td>
<td>10,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unemployment rate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-64 age group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor force participation</td>
<td>56,8</td>
<td>57,3</td>
<td>36,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rate (%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>37,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment rate</td>
<td>49,5</td>
<td>51,1</td>
<td>30,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate</td>
<td>12,9</td>
<td>10,9</td>
<td>15,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-agricultural</td>
<td>14,9</td>
<td>12,5</td>
<td>19,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unemployment rate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth population (15-24 age)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate</td>
<td>23,3</td>
<td>19,0</td>
<td>26,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The rate of neither in</td>
<td>23,9</td>
<td>14,9</td>
<td>33,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>employment nor in</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>education</td>
<td>22,8</td>
<td>14,0</td>
<td>31,9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: TUİK, Labor Force Statistics, 2018
Bulutay (1995), the labor market in Turkey has a high rate of population growth outlined, skill level of the lower labor-intensive, weight gradually decreasing productivity and low agricultural sector in the economy, high unemployment, stated that consists of a structure that has a low rate of participation in the labor force for women it is. The general structure of labor in Turkey shown in Table 3.

In recent years, economic growth has not been able to provide sufficient employment growth, but unemployment rates have experienced significant increases in Turkey. When developments such as increasing incentives for young entrepreneurs and increasing opportunities for youth employment in the information and technology sectors are evaluated, the right strategies for reducing youth unemployment can be developed.

Table 4: Distribution of 15-24 Age (Thousand)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>15-24 Population</th>
<th>Labor</th>
<th>Labor Force Participation Rate</th>
<th>Not in Labor Force</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>11 724</td>
<td>4 789</td>
<td>40,8</td>
<td>6 936</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>11 800</td>
<td>4 958</td>
<td>42,0</td>
<td>6 843</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>11 845</td>
<td>5 025</td>
<td>42,4</td>
<td>6 820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>11 875</td>
<td>5 146</td>
<td>43,3</td>
<td>6 729</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: TUİK, Labor Force Statistics, 2018

İŞKUR carries out various employment policies for employment and young employment. Active employment policies carried out by İŞKUR are of great importance in terms of preventing long-term unemployment. Job and vocational counseling services are provided and workforce training courses are held to provide vocational training, especially for unqualified long-term unemployed people, to restore lost confidence in job search or to gain job search skills. The main objective of the labor training courses is to increase the employability of women, young people, old rulers, long-term unemployed people, unemployed people with disabilities and unemployment insurance in the areas where they are most affected by unemployment and which have a disadvantage compared to other groups in the labor market. In this respect, İŞKUR regularly conducts active labor force programs; “Training Courses for Employment Guaranteed Labor”, “Vocational Training Courses for Those Who Want to Establish Their Own Business”, “Vocational Training Courses for Vocational Training”, “Vocational Training and Rehabilitation for Vocational Training”, “Training for Vocational Training for Vocational Training”, is organized (Alabaş, 2007).

POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS TO REDUCE YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT

Turkey’s unemployment rate for young adults in the event of unemployment is at least twice. This situation clearly reveals the failure to implement adequate policies in Turkey towards reducing youth unemployment. However, these figures have reached such serious dimensions that economic and social policies need to be designed together to combat youth unemployment.

The aim of your employability is to increase the employment opportunities by improving the knowledge and skills of young people. For this reason, it is stated that governments generally need to increase their investments in education and vocational
training in general. Generally the problem is that the education system in the countries does not match the requirements of the labor market. As young people lack lucrative, secure jobs and access to the labor market, they need special support in this regard. If that support is not provided, young people are stuck in a vicious cycle of poor education, unprofitable work, and poverty. For this reason, countries need to re-examine their labor market policies on education, vocational training and the opportunities for young people to move to work after they have finished school. In this context, it has been emphasized that countries should increase their investments to raise their employability and education levels, and that their national action plans should set their objectives based on these objectives (ILO, 2009).

The most common active employment policy practices used to combat youth unemployment are:

I. Encouragement of paid employment through the use of vocational training and employment placement,

ii. Business start-up training can be categorized as encouraging young people to start their own business through measures that make it easier to access business loans and business areas (O’Higgins, 2001).

According to the OECD, active employment policies are policies that improve working conditions in the labor market, improve vocational skills and increase the effectiveness of the labor market, and these policies are mainly classified under five headings (Buluttekin, 2008):

I. Labor market education

ii. Direct job creation

iii. Subsidized employment

iv. Consulting and placement services

vi. Measures for young people

Awareness of the fact that youth unemployment in the world has its own unique aspects that require direct policy measures is increasing. Job creation policies are worthy of human dignity for all and very important for the development of efficient job opportunities, but with well-targeted policies, the employment opportunities of young people can be increased directly. Therefore, there is a need to strengthen labor market institutions that help young people reach jobs, prevent discrimination based on lack of experience, support entrepreneurship, and manage education for market needs. Table 5 presents policy implementations for specific problems in developed and developing countries.

In the Lisbon summit in 2000, a strategy based on strengthening employment, economic reform and social cohesion was adopted, and decisions were taken to flexibilize social protection and prevent social exclusion in order to create more and better jobs for Europe. Lisbon’s decisions aimed to make the European Union a competitive and dynamic information economy with sustainable economic growth capacity by 2010 through more employment and social cohesion.
Table 5: Policy Recommendations for Developed and Developing Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>Policy Proposal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poverty and lack of “decent work for human dignity”</td>
<td>The economic growth and the growth of the employment content to increase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sectoral distribution.</td>
<td>Sectoral policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low average education success and low quality education, teaching</td>
<td>Educational investment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate supply and demand of young workforce</td>
<td>Change and validate the perception of vocational education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unrealistic demands to be employed in the sector of the public sector</td>
<td>Changing the perception of private sector employment against the public sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in temporary work</td>
<td>Reduction of barriers to hiring inexperienced young people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Young people’s lack of experience gap” leads to higher labor mobility</td>
<td>Incorporate job search skills and career guidance programs into schools to combine with school work experience and facilitate school to work transition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualified unqualified division and social exclusion of minority groups</td>
<td>Targeting of excluded groups</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: ILO, 2008

At the committee, it is recommended that the following priorities be focused on in order to achieve these ultimate goals (Çolak, 2007):

I. Active and protective measures should be taken for the unemployed and those who are not active,
   ii. Entrepreneurship should be supported to create more and better jobs,
   iii. Informal employment should be recorded,
   iv. Active aging should be improved.
   vi. The labor market must be harmonized.
   vi. Investment in human capital and lifelong learning strategies should be developed.
   vii. Gender equality in the labor market must be ensured.
   viii. In the labor market, discrimination against disadvantaged groups should be promoted and adaptation of these groups should be ensured.
   ix. Regional employment disparities should be eliminated.

When the unemployment indicator somehow EU new members from many countries appear to have a more positive statement that Turkey is in fact known by everyone in the much larger size of the unemployment problem. As many of the new EU member countries, youth unemployment is a major problem for Turkey. When statistics are examined, the presence of a young unemployed group, which is higher than the EU average, attracts attention.

Having a young population and the next fifty years, according to projections made in this demographic structure which are thought to protect Turkey in case of youth unemployment in the EU newcomer countries is of much greater significance. It should not be overlooked that young unemployment is caused by lack of quality, rather than to a large extent by lack of education (Kara and Duruel, 2009).
Table 6: Main Policy Areas about Youth Unemployment

| Economic and social policies to promote equitable growth and expand the demand for labor | Fiscal policy, monetary policy and exchange rate | Trade policy | Financial policy | Investment policy and infrastructure | Sectorial policies (e.g. agriculture, industry, services) | Social policies (e.g. health, housing) |
| Education and training | Literacy and basic education | Higher education | Initial vocational education and training, including work experience | Workplace and lifelong learning |
| Enterprise development | Enabling business environment | Micro, small and medium-sized enterprise development, including cooperatives | Self-employment and youth entrepreneurship, including micro-credit |
| Labor legislation and labor market policies and programs | Labor legislation | Wage policy | Active LMPs (e.g. employment services, labor market information, public works, employment subsidies) | Passive LMPs (e.g. unemployment and social assistance benefits) |

Source: Rosas and Rossignotti, 2008

Active employment policies are important policies that help to ensure equality in the labor market. Policies implemented in this framework are directed especially to disadvantaged groups, which are most affected by unemployment and which are less likely to find work in the labor market, such as young people. Active employment policies contribute to the employment of the unemployed in this group, thus contributing to the increase in the productivity of the economy from the other side while providing a complete employment transition from incomplete employment from one side (Erol, 2013).

**CONCLUSION**

Unemployment and youth unemployment are among the most important socio-economic problems in terms of developing and developed countries. Especially when young unemployment is assessed from a social point of view, it creates an atmosphere in which the young unemployed are deprived of the necessary resources to live an honorable life, lost their confidence in collecting and themselves. Looking at the structure of Turkey’s economy more young people are working outside the formal sector is seen as completely unemployed although not found in very low income and marginal activity with productivity. In national and international statistics, young
people who give up jobs because they are hopeless are not included in unemployment calculations. However, these young people want to work, but they are not actively looking for work because they do not believe they can get a profitable employment opportunity. This is our point of departure in many countries in Turkey and in the meantime, the youth unemployment rate actually calculated and said that over the ratio disclosed.

According to the UN’s standard definition, youth is included in the 15-24 age groups. But nowadays young people entering the labor market are postponed to 25 years or later due to some reasons. These reasons can be summarized as the current education system, the examination marathon at the end of the training process, military service in terms of young male population, the length of the job seeking period. For these reasons young people enter the labor market, determined as the age range of 15-24 years it is questionable in terms of Turkey. Considering the general trend of the time spent in the training of the 15-24 age groups in the world and Turkey is prolonged. In particular, the increase in the number of post-graduate educations extends the period of school attendance in this age group, and the young people’s participation in the workforce is increasingly younger. The boundaries of the youth age are gradually expanding in the life process due to the search for a sustainable livelihood.

The two main characteristics of young unemployment are that youth unemployment rates are always higher than adult unemployment rates and changes in youth unemployment are closely related to changes in adult unemployment. Moreover, youth unemployment rates are more sensitive to economic conditions; they increase more during the recession period and recover more rapidly during the recovery period. Global trends about youth unemployment are as follows:

- Youth participation in the workforce is declining globally.
- Young unemployment is increasing in many regions.
- Unemployment rates in young people are always higher than adults.
- Youth unemployment is not one or the worst among young people’s employment problems. Young people are faced with many problems such as unemployment, underemployment, unstable employment, low levels of productivity, low income, poverty, unsafe and/or unhealthy working, discrimination, lack of representation and representation.

Although today’s youth is the most educated generation in the historical process in terms of the period of education, there are still many young people who cannot find a job, or the business they have found does not bring with them the social reality and the economic level necessary to achieve their personal potential and full efficiency. In particular, young people in developing countries face the ongoing widespread poverty and the fact that new entrants to the labor market are increasingly unable to create jobs each year. Young people who live in developing countries have no choice but to migrate, to wander, or to take part in the informal economy.

The awareness of the fact that youth unemployment in the world has its own unique aspects that require direct policy measures is increasing. The recommendations of the UN, the ILO and the World Bank in the framework of international co-operation for resolving youth unemployment are of great importance in terms of countries.

The most emphasized subject in the international arena for youth employment is education. Consistent priorities on the international scene are employability, equal opportunities, entrepreneurship, and job creation.
When Turkey is examined young people’s public profile in the labor market is the low level of employment and a lack of vocational training system to meet the needs of the labor market despite rising education levels of education infrastructure are outstanding.

In light of this information, suggestions for solving the youth unemployment problem in Turkey can be summarized as follows:

i. Comprehensive solutions should be provided in terms of the issues of youth unemployment, poor working conditions, low wages, and inadequate social protection.

ii. The recruitment policies that we follow in the direction of the recommendations of international organizations and alignment policies towards the EU should be put into practice in coordination and harmony.

iii. Policies aimed at preventing youth unemployment and increasing youth employment, considering that youth unemployment has both supply and demand reasons; It should focus on an employment strategy that will enable the growth of new jobs and specific policies aimed at removing the various reasons that prevent young people from entering the labor market.

iv. As conditions for benefiting from the unemployment fund are eased and there is no experience, it is necessary to implement special applications for young people as those who cannot benefit from the fund.

v. It is necessary to establish a general National Employment Strategy and a specific National Youth Employment Strategy linked to it and to address the youth employment problems in a detailed, multidimensional and result-oriented manner within the scope of a national action plan.

vi. While policies to prevent youth unemployment and to increase youth employment have been determined; Turkey’s demographic structure, peculiar problems of the labor market, strong and should be considered obstacles and opportunities with weaknesses.

vii. A solution to the low efficiency problem in the agriculture sector must be found and the competitiveness of the industry in the world markets should be increased. This will help prevent youth migration from urban to urban centers. New business opportunities for young people in rural areas should be created with higher value-added production activities such as modern livestock farming, aquaculture, four-season vegetable production, fruit gardening, and fresh floriculture.

viii. For Turkey “demographic window of opportunity” to have a young population which will start to close in 2020. Turkey is still an opportunity for young people that will integrate young people into the labor market measures should be taken.

ix. In rural and urban areas, the duration of compulsory education must be extended in order to increase the quality levels of young people. This is important both to prevent unregistered employment by increasing the employability of young people who migrate from rural to urban areas, and to ensure that those in rural areas participate in modern agricultural activities.

x. Cooperation between universities, the public and the private sector should be improved, similar opportunities should be provided to young researchers in developed countries, and effective policy measures should be taken to prevent brain migration.

xi. Management and entrepreneurship training should be given in order to improve the management skills of young people. By determining regional competitive advantages, special projects can be developed for young unemployed with support and
cooperation of organized industrial zones and trade and industry chambers.

xii. Improvements can be made to the existing conditions of social security for young employees.

xiii. Promoting flexible employment for young people, such as Turkey, off the record may not meet expectations in a country where employment is widespread.

xiv. Active labor market policies aimed at young people, one of the most disadvantaged groups in the community regarding unemployment, should be implemented. A collaborative culture should be developed between the workers and employers in the field of combating youth unemployment and the institutional capacity of İŞKUR responsible for the execution of active labor market policies should be strengthened.

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Chapter 65

Evaluating the Turkish Tourism Sector Using Input and Output Analysis

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism industry has been significantly growing over the last few decades due to technological improvement in transportation, and e-communication. This industry plays a pivotal role in countries’ economy because it is evaluated as a kind of export for especially developing countries. Also, it is a one of the biggest sources of foreign exchange revenue for several countries such as Turkey.

In Turkey, considering general tourism statistics from past to today, the yearly tourism revenues was $370 million in 1982 while it was $26,028.3 million in 2017. The detail of tourism statistics is given in the Table 1.

Table 1: General Tourism Statistics from 1982 to 2017

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Total Tourism Revenues (yearly) ($ Million)</th>
<th>The percentage rate of Tourism Revenues in GDP (%)</th>
<th>Tourism Income / Export Revenues (%)</th>
<th>Tourism Expenditures / Import Expenditure (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>1482</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>3225</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>4975</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>7636</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>20322</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>24930</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>22107</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>26283</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Turkish Statistics Institute, Central Bank of the Republic of Turkey, Ministry of Culture and Tourism of Turkey. The percentage rate is calculated by author

Yearly tourism revenues have increased as 71 times during 35 years. Similarly, the percentage rate of tourism revenues in gross domestic product (GDP) has accelerated from 1982 to 2017. The rate was 0.7% in 1982 whereas it has raised to 3.1% in 2017. Even if the percentage rate dropped between 2005 and 2010 due to global financial crisis in 2008, it recovered in 2011 with 31.5 million international tourists. However, after the recovery period, the international tourism crashed due to terrorist bombing attacks. More importantly, one of the biggest decrease was in 2015 after the attempt of

\footnote{It is the most recent data for yearly tourism income}
The military’s coup in Turkey. According to travel intelligence firm Forward Keys (2016) tourist bookings to Istanbul have sharply decreased every week since the start of the year and plunged 69% in the just one week after the airport attack.

Even if the attempt of military’s coup and some terrorist attacks in Turkey, according to United Nations World Tourism Organizations (here after –UNWTO) (2017) Turkey has been ranked as the 10th in the top 10 most visited countries of the world with 27 million visitors. Turkey has been popular for its distinctive cultures, traditions, landscapes, and unique location between Europe and Asia. It is clear from the general tourism statistics of Turkey from 1982 to today, tourism sector has been one of the biggest resources for foreign currency and so leading powers to economic growth in the country. Since the demand for the products of the Turkish tourism sector increased, the sector requires to purchase more input items from other sectors to produce any additional output. Atan and Arslanturk (2012) stated that every purchase will stimulate additional output. Then, these outputs will require further purchases and continue in this way. Therefore, an input and output analysis can capture the total effect of tourism sector.

In the economic literature, there are plenty of studies examining the impact of tourism sector on countries economic. Ghali (1976) is one of the earliest study which investigated the relationship between tourism and economic growth. The author examined the relationship for Hawaii that is highly preferable place for international visitors. The study results show that the tourism revenues are seven times bigger than export revenues. The author reported that tourism was the biggest tool to increase economic growth. Dritsakis (2004) uses co-integration and Granger causality analysis for Greece economic on 1960 to 2000 data set to examine tourism and economic growth. The analysis results show a powerful and statistically significant relationship between tourism income and economic growth. Huybers and Skerrit (2005) examined the potential relationship using Ordinary Least Square (OLS) and panel data analysis approach for 37 developing countries. The study results represent a positive relationship between tourism and economic growth. Therefore, authors suggested to transfer these developing countries’ resources for their tourism sector.

Many studies in the tourism literature apply variety of methods such as Regression analysis, Co-integration and Granger Causality test for analysis as mentioned above. For instance, Bahar and Gokoovalı (2006) applied a fixed effects and random effects model for Mediterranean countries during the 15 years period. The study results represent that tourism is one of the triggers for economic growth for Mediterranean countries. Yamak et al. (2012) uses Granger Causality test to examine the potential effects of tourism income and economic growth of Turkey. For this purpose, authors use the data set from 1968 to 2006. According to the study results, in the long term there is not any causal relationship between tourism income and economic growth. On the other hand, in the short run tourism income have positive and statistically significant impact on sectors of industry and services.

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2Argentina, Bolivia, Republic Botswana, The Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Morocco, Cote D’ivoire, The Philippines, Guatemala, India, Honduras, Hong Kong, Iran, Israel, Jamaica, Kenya, Colombia, Republic of Corea, Madagascar, Malawi, Mexico, Mauritius, Nepal, Nigeria, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Sierra Leone, Sri Lanka, Syria, Swaziland, Chili, Thailand, Turkey, Venezuela, Zambia, Zimbabwe.
However, as my knowledge there are not any studies uses input and output analysis with current data set. One of the studies applied input-output analysis is Atan and Arslanturk (2012), however it implemented with 2002 input and output data set. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to evaluate the Turkish Tourism sector using the most current data set.

**MATERIAL and METHOD**

This study uses input and output analysis with the most current input and output data set which was released in 2012. The data set is taken from Turkish Statistic’s Institute (here after TurkStat) and it is publicly available. The input-output analysis is one of the commonly used measuring methods in the effects of changes in the final demand for the product of sectors, such as tourism sector (Surugiu, 2009).


This method fundamentally examines the dependence and the connection among different sectors in an economy. It derives multipliers that display how much outputs or production factors are created in responds to an increase in final demand (Eurostat, 2008). Furthermore, the impact of a demand-based shocks on economy can be examined by using input-output model. Numerous multiplier can be produced by manipulating the input-output table to create an inverse matrix which is mostly used in the economy literature. When the inverse matrix is summed, each column elements show the changes in each economic sector to obtain direct and indirect data to maintain the demand rising of related column (Khoshkhoo, et al. 2017). It gives the output multiplier. Output multipliers provide the information about every additional increase in one industry that creates another increase in other sectors. Many studies in the literature uses two indicators which are backwards linkage and forwards linkage indices such as Khanal et al. (2014) and Atan and Arslanturk (2012). The backward linkage index and forward linkage index are described as follows;

**Backward Linkage Index**

Backward Linkage Index shows the demand of an economic activity in order to create a specific product in one sector. In other words, backward linkage index shows the overall impact on the economy between sectors which is backwardly linked (Tregenna, 2008). It is calculated by the following equation;

\[
BL_j = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{X_{ij}}{X_j}
\]

where \(BL_j\) shows the backward linkage of sector j. \(X_{ij}\) is total input level in sector j from sector i, \(X_j\) is the total production level of sector j. Highly industrialized countries show a direct backward indicator that is larger than 0.5.

In the study the tourism sector is comprised of ‘Accommodation and food services’ and ‘Travel agency, tour operator and other reservation services and related services,’ and ‘Creative, arts, entertainment, library, archive, museum, other cultural services; gambling and betting services’ and ‘Sporting services and amusement and recreation services’.
Some previous studies used different application because the different input-output table was practiced. For instance, the tourism sector included 4 different groups in 1998 whereas, it was 3 categories in 2002 input-output table which were named as ‘Hotels and restaurants’ and ‘Supporting and auxiliary transport activities; activities of travel agencies’ and ‘Recreational, cultural and sporting activities’

When the tourism sector backward linkage index is applied;
\[ BL = \frac{63.847 \text{ (Thousand Turkish Liras - TL)}}{125.441 \text{ (Thousand TL)}} = 0.51 \ (0.51/1) \]

The BL index coefficient for tourism sector show that for 1 unit production increases in tourism sector, 0.51 unit input is required as capital. The formula can be applicable to calculate other sectors which is backwardly linked with tourism sector.

Selected sectors which is backwardly linked with tourism sector;
- Food, beverages and tobacco products;
  \[ BL_j = \frac{15.296}{63.847 \text{ (Thousand TL)}} = 0.23 \ (0.23/1) \]
- Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning;
  \[ BL_j = \frac{2.455}{63.847 \text{ (Thousand TL)}} = 0.03 \ (0.03/1) \]
- Products of agriculture, hunting and related services;
  \[ BL_j = \frac{2.386}{63.847 \text{ (Thousand TL)}} = 0.03 \ (0.03/1) \]
- Wholesale trade services, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles;
  \[ BL_j = \frac{3.272}{63.847 \text{ (Thousand TL)}} = 0.05 \ (0.05/1) \]
- Constructions and construction works;
  \[ BL_j = \frac{1.343}{63.847 \text{ (Thousand TL)}} = 0.02 \ (0.02/1) \]

The backward Linkage Index results show that in order to derive 1 unit production increase in tourism sector, 0.23 unit input is required from food, beverages and tobacco products. 0.03 unit input is required from products of agriculture, hunting and related services. Moreover, production in tourism sector increases by 1 unit when input in electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning sector’s rises by 0.03 unit, and input in wholesale trade and related services increases by 0.05 unit.

**Forward Linkage Index**

On the opposite of backward linkage, the forward linkage index shows the intersectoral transaction. It presents the supply value of products of an industry as an intermediate input to other sectors. In other words, it presents an increment in the sector j increases its total supply of the remain economic sectors utilized the product of sector j as an input (Bonfiglio and Chelli, 2008). It is calculated by the following equation;

\[ FL_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{X_{ij}}{X_i} \]

where FL denotes the forward linkage of sector i. Xij is the output coefficient of sector i to the sector j. Xi is the total production level of sector i. Forward and backward linkages indices are normalized to the value of 1, so an economic activity that has forward–backward linkage greater than unity is often categorized as a key sector (Bulmer-Thomas, 1982).

When the tourism sector forward linkage index is applied;
\[ FL_i = \frac{17.670 \text{ (Thousand TL)}}{125.441 \text{ (Thousand TL)}} = 0.14 \ (0.14/1) \]

The FL index coefficient show that for 1 unit production increases in tourism sector rises 0.14 unit production to other sectors.

The original 2012 Input-Output table has 64 sectors however for brevity, I
aggregated them into 10 main sectors which are given in Table-2. Based on the aggregated sectors, I summarized the backward and forward linkage indices in Table-3.

**Table 2: Sectoral Classification**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry Descriptions (Sectors)</th>
<th>Sectoral Codes in the Input Output Table (2012)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Products of Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishing</strong></td>
<td>A01-A03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Products of Manufacturing</strong></td>
<td>C10-C33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Electricity, Gas, Steam and Water, Construction Work</strong></td>
<td>D35, E36-E39, F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wholesale, Retail trade and Land Transportation</strong></td>
<td>G45-47, H49-53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accommodation and Food services, And Entertainment, Amusement Services</strong></td>
<td>I and R90-93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Telecommunication services, and Financial Services</strong></td>
<td>J58-63, K64-66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Real estate Services</strong></td>
<td>L68B-68A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Legal, Technical, Scientific, Advertising and Other Services, Employment and Tour Services, Security and Investigation Services</strong></td>
<td>M69-75 and N77-82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Defense Services, Health, Education and Social Works</strong></td>
<td>O84, P85, Q86-88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other Services</strong></td>
<td>B, S94-96, T</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: The Input Output Data for 2012 which is taken from TurkStat.*

Numerous multipliers can be produced by manipulating the input-output table to create an inverse matrix which is mostly used in the economy literature. Most common indices are backward and forward linkage indices, besides them, sectoral added value or capital (or labor) intensity of sectors can be calculated using input-output table. Since I focused on tourism sector, I have also examined the tourism sectors’ added value and capital intensity.

**Table 3: Direct Backward and Forward Linkage Indices of Sectors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sectoral Codes in the Input-Output Table (2012)</th>
<th>Backward Linkage Index</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Forward Linkage Index</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A01-A03</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C10-C33</td>
<td>0.294</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D35, E36-E39, F</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G45,47, H49-53</td>
<td>0.125</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.174</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I and R90-93</td>
<td>0.113</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.168</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J58-63 and K64-66</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L68B-68A</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M69-75 and N77-82</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.347</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O84, P85, Q86-88</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B, S94-96, T</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.017</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Author own calculation based on 2012 Input-Output Table.*

The tourism sector’s added value can be calculated by two different categories in which added value is created by compensation of employees and other factor revenues.
First, sectoral added value which is created by labors is calculated. For this purpose, I calculated net added value. To calculate net value added, the summation of subsidies, compensation of labors and other input payments are deducted from total output of the sector.

Net Value Added/ Compensation of Labors = \( \frac{25.354}{22.466} \) (Thousand TL) = 1,128

This result represents that one unit production increase in tourism sector creates 1,128 unit added value. In other words, tourism sector created additional revenue according to 2012 input-output table. The added value created by employees increased when it is compared to 1998 and 2002 input-output table (Dilber, 2007).

Another important economic indicators of the sector are ‘Labor intensity (and Capital intensity)’ and ‘Labor Share (and Capital Share)’. They are also estimated using the 2012 Input-Output table.

\[
\text{Labor Share} = \frac{\text{Compensation of Labors}}{\text{Gross Value Added}} = \frac{22.466}{61.593} \text{ (Thousand TL)} = 0.371 (0.371/1)
\]

\[
\text{Intensity of labor} = \frac{\text{Compensation of Labors}}{\text{Total Output}} = \frac{22.466}{125.441} \text{ (Thousand TL)} = 0.182 (0.182/1)
\]

\[
\text{Capital Intensity of the Sector} = \frac{\text{Utilization of Capital}}{\text{Total Output}} = \frac{592}{125.441} \text{ (Thousand TL)} = 0.004 (0.004/1)
\]

\[
\text{Capital Share (or share)} = \frac{\text{Utilization of Capital}}{\text{Gross Value Added}} = \frac{592}{61.593} \text{ (Thousand TL)} = 0.009 (0.009/1)
\]

When the tourism sectors Labor intensity and capital intensity were compared, it is clear that Turkish Tourism Sector can still be defined as a labor-intensive sector. Similar consequences can also be seen from the labor share and capital share results.

**CONCLUSION**

This study examines the potential impact of tourism sector to other sector and by this way to the country’s economy. For this purpose, I used the latest input-output table which was 2012 and conducted by TurkStat. Using input-output analyses method is possible to create an inverse matrix and also plenty of multipliers. Many studies produced backward and forward linkage indices in the economy literature such as, Andreossio-O’Callaghan and Yue (2004) and Cai et al. (2006). These indices show how a potential demand change in tourism sector impacts the other sectors which are backwardly or forwardly linked.

The examination of 2012 input-output analysis is given at Table-3. The study results show that when a demand increase in tourism sector, it is trigged by another production increase for both the own connected sector and other related sectors.

Another important result of this study is the tourism is still labor-intensive sector even if the rate of labor intensity has decreased compared to 1998 input-output table which is stated Dilber (2007) study. It can be defined as a labor-intensive sector. Since Turkey has been named as labor-intensive country, it should be specialized as the sector which is highly labor-intensive. This is supported by Heckscher–Ohlin theorem stating that a country should export goods, items which use its abundant factors intensively (Heckscher and Ohlin, 1991).

Turkish Tourism sector has crashed for a while because of terrorist attacks, and coup attempt at 2015, and currently it has been in the recovery period. The popularity of Turkey among the most visited countries is obvious. Also, the potential income effect of
tourism sector to the Turkish economy is indisputable from the statistics and analysis results of the study. Therefore, policy makers should carefully evaluate the sector to increase the demand of it because it will increase foreign revues of the country.

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Chapter 66

Women’s Employment and Gender Discrimination in Working Life: Case of Turkey and Bulgaria

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INTRODUCTION

Unemployment, the common and main problem of all world, forms the essence of many problems in terms of countries not only from economic point of view but also social point of view. In the report, titled “World Employment Social Outlook: Trends For Women 2017”, made public by International Labor Organization (ILO), global unemployment rate that is 5.6% in 2017 is expected to fall to 5.5% in 2018. However, when labor supply is regarded to, it is considered that total number of unemployed will actualize over 192 million and remain constant. Furthermore, while it was foreseen that global unemployment rate would not vary in 2019, it is estimated that total rate of unemployment rate will increase 1.5 million. In this context, unemployment problem is the leading problem searched for solution for it (ILO, 2018: 1).

Industrial Revolution leading to important changes in production technique and economic life began in England in 1760. Following industrial revolution, people, beginning to work for others in exchange of a certain wage, led proletariat (working class) to emerge. In this period, capital owner targeting on excessive accumulation, excessive production, and excessive profit got the women and children work as workers with low wage and under heavy working conditions. So, women, who have undertaken important responsibilities from primitive societies to now in the family and economic life, have begun to obtain in exchange of their labor incomes. As a matter of fact, 1st and 2nd World Wars paved the way for women to take place more in labor market (Altan, 1980: 3-32). However, female labor force participation rate remained in the back of that of male for the various reasons. However, in 2017, while male labor force participation rate in the world was 76.1%, this rate was 49.4 in women. In addition, as socioeconomic developedness level of countries falls, while it is seen that this difference increases, the country group, in which the difference of interest is the highest, are Arabic countries. As a matter of fact, when we regard to global unemployment rate according to gender, it was identified that male employment rate was 5.5% and female unemployment rate was 6.2% and it was stated that the difference of interest will not vary in the period of 2018-2021 (ILO, 2017: 4-8).

The final aim of all countries is to provide economic growth and sustainability in development. In being able to achieve this target, one of the most important instruments is of course to use human resource effectively and efficiently. In this context, women almost forming half of world population unavoidably undertake a role in economic growth and development. However, women face to gender based discrimination applications such as working with low wage in economic life in especially unsuitable conditions, working in temporal or time works without having social security exposing
to the different applications in updates, and working unpaid in housework. Thus, discriminative applications under consideration, negatively affecting female labor force participation, leads countries not being able to adequately provide benefit from human resource under consideration. Hence, countries, in the framework of policies they pose policies to many legal regulations and applications, try to reduce gender based applications every passing day (Şimşek, 2008: 1-3).

The aim of our study is to determine the discriminative policies women expose in labor market and introduce its place in labor market as a production factor. Study consist of three sections. In the first section, conceptual framework is discussed and, in the second section, variation of labor participation rates according to gender and unemployment rate in respect of years is presented. Following the third section, in which discriminative polices women face in business life are given, the article is completed with the section of conclusion and discussion.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

While the concept employment is defined in the form of that production factors work or get them worked to provide income, the relevant concept is generally used in narrower meaning in the way that it will only cover the labor factor. In this concept, that everybody desiring to work in an economy finds a job and works is expressed as full employment. However, in all economies, due to the fact there is functional or structural unemployment, it is stated that it will be more appropriate for using the concept of high employment instead of full employment. On the other hand, that there are unemployed people in economy indicates the case of underemployment (Çoban, 2015: 334-335; Dinler, 2008: 236).

In an economy, while the total of unemployed and employed people forms labor force; labor force participation rate is calculated by dividing labor force with the population in employable age. In this context, the people, who do not have any job even though they attempt to find a job, are defined as unemployed and unemployment rate is obtained by dividing the number with labor force. On the other hand, employment rate is calculated by dividing employment by the non-institutional population in the working age (TCMB, 2018; TUIK 2018).

There are many sorts of unemployment. In the literature, the people seeking work is termed as open unemployed and, labor force whose marginal productivity is zero, as hidden unemployed. Even though some people have the possibility to work at the level of current wage that they prefer to remain unemployed with their own consents is termed as voluntary unemployment and people, who accept the current working conditions but cannot find a job form involuntary unemployment. On the other hand, sorts of unemployment according to their causes are summarized as follows (Dinler, 2008: 237; Ünsal, 2007: 91-93):

- Those newly participating to labor force and those seeking a new job by leaving the job they have will remain unemployed for a certain time. This kind of unemployment is termed as temporal (frictional) unemployment.
- Due to geographical and technological reasons that employees lose their jobs as a result of not being able to keep with the new is termed as structural unemployment.

Mathematical indication of the relevant calculations was presented in Annex-1 part of the study.
Cyclical (conjunctural) unemployment resulted from conjunctural (economic) fluctuations emerges depending on that real GDP is smaller than the real GDP.

In some sectors, depending on the seasonal conditions, labor force demand is seen to decrease. This case occurring in the agricultural, construction, and tourism sectors leads seasonal unemployment to form.

Unemployment, which have many disadvantages from social and economic point of view, is a problem that is complex and not easy to solve. While the countries make attempts toward preventing and reducing unemployment by means of the various policies, policies countries can follow can differ according to the sorts of unemployment. However, total frictional and structural unemployment is termed as natural unemployment, and it is impossible to eliminate this sort of unemployment. In this context, since natural unemployment that represents the level of minimum unemployment do not impede to reach full unemployment, it is also qualified as unemployment level that does not accelerate inflation (NAIRU) (Çoban, 2013: 344-347).

Gender discrimination is to behave distinct to the individuals due to their gender (Demirbilek, 2007: 14) Discriminative applications are frequently encountered in familial relationships, educational life, political life, social relationships, and business life. To this kind of applications that mostly occur in the form of negative discrimination, women are generally exposed. What is underlying discriminative applications leading to inequality between woman and man is the traditional value judgment society has. According to value judgment under consideration, while the first and primary duty of man, taking place in business life, is to earn a livelihood of household, what is first expected from woman is that she is a good partner and mother. As a result of these thoughts, woman could not obtain adequate right of representation (Dilek, 2013: 1).

Gender inequality index, considering the three important aspects of human development, measures the degree of unemployment between female and male. The value of interest varies between 0 and 1, that value approaches to 1 indicates that gender inequality increases. The factors taking into consideration in the relevant calculation can be suggested as follows (UNDP, 2018):

- Reproduction health is measured by dealing with marital death rate and young birth rate
- Authorization is calculated by considering the number of seat women have in assembly and the rate of females and males, who are age 25 and over in the secondary schools
- Economic state that is expressed as labor force participation is introduced according to labor force participation rate of age 15 and over female-male population

GENERAL OUTLOOK OF WOMEN’S EMPLOYMENT

That women that have continuously taken place in production activities from the early days of history of humanity to now hire their labor in exchange of a wage had occurred together with industrial revolution. During World Wars, that male labor force is suppressed to make military activities enabled women to take place more in labor market. Thus, the developments in public and service sectors accelerated the increase in

In the period of 1900 -1970, the variation of female labor force participation rate in the world takes place in Figure 1.

![Figure 1: Female labor force participation rate in the world (15+)](image)


As seen from Figure 1, in the period dealt with, female labor force participation rate is generally in an increase trend. In 1900, while female labor force participation rate was at 20% level, together with the share of public and service sectors in economy, this rate rose to 38.1 % in 1945 and to 44.7% in 1964. From the other aspect, with the effect of liberalization movement 1970s brought, female labor force participation increased.

Female and male labor force participation rate in the sample taken in the period of 1990 -2017 is given in Table 1.

### Table 1: Labor Force Participation Rate by Gender (+15)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Turkey</th>
<th>Bulgaria</th>
<th>Arabic World</th>
<th>European Countries</th>
<th>OECD Countries</th>
<th>World</th>
</tr>
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2017 | 32.37 | 47.77 | 20.86 | 51.05 | 51.29 | 48.68
---|---|---|---|---|---|---

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Year</th>
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<td>1995</td>
<td>77.46</td>
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<td>72.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>71.94</td>
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</table>


According to Table 1, in 2017, female labor force participation rate actualized as 48.68%. Hence, Turkey (32.37%) and Bulgaria (47.77) fell behind world average. On the other hand, in sample dealt with, the country group, where female labor force participation rate is the lowest, is Arabic world. In Arabic world, female labor force rate that is 19.25 in 1990 rose to 20.86 in 2017. In the period under consideration, male labor force participation rate fell 74.32% from 76.34%. In this context, for the period 1990-2017, in terms of labor force participation rate, it is seen that the difference between females and males generally tends to be closed.

For the period 1990-2017, in terms of labor force participation rate, the variation of difference between females and males is presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Difference between females and males in terms of labor force participation rate (15+).

Source: With moving from the data in Table 1, it was formed by the author.
When Figure 2 is examined, in the period dealt with, the country, in which the difference between labor force participation rate according to the gender is the lowest, is Bulgaria. This country is in order followed by European Union, OECD countries, World Average, Turkey and Arabic World. However, in the period 1970-2017, while the difference is in a downward trend within the sample, an opposition situation is happened in Bulgaria.

Women who are responsible for many things, such as housework and childcare, are not adequately involved in employment. In this context, the rate of male employment has always been in front of women. Table 2 shows the changes in male and female employment rates in the period of 2005-2017.

### Table 2: Employment rates by gender (15+)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Turkey</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2005</td>
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<td>51.7</td>
<td>70.7</td>
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<td>2006</td>
<td>66.9</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>62.8</td>
<td>54.6</td>
<td>71.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>2007</td>
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<td>22.8</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>57.6</td>
<td>72.4</td>
<td>58.2</td>
<td>75.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
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<td>23.5</td>
<td>68.5</td>
<td>59.5</td>
<td>72.7</td>
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<td>2009</td>
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<td>2010</td>
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<td>26.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>2016</td>
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<td>31.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>2017</td>
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<td>32.2</td>
<td>70.6</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>75.4</td>
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</table>

*Source: ILO, 2018; Eurostat, 2018; OECD, 2018.*

As can be seen Table 2, male employment rate is higher than female employment rate within the sample. However, this difference between men and women is gradually diminishing associated with the social and economic development of societies.

### GENDER DISCRIMINATION IN WORKING LIFE

That individual face to any discrimination, exclusion, or restriction due to his/her gender is defined as gender discrimination. Women mostly expose to these discriminative applications that can be seen in two forms as indirect or indirect. In this context, that it is differently behaved to a women due to her gender points out direct gender discrimination and that a behavior that seems to be equalitarian creates discriminative effects on women, indirect discrimination (Demirbilek, 2007: 14).

Discriminative applications are frequently encountered in the familial relationships, educational life, political life, and social relationships. One of the area, in which women expose to gender based discriminative applications, is also business life.
The main factors leading to gender discrimination in business life can be put in order as follows:

- Reducing labor force cost (Akpinar, 2005: 2-6);
- A patriarchal structure of society;
- The fertility feature of woman;
- Inadequate services of child, patient and elderly care.

The different roles, charged on woman by the society, led the professions to become distinct as female job and male job together with that woman access to business life. Thus, while men are directed to the areas that require management and physical power, while women are directed to the areas such as nursing and teaching. As a matter of fact, the applications beginning from the process of directing to job are continuing in recruiting process and business life. Some of discriminative applications women face in business life is indicated in items as follows (Ecevit, 2003: 84; Parlaktuna, 2010: 1220).

- Working in jobs with low wage and under heavy working conditions;
- Working with daily wages and part times in informal jobs;
- In the recruiting process, waging, and updates, exposing to the different behaviors compared to men;
- Sexual harassment;
- Due to social value judgments, working without obtaining the relevant wage income, although she engages more in domestic work;
- Vertical and horizontal layering.

Depending on that societies develop from economic and social point of view, the issue of gender discrimination and women employment has begun to be discussed more. In this case, with the effect of legal regulations, policies implemented, and conferences held, applications of gender discriminations women expose are tried to be reduced and the rate of female labor force participation rate to be increased.

**Case of Turkey**

In Turkey, in 1923, together with declaration of republic, important regulations toward women employment were implemented. Some of the regulations of interest can be collected under two headings:

- **Legal Regulations:** In Civil Law, put into force in 1926, it was stated that the woman and man are equal in every area. The Public Health Law, enacted in 1930, is the first legal regulation that takes place in quality of protecting woman. According to the item 155 of the relevant law, it was forbidden for women that gave birth to work in prenatal and postnatal three weeks. In 177th item of the same law, it was revealed that the pregnant women could not be employed over prenatal three months in heavy works, and

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2 The concept of glass ceiling, developed to define the visible and invisible barriers in front of women reaching top level positions was first used in a report on business women, published in Wall Street Journal newspaper in 1986 (Anafarta et al., 2008: 114).
3 Sexual harassment is all of verbal and non-verbal behaviors applied by opposite sex to an individual without his/her desire (Bolcan, 2006: 46).
4 While discrimination of occupations as female job or male job forms horizontal polarizations, that woman and man with similar knowledge and experience take place in the different positions in the same professions is expressed as vertical polarization (Parlaktuna, 2010: 1222).
and it was also expressed that it was necessary to give permission for two times of half an hour in working hours over 6 months to the women that gave birth (Umumi Hıfzıssıhha Kanunu, 1930: 20-22). On the other hand, in *Turkish Republic Constitution*, the provisions regulating business life were given place. In 49th item of Constitution, while it is emphasized that the women and men have equal rights about taking place in business life. While in 50th item, it is decided that anyone cannot be employed in the jobs that are not suitable to his/her age, gender, and strength. With 70th item, while the discriminative applications other than the states job require are forbidden, this regulation has become bonding for private sector with no. 4857 Labor Law (Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Anayasası, 2014: 29). As a matter of fact, no. 4857 Labor Law, enacted in 2013, has a feature to be one of the most comprehensive legal arrangements toward reducing gender discrimination in business life. According to this law, the different wage policy must not be followed for a job that is the same or in equal quality. In addition, in the cases of sexual harassment, the relevant law has recognized the right of rescission job to the worker. On the other hand, it is forbidden for women to be employed in the jobs such as the mine, tunnel construction, and sewage. Together with the law recognizing the right to paid leave for periodic controls in pregnancy period, the prenatal and postnatal leave of women were risen to 8 weeks. Furthermore, it is decided that giving permission for one and half an hour to women for them to breastfed their children less than age 1 and, in the necessary conditions, supported by medical report, that the pregnant women are also employed in the lighter jobs. As a result of amendment conducted in 2016, it was decided that giving unpaid leave that can extend to half of weekly working time to the female or male workers, if they desire, was decided for 60 days in the first delivery, 100 days in the second delivery, and 180 days in the next deliveries (İş Kanunu, 2003).

- Educations, policies and projects: *Directorate General on the Status of Women*, established in 1990 and restructured in 2004, implemented many national and international projects such as Increasing Access of Women to Equal Opportunities, Career Planning Centers for Convicted Women, Female House Painter Masters, Cooperation Protocol for Female Farmer Education, and New Opinions and Strong Women, in order to strengthen of the women’s position in the social, economic, cultural, and political life (Kadının Statüsü Genel Müdürlüğü, 2018). *Turkish Labor Institution (İŞKUR)*, established in 2003 by law no. 4904, organize training courses toward increasing women employment. The project of Occupational Education and Employment for the Young Ladies and Women, Courses toward Those That Will Establish Their Own Jobs, Courses with Guaranteed Employment and Courses, opened in the scope of unemployment society, are of some courses of interest (Bolcan, 2006: 150; Öksüz, 2007: 48). *Ministry of National Education*, besides, forming education through Directorate General on Apprenticeship Education and Directorate General of Technical Education for Girls, organizing non-formal occupation education, basically aim to bring occupation in the women. In this context, the target mass vocational courses opened by Public Education Centers, in Apprenticeship and Non-Formal Education, Projects of Raising Baby -Sitter and Projects of Developing and Becoming Widespread Hand-Made Rug Making is women. Thus, General Directorate of Technical Education for Girls try to increase female employment with the activity of non-formal vocational institute, especially Applied Art Schools, Advanced Technical School for Girls, Projects of Producing Woman, and Projects of Vocational Education.
for Women and Children in Prison. On the other hand, educational activities toward especially the women in rural region are held by Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs (Kavak, 1999: 31-38). Beginning from 1995, the main aim of Project of Multipurpose Community Center (ÇATOM), begun to be opened in the region of Southeast Anatolian Project (GAP) is to make contribution to providing equal opportunity, strengthening woman (GAP ÇATOM, 2018). As a matter of fact, the projects such as Project of Woman in Management, Female Leaders in Future, Project of Women employment in Tourism, Project of Woman to Woman Bridge, Job Development Center for Female Entrepreneurs, Project of Water Drop, GAP-GİDEM Female Entrepreneurship Project, and Incubation Project were implemented by Women Entrepreneurs Association (KAGİDER, 2018).

**Case of Bulgaria**

In Bulgaria, very important steps have been taken in the recent years about providing gender equality. The issue of gender inequality has not still been solved in full sense. With Constitution, Labor Law, and some other legal regulations, while the provisions forbidding discriminative applications were given place, the law of Protection Against Discrimination Act-PDA, enacted in 2003, was directly prepared toward eliminating discriminative applications (PDA, 2006). Furthermore, in the scope of 2008 National Action Plan, the issue of gender equality was dealt with. On the other hand, Bulgaria signed Convention of the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), accepted by United Nation General Assembly in 1979 and generally defined as international draft law regarding female rights, in 2006. Hence, in order to eliminate all forms of discrimination against women, it committed to take a set of action. The actions of interest can be put in order as follows:

- That the principle of female and male equality is included in legal system, that all forms of discriminative laws are eliminated and that the laws are accepted forbidding discrimination against women.
- For enabling women to be effectively protected against discrimination, that the relevant courts and public institutes are established
- That all discriminative applications against women are enabled to be eliminated.

Following the signification of CEDAW, That Bulgaria, which try to make its law and policies to make compatible with the relevant convention, is accepted as member to European Union (EU), accelerated the efforts about providing gender equality. In this context, Bulgaria has tried to make its relevant regulations compatible with union acquis (Wikigender, 2018).

Thus, as a result of struggles continued in Turkey and Bulgaria, important developments were recorded in the scope of female-male equality. In the report unveiled in 2014 by Social Institutes and gender Index 5, both countries took place in low category, and this case was interpreted that these countries have low level gender discrimination in social institutes (SIGI, 2018). On the other hand, specific to country sample dealt with, the variation of Gender Inequality Index unveiled by United Nations

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5While SIGI index varies between 0 and 1, the values between 0.04 < SIGI < 0.12 represent low category. According to this, the value of Turkey for the year 2014 was explained as 0.1032, while that of Bulgaria was 0.0449(SIGI, 2018).
Development Program-UNDP is presented in Figure 3.

![Figure 3: Gender Inequality Index, 1995-2015](image)


As seen in Figure 3, in the period dealt with, gender discrimination index of both countries has gradually declined. The relevant value that was 0.373 in 1995 fell to 0.223 in 2015. However, depending on the regulations implemented, more remarkable falls were experienced, and especially the broke in the period 2005-2010 is clearly shown in the figure above.

**CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION**

In early times, women, who work as unpaid family workers or in the works that does not require any qualification in agricultural sector, found an opportunity to hire their labors together with the development of societies from socio-economic point of view. Furthermore, that men leave labor force market during world wars to perform their military duties led the increase in female labor force participation rate. Thus, with the effect of structural transformation in economy, women have begun to be employed in the industrial, service and public sectors at higher rates. Following this and similar developments, even if a serious increase in female participation production activities rate was experienced, today, female labor force participation rate is still in very behind of males.

For the countries to grow and develop economically, one of the main causes pushing women, evaluated as an important production input, from labor force market is of course gender based discriminative applications. Women, who do not adequately benefit from the facilities such as the education, health, and policy also frequently can face with gender based applications in business life. Due to many reasons such as traditional value judgments in business life and her fertility features, that woman exposes to discriminative applications can be evaluated as a cause of low female labor force participation. In this context, in order to reduce gender discrimination, increase female labor force participation rate and, thus strengthen the woman’s position in the society, countries, implement many agreements at national and international level. With the effect of regulations of interests, while gender discrimination in Turkey and Bulgaria gradually decreases, an important increase in female labor force participation rate was experienced. However, also in both countries, despite to all efforts, it is seen
that discriminative applications in business life cannot be completely eliminated.

Gender based discriminative applications comprise the important barrier in front of development of countries from economic and social point of view. Hence, for eliminating the discriminative applications, it is necessary to implement the new regulations and remove the deficiencies in the current regulations. In this context, it is considered that the solution suggestions developed about providing female-male equality will reveal successful results in applications. These solution suggestions can be put in order as follows:

- Collecting statistics related to discrimination and make information supply continuous
- Especially ministries and unions, taking into consideration the views of the relevant institutes and organizations, preparing a comprehensive national policy toward providing equality and regularly checking the application results
- Getting the responsibilities shared in familial life between woman and man.
- Promoting employers employing women.
- Providing facilities such as kindergarten etc. in the work place
- Preventing informal employment
- Applying positive discrimination to the disadvantaged groups in order to provide equality
- Paying more attention to the education of girls
- Becoming widespread vocational course by considering the feature of region.

Preparing public service announcements to eliminate stereotyped value judgments accepted by community such as discrimination of occupations as female job and male job.

REFERENCES


ANNEX 1:

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<th>Labor Force</th>
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<td>Labor Force Participation Rate</td>
<td>Labor Force * 100/Population in Working Age</td>
</tr>
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<td>Unemployment Rate</td>
<td>Unemployed/Labor Force * 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment Rate</td>
<td>Employment/Noninstitutional Population in the Working Age * 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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PSYCHOLOGY and INTERIOR DESIGN
Chapter 67

The Effect of Colors Used In Interior Designs on the Human Psychology

Tuğçe KALAYCI
Res. Assist.; Hacettepe University, Faculty of Fine Arts, Department of Interior Architecture and Environmental Design, Ankara-Turkey

INTRODUCTION

From the moment they are born, people meet the world as a colorful place. Color is perceived on every object we see in everyday life, even in our dreams (Rechtschaffen & Buchignani 1992).

Together with the color experience it has experienced in a human life with a normal color vision, it reaches a level of about 2.3 million different colors (Linhares et al. 2008).

When we choose which color clothes to wear, when we choose a color for our new car or computer, and when we comment on the color of our friend's hair, hair or makeup, we have ideas about colors for decision-making and speaking.

Colors are one of the most important elements that hint at how people feel both physically and psychologically. Various colors represent various moods. Therefore; the color selection to be used in a particular area must be such that it meets the requirements of the group that will use that area.

Color is one of the most important factors affecting the way individuals express their feelings in an area. According to various researches, the color surrounding us deeply affects our mood and behavior in our daily lives.

In dresses, indoors, in the landscape and even in natural light, a color can affect our moods with emotions such as unhappiness, confusion, fear and confidence. Therefore; Colors are psychological experiences and are essential for sight, description, interpretation, perceptions and senses. Some colors evoke psychological reactions through signals such as temperature, relief, danger, energy, purity and death.

With a variety of tools such as temperature, sounds, layout, lighting and colors, an environment can alter the behavior of individuals who stimulate perceptual and emotional reactions to the design environment. The ambiance of the interior influences the behavior and perception of the users by affecting their emotional states. In this context, it is believed that various physical components, including light and color, are a great asset to the individual.

The use of color is one of the important elements when designing proper circulation of general interiors. In addition, function, environment, user profiles are also important factors influencing the emotional state of people as an interaction. For this reason, colors should be studied in real contexts, because the effect that individuals have on it is thought to be important.

As a result, the fact that colors are impressive and unforgettable in a context should not be overlooked. The perception of any interior or outdoor space is directly related to color and is thought to give information about the inner world of the users.
For this reason, this research is planned to show the significance of color perception on individuals and what is the psychological effect.

**PSYCHOLOGICAL EFFECTS OF COLOR AND COLORS**

Color is a visual perceptual property that corresponds to categories such as red, green, blue and others. Color is derived from the light spectrum (wave length dispersion against light source) by interacting inside the eye due to the spectral sensitivities of the light receptors. Seven colors of the spectrum are produced by the light waves with various lengths which reflect from concrete animate and inanimate objects. Light and color are merely subjects of vibration frequency. Chromatic, which is the science of color, investigates this relationship (Graham, 1990).

It can be easily said that human beings live in a world of color (Huchendorf, 2007). Various research suggest that colors, which encloses us in our daily life, have a great impact on our psychological state and behaviors (Rosenstein, 1985).

Clothes, indoors, landscapes and even a color under natural light can alter our psychological state from unhappiness to happiness, from mental confusion to mental clarity and intelligence and from fear to confidence. Colors can be used to conceptualize the emotions or to create different psychological states (Aves and Aves, 1994).

Designing a medium by different manners including temperature, sound, order, lightning and colors can stimulate perceptual and emotional reactions in the consumers and can affect their behaviors (Yıldırım, Akalınbaşkaya, & Hidayetoğlu, 2007).

Today, various experiments provided evidence supporting that colors have many psychological effects such as warmth, coldness, activeness, passiveness, lightness, stimulation, relaxation, happiness and sadness; which vary depending on their type, value and saturation. In different cultures and belief systems, human beings benefited from the effect of colors on creatures, used meditation techniques by utilizing colors and created a relationship between color, which is a form of energy, and musical notes.

Similar to our taste perception, audition, tactile perception and our other senses; the perception of colors also vary across individuals. It is possible to define a color as warm, cold, heavy, light, soft, hard, exciting, relaxing, bright or tranquil. However; this definition results from culture, language, sex, age, environment or experiences of the individual. In short it is possible to say that a color can never stimulate the exact same emotions in two different individuals (Suakar, 2002).

When light hits to any colored object, the object only absorbs the waves that correspond to its atomic structure and reflects the other waves back to the observer. When light hits to the human eye, wavelengths repeat the same procedure that is described above in a different manner, resulting in an alteration of our perceptions. Hypothalamus is a part of human brain managing hormones and endocrine system, when the light hits the retina, it is transformed to electrical impulses that are transmitted to hypothalamus for further evaluation. Hypothalamus reserves the biological clock of the body (Wright, 2008). Therefore; it controls the temperature of the body, appetite, sexual functions, sleep, behavior patterns and alike. It is proved several times that colors have a physical impact on humans due to its energy.

It must be remembered that there is a great difference between the psychology of color and color symbolism. The context of color can be considered as color symbolism whereas the psychological properties of the color are generally related to the
psychological states of the individuals. Wright (2008) states that there are four psychological primary colors as red, blue, yellow and green.

An important subject that shall be mentioned in relation to the psychological effects of color types is that a color can have both positive and negative properties. For instance in addition to being a means of expression, red is perceived with certain meanings as a correspondence to the emotions. These meanings affect our psychology even though they do not always acquire verbal clarity. Therefore, red color that is used in indoors, reveals psychological interactions by the psychological state it creates. A red rose is a traditional expression of true love, however; seeing red can also mean losing control. It is a positive color and color of life, however; the same red also expresses institutions that are based on blood and violence and wars that started as a result of greed, passion and anger; although these can be subconscious. Therefore; red is the color of chaos and in reality, in case it is not used in appropriate ton and ratios, it can cause a chaos inside an indoor environment. Another point that shall be taken into the account is that the color type of which the positive and negative effects will be taken under control, has a great significance in terms of saturation and value it possesses (Özdemir, 2005).

**THE EFFECT OF COLORS USED IN INTERIOR DESIGNS ON THE HUMAN PSYCHOLOGY**

When it is considered that on average we spent two third of our lives in indoors, the importance of the colors that are used in indoors and their effect on us become more important.

Color is one of the most important factors determining the relationship we create with our environment. Color, being more successful than any other factor, can transform a monotone and simple indoor environment into a lively environment. The fact that colors have such importance in indoors as much as they have importance in any other area means that it is also very important for individuals using the said indoor environment. It is thought that the colors used in indoors directly affects individuals psychologically and emotionally.

Huchendorf (2007), states that colors have negative or positive stimulating impacts on an individual. Various colors represent various psychological states; therefore; the need of knowing which color to use in a certain indoor is also necessary for using the indoor environment in the best manner by the target users.

According to Birren (2006) colors have many emotional effects including warm, strong and weak, hard and soft and active and passive. In terms of hardness and softness; brightness and low saturation creates a soft feeling whereas dimness and high saturation creates a strong feeling. In addition, weaker contrast and saturation transmits tranquility in contrast to the stronger contrast and saturation which transmits activity.

It is stated that all architecture from prehistoric era until the end of Barok era includes an amount of color use. Colors are about all of us and for instance variety of the color tons used in indoor designs have an indicator quality (Carruthers, Morris, Tarrier, & Whorwell, 2010).

Color can affect the emotions, energy level, order feeling or disorder of the individual. At the same time, it can determine the ton of the indoor environment and it can make the environment seem official, unofficial, masculine or feminine, cold or warm in an inviting manner (Poore, 1994). Colors are psychological experiences. Color
is essential for seeing, defining, evaluation, perception and senses. Some colors elicit psychological reactions with indications such as warmth, relaxation, danger, energy, innocence and death (Courtis, 2004).

In indoor design, color is seen as the simplest material for changing the characteristic of the environment and make it dominantly visible. Despite it gives character to the environment; color is beneficial in terms of human behaviors, decision making, human health and humans achieving or not achieving much more. In other words, it is a fine stimulation with an outstanding impact which immensely affects human life physically, psychologically, physiologically and sociologically in daily manner and it is widely accepted today (Fehrman and Fehrman, 2004).

Psychological effects of colors on indoors are accepted as the most active and animate activity. Colors can create many impacts on the biological activities of human beings and can guide to unconscious emotions and reactions. For instance, the color of a wall or carpet that is used in an indoor environment has the power to directly affect the psychological state of the individual for that day. Colors have the ability to reflect emotional emotion. Color has an effect on the mind. Sometimes it creates emotions resulting in relaxing and satisfactory thoughts whereas sometimes unsettling thoughts can be created.

There are two types of psychological effects of color: the first is that it creates direct impacts on human beings such as mercy, sadness, pleasure, excitement and happiness. Second is the indirect impacts and these are related to emotional factors and subjective or objective experiences created by the colors depending on the different individuals.

The colors that are used in the indoor do not have the same effect on every person who enters the same indoor environment. It is thought that the impact that is created on the individual is directly related to different and important variables such as the life experiences, culture, age and sex of the individual.

CONCLUSION

In the physical environment we live in, each material has its own unique color, texture and form. We define the places visually according to the color characteristics of the materials (natural, artificial, glossy, matte, rough surface, etc.) along with the physical properties of the materials and the effects they induce in the person. For this reason, we use the color as a design parameter in interior projects. Color is an important and effective element in this whole architectural design. Color is one of the most important elements of architectural design criteria for achieving a result that can be harmonious and functional with all its parts and is an indispensable part of it together with elements such as aesthetic dimension, rhythm, contrast and composition.

Certain known colors have some psychological effects. In the psychological dimension, color is a concept that influences and shapes the physical environment and therefore human physiology. Therefore, colors, psychology, that is, feelings affect the wills, desires, behaviors and movements.

The texture features of the surface such as the lightness or darkness of the surfaces in the space, the reflection of the incoming light more or less, and the bright and dull surfaces, directly influence the design direction of the space.

It is possible to make departments, draw boundaries, categorize, help to find
directions in the space with color.

While the colors used in the interior make it possible for the space to become defined by the perception it creates in humans, psychologically, people entering the space cause it to perceive it.

The color always appears to us with some sense and some sensations. Although these meanings do not always gain verbal clarity, they can affect us. For this reason, the colors used in architectural interiors and cities create a mood, creating psychological effects and bringing a visual relationship between people and the environment.

As a result, the contribution of psychology and other branches of science to space designers aiming at the vital comfort of individuals has undoubtedly increased day by day. In this respect, color, space fiction and designs will have a more solid basis along with other requirements. The color, which has psychological and artistic functions, will always keep the feature of being a spatial part which can never be given up for the culture of architecture.

**REFERENCES**


Chapter 68

The Thought Experiment in Social Science

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1. INTRODUCTION: Albert Einstein and the Thought Experiment

In 2000, the US-based *Time* magazine selected the person it felt had had the greatest impact on the whole of the 20th century. It chose Albert Einstein for being “the pre-eminent scientist in a century dominated by science”, noting that “[t]he touchstones of the era” which were “the [Atomic] Bomb, the Big Bang, quantum physics and electronics...all bear his imprint” (Golden).

Of course, not everyone would agree with *Time*’s choice, but it is impossible to deny that Einstein had a dramatic impact on 20th-century science. Yet, whilst the image of science is connected in the mind with laboratories and observable and measurable experiments, Einstein is not really associated with this approach. Instead, it is through what is known as the “thought experiment” that he developed his insights. Indeed, it has been noted that “visualized thought experiments ... became a hallmark of Einstein’s career” (Isaacson, 2007: 26-7). One particularly important thought experiment of his was used to illustrate his contention that there is no absolute time. Indeed, by coming to regard time as relative, Einstein was able to continue with his theory of relativity, which otherwise he had resolved to abandon (ibid, 122). Einstein explained his new approach to time through a thought experiment. That is, he described it through an imaginary situation which nevertheless led to a logical conclusion that seemed impossible to refute.

Einstein’s “Train and Lightning Bolts” thought experiment works in the following way. Einstein imagines an observer looking at a train track. He then imagines lightning striking the track at two points equally distant from this observer. As such, the observer and the two points at which lightning strike are in the form of an isosceles triangle in which the observer is at the apex. For clarity, it is to be defined that the observer is at point M and the lightning strikes at A and B. To the observer, the lightning strikes occur at the same time; that is, they are simultaneous (ibid, 123-4).

In his thought experiment, Einstein, however, also imagines there is a train on the track. This train contains a passenger located in its exact middle, and this passenger is right in front of point M. If the train is stationary, then this passenger will also see the lightning strikes as simultaneous (ibid, 124). That is because he is at the exact centre of a line connecting A and B. Nevertheless, in his thought experiment, Einstein imagines what occurs if the train is moving. Then the situation is changed by this movement. That is because, assuming that the train is moving towards point B, then light will have to travel less distance from point B and further from point A to reach the passenger. Thus, to the passenger B will seem to happen before A; that is the two strikes will not appear to be simultaneous (ibid).

Of course, to common sense thought, this would not invalidate the original
affirmation of a simultaneous lightning strike. The observer at M is stationary whilst the train passenger is moving. As such, the observation of the latter is skewed by this movement and is therefore not to be relied upon. On the other hand, the observer at M, due to his stationary condition, is a reliable witness to the events. Nonetheless, for Einstein there is no invalidation of his thought experiment at all. That is because it is not possible, according to the relativity physics, to claim that the observer sees correctly while the passenger does not. This is because it is not possible to claim that the track is stationary whereas the train is moving. The reason for this is that in relative physics there is no such concept as “absolute motion”; motion can only be defined “relative to another body” (ibid, 36). Thus in Einstein’s thought experiment it can only be said with certainty that the train and track “are in motion relative to each other” (ibid, 124).

The observer’s and the passenger’s perspectives are no more or less right than the other’s due to this consideration of motion. Thus, what appears simultaneous to the observer appears not to be to the passenger. And what makes the difference is the passenger’s being in motion. Consequently, with this thought experiment, Einstein was able to conclude that “[t]ime cannot be absolutely defined, and there is an inseparable relation between time and signal velocity” (qtd in ibid, 123). In other words, time is not an independent absolute, but is connected with speed.

Decades later, the conclusion of this thought experiment was empirically tested. In 1971, sixteen years after Einstein’s death, hyper accurate cesium beam atomic clocks were placed on aircraft that flew around the world at high speed, completing their circuit in three days. Once the airplanes had completed their circuit, they landed, and their clocks were compared “with the clock of the Observatory in Washington, D.C” (AtW). The cesium beam atomic clocks, which had shown the same time as the observatory clock when the airplanes took off, now showed a difference of 0.15 microseconds (AtW). This proved that Einstein’s conclusion in his thought experiment that time and speed are connected was right.

Einstein’s new approach led to a rejection of old Newtonian physics, and what has been described as a new “paradigm” (qtd in Bird, 2013) – that is general approach – in science. It has been noted by Walter Isaacson, that even today, “[a] century after his great triumphs, we are still living in Einstein’s universe” (Isaacson, 2007: 4-5). It is therefore difficult to over-exaggerate the influence Einstein, who developed his ideas through thought experiments such as the one shown, has had in science and indeed in the wider intellectual and general culture (Golden).

The example of a thought experiment in science whose conclusions were later validated empirically has been presented here to introduce the concept that an experiment carried out solely in the imagination can actually lead to the advancement of concrete knowledge. As such, they are valid tools of research. And, in this way, thought experiments are also used in the social sciences. This chapter will examine what constitutes a thought experiment, why they are needed, and how they apply in the social sciences in general. It will then provide certain examples of thought experiments thus used, before analysing certain problems with their use.

The importance of the thought experiment in social science can be gleaned from the following observation on Thomas Kuhn made by Gerald E. Markle and Frances B. McCrea. It is:

Thomas Kuhn, the philosopher of science whose work has had a great impact on sociology, claimed that thought experiments deal with situations that have not been
examined in the laboratory, perhaps because they cannot be examined, perhaps because they do not or need not occur in nature at all. That is, they do not need to meet ordinary conditions of verisimilitude. Even so, nothing about the experiment can be entirely unfamiliar or strange. Thus, for Kuhn, a thought experiment at minimum can help us understand the scientist’s conceptual apparatus. Yet they can do more. The paradox of thought experiments is that they often have novel enough empirical import—even though they are conducted entirely in one’s head. Kuhn asserts that a successful thought experiment can do what an empirical investigation can do—that is it can help us to understand the real world (Markle, 2008: 154 -original italics).

With this in mind, and having through Einstein’s “Train and Lightning Bolts” seen an example of a thought experiment, this chapter will now offer a definition of what a thought experiment actually is. It will use the definition offered by Marina Gerner as to the thought experiment in its most fundamental form. That is, the thought experiment in philosophy, philosophy being the discipline in which thought experiments are particularly predominant. The definition of Gerner (2013: 32) is:

[Phil]osophical thought experiments depend on logical coherence rather than practical feasibility. Philosophers derive such narratives to think through an imagined situation so as to learn something about the way we understand things. Thought experiments require no Bunsen burners or test tubes; they are laboratories of the mind. In thought experiments, time travel is logically possible, but no philosophy professor is expected to travel back in time to prove their point.

Whilst this is a definition for the thought experiment in philosophy, it is also equally applicable to other fields of inquiry that draw on abstracted thought such as social science, and as has been seen, physics.

The definition provided by Gerner will be probed further in order to clarify the elements of a thought experiment. The first element is the premise to “the imagined situation” that will play out. The premise is imaginary and does not have to accurately reflect real world situations. The premise in Einstein’s case is that there is a lightning strike on a train track in two different spots and that two observers are in certain exact positions. Of course, that such a situation would actually occur is so extremely unlikely that it could be considered effectively impossible. To clarify the concept of the premise further, an example of the premise of a potential thought experiment is now to be given. That potential thought experiments is premised on “consider a society cut off from the rest of the world in which all its members were unable to see”. As it is the premise, whether there actually has been, is, or ever will be such a society is of no importance.

If imaginary conditions were left simply to play out further in an imaginary way then the thought experiment rather than being a potential method of advancing knowledge would actually be no different from a work of fiction. The second element to the thought experiment prevents this from occurring. Gerner states that thought experiments require “logical coherence”. This means that once the basic assumption for a thought experiment has been established, all further development of it must continue in a logical manner. Thus, to return the example postulated of a society composed purely of completely visually-impaired individuals, everything that now can be concluded about that society must follow logically from its condition. For instance, a logical development from that society is that they would have no concept of colour and would have no written language, at least a written language in which the letters could only be recognized by sight. Any other conclusion drawn from this society that does
not have complete logical coherence would by necessity have to be excluded. For instance, in the example given, it would not be possible to say that the individuals would have no concept of shape. That would not be an accurately logical conclusion to draw because whilst vision is a necessity to have a concept of colour, a concept of shape can feasibly be gained through the use of the sense of touch.

This helps to demonstrate a further element to thought experiments. It is that despite their imaginary nature, thought experiments also require a realistic approach in all but the basic premise. That is why Kuhn asserts that within the experiment, there must be no element that is completely uncommon or odd (Markle, ibid, 154). In the example above, it could be considered strange that there would be an isolated community of completely visually-impaired people, but save for that element, everything else about the thought experiment would make sense, the figures within it being assumed to act as regular sighted human beings, save for their being unable to see.

Connected to the point about realism is one that thought experiments must have immunity from quibbling for their basic assumptions. This means that in the case of the example of the community of completely visually impaired people, such queries as to how they are in their remote area, the reasons for their lack of sight, and how they find food and so on are dismissed for irrelevance. However, it is of course possible for the thought experiment to be challenged in its basic assumption. For the aforementioned example, a person who feels that nothing can be learned about human nature from imagining a community of people who cannot see could objected to it. The rationale behind the thought experiment then needs to be debated.

A further element connected to the thought experiment is simplicity. Unlike the use of logic, realism and the lack of quibbling, simplicity is not as essential element to a thought experiment, but it is certainly to be preferred in them. That is because an overly complex thought experiment is difficult to develop and is thus likely to lead to either a lack of a conclusion or an unconvincing one.

Having defined the thought experiment and the elements of which it is composed, it is now necessary to examine the question of their need. After all, even if in the specific case of Einstein the thought experiment led to an advance in scientific understanding, the imaginary element to the thought experiment sits uneasily with the empirical demands of modern science, either in its pure science or social science form. As such thought experiments would have a valid reason to be objected to. Nevertheless, the objection to them ironically highlights exactly where they are of use. That is thought experiments are only of valid use when anactual experiment is unfeasible. The unfeasibility of an actual experiment can be either due to its being literally impossible to carry out or that carrying it out, whilst technically possible, would be too great a strain on resources or morally beyond the pale. Another though experiment of Einstein’s, that concerning travelling next to a light beam at the speed of light, is, at least at present, of the kind that would be impossible to conduct an actual experiment of. The example of the completely visually-impaired community is technically possible to create in real terms. That is, completely visually impaired babies could technically be separated from their parents at birth and put altogether in some remote place and their development there could be observed. Nevertheless, the practicality of this – let alone the ethics of it – makes it effectively impossible.
2. Two Thought Experiments for Social Science Disciplines

Now some examples of actual thought experiments that are associated with the social sciences will be examined. The first example a thought experiment to be examined here is that of known as the “floating man argument” (Groff, 2007: 40), developed by the eleventh-century Muslim philosopher Abū ‘Alī al-Ḥusayn ibn ‘AbdAllāh ibn Sīnā, often known in the European tradition as Avicenna and to be referred to for the sake of simplicity henceforth simply as Ibn Sina. His thought, however, presents a couple of conceptual problems that first need to be addressed. Of course, the term “social science” is relatively modern and applying it to the eleventh century, or any other century prior to the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries in which it was first used is obviously an anachronism. Moreover, the exact relationship of philosophy to the social sciences is an unclear one. Nevertheless, Ibn Sina’s thought experiment overrides these objections on four grounds. Firstly, it is possible for the designation of social scientist to be applied posthumously on thinkers from prior to modern times. For instance, both Aristotle and Ibn Khaldun have been claimed as social scientists. Secondly, philosophy can be included amongst the social sciences and it has a foundational role within social science. Thirdly, as a philosopher who was also a scientist, Ibn Sina is a philosopher who manifests a scientific frame of mind as is expected in a social scientist. Fourthly, and perhaps most importantly, what Ibn Sina seeks to prove in his thought experiment is a central concept in the social sciences as will be demonstrated after having examined the thought experiment itself. As such, it is valid in an examination of the use of the thought experiment in the social sciences to look at Ibn Sina’s famous example of its use in philosophy.

This thought experiment was developed by Ibn Sina when he was imprisoned in Hamadan. It appears numerous times in his writings in slightly different forms but with an unchanged basic idea. In this chapter, two versions of it have been drawn upon and placed together in order to give the fullest possible picture of this thought experiment.

The premise of the thought experiment of Ibn Sina (İşaretler: 107) is to imagine “that you are in an instant fully created both with a healthy mind and body”. Furthermore, in this immediately created position, the body is completely “suspended for a moment in the air” and in contact with nothing else (ibid; İbn Sînâ, Ilmu’n-Nafs: 18). This includes having no sense of the air itself either, as Ibn Sînâ (Soul: 2) states that the condition is one of floating “without the air supporting [you] in such a way that [you] would have to feel it”. As for what you are able to see, your “sight is veiled from directly observing the things of the external world” (ibid). Your suspended body is “in such a position” that no part of it is in contact with any other part of it, but each part of the body “stands separately” (İşaretler: 107). That is, that “the limbs of [your] body are stretched out and away from one another, so they do not come into contact or touch” (Soul: 2).

Ibn Sina then logically develops his thought experiment to posit the question as to what you in this condition would actually know. His conclusion is that you would be “unaware of anything except the presence of you own being” (İşaretler: 107). More specifically, in terms of what you understand of yourself, logically Ibn Sînâ (Soul: 2) affirms that:

[You] ha[ve] no doubts about asserting [your] self as something that exists without also [having to] assert the existence of any of [your] exterior or interior parts, [your] heart, [your] brain, or anything external. [You] will, in fact, be asserting the existence of
[your] self without asserting that it has length, breadth, or depth, and, if it were even possible for [you] in such a state to imagine a hand or some other extremity, [you] would not imagine it as a part of [your] self or as a necessary condition of [your] self.

Having developed his thought experiment to demonstrate that self-awareness is a necessary occurrence and does not necessitate awareness of the body or other external things, Ibn Sina (İşaretler: 107-8) also directs his thought experiment to the question as to what this self-consciousness rests upon. He asks “by what means do you grasp an awareness of yourself”. Ibn Sina is logically coherent in positing that there are two basic possible answers to this question. One is through the senses and the other is through “your intellect or a power other than your five senses” (ibid). He then logically further investigates the second possibility to posit that in such a case does self-awareness come about “through or without an intermediary” (İşaretler: 108).

To deal with the question of the senses first, Ibn Sina dismisses the idea that self-awareness is dependent upon them. He argues that without eyes or skin – that is without the senses of sight or touch – “you will remain as yourself” (ibid); that is, you will still have self-awareness (İbn Sînâ, Ilmu’n-Nafs: 19). Implicitly that remains the case if all five senses were inoperable. Thus, logically, it cannot be the senses that provide human beings with self-awareness. Having logically excluded the first possibility, he deals the question of an intermediary in the second condition. He argues that there is no need for a “median” power for self-awareness. To him, it is clear that “you perceive yourself without the need of any other power or intermediary” (İşaretler: 108).

As this power of perception for Ibn Sina does not depend on the body, he makes the logical conclusion that “the origin of the faculty of perception is something else”. He names it as “the soul” (İşaretler: 109). As Lenn E Goodman notes, summarizing what Ibn Sina appears to have proven in his thought experiment:

Since one conceives of one’s own awareness without positing the body or any bodily sensation, the idea of the self is not logically dependent on that of any physical thing; the soul, then, is not to be thought of in mere relative terms but as a primary given, a substance (Nasr, 2007: 315).

As it is the soul that is responsible for self-awareness, it is the soul that for Ibn Sina “is the true essence of your body” (ibid). Nevertheless, Ibn Sina (Soul: 2) is explicit that “the soul as something that is not the body—nor in fact anybody”. That is, it is what animates the body, but it is not a part of it. This animating agent is in fact the definition of what you are. Ibn Sina (İşaretler: 109) states that “[t]his essence in you is a single thing” and indeed “in truth it is you!”.

In his thought experiment, Ibn Sina seemingly proves, as Peter S. Groff notes that “that the soul has a reflexive, unmediated knowledge of itself (and more generally, a prelinguistic awareness of being)” (Groff, 2007: 40). Ibn Sina’s thought experiment seemingly determines that “[s]ince the existence of self as consciousness/soul is conceivable without any awareness of the body, it must be separable from, and ontologically independent of, the body” (ibid). In short, it demonstrates “the indubitable, and thus foundational, fact of one’s own existence as a thinking thing” (ibid).

Ibn Sina’s “floating man” thought experiment is one of the greatest in the history of philosophy, and it predates by a number of centuries René Descartes later attempt to discover any fundamental certainty in the universe, to which the French thinker also affirmed that one’s own existence is undeniable – with his famous “cogito ergo sum”-
which is one of the underpinnings of modern philosophy.

As for its relevance to the social sciences, the thought experiment that Ibn Sina conducts is an attempt to prove what in modern parlance is called “the Ghost in the Machine”. The inventor of that term, Gilbert Ryle, defines it as a dualism. That is that “[human bodies are in space and are subject to mechanical laws which govern all other bodies in space]” whereas “minds are not in space, nor are there operations subject to mechanical laws” (qtd. in Pinker, 2002: 9). The concept of a mind-body dualism is most closely associated with a religious or spiritual perspective, and thus can be regarded as a universally accepted one in traditional societies in which religion or spiritualism play a central role, such as the society in which Ibn Sina lived and wrote. Nevertheless, the thought experiment of Ibn Sina underpins a vital element in the social sciences as well. This is because, as Stephen Pinker (ibid, 28) points out “twentieth-century social science embraced ... the Ghost in the Machine”. That it did should not appear surprising. Pinker contextualizes by noting that “[t]he declaration that we can change what we don’t like about ourselves became a watchword of social science” (ibid). Hence, in order for this central factor of social science to have any substance the “we” in question “doing the remaking” if “just other hunks of matter in the biological world” mean that “any malleability of behavior we might discover would be cold comfort, because we the molders would be biologically constrained” and this could mean that we “might not mold people, or allow ourselves to be molded, in the most salutary way” (ibid). Hence, the attractiveness of the Ghost in the Machine concept which is, as Pinker notes, “the ultimate liberator of human will” (ibid). Indeed, the concept of the Ghost in the Machine has, as Pinker reveals, “attained a sacred status in modern intellectual life” (ibid, 6) and is one “that twentieth-century social scientists guarded so jealously” (ibid, 31).

The next example of a thought experiment is taken from the social science field of economics. Thought experiments are an important tool in this social science. David Begg, Stanley Fischer and Rudiger Dornbusch note that “economics is primarily a non-experimental science” (Begg, 1994: 22 – original italics), and this is because unlike in regular science, where “it is possible to conduct controlled experiments in a laboratory, varying one factor at a time while holding constant all the relevant factors ... economists can rarely suspend the laws of economic activity to conduct controlled experiments” (ibid). Hence, economists have to make use of the thought experiment. As Lionel Robbins notes, “in economics one of our difficulties is that we can’t conduct very frequently laboratory experiments. We are therefore forced back upon thought experiments” (Robbins, 1998: 8).

The example of a thought experiment in economics that is to be looked at here is that of Friedrich Wieser. Von Wieser (1927: 20) was an influential nineteenth-century Austrian economist. He made use of thought experiments, indeed his whole work Social Economics is one great thought experiment, the work described by himself as “an idealizing assumption”. For the premise of the thought experiment in this work is his imagining a “simple economy” (ibid, 19) in which there are no monopolies and no corruption, and information is equal and open amongst all. The only object of the economy is to satisfy consumers (Moss, 2000: 152). The economy is not left free but it is run by “a systematic and penetrating mind” (Wieser, ibid, 20) which “foressees ends, weighs them without error or passion” and responds to them exactly. The consuming populace accepts the orders of this mind “as cheerfully as though enlisted in their
original interest” (ibid). In other words, it is in the hands of a cerebral dictator who acts entirely and rightfully in the interest of the populace, and they recognize that he does so. In this work, through the use of this thought experiment, it has been noted that “Wieser’s main interest is to discover what price relationships would exist in the ideal communist state” (Moss, ibid, 153). Nevertheless, in the interests of space for this chapter, an investigation of the whole book will be left aside and instead a single thought experiment contained in this work will be looked at here. This thought experiment concerns fresh water supplies of sailors at sea.

The aim of Wieser (ibid, 88) in this thought experiment is, in his own words, “[t]he penetration of the secret which is peculiar to the laws of the computation of utility”. In other words, he wants to see how a margin of utility is determined. Before proceeding to the thought experiment itself, some clarification is required here. It needs to be made clear what economists mean by “utility” in the first place. The “utility” of a good is the amount “satisfaction” it gives to the consumer (Begg, ibid, 77). The most significant satisfactions are those that keep the consumer alive. Following this, they will be connected to the consumer’s taste. Utility and price are not necessarily connected. The basic food requirements for life can be cheap, whilst their utility is high. A gold necklace is less utile than these basic food requirements, but is much more expensive.

The margin of utility of a good is the level at which the consumer will use resources to gain it. Wieser uses a thought experiment to conduct his investigation into the laws of the computation of this margin of utility. He describes the thought experiment as “the methodological aids of idealization and isolation” (Wieser, ibid, 88). A thought experiment is necessary to compute the margin of utility as in real world conditions it is accepted that it is difficult to “quantify” (Begg, ibid, 77) utility. Nevertheless, it is something that needs to be comprehended by economists for greater accuracy in their social science as the action of consumers is seen to be determined by their own calculations of it. The way in which consumers set the margin of utility upon a good, along with other factors such as the price asked for a good, is seen as necessary to understanding their behaviour in the economic arena.

For the specific thought experiment in question, Wieser forms his premise. He asks the reader to “consider the conduct of sailors on the high seas” in regard to stored fresh water (Wieser, ibid, 88). He expands upon this point by noting that there are certain “uses” to which such water can be put by them. These include drinking, as well as it being “used for animals aboard the vessel and for kitchen and laundry purposes” (ibid). He then uses logical coherence to make the observation that the use of water would be tied to the position of the ship on its voyage. If the sailors are not far from their destination, and their water supply is still plentiful, they can indulge in all of these uses of water without being forced to make a choice as to how it should be used. Even in this state of surplus water, it is not logical to assume that the utility of the water is equal however. Were it so in the eyes of the sailors, the water would have “the same margin of satiety” and would be equally distributed for each use. However, Wieser is logically coherent in assuming that there would be “unequal gradations” of possible water use – lower for laundry and higher for direct consumption (ibid). That is because the sailors will take more or less satisfaction from these different uses of water. As human beings require drinking water and food to survive – and require the former more regularly than the latter – the sailors would, from all the possible uses of water, presumably regard the drinking of water as being of the greatest utility. Then, the
watering of their animals would have a lower level of utility to them. Following this, they would presumably want to keep clean, but this would be less important to them than drinking and eating, so it would entail an even lower level of utility.

To show how the setting of a margin of utility really occurs though, Wieser then refines his premise to a specific situation. He states (ibid) that:

We shall assume that owing to some accident their supply of drinking water is beginning to run short. In this connection their most important duty is well-considered selection of the uses which are still permissible.

Having made his refined premise, he then applies logic to it. In its more limited state, it is logical that “[h]ence forth” the water “must only be used to quench the thirst of human beings” (ibid). He shows that logically in a situation of limitation, “no allowance can properly be given for a satisfaction of lower intensity while one of higher intensity may still be obtained through some other use”. In other words, it cannot be the case that water needed to support the life of the sailors can be used to keep them clean instead. Wieser expresses this by exclaiming that “[t]hose needs which fall below the permissible margin of utilization must be rigidly excluded” and denotes this as the “margin of utility”. For Wieser, “[t]his margin is measured by the lowest of the most important uses that can be gratified by the available stores”. Of course, this could be imagined in his thought experiment to be higher – for instance including the watering of the animals but still not for laundry – were the water supply greater than it was, but still far from limitless.

Wieser also logically shows that in computing utility immediate gratification of desires is not what is meant by the satisfaction of utility. By coherently playing out his thought experiment logically, he affirms that “[d]aily rations” (ibid) of the water are instituted. To further investigate the question of the margin of utility, Wieser once again refines the premise. This time he creates a further new condition onboard the ship. He (ibid, 89) states that:

Let us assume that ten tons of water have been stored on the vessel. One of these is kept in readiness in one of the boats against an extreme emergency. The crew will save themselves by means of this boat if the vessel sinks. This ton of water has been reserved for the most urgent need.

Logically, this extra water, which is not being consumed, is still understood to have a margin of utility for the sailors. It represents satisfaction in utility by offering safety to the sailors. To illustrate this, Wieser further refines the refinement just made to his premise. He imagines “that by some accident this ton is destroyed” (ibid). In this case, it is logical that even with their limited supplies of water, the crew will ensure “[a]nother” ton of water will be placed in the same boat to be ready in case of need”. This is because “[t]he loss sustained by the crew through the loss of the particular ton of water is confined to the marginal utility of the water” (ibid). In other words, the ton of water in the boat is still considered to have a necessary utility, and needs to be replaced.

The thought experiment in its various permutations leads us to form a conclusion as to how the consumer functions in the real economy. There, the consumer is also limited by what he or she is able to obtain, either through limited supply or insufficient purchasing power. The consumer will also therefore assign utility to goods. As Wieser puts it, utility determination is a “rule which is actually adhered to by the domestic consumer” (Wieser, 1927: 90). He claims that “[t]he truth of this statement may be seen most clearly in observing the computation by the consumer in the case of goods bought
for household use” This is because “consumers measure all their purchases according to the margin of utility” (ibid). Anything that is reckoned to be below the “margin of utility” will not be purchased by a consumer. Thus, as with the sailors and their use of their water, a margin of utility does not cover all goods.

The thought experiment shows that when the water is rationed, it is restricted only to necessary use. As such, the margin of utility for necessities is set. This allows for the conclusion that in the real economy, the parallel case is the consumer that is limited in his or her ability to gain goods. Thus a person in relative poverty will place his or her margin of utility at the necessities of life, whereas a wealthier person, able to easily obtain these, will allow for non-necessary goods to also fall within the margin of utility. Thus the margin of utility for necessities is determined by the resources available to the consumer. Moreover, in the storing of water against emergencies, the thought experiment offers a further conclusion for understanding the real economy. It is that consumers will also assign a value of utility to goods held for later use – perhaps in the form of stored – i.e. saved – money. Indeed, Wieser (ibid, 89) explains “that it is the economic duty of the householder in the use of the means at his disposal to husband” his resources “in the face of the temptations to consumption which are the outgrowth of present desire.” (ibid, 90). His motivation will be to make “the highest total benefit ... permanently secured” which includes security in the future by disregarding anything that falls “below the margin of utility” in the present.

As such, Wieser through his thought experiment of sailors at sea with a water supply onboard their ship and by varying the conditions attached to the storage of that water, demonstrates how consumers function in the real economy at higher and lower levels of resources and when future security is to be considered.

3. The Political Science State Formation Thought Experiments of Thomas Hobbes, John Locke and Jean-Jacques Rousseau

The next thought experiments to be looked at are from the social science field of political science. Here more detail on the working out of thought experiments is to be gone into. That is because the three thought experiments that are to be examined here rest on roughly similar premises. The interest in exhibiting the three thought experiments here is that the small differences in nuance in these premises widen out considerably as the thought experiments are developed logically. They then conclude in very different models.

One of the key issues in early modern political science is that of the foundation of the state. It is a central concern to the three preeminent thinkers on politics of the early modern period, those thinkers being Thomas Hobbes, John Locke and Jean-Jacques Rousseau. They all regard state formation as being in the form of a contract. That is an agreement amongst individuals who come together for the purpose of forming a political body.

Each thought experiment rests on a premise. The premise of the three thinkers is the natural state of man. This is because they all believe that the formation of the most suitable polity is a logical progression from the true nature of man. The three thinkers have to resort to a premise as to what the natural state of man is as they have no way of knowing what it would be otherwise. Whilst there has been a great increase in understanding of prehistoric human beings from the nineteenth century onwards, back in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries this knowledge simply did not exist. For
these three thinkers, their only close example of man is that of the civilized European, and this type of person is so far from living in a natural state that it is impossible to know for certain how he would have been in one. Rousseau is explicit in recognizing this as a problem. He (*DI*. 67) states that:

"[T]he whole progress of the human species removed man constantly farther and farther from his primitive state; the more we acquire new knowledge, the more we deprive ourselves of the means of acquiring the most important knowledge of all; and, in a sense, it is through studying man that we have rendered ourselves incapable of knowing him."

They also cannot turn to ancient documentation to understand their natural ancestors as the documentation that they possess simply do not go back that far. Locke admits that “it is not at all to be wondered, that history gives us but a very little account of *men, that lived together in a state of nature*” (Locke, 1980:54 – original italics). That is because even the occurrences of the births of states that come out of the state of nature are “antecedent to records” (ibid).

Hence, the three thinkers are obliged to imagine what man would have appeared to be in his natural state. To achieve this, his added trappings of civilization must be removed in by the imagination. Rousseau (*DI*. 67) makes this clear when he affirms that to reveal natural man, man as he is must be taken and then “all the changes which the succession of time and things must have produced in his original constitution” must be stripped away in order to “distinguish that which belongs to his own essence from that which circumstances and progress have added to, or altered in, his primitive state”. This will leave him revealed “as nature made him”.

For Hobbes (*Lev*. 187), this is most suitably done by taking note of what happens to civilized man when his civilized society is rent apart. He affirms that “it may be perceived what manner of life there would be, where there were no common Power to feare; by the manner of life, which men that have formerly lived under a peaceful government, use to degenerate into, in a civill Warre”.

The picture of man that appears is the premise of their thought experiments which they will then develop through logic. As thought experiments, the creation of the polity is imagined and is not of historical record. It has already been shown that Locke accepts that such state formation occurs prior to the keeping of historical records. He also points out that “it is with *common-wealths* as with particular persons, they are commonly *ignorant of their own births and infancies*” (Locke, ibid – original italics). Locke believes that what he will demonstrate through his thought experiment reflects historical reality, however. He argues that the few exceptions to the general rule that states do not retain any memory of their own foundings “are all either plain instances” of the type of state formation that he argues for “or at least have manifest footsteps of it” (ibid).

Locke therefore sees his thought experiment as a recreation of something that actually occurred on multiple occasions. The other two thinkers are more skeptical about their thought experiments reflecting actual reality. Hobbes is clear that the state of nature that he describes was far from universal, at least. He states that “[i]t may peradventure be thought, there was never such a time, nor condition ... such as this; and I believe it was never generally so, over all the world” (*Lev*. 187). This does, however, leave the possibility that there were at least occasions in which a state of nature existed as Hobbes pictures it imaginatively. For Rousseau, though, he is explicit that his thought experiment is not a recreation of history. This is clear from his being disdainful
of other thinkers who feel that they have discovered the true natural state of man in their minds. Rousseau (Di 78) declares that that “[t]he philosophers who have examined the foundations of society have all felt it necessary to go back to the state of nature, but none of them have succeeded in getting there”. He is then explicit in disdainfully declaring that “[i]t has not even entered the heads of most of our philosophers to doubt that the state of nature once existed” (ibid – my italics). Indeed, Rousseau argues that a state of nature must be imaginative as for it not to be so involves contradicting the Bible. He (Di 78) states that:

[I]t is evident from reading the Scriptures that the first man, having received the light of reason and precepts at once from God, was not himself in the state of nature; and giving the writings of Moses that credence which every Christian philosopher owes them, one must deny that even before the Flood men were in the pure state of nature, unless they relapsed into it through some extraordinary event – a paradox that would be troublesome to uphold and altogether impossible to prove.

Thus, for Rousseau, an investigation into natural man cannot be a “pursuit of truths of history” but is an investigation conducted “solely as hypothetical and conditional reasonings, better fitted to clarify the nature of things than to expose their actual origin”. It has to be carried out through “conjectures”.

Whether or not such “conjectures” are supposed to match historical reality completely, such as in Locke, partially as in Hobbes or not at all, as in Rousseau, all of the thinkers make their arguments for the creation of states upon them. That is, they use thought experiments, and are required to as there is no other way for them to tackle this issue. As Rousseau (ibid, 107) so succinctly puts it “[w]here history is unable to determine facts, philosophy is to step in”.

The three thinkers start with a premise as to the what kind of a being natural man would be. They then develop that logically to determine how the state is formed. There is a point of similarity in the thinkers in that they all regard natural man as being free and effectually equal with others of his species. Nevertheless, the specific nature and value of this freedom and equality differs between them. Then, from a basis which is somewhat similar but contains difference, the logical development of the thought experiment of each thinker widens the difference leading them into very dissimilar nascent states in terms of the functioning and goals of those states. How this is the case will now be revealed, and to do so the three thinkers will now each be examined separately. They will be dealt with in chronological order as to their lives and major works on politics. That is, first Hobbes, then Locke and lastly Rousseau will now be examined.

Hobbes imagines human beings in their pre-state natural condition as pretty much equal in power and ability. He (Lev. 183) affirms that:

Nature hath made men so equal, in the faculties of body, and mind; as that though there be found one man sometimes manifestly stronger in body, or of quicker mind than another; yet when all is reckoned together, the difference between man, and man, is not so considerable.

Such a depiction of man is the premise to his thought experiment. Next, he is logically coherent in developing his thought experiment. With man as he has depicted in his premise, Hobbes logically determines that the situation in which natural man finds himself is a fundamentally unstable one. That is because, in the state of nature, Hobbes logically affirms that as one man is not superior enough over another that:
[He] can thereupon claim to himself any benefit, to which another may not pretend, as well as he. For as to the strength of body, the weakest has strength enough to kill the strongest, either by secret machination, or by confederacy with others, that are in the same danger with himself (Lev. 183).

Of course “secret machination” or joining with others involves planning; that is the use of the intellect. And in this faculty, Hobbes sees greater equality between men than with physical strength. For the mind of man in his natural state – that is necessarily without education – Hobbes states that “I find yet a greater equality amongst men, than that of strength” (ibid). And as physical advantages can be overridden by mental acumen, then each man in the state of nature is potentially able to overcome his fellow man or be overcome by him.

Hence, in developing his thought experiment, Hobbes argues that if there is a rough equality to human beings that means that any attempts to attain what they desire for themselves would also logically be roughly equal. He then logically develops this further to make the point that if there are limited resources then this rough equality in the ability of attaining them will lead to violent competition for them, as nobody will consider himself necessarily inadequate enough to step back from such competition.

Consequently, Hobbes (Lev. 184) states that “[f]rom this equality of ability, arise the equality of hope in the attaining of our Ends”. Should “any two men desire the same thing, which nevertheless they cannot both enjoy, they become enemies” leading them to “endeavor or subdue one another”. As such, it is usually those “Ends” necessary “for [man’s] own conservation” (ibid) that leads them into conflict. As Iain Hampsher-Monk (1992: 24) notes, this problem is exacerbated by those in the state of nature “[o]verestimating [their] own chances of success” in such conflict, making them more willing to engage in it. Moreover, man in the state of nature is free in that he can act as he will – such as involving himself in conflict and deciding what his “Ends” are – and he is subject to no moral restraint\(\text{iv}\) (Lev. 188, H-M., ibid, 24). As Hobbes (DCP.111) makes clear, he has “the right of doing whatever seemed good in his own eyes”.

What makes the situation even worse for Hobbes is that it is not merely the necessities of life which can cause conflict. Men may also dispute over items that provide “delectation only” (Lev. 184). Additionally, Hobbes affirms that “in the nature of man” there are “three principal causes of quarrell” and after “Competition” he names “Diffidence” and then “Glory” (Lev. 185). “Competition” covers conflict that is engaged upon in the attempt of aggressors “to make themselves Masters of other mens persons, wives, children, and cattell” whereas “Diffidence” is violence engaged in “to defend” against such aggression. The third cause of conflict is, by comparison, petty yet no less real. It is conflict engaged in for “trifles, as a word, a smile, a different opinion, and any other sign of undervalue, either direct in their Persons” or towards a group they belong to.

Thus in postulating the premise of an effective equality amongst natural men, Hobbes, in his thought experiment, logically develops this to argue that he will be in conflict. Natural man for Hobbes (Lev. 223) is consequently in what he calls the “miserable condition of Warre”. The state of nature, for Hobbes, is a “condition which is called Warre; and such a Warre as is of every man, against every man” (Lev. 185). It is a state of “continualfeare, and danger of violent death; And the life of man” within it is “solitary, poore, nasty, brutish, and short” (Lev. 186). This state of war exists even when there is no actual fighting, due to the constant potential threat under which man is
in the state of nature. Hobbes avers that a state of war is one in which “the Will to contend by Battell is sufficiently known” and as such “the nature of War, consist eth not in actual fighting” although it is also manifested by it “but in the known disposition thereto, during all the time there is no assurance to the contrary”\textsuperscript{xiii} (ibid). From his premise of natural man who is roughly equal with others of his type, Hobbes has logically developed this into a scene of conflict in the pre-state state of nature. Hobbes further logically develops his thought experiment by determining that this condition of war is so horrific to natural man that he would wish to escape it effectively at any price. That is, he would be willing to sacrifice his natural autonomy in order to get himself out of the state of war and into what Hobbes calls “Peace”.

As relative equality and freedom lead man into the state of war, and an exit from the state of war into peace is eminently desirable, both equality and freedom in the state of nature are logically sacrificed by Hobbes in the interest of ending conflict and insecurity. Hence Hobbes (\textit{Lev. 223}) declares that:

The final Cause, End, or Design of men, (who naturally love Liberty, and Dominion over others,) in the introduction of that restrain upon themselves, (in which we see them live in Common-wealths,) is the foresight of their own preservation, and of a more contented life thereby; that is to say, of getting themselves out from that miserable condition of Warre.

How this state of peace is to be created is through the formation of the political state. Having made clear the aim in state formation, that is to end the state of war, the type of state to be contracted is logically one that must guarantee such peace. For Hobbes, logic determines that in state formation, it is necessary “to erect such a Common Power” that will prevent all acts of violence towards and within the commonwealth it heads. That is that those in the state of nature need “to conferre all their power and strength upon one Man, or upon one Assembly of men, that may reduce all their Wills, by a plurality of voices, unto one Will” (\textit{Lev. 227}). By doing so, they enter into what Hobbes calls “the estate of security” (\textit{DCP. 111}). As such, it is an abdication of freedom. The agreement to make a common power is imagined by Hobbes (\textit{Lev. 227}) to be such:

\begin{quote}
\textit{[A]s if every man should say to every man, I Authorize and give up my Right of Governing my selfe, to this Man, or this Assembly of men, on this condition, that thou give up thy Right to him, and Authorize all his Actions in like manner} (original italics).
\end{quote}

The sovereign that is thus created is called by Hobbes a “Leviathan” (\textit{Lev. 227}). As he or it – in the case of an assembly – has been set up to prevent conflict, this “coercive Power” (\textit{Lev. 238}) is to manifest “terror” (\textit{Lev. 227}) in order to prevent the men under him acting freely and thus destroying their commonwealth. Hobbes (\textit{Lev. 232-3}) states that:

\begin{quote}
\textit{[B]ecause the End of this Institution, is the Peace and Defense of them all; and whosoever has right to the End, has right to the Means; it belonged of Right, to whatsoever Man, or Assembly that hath the Sovereignty, to be Judge both of the meanes of Peace and Defence; and also of the hindrances, and disturbances of the same; and to do whatever he shall think necessary to be done ... for the preserving of Peace and Security.}
\end{quote}

The Leviathan is therefore established in the thought experiment of Hobbes to cow men through fear from acting as they did in the state of nature, where they were a constant threat to one and other through their condition of freedom. As such, the
conclusion of the thought experiment of Hobbes that starts with the premise of natural man is a state with an all-powerful ruler. His thought experiment led Hobbes logically to determine that nothing in the state can be worse than the “dissolute condition of masterlesse men” (Lev. 238). A great deal may be paid for the price of peace under the Leviathan, but the price is one that is worth paying. It is fully possible, and Hobbes accepts that this is so, that “the Condition of Subjects” under the Leviathan may be thought by them to be “very miserable” (ibid), and may be regarded by some as “absolute subjection” (DCP. 115). Nevertheless, for Hobbes his thought experiment has determined that it is better to live in such imperfect peace under the all-powerful ruler than be in a state of war.

Locke, though starting from a premise not completely dissimilar to Hobbes reaches a rather different conclusion in his thought experiment. As with Hobbes, Locke also regards the state of nature as being a place of equality. As Hampsher-Monk (1992: 81) summarizes it in the case of Locke, “[t]he state of nature is a state of equality amongst men. It is a created equality based on the common membership of a single species”. Nevertheless, Locke differs from the Hobbes in seeing a theological basis for this equality. For Locke, each man is “the workmanship of one omnipotent, and infinitely wise creator” – that is God (Locke, 1980:9). By all being creatures of God, mankind is “his property” and each person is “furnished with like faculties” by this Creator (ibid).

The logical development of this premise swiftly leads Locke in a very different direction to that of Hobbes. This natural God-given equality logically has a moral dimension. For Locke the fundamental belonging of man to his God determines amongst man that “there cannot be supposed any such subjugation among us, that may authorize us to destroy one another, as if we were made for one another’s uses” (ibid). Indeed, regarding man in such a manner, Locke is logically coherent in establishing that the state of nature is infused with morality. Having established the equality of man through the use of a benevolent creator, it is logical for Locke that that creator cherishes and watches over his creation. This means that the state of nature is infused with what Hampsher-Monk (ibid) calls “moral law”. This is termed by Locke as the “law of nature” (Locke, ibid) but as this “law” is moral, it is not to be understood in terms similar to that of Hobbes at all.

With such moral law infusing the state of nature, the next logical step made by Locke in his thought experiment is to set out the limits to the freedom of action of the men within it. He is considerably more limited than the natural man of Hobbes with his absolute freedom of action. The natural man of Locke is only to some extent free. That is he has “an uncontrollable liberty to dispose of his person or possessions” (ibid). Nevertheless, he is limited in his actions as regards other people due to the presence of the moral law and the fundamental belonging of man to God. This situation logically prevents natural man from harming either himself or any other person, unless, for the latter, in self-defence (ibid). It is of course possible for natural man to break this moral law, but in doing so, he rebels against God, and as such behaves wrongly. Breaking the moral law, as Hampsher-Monk puts it, is “to thwart God’s purpose in the world and to contradict our own (God-given) natures”. In order to understand how this is the case, Hampsher-Monk (ibid) explains:

Locke argues that since God made the world, everything within it (including ourselves) has a purpose. Thus the more lowly created beings – animals and plants – are available to man to use for his survival, but not to waste. Even our own lives are not
ours to dispose of, they are a trust from God, we have no right to destroy ourselves (to ‘quit our station wilfully’) nor to destroy, injure, enslave or rob other beings who are equal to us before God.

The natural man of Hobbes is free of any moral restraint, yet due to the logical progression from an equality of man based on divine providence, Locke has moral restraint placed into his state of nature.

There is a further logical progression in the working out of this thought experiment of Locke. It is that as moral law infuses the state of nature, and as this law can but obviously should not be broken, it is necessary that this law is upheld. This is to be done through the use of punishment. As the state of nature lacks government, anyone within the state of nature has the right to punish a transgressor of the law. Locke (ibid, 46) states that in the state of nature:

Man ... hath by nature a power, not only to preserve his property, that is, his life, liberty and estate, against the injuries and attempts of other men: but to judge of, and punish the breaches of that law in others, as he is persuaded the offence deserves, even with death itself, in crimes when the heinousness of the fact, in his opinion, requires it.

That is, he has the right to punish transgressors of the moral law not only when he is the victim of such transgression but even if he is personally unaffected by the transgression. As Hampsher-Monk (ibid, 83) explains, this is because “[t]he right of non-victims to punish ... derives from the general right and duty to uphold the law preserving mankind”, which consists of “God’s creatures”. Hampsher-Monk (84) then quotes Locke to show that the transgressors in the case of murder, for instance, are:

[Those who] having renounced Reason, the common Rule and Measure, God hath given to Mankind, hath by the unjust Violence and Slaughter he hath committed upon one, declared War against all Mankind, and therefore may be destroyed as a Lyon or a Tyger, one of those wild Savage Beasts with whom Men can have no Society nor Security.

The next step in the logical progression from the premise of divinely-ordered equality to state formation is that this method of punishing transgressors of the moral law is deeply unsatisfactory. That is because the situation of everyone within the state of nature being able to uphold its law will end, as Hampsher-Monk points out, “in confusion, partiality and occasional violence”, because each man present will be blinkered by his own “selfishness”, and this will prevent the law being enforced in such a way as to ensure harmony. This explains why in Locke’s thought experiment, those in the state of nature logically, as Locke exclaims, “by their own Consents” will “Make themselves Members of some Politick Society”, in order to escape from this difficulty.

Thus, man contracts with his fellow man in the state of nature to form a political state. As Locke makes clear, this occurs when “every one of the members hath quitted this natural power” of judgment and punishment and “resigned it up into the hands of the community in all cases that exclude him not from appealing for protection to the law established by it” (Locke, ibid, 46).

They form what Locke calls a “civil society” being defined by him as “[t]hose who are united into one body, and have established a common law and judicature to appeal to, with authority to decide controversies between them, and punish offenders”. It is also called by him “a common-wealth” (ibid, 47 – original italics).

As the body politic is contracted in order for the fairer administration of justice, the commonwealth logically necessitates the “setting up a judge on earth, with authority
to determine the controversies, and redress the injuries that may happen to any member of the commonwealth” (ibid 48). For Locke, this “judge” is explicitly “the legislative, or magistrates appointed by it”. It has political power, and Locke also provides a definition for this power which reinforces the nature of the contract that forms the common wealth. Locke (ibid, 8) states that:

*Political power*, then, I take to be a right of making laws with penalties of death, and consequently all less penalties, for the regulating and preserving of property, and of employing the force of the community, in the execution of such laws, and in the defence of the common-wealth from foreign injury; and this only for the public good.

The natural man who has given up this right for himself does so to his own advantage. As Richard I. Aaron notes, he, along with others “makes himself subject to the civil law and finds his freedom in voluntary obedience” (Aaron, 2005). Nevertheless, as Aaron points out the only right from the state of nature that is ceded by natural man in order to enter civil society “is the right to judge and punish his fellow man” (ibid) or as D. J. O’Connor puts it “the only rights resigned by men on their entry into civil society are those of enforcing the natural law” (O’Connor, 1952: 206). As such, O’Connor also notes that “[a]ll other natural rights are retained by the individual” (ibid).

There are two logical outcomes of this in the thought experiment of Locke. The first is that if it is the administration of justice that is the cause of state creation then there is an obligation on the judge to be just. It is certainly not free to act in any way that it pleases as is the Leviathan of Hobbes. Secondly, it is only the right to punish infringements of natural law that man gives up when entering into the body politic. His other rights remain intact as they have no relation to this specific goal. As such, man in the newly-created state retains, as Aaron (2005) notes, his “freedom of thought, speech, and worship” as well as his right over his own property.

In light of the aforementioned observations, it is logical that for Locke, a man who has exited the state of nature “has the right to expect political power to be used to preserve his property, in his own person and in his possessions” in addition to his other natural rights (Aaron). Seeing the amassing of power as a threat to the natural rights that man has carried into the commonwealth, the thought experiment of Locke deals with what O’Connor calls “the organization of political societies” (O’Connor, ibid, 207).

O’Connor (ibid, 207-8) summarizes that for Locke:

The legislative power in the state, or the power to make laws, must not be in the hands of the same persons who hold the executive power, or the power of enforcing the laws. If this separation of powers is not ensured by the terms of the [societal contract], the men who form the government will have the power to exempt themselves from obedience to their own laws and the temptation to use this power will be irresistible.

Then, the commonwealth “will degenerate into a tyranny” (ibid). As such, with its emphasis on a limited surrendering of natural rights, the thought experiment of Locke logically leads him into the second outcome which is to conclude that the best form of government to both ensure common justice and not infringe the natural rights of the members of the state is that, as Aaron notes, “a mixed constitution” with a separate legislative and executive. On the subject of the infringement of rights, Locke also concludes that the members of the state have the right to rebel under certain conditions. Because the government ultimately depends for its existence on the people, and it has been established by them to protect the rights mentioned above, Aaron notes that “the
people always have the right to withdraw their support and overthrow the government if it fails to fulfil their trust” (Aaron, 2005). In other words, as Aaron puts it, “[t]he ruler’s authority ... is conditional rather than absolute” as it is “a trust, forfeited by a ruler who fails to secure the public good” (ibid).

This sounds like a widespread licence to revolt, but in practice it is considerably more limited. That is because in his conception of the formation of government, Locke places great stress upon the importance of the legislature. Locke (1980: 107-8) states of the legislature that:

Civil society being a state of peace, amongst those who are of it, from whom the state of war is excluded by the umpirage, which they have provided in their legislative, for the ending all differences that may arise amongst any of them, it is in their legislative, that the members of a common-wealth are united, and combined together into one coherent living body. This is the soul that gives form, life, and unity, to the common-wealth: from hence the several members have their mutual influence, sympathy, and connexion (original italics).

It is an existential threat to the functioning legislature which allows for rebellion, and not simply a whim of the populace. It is if the legislature is disbanded or revoked then, for Locke, logically “dissolution and death follows” in that the legislature is “the essence and union of the society” (ibid, 108 – original italics). As such, an attack on the legislature can only come from the executive in the form of the prince as only he has the power through “the force, treasure and office of the state” to subvert the constitution (ibid, 109).

In such a situation:

[T]he people are at liberty to provide for themselves, by erecting a new legislative, different from the other, by the change of persons, or form, or both, as they shall find it most to their safety and good: for the society can never, by the fault of another, lose the native and original right it has to preserve itself, which can only be done by a settled legislative, and a fair and impartial execution of the laws made by it (ibid,110 – original italics).

Hence, from a premise of the benevolence of God making man equal in the state of nature, the thought experiment of Locke develops through its logical steps to conclude in a state in which certain rights remain with the individual and a limited right of rebellion is established. The state that is created under it is one in which, as O’Connor neatly puts it, “a government is a trustee for its citizens with certain powers which they have relinquished to it to ensure their most efficient use” and as such “the relationship between the government and the governed should be analogous to that between trustee and beneficiary” (O’Connor, 1952: 210).

Rousseau, like Hobbes and Locke, uses his imagination to create an image of natural man upon which the premise of his thought experiment is formed. The natural man he imagines though is radically different from that of the earlier two thinkers. Whilst the natural man of Hobbes or Locke resembles civilized man in many respects, most notably in his ability to make unclouded use of his reason, that of Rousseau looks more like an advanced form of animal. Indeed, in his pure form, Rousseau (DI. 89) regards man as a being that acts through “purely animal functions” being moved “by instinct alone”. Furthermore, Rousseau’s natural man is unable to speak (ibid, 104), but he is also physically impressive and easily able to supply his basic needs, whilst remaining “solitary” and compassionate (ibid,81-2, 86, 99) and essentially peaceable.
Most significantly, natural man for Rousseau is both happy and free. Rousseau avers that as he “desires only the things he knows and knows only the things within his reach, or easy to acquire” then “nothing ought to be so tranquil as his soul” (ibid, 161).

In his being free, the natural man of Rousseau does resemble that of Hobbes and to a lesser extent that of Locke. But the emphasis is very different for Rousseau. For Rousseau, the condition of freedom for natural man is his most significant state. For Rousseau, freedom is the paramount human value. He (SC. 6) avers that “all [are] born free and equal”, and regards freedom as being intrinsic to the human being. This freedom is man’s natural state. And in his free natural state – that is, in the state of nature in which man is found “in all its nakedness” (Rou. Conf. 378) both literally and metaphorically – his is “a free agent” (Rou. DI. 87, 88). As such, he is happy, his happiness depending upon his freedom. Rousseau (ibid, 67) avers that for man in the state of nature, his “soul” is such as is still “possessed of that celestial and majestic simplicity which the Creator imprinted upon it”. Rousseau rhetorically asks of man in the state of nature “what kind of misery can be that of a free being whose heart is at peace and whose body is in health?” (ibid, 97). As for equality, man is also effectively equal in the state of nature. Rousseau states that “inequality [is] almost non-existent in the state of nature” (ibid, 137). But owing to the antisocial nature of man in the state of nature, this effective equality need not be continually stressed by Rousseau, man in the state of nature being rarely in a condition where he would even be able to compare himself to others.

The thought experiment of the social contract tradition is postulated on the logical idea that natural man would gain advantage from forming a body politic. In Hobbes’ case the advantage is clear. Natural man is exiting the state of war. In Locke’s case it is also clear. He is entering into a state in which justice may be better served. But as Rousseau’s natural man is happy and free, then there seems no advantage to his entering into a body politic.

Indeed for the thought experiment of Rousseau, it is the question of why man would have left the idyllic state of nature that needs to be addressed. Rousseau feels that this is a logical development from the premise of what natural man is, however. Although he resembles an animal, as noted above, natural man is also premised by Rousseau (ibid, 88 – original italics) as having an innate mental “faculty for self-improvement”. Initially, in the depiction of him above, natural man has not made use of it, but Rousseau develops his thought experiment logically in making the assumption that sooner or later this faculty will come into play. It does so, and entails an initial socialization for natural man, in what Hampsher-Monk (ibid, 168) describes as the “natural outgrowth of man’s inventiveness in overcoming difficulties”. That is, natural man is aware of other human beings, and having watched them act as he himself did, comes to regard them as being much as himself. It is logical that with his capacity for improving himself, he could grasp that there were situations in which cooperation with others of his species would be to his greater advantage and this leads him to join with them on ventures of “common interest” (Rou. DI. 111). These are limited in scope. Rousseau states that at these times, “he united with them in an herd, or at most in a free association that committed no one and which lasted only as long as the passing need which had brought it into being” (ibid). Nevertheless, even with such relatively fleeting contact, the seeds of socialization are sown there. It gives natural man “some crude idea
of mutual commitments, and of the advantages of fulfilling them” and it leads to the beginnings of language, even if, for such limited enterprises only one on a communicative level with “that of crows or monkeys” (ibid). The slow development into more proper languages, albeit “crude and imperfect” ones takes “many centuries” (Rou. Di. 112), but it is rooted in this cooperation.

That such limited cooperation was of benefit to natural man logically leads natural man to also “to make more rapid” (ibid) developments with others of his species and this brings him into a primitive socialization. He discovers tools and makes his own dwellings, which improve his situation. The question of dwellings is the logical basis for Rousseau for what Hampsher-Monk (ibid, 169) calls “the other main stimulation for sociability” in Rousseau. That is, as he notes, “the establishment of the family”. This was the truly far-reaching change, as families once established, increase in scope. This meant that, as Hampsher-Monk notes “as family networks increased, society, and the feelings it engendered, became more extensive” and this in turn “accelerated the development of language” with “the increased leisure time allow[ing] for further invention of conveniences”.

This is the logical development in Rousseau’s thought experiment from pure natural man to what may be called his pre-agricultural social man. There are marked differences between the two. As has been seen, the pre-agricultural social man lives in a manufactured dwelling (Rou. Di. 112), and is able to communicate through speech (ibid, 113). He also spends much time dancing and, as his designation makes clear, he is clearly now a social creature (ibid, 114).

With natural man as his ideal, Rousseau cannot regard this change as wholly positive or neutral though. Rather, he affirms that the pre-agricultural early social man of Rousseau has “produced compounds fatal to happiness and innocence” (ibid). Innocence is a condition of purity and the pre-agricultural social man is no longer a pure being. That is, that whilst in his purely natural state what a man fundamentally is and how he appears in his early society a division between the two is established, and the alienation of man from himself begins. Rousseau affirms that “[m]an’s being and man’s appearance, now became two different matters” (qtd. H-M., ibid, 169). As Hampsher-Monk explains it:

Since we want to be accepted by the group, we seek to acquire qualities, or the appearance of them, that are acceptable to others. We start to see ourselves through others’ eyes, and this leads us to deny (or conceal) our real wishes and present ourselves in a favourable light.

Appearance and reality no longer necessarily being correlates, the pre-agricultural early social man creates other problems for himself in his socialization. Any competitiveness with others of his species in his wholly natural state concern resources, and such competition Rousseau (Di. 111) affirms is extremely rare. In his thought experiment, Rousseau sees on the other hand for man in “nascent society” competitive feelings being produced in him by his new environment. Specifically, competitiveness logically results on a societal scope in “on the one side, vanity and scorn” whilst on the other “shame and envy”. This situation leads man to take his “first step towards inequality and at the same time towards vice”. Moreover, his “natural pity ha[s] suffered some dilution”, violence exists through “the terror of revenge” and men can be “bloodthirsty and cruel” (ibid, 113-5). Additionally, basic possessions have begun to cause him distress. He has, in short, developed into a different type of creature.
Rousseau (ibid, 115) states that: 

[S]ociety’s having come into existence and relations among individuals having been already established meant that men were required to have qualities different from those they possessed from their primitive constitution”.

The pre-agricultural social man is not too far from that of natural man, however. He still retains his fundamental freedom. Indeed, by being able to enjoy the company of others, he seems to be in an even better state that before, even if the ideal form of man for Rousseau is that of purely natural man. Rousseau (ibid) states of the pre-agricultural social man that:

[A]lthough men had come to have less fortitude, and their natural pity had suffered some dilution, this period of the development of human faculties, the golden mean between the indolence of the primitive state and the petulant activity of our own pride, must have been the happiest epoch and the most lasting. The more we reflect on it, the more we realize that this state was the least subject to revolutions, and the best for man.

Logically, therefore, Rousseau further makes the point “that man can have left” this state “only as the result of some fatal accident, which, for the common good, ought never to have happened” (ibid – my italics). It seems that it is logical that it would have occurred though, as in the development of his thought experiment, Rousseau demonstrates how this “fatal accident” would have been brought about.

Rousseau first contextualizes the situation by averring that while the industry of pre-agricultural social man remained on simplistic tasks that could be carried out by one individual alone, such as “sewing their garments of skin with thorns or fish-bones” (ibid), then these men “lived as free, healthy, good and happy men so far as they could be according to their nature and they continued to enjoy among themselves the sweetness of independent intercourse” (DI. 116).

However, in Rousseau’s though experiment this condition of contentment does not last. A further development occurs, which heralds the beginnings of misery but is nevertheless due to man’s capacity for self-improvement. The development in question is a “great revolution” that is brought about through “[m]etallurgy and agriculture” (ibid). Iron being a substance that requires full-time attention to turn into implements of use, there is a concomitant necessity of specialization in terms of the activities that men do. Rousseau (ibid, 117) explains why this is the case and what logically ensues:

As soon as some men were needed to smelt and forge iron, other men were needed to supply them with food. The more the number of industrial workers multiplied, the fewer hands were engaged in providing the common subsistence, without their being any fewer mouths to consume it; and as some men needed commodities in exchange for their iron, others finally learned the secret of using iron for the multiplication of commodities.

The result is that there comes about “on the one hand, ploughing and agriculture, and, on the other, the art of working metals and of multiplying their uses”. And this explains the birth of property, as the next logical step is that “[f]rom the cultivation of the land, its division necessarily followed” (ibid). Rousseau allows that this condition does not need to produce inequality. It might have left man equal “if talents had been equal” and if the balance between the need for iron and food remained constant (ibid, 118). Nevertheless, in Rousseau’s thought experiment, these conditions are not met. Rather:

[T]he stronger did more productive work, the more adroit did better work, the
more ingenious devised ways of abridging his labour: the farmer had greater need of iron or the smith greater need of wheat, and with both working equally, the one earned plenty while the other had hardly enough to live on.

As such:

[N]atural inequality merges imperceptivity with inequality of ranks, and the difference between men, increased by differences of circumstances, make themselves more visible and more permanent in their effects, and begin to exercise a correspondingly large influence over the destiny of individuals.

This is why, as Copleston points out, for Rousseau “private property was the result of man’s departure from his state of primitive simplicity, and it brought untold evils in its train” (Copleston, 2003: 68). It is also in property that the seeds of the state are to be found. The principle of the state is justice, and for Rousseau, it is logical that it is upon property that the basis for a concept of justice is found. As he puts it “for in order to render each his own, each must be able to have something” (DI. 117). Also, on the deterrent side, ownership made it possible for “reprisals” (ibid, 118) to actions taken against others to be made as each “had some goods to lose”.

Due to the unequal condition of talents, some properties expand whilst others do not. Then logically a point is reached at which there is no free land separating the estates any longer. Under this condition, “no estate could be enlarged except at the expense of its neighbour” (ibid, 119). Moreover, it is also a logical outcome of this situation that those who have not amassed property but have retained their natural condition “became poor without having lost anything” in that the land they have once freely used to feed themselves from is now owned by others. Thus, they could only take, or thieve, it from the property owners (ibid, 120). As Hampsher-Monk (ibid, 170) puts it “[o]nce all the land is possessed, theft or slavery are the only courses open to men to survive”.

The worst types of characteristics are born in the winners and losers in this new order. The rich property owners “learned the pleasure of dominating” so much so that all “other pleasures” meant nothing to them (DI. 120). Also, as Hampsher-Monk (171) notes, “[t]he position of the property owners was morally indefensible”. As Rousseau explains, they feel “their might” allow them to take the property of others, and the poor “their need” gives them the same “kind of right” leading them into “brigandage”. This leads into, as Rousseau paraphrases Hobbes, “a perpetual conflict” and “a state of war”. It is not a situation that benefits anyone. Also, the rich feel their property to be threatened, and as their claim to property is based on “force” itself, then they have no recourse if “force could take away from them” what they now have (ibid, 120-1).

The rich, due to their being in competition with one another, could not combine, and it means that each property owner is effectively helpless if faced with groups of landless “bandits” (ibid). In the thought experiment of Rousseau, the solution to the difficulties of the rich is described by him as “the most cunning project that ever entered the human mind” or by Hampsher-Monk (ibid) as “a confidence trick of epic proportions”. It is for the rich:

[T]o employ in his favour he very forces of those who attacked him, to make his adversaries his defenders, to inspire them with new maxims and give them new institutions as advantageous to him as natural right was disadvantageous (DI. 121).

This huge act of deception is to contract with other men and form a state. The deceitful property owners offer to the other men in their area what seems to be a fair-
seeming contract that appears guaranteed to end violence. They claim that by unifying altogether, those who are “weak” will be protected from “oppression” in that those manifesting ambition will be kept in check (ibid). The owners of property will have that property protected by all. This will all be done under “rules of justice and peace” which will be instigated as applicable to all “without exception” and make everyone equal, if not in terms of property, at least in a legal sense. This will all be done under “one supreme power” which will “govern according to wise laws” and “protect and defend all the members of the association”.

As such, the state is founded with a higher authority, with members unequal in terms of property but with all equal under the law. In the thought experiment of Rousseau (DI. 122), those targeted by this deception are, due to the condition of conflict, easily won over unknowingly to their own great disadvantage. As Rousseau expresses it:

All ran towards their chains believing that they were securing their liberty; for although they had reason enough to discern the advantages of a civil order, they did not have experience enough to foresee the dangers.

Nonetheless, there is to be no doubt that this situation was detrimental to the general well-being of mankind. Rousseau states that:

[It] put new fetters on the weak and gave new powers to the rich, which irretrievably destroyed natural liberty, established for all time the law of property and inequality, transformed adroit usurpation into irrevocable right, and for the benefit of a few ambitious men subjected the human race thenceforth to labour, servitude and misery.

This, in the thought experiment of Rousseau is what Hampsher-Monk (171) calls “the second great revolution in society”, one that was “designed to convert usurpation into what appeared to be right”. That is, for Rousseau the formation of the state through contracting among the parties is based upon a gross deception and is injurious to the majority of the contracting parties. Nonetheless, at the outset, the state appears to be founded on the justice of equality under the law for all the citizens of the new state. There is a difference between those who administer and those who are administered for, but all are legally equal.

The problem is that it is illogical to expect that an edifice erected upon such rotten foundations could hope to prosper even in this manner. The human vices that are born with the establishment of property are carried into the new state. The desire for domination and divisiveness that property has engendered are not extinguished or even held in check by the newly-created state.

This effects how the magistrates gain and retain their positions. The first magistrates are elected, but Rousseau (DI. 130-1) avers that “the more often elections had to take place” then “the more troublesome aspects of elections made themselves felt” with “intrigues”, “fractions” and violence. The next logical development is that “[a]mbitious leaders took advantage of this situation to perpetuate their offices in their own families” and the debilitated people “agreed to allow its servitude to be increased for the sake of assuring its tranquillity”. Logically, another change in mindset occurs. For those in charge, they begin to regard “their magistrates as family possessions” and that the state actually belongs to them. No longer do they see themselves as “officers” who hold power in trust from their fellow citizens, but they now regard the latter as “their slaves” and as being “like cattle” which they own. Their arrogance also makes
them call themselves “the equals of gods and king of kings”.

There is another logical development in Rousseau’s thought experiment, and that is that “[p]olitical distinctions necessarily introduce civil distinctions”. Not only have the magistrates raised themselves above the other citizens, but a stratification is introduced amongst the latter. The usurping magistrate requires supporters to whom he has to give a part of his power (*DI*. 131-2). Also as Rousseau holds the view that people in the state “come to love domination more than independence” this means that, as regards those above them, they “agree to wear chains for the sake of imposing chains on others in turn”. The next logical development is that:

One would see oppression increased continually without the oppressed ever being able to know where it would end, nor what legitimate means remained for them to halt it. One would see the rights of citizens and the freedom of nations extinguished little by little, and the protests of the weak treated as seditious noises (*DI*. 133).

Then the ambitious take advantage of this fractured society to advance their own interests. What Rousseau determines as “the last stage of inequality” is explained by Hampsher-Monk as “the third great historical revolution, and it is to transfer public authority from the people as a whole to a private individual”. This is the logical conclusion to the disunited society that man has found himself in. This type of sole rulership is execrated by Rousseau as the “despotism” of “tyrants” (ibid, 134). This step meant, as Hampsher-Monk also notes, that “the loss of liberty was complete”.

However, as the thought experiment of Rousseau (*DI*. 128) has demonstrated, “arbitrary power ... is only the final stage of the corruption of governments”. Rousseau (ibid, 131) makes the point that:

If we follow the progress of inequality in these different revolutions, we shall find that the establishment of law and the right of property was the first stage, the institution of magistrates the second, and the transformation of legitimate into arbitrary power the third and last stage.

Rousseau holds that the last stage remains “until new revolutions dissolve the government altogether or bring it back to legitimacy”.

The thought experiment of Rousseau has thus led from his premise of natural man to an early version of kind of state that would have seemed depressingly familiar in the eighteenth century. Rousseau (ibid, 135) himself claims that he has succeeded “in discovering and tracing the lost forgotten paths which must have led men from the natural state to the civil state” and has included “reconstructing” those “intermediary situations” as well. In doing so, Rousseau has demonstrated “the immense space which separates these two states”.

The thought experiment of Rousseau has determined how the premise of man as a solitary, free and contented being in his natural state ends up transformed into “slaves” (ibid, 126). There is a problem here though. Whereas for Hobbes and Locke the exiting of the state of nature leads man to contract the best form of state for his existence, in Rousseau it marks a point of a decline into slavery. Thus, Rousseau’s thought experiment, whilst detailed, is, if compared to the other two thinkers, incomplete.

Indeed, the logical implication of his thought experiment is that human beings ought to return to the state of nature. The urbane and civilized Voltaire mockingly wrote in reply to *A Discourse on Inequality*, the text of Rousseau which has been primarily drawn upon for the working out of his thought experiment so far, with:

I have received, sir, your new book against the human species, and I thank you for
it ... No one has ever been so witty as you are in trying to turn us into brutes; to read your book makes one long to go on all fours. As, however, it is now some sixty years since I gave up the practice, I feel that it is unfortunately impossible for me to resume it (qtd in Durant, 1962: 221-2).

Whilst this remark is biting, it does ironically address what appears to be the only possible remedy to the horrific condition of modern man whose social life is described by Rousseau (DI. 109) as marked by numerous “crimes, wars, [and] murders” whilst the depiction of natural man in the state of nature is for Rousseau a condition of “true happiness” (ibid, 78). The contrast is stark. As the move from the state of nature to society marks for Rousseau “the decrepitude of the species” (ibid, 115) then a reverse course seems logically to be in order.

Yet Rousseau does not feel that a return to the state of nature is a possibility. He is convinced that that state once exited is impossible to return to. Rousseau (Misc. 283) completely rejects the possibility that “meum and tuum be annihilated, and ... we return again to the forests to live among bears”, as man’s “ancient and primitive innocence” is lost forever. Man has become a social creature and a social creature he is to remain. Yet, taking this to be the case, in order for the thought experiment of Rousseau to match that of Hobbes and Locke in not only explaining the exiting of man from the state of nature but also in how he is to establish the best form of state for himself, it needs to be developed further. The second part of Rousseau’s thought experiment is therefore to resolve the dichotomy between natural freedom and happiness on one side and socialization in the state on the other.

Of course, Rousseau could simply have denied that this was possible and left his thought experiment seemingly incomplete when compared with Hobbes and Locke. Nevertheless, he does not do that; instead he carries his thought experiment onwards. In doing so, Rousseau accepts the socialization of man but wishes to rectify the harrowing condition in which he finds himself in the state as it has traditionally existed. As such, the premise of for the second part of his thought experiment is the basis of society as it actually was in the eighteenth century. Consequently, this premise, as George Armstrong Kelly notes, “takes as its point of departure the precivil ... ‘war of all against all’ described in the Second Discourse” (Riley, 2001: 30-1). That is, the point at which the state was established on the basis of a grand deception, as has been shown above.

However, by applying logic to that situation, Rousseau feels that he can rationally formulate what the state ought to be founded upon and how it ought to function. He does this in The Social Contract, described by Patrick Riley as one of his “two ... greatest works” (ibid, 5). The degree to which this work is a logical thought experiment is clear from the remarks of Kelly that, “[t]he Social Contract is not history but logic” (ibid, 30). It is an experiment in that from the premise mentioned above, logic is applied to determine “how the maximum of juridical and moral integrity (of individuals) could be preserved in the light of those conditions”. Thus, in his original version of the Social Contract, Rousseau exclaims that “[b]y new associations, let us correct, if we can, the shortcomings of the general association’” (qtd. in Riley, 8). As such, in the first part of his thought experiment, Rousseau (SC. 5) has demonstrated how the corrupt form of society has come about. In the second part of his thought experiment, he seeks to demonstrate as to how society is to be made “legitimate”.Copleston (2003: 82) notes here that Rousseau’s evocation of natural man and his social contract are not “pure contradiction” because when Rousseau prefers
natural man to civilized man, he is reacting to “the evils of civilized society as it actually existed, particularly in France; whereas in the Social Contract he is speaking of society as it ought to be” (my italics).

In the post-state of nature conditions, Rousseau, as has already been made clear, sees no alternative to socialization. That is, as Copleston (80) puts it, that men “must ... unite together and form an association” contractually. Hence, as Copleston also notes, “[i]n solving his problem Rousseau has recourse to the contractual theory”. Of course, this is not his first dealing with state-forming contracts. But in the first part of his thought experiment, he depicts the deplorable way in which man is duped into contracting a polity. Now, in the second part he resembles Hobbes and Locke in promoting what a legitimate contact would be.

Nevertheless, this seemingly posits a quandary for Rousseau as in the economic or social contract tradition of political philosophy to which he belongs, there is a necessary trade off of freedom for a society that is able to function. This tradeoff has been evinced in the fullest sense with Hobbes and in a more limited sense with Locke. As Pinker puts it, within this tradition “[s]ociety emerges when people agree to sacrifice some of their autonomy in exchange for security from the depredations of other wielding their autonomy” (Pinker, 2002: 285 – original italics). Thus, it is a tradition in which a balance is found between state authority – which provides security for its members – and individual freedom. Nevertheless, as Copleston (92) notes, striking a balance between freedom and authority “was not ... to the taste of Rousseau”. Rousseau demands that the freedom of man remains inviolate. And, of course, it is impossible for man to exist in society if he is completely free in the libertarian sense of the word, as he is in the state of nature. Nevertheless, Rousseau also believes, at least for contemporary times, that a state is necessary. His problem is summarized by Hampsher-Monk (ibid, 156):

[T]o sustain both the claim that freedom is the essential property of humans and that modern forms of socialisation render us unfree ... Rousseau has to demonstrate a social alternative. He has to be able to demonstrate the possibility of a socialisation – and a society – that would not constrain us, because it would neither require of us, nor lead us to demand, things which conflicted with each other, or our natures.

To do so, Rousseau, in his thought experiment, claims to remove the dichotomy between the two concepts of state power and freedom. That is he believes he has found a way in which state power and absolute freedom of the individual are both assured. In order to reach his solution, Rousseau (SC. 14) first sets out what he calls this “fundamental problem” as:

To find a form of association which may defend and protect with the whole force of the community the person and property of every associate, and by means of which each, coalescing with all, may nevertheless obey only himself, and remain as free as before.

Rousseau’s logical development of a “solution” is that of what he calls “the social contract” (ibid) which entails “the total alienation” of “all” the “rights” of each individual “to the whole community”. As this alienation is equal on all sides:

[E]ach gives himself to nobody; and as there is not one associate over whom we do not acquire the same rights which we concede to him over ourselves, we gain the equivalent of what we lose, and more power to preserve what we have (SC. 15).

Rousseau avers that in this way “[t]he citizens being all equal by the social
contract, all can prescribe what all ought to do, while no one has a right to demand that
another should do what he will not do himself” (ibid, 99). As such, Derek
Matravers notes that Rousseau supposedly “shows how we can live in the chains of
society without compromising our freedom” (ibid, ix).

This freedom is of a specific kind, however. For Rousseau, “the object of political
association” is “the preservation and prosperity of its members” (SC. 84) and the state
that is formed is to be “a moral and collective body” (ibid, 15 – my italics). The proper
state is established to give the “actions” of the citizen “the moral quality they previously
lacked” (ibid, 19). This is why Christopher Brooke states that “Rousseau’s politics deals
with the collective moral transformation of an entire people” (Riley, 116), and
Rousseau regards the citizen in the social contract state as having his “ideas and feeling
ennobled” and “his whole soul ... exalted” (SC. 19). This transformation is connected to
Rousseau’s perspective on freedom. Rousseau allows a curtailment of natural liberty by
offering his citizenry full moral liberty in its place. As Copleston (83) notes, the aim of
the Social Contract is “the transformation of natural [liberty] into civil and moral
liberty”. As such, the social contract allows for an improvement in man, and in this way
it both becomes acceptable to curtail natural freedom and possible for man still to be
regarded as absolutely free.

Indeed, for Rousseau, moral liberty is that “which alone makes [a man] truly
master of himself” (qtd in Copleston, ibid, 84). This is because moral liberty acts
against “there mere impulse of appetite” which “is slavery” by “obedience to a law
which we prescribe to ourselves”. In other words, moral liberty is not a licentious
freedom but rather a liberation of the self into a moral being. With the concept of moral
liberty, Rousseau explains why, considering the relative ease of the state of nature,
society is beneficial at all. It is that it improves human beings, whilst “[a]s a mere
isolated individual, man, while not vicious or bad in himself, is not properly a moral
being: it is only in society that his intellectual and moral life develops”. In this way,
Rousseau was able “to show that in society a higher form of liberty is acquired than the
one enjoyed in the state of nature” (Copleston, ibid, 82-3). Consequently, the covenant
that makes society is not one in which the individuals hand over their natural liberty to a
separate sovereign with power over them – as in Hobbes – but rather the covenant is a
“mutual agreement between the contracting parties which creates a new moral entity in
which each member realizes himself more fully than he could do in the state of nature.
In other words, by means of his redefinition of liberty in the social contract, “man’s true
nature” can be “fulfilled...in the social order” (ibid).

The concrete form of the state that logically develops from the related concepts of
a complete alienation of rights by all to all – that is back to themselves – and that of
moral freedom is one quite unlike that of Hobbes or Locke. Rather than alienating
themselves either fully to a ruler or in part to a magistrate, in the case of Rousseau the
social contract leaves sovereignty with the contracting parties. As Rousseau (SC. 33)
expresses it, “the social compact establishes among the citizens such an equality that
they all pledge themselves under the same conditions and ought to enjoy the same
rights”. Indeed, the forming of the contract itself is an act of equality that leaves all of
the members equal, and is mutually beneficial to them. As Rousseau expresses it:

[A]n act of sovereignty ... is not an agreement between a superior and an inferior,
but an agreement of the body with each of its members; a lawful agreement, because it
has the social contract as its foundation; equitable, because it is common to all; useful,
because it can have no other object than the general welfare; and stable, because it has
the public force and supreme power as its guarantee.

Hence Copleston (81) notes that “[i]n Rousseau’s theory ... the original contract
contains a sovereign which is identical with the contracting parties taken collectively”. As Copleston (84-5) also notes:

[A]ccording to Rousseau the public person which is formed by the union of
individuals through the social contract is called, when considered as active, the
sovereign. This means in effect that the sovereign is the whole body of the people as
legislating, as the source of law.

That is “a moral and collective body, a public person, the republic or body politic”
(ibid, 81). As the sovereign, they are the source of law. Hence, every citizen of the state
is as Copleston (85) reveals, “a member of the moral being which is the source of law ...
is a member of the sovereign”. Copleston also notes that “[f]or Rousseau ... the
sovereign is the legislative, and this is the people”. It is what is fundamental in the state.
Rather than the concept of equal branches of government associated with the theory of
“the separation of powers” put forward by Montesquieu and realized in the constitution
of the United States of American in the eighteenth century, for Rousseau, it is the
sovereign that is preeminent. As Copleston notes, for Rousseau “[t]his executive power
of government is neither the sovereign nor a part of it: it is concerned with the
administration of law and is a mere instrument of the sovereign”.

The contract creates the sovereign. As the sovereign is the individuals unified
through the social contract, they have full legislative power. This legislative power is
the expression of what is known by Rousseau as the general will. Sovereignty is
inalienable, and as such, the whole body politic, from which the general will is formed,
is necessary in able to make law. Yet, it is more than simply a legislative community.
As the social contract also creates the general will, and the general will is necessarily
moral, “[t]he State becomes the source of justice and the basis of rights” (Copleston,
83).

To understand why this is the case, it is necessary to understand what Rousseau
means by the general will. It lies at the heart of his social contract thought experiment as
it is through the general will that the dichotomy between freedom and socialization is
resolved. As it is a moral state that is formed by the social contract from naturally good
individuals, the state is itself a moral being that desires good, and the expression of that
desire is the general will (ibid, 87). For his thought experiment, Rousseau (SC. 25)
states that “the general will alone can direct the forces of the state according to the
object of its institution, which is the common good”. As such, he also states that “it is
solely with regard to ... common interest that the society should be governed”.

The general will itself is a central concept in Rousseau’s overall political
philosophy (Copleston, 74; Russell, 2004: 634). It is more clearly understood if it is
realized that it is not the only will in a polity. Each member of the society has a will of
his or her own. This is called the “particular will” (SC. 18) and it is what motivates the
individual to seek his or her private interest. As Rousseau notes, this “private interest
may prompt” the citizen “quite differently from the common interest” (ibid). Although
man is naturally good, he is often misled, and particular will can therefore often seek
what is good for the individual but not for society as a whole. In other words, as
Matravers notes, the particular will of an individual “is that which is in his or her
private and personal interest, which (naturally) tends only to his or her own advantage”
In other words, it can be thought of as fundamentally selfish. The general will, on the other hand, is an amalgam of the parts of the individual will that seek the good of society rather than the selfish good of the individual. Matravers helps to make this idea a little clearer in the following remark:

One instructive way to think about [the concept of the general will] is to imagine a group as a single individual. The general will is what such an individual would think, if he were thinking correctly and in its own best interests (SC. xi).

As such, in dealing with the common interest rather than individual interests, the general will must be aimed at “the common interest or good or advantage” (Copleston 86). As Rousseau (SC. 32-3) puts it:

[W]hat generalizes the will is not so much the number of voices as the common interest which unites them; for under this system, each necessarily submits to the conditions which he imposes on others – an admirable union of interest and justice”.

As such, the general will is “always constant, unalterable, and pure” (cited in Russell, 635). Indeed, it “is infallible and always right” (Copleston 87). This is because, as Rousseau states, “[o]f themselves, the people always desire what is good, but do not always discern it” but that their true desire ensures that “[t]he general will is always right.” (SC. 39). In other words, as Copleston (73) summarizes it, the general will “represents what every member of the society ‘really’ wills”. It ties in with the role of the citizenry as the source of law. As the general will aims only at the common good, all law must originate in the general will, as the purpose of law is to be of good to the community as a whole.

Hence, the thought experiment of Rousseau logically concludes in a state in which all of the citizenry are involved in lawmaking, and the lawmaking that they are involved in is one that is necessarily moral.

It has consequently been shown that each of the three foundational thinkers for political science, Hobbes, Locke and Rousseau, make use of the thought experiment. The premise of their thought experiments has been neatly summarized by Torbjørn L. Knutsen as “imagin[ing] what relations among sovereign human actors might have looked like in the absence of overarching state authority” (Knutsen 1275). Their thought experiments imagine mankind existing in a “state of nature” in which all are free to act as they wish, but without a political authority to which they can turn to settle disputes. The raw “state of nature” they posit is then used to logically draw out how society should be organized, and thus what political form the state should use. Although their imagined images of prehistoric human beings are similar in terms of freedom and natural equality, it is the differences between them, which when logically developed, lead the three thinkers in quite different directions.

4. Issues with Thought Experiments and Conclusion

Finally, the issue of problems with thought experiments is to be covered. Overall, Lionel Robbins has pointed out that “thought experiments are much more difficult to carry through without mistake than laboratory experiments” (Robbins, 1998: 8). Some of the reasons why this is the case will now be briefly looked at.

Firstly, as though experiments rely on a thinker’s mind and not on empirically observable phenomena, what conclusions may be reached by that thinker’s logical process may well not prove convincing to other thinkers. In other words, a thought experiment can be regarded as little more than a point of view, and certainly not as
something demonstrative. More significantly, whilst to a certain extent, even in empirical experiments, the thinker’s tendency may have an impact upon the premise or direction of the experiment; this is likely to be far more pronounced in thought experiments, where data and phenomena independent of the thinker are not involved. Robbins notes that it is impossible to conduct a logical argument from a premise without some “bias” (ibid, 9), and the premise itself may be biased in the first place.

The examples of Hobbes, Locke and Rousseau would seem to bear this observation out. Whilst each of the three thinkers begins his thought experiment with a premise of a man in the state of nature who is roughly equal and free, the end result of each of the thought experiments closely reflects the political biases of the thinkers in question.

The model of the state that results from the thought experiment of Hobbes is one that is controlled by an all-powerful ruler. This reflects Hobbes’ own political predilection. As a young man, Hobbes credits the ancient Greek historian Thucydides with having converted him to monarchy (Strauss, 1963: 59). Leo Strauss notes that “[a]t all stages of his development Hobbes considered hereditary absolute monarchy as the best form of the State”. Actually, it may not be the case that Hobbes is attached to hereditary monarchy as traditionally understood more than to a strong all-powerful ruler, regardless of his origin, such as Oliver Cromwell. This, as Hillyer notes, is something of a “vexed question” (Hillyer, 2007: 83). It is the case, however, that regardless of the attitude of Hobbes for Cromwell, it is clear that his thought experiment results in an avocation broadly for the type of government that he inclines to.xvii

The thought experiment of Locke results in a limited government with what power it has particularly associated with the legislature and with a defence of private property. Locke himself was a protégé and close friend of the Earl of Shaftesbury who has been described as “one of the most influential men in politics during the reign of Charles II” (O’Connor, 1952: 16). He was also what has been called “the Whig chief” (Ashley, 1952: 148); that is, the leader of that party at the time. Locke shared the political outlook of Shaftesbury. As Hampsher-Monk (ibid, 70) notes in reference to his patron:

Effectively the Whig circles around Shaftesbury were still fighting the Civil War issue of establishing parliamentary limitations on royal power (the ‘Good Old Cause’); the King’s power of prerogative, or indeed any of the King’s powers were only to be used in the public’s interest, and the only proper judge of that interest was Parliament.

Hampsher-Monk (93) also notes that Locke’s approach to property was of the kind “the Whig parliamentarians wanted to defend against the King”. Hence, it seems clear that Locke’s thought experiment reflects his political bias. Indeed, O’Connor claims that Locke “was quite frankly a political apologist who wanted to make clear and justify the theoretical basis of the revolution of 1688” (O’Connor, 205) in which Whig principles were apparently triumphant. In fact, he has been called by Russell “the apostle of the revolution of 1688” and one who “faithfully embodies its spirit” (Russell, 551).

Rousseau (SC. 38-9) favours small sized republics. He explicitly exclaims that “[e]very legitimate government is republican” and it is only under such form of government that “the public interest predominate[s] and the commonwealth count[s] for something”. He is also adamant that the “proper limits” of a state are those of a city-state (SC. 93). The bias of Rousseau is therefore fully reflected in the form of the state in which his thought experiment concludes. That is a form ideal as a small state republic in
which the citizenry can all assemble properly to express the general will (SC. 91).

A further problem with thought experiments is that they can possibly wind up proving a counter thesis.

The thought experiment that will best illustrate this problem here requires a return to the physical science of physics. It entails the very famous thought experiment of Schrödinger’s Cat. Lisa Winter (2014) summarizes this thought experiment:

Schrödinger wanted people to imagine that a cat, poison, a geiger counter, radioactive material, and a hammer were inside of a sealed container. The amount of radioactive material was minuscule enough that it only had a 50/50 shot of being detected over the course of an hour. If the geiger counter detected radiation, the hammer would smash the poison, killing the cat. Until someone opened the container and observed the system, it was impossible to predict if [sic.] the cat’s outcome. Thus, until the system collapsed into one configuration, the cat would exist in some superposition zombie state of being both alive and dead.

Schrödinger devised this thought experiment to highlight what he saw as an absurdity being put forward in the field of quantum physics. What Schrödinger was objecting to was what is known as the Copenhagen Interpretation of quantum mechanics. This interpretation has been summarized as postulating that “an object in a physical system can simultaneously exist in all possible configurations, but observing the system forces the system to collapse and forces the object into just one of those possible states” (Winter, 2014). What this means is that an object can be, for instance, both one thing and another before it is viewed when it will become one of these two types. This sounds counter-intuitive and Schrödinger certainly thought so. Thus, he created his thought experiment to show his disapproval. With his thought experiment creating a condition in which the cat is both alive and dead inside of the box prior to its being opened, Schrödinger wanted to show that the Copenhagen Interpretation of quantum mechanics made no sense at all.

Nevertheless, it turns out that Schrödinger was both right and wrong as regards the approach in his thought experiment – thus ironically in a sense mirroring his cat which was both alive and dead. He is right that the Copenhagen Interpretation of quantum mechanics does not work for large objects, however, Winter (2014) reveals that it does in fact make sense for incredibly small ones, “such as electrons”. That is, Schrödinger devised a thought experiment to dismiss a theory that he regarded as absurd, but failed to do so. The thought experiment, as such, is a failure.

This leads to the final problem with thought experiments to be addressed in this chapter, and indeed the subject on which it will be brought to a close. This problem is best evinced once again in the field of physics and is best illustrated by returning to Einstein. The conclusions of the thought experiments of Einstein upon which his theory of relativity was based marked an unprecedented expansion of knowledge, and led into a completely new understanding of the physical universe.

Nevertheless, the impact Einstein had was not brought about by his thought experiments alone. Raphael notes that “before Einstein’s Theory of Relativity could be said to be valid, a particular event had had to take place, in the Solar System, which was impossible according to classic Newtonian principles” (Monk, 2004: 448); that is the principles which the conclusions of Einstein’s thought experiments had thrown into doubt.

To make this point clearer, a little expansion upon it is required. In 1916, Einstein
published this work as *The Foundation of the General Theory of Relativity*. The theory within it that had been worked out on the basis of thought experiments is, as Peter Michelmore (2005) reveals that, “gravitation is not a force, as Isaac Newton had said, but a curved field in the space-time continuum, created by the presence of mass”. Hence, in the theory of Einstein, as Richard Massey (2009) notes, “any massive object, such as the Sun, produces gravity by bending space and time around it”. More than this, as Massey adds, “[e]verything in that space is also bent: even rays of light, and these get deflected” (ibid). As such, the direction of light is not always straight.

This theory was more than just an abstract theory. As Isaacson notes, it “offered up a testable prediction” (Isaacson, 2007: 258). The way in which this proof could be obtained, according to Einstein was, as Michelmore (2005) notes, “by measuring the deflection of starlight as it traveled close by the Sun”. This would only be possible during a total solar eclipse as only in such a condition would the stars appear bright enough to be observable and at the same time appear close enough to the Sun. The prediction of Einstein was that the degree of light deflection that would be visible would be twice that predictable under the laws of Newton (Michelmore, 2005). On 29 May 1919, there was to be a major solar eclipse, which would last for almost seven minutes at its greatest duration (NASA). The eclipse would not be visible in Europe though, so the British scientist Arthur Eddington, who had been fascinated by Einstein’s theory and who has been described as “one of the very few experts who immediately understood Einstein's theory and appreciated its revolutionary importance, if it was correct” (ESA), organized, under the aegis of the Royal Society and the Royal Astronomical Society expeditions of astronomers who would set out from Britain and photograph the eclipse in Sobral in Brazil and the island of Principe off the west African coast. The expedition would have the advantage of the fact that at the time of the eclipse, the Sun would be, as has been noted, “in front of a useful cluster of stars, the Hyades.” After noting the position of these stars, the astronomers would then compare them with “the positions of the same stars as previously photographed in the night sky” and unaffected by the close presence of the sun (ESA) Eddington himself headed for Principe.

Although thunderclouds seemed to threaten the successful carrying out of the experiment, they cleared away, as has been noted, “in time to take photographs, only two of which showed star images. At Sobral the clouds also cleared in time to make observations and 7 usable plates were obtained” (ES). When the eclipse occurred Eddington did not actually make a direct observation of the stars, save for what he calls “one glance” his being, in his own words “too busy changing [photographic] plates” (qtd. in Isaacson, 258). These plates, and those from Brazil, needing to be brought back to the UK then developed and studied, it was some time before an official announcement could be made. During this period, as Isaacson notes, “Europe’s scientific cognoscenti” were “waiting eagerly”. Then, after the data had been examined, “in November 1919 Sir Frank Dyson announced to a joint meeting of the Royal Society and the Royal Astronomical Society, that the results confirmed Einstein's theory” (ES). Raphael notes that as “a star’s rays were indeed seen to be bent, by the gravitational pull of the sun, Einstein’s prediction was fulfilled”. As such, as Raphael notes “[r]elativity had survived a key test that might have led to its refutation” (Monk,ibid, 448). Isaacson (ibid, 260) reveals that in Zurich, “[t]he physics colloquium sent” Einstein the following “piece of doggerel:
All doubts have been spent
At last it has been found:
Light is naturally bent
To Einstein’s great renown!

Indeed, the experiment seemed to confirm the theory of general relativity, and explains why the eclipse has been called “[p]robably the most important eclipse in the history of science” (ESA). It, as has been pointed out, “signalled the replacement of Newton’s theory of gravity by the theory of general relativity...Albert Einstein, at once became the most famous scientist in the world” (ESA) and was, as Michelmore notes, “acclaimed the greatest genius on Earth”.

The significant point in the context of the thought experiment is that the conclusions of the thought experiments of Einstein were only regarded as important after they were validated through empirical testing. Thus, perhaps the major problem with thought experiments is that their significance is only recognized ironically when it is no longer needed – that is when it is possible to test them scientifically through empirical observation rather than merely using a logical procedure in the mind.

What is more damaging for the cause of the thought experiment is that an increase in scientific knowledge may, rather than validate it as in the case of Einstein, actually render the conclusion of a thought experiment far less convincing. For certain examples given in this chapter that certainly seems to have occurred. For instance, in the case of the floating man of Ibn Sina, science seems to have left the concept of the Ghost in the Machine behind. Pinker reveals that “science is showing that” what has been regarded as the Ghost in the Machine actually “consists of the information-processing activity of the brain, an organ governed by the laws of biology” (Pinker, ibid, 224) and as such the concept of Ibn Sina “simply cannot be reconciled with the scientific concept of brain activity emerging gradually in ontogeny and phylogeny”. The state formation theories of Hobbes, Locke and Rousseau all rest on a form of prehistoric human being. As Pinker (7) notes “[m]uch depends on which of these armchair anthropologists is correct”. Whilst, Pinker (56) concludes that the picture of natural man depicted by Hobbes is closest to the mark, in fact even he is aware that each of the three thinkers formed premises that subsequent research provides no foundation for. All of the three social contract theorists are incorrect in seeing the prehistoric human being as solitary (ibid, 8). As such, there was never any need, or indeed the ability, to draw up contracts in which freedom was explicitly traded off for the supposed advantages of living in a state as the natural man of Hobbes and Locke does. Rousseau’s natural man perhaps superficially resembles prehistoric man in appearance but his creation of what Pinker calls the “warm and fuzzy stereotype” of the noble savage – that of the naturally peaceable man – has been undermined by the “data on life and death in pre-state societies” that over in recent decades “anthropologists have gathered” (Pinker, 56). In short, scientific advances render the thought experiments of Hobbes, Locke and Rousseau incorrect. As the premise of the thought experiment of each of these social contract thinkers fails to match prehistoric reality, the value of their thought experiments must obviously suffer grievously as a result.

To conclude, the thought experiment has a role to play in the social sciences in fields and for situations in which actual experimentation is either impossible or extremely difficult to carry out. Through their use of logical cohesion developed from a premise, they manifest a certain scientific appearance. Nevertheless, they cannot replace
scientific testing which surpasses them. The brilliance of the thought experiments of Einstein became apparent only after their conclusions had been tested experimentally. And, had the experimental testing failed, then his thought experiments would have been rendered nothing more than a bit of intellectual cleverness. As such, the thought experiment, whilst a useful tool in the social sciences appears to be a contingent one, and ultimately the success or failure of a thought experiment derives not from the elements of the thought experiment itself, but rather on whether its conclusions are able to withstand experimental testing. If a thought experiment is not amenable to such testing, which as has already been noted is ironically the reason for one to be seen as necessary, then the conclusions drawn from it due to considerations of it being unobservable and considerations of bias simply do not carry the persuasive force of those produced in actual experiments.

Nevertheless, the thought experiment should not, on the strength of these observations, be written off. Although the new direction for science was brought about by Einstein only after empirical testing of his theory, the theory itself would not have been developed but for his thought experiments. Thus, the thought experiment, whilst inferior in terms of plausibility to that of empirical experimentation, is still an invaluable tool with which researchers can approach subjects in a completely new manner, and which, as such, open up new previously unthought-of areas for actual empirical testing. If the tests of Eddington and the supersonic airplanes have validated Einstein’s thought experiments, it is hard to imagine their ever having been carried out without his thought experiments to guide them. And, it has been to the great benefit of human knowledge that they were.

Hence, Gerner (ibid, 32) is right when she claims that thought experiments are made “so as to learn something about the way we understand things”. Kuhn certainly believed that our understanding of the actual world was improved by them (Markle, ibid, 154). It is therefore the case that without the thought experiment, our knowledge would be more limited than it is.

5. Appendix: Poem on IbnSina’s Floating Man

The poet contemporary British poet Katherine Towers has written a poem based on the floating man of Ibn Sina. It runs as follows:

In this experiment of Ibn-Sina, I must float for as long as it takes to forget the sweating desert and the sifting streets of Hamadan.

No part of me may touch another body part. My hands are spread so wide, each finger thinks it is the only finger in the world.

My head is shaved, lest a stray hair tickle my ear, or remind me that I'm beautiful. I must take care not to hear my own heart beating.

When the time comes, you will ask me who on earth I am. Shall I say a man or a thought, or a man thinking about deserts and cities?

Sky folds me in. I'm as lonely as a spent star
calling into the darkness. Now ask again (Towers, 2010).

**Abbreviation**

Conf. The Confessions  
DCP. Human Nature and De Corpore Politico  
DI. A Discourse on Inequality  
ES. Einstein Symposium  
ESA. European Space Agency  
Hob. Hobbes  
H-M. Hampsher-Monk  
Lev. Leviathan  
Misc. The Miscellaneous Works  
Rou. Rousseau  
SC. The Social Contract  
Rou. Rousseau

**Notes**

Indeed, when he was a student at the Zurich Polytechnic, and doing very well on his theoretical physics courses (Isaacson 33), he actually achieved a grade of 1 – the lowest possible – in his “Physical Experiments for Beginners” course, and he was never really comfortable with experimentation (Isaacson 34-5).

It is of course fully conceivable that they could develop a written language that is accessed by touch, such as Braille.

Lawrence Goldman shows that the term was first used in “public discourse” in France towards the end of the eighteenth century and in Britain in the nineteenth century. Notably, John Stuart Mill, who had already used the term in a letter, first used the term in print in 1836 (Daunton, 2005: 88).

Robert Nisbet avers that Aristotle is “the first real social scientist” (qtd. in Chemilo, 2013: 214). The same claim has been made for Ibn Khaldun. Lalita Rana reveals that “Ibn Khaldun is said to have been the first social scientist” (Rana, 2008: 110). Regardless of the competing claim, it is the case that IbnKhaldun has been described by Ahmad Ghabin as “the well-known philosophical-historian and social scientist” (Ghabin, 2009: 152), by Lynn McDonald as “the one identifiable social scientist of the Middle Ages” (Mc Donald, 2000: 75) and by Michael McLendon as “a committed social scientist” (Braybrooke, 2003: 245).

In the two texts drawn upon here, IbnSina uses different subject pronouns for the flying man. In one case “you” and in another “he”. To make the texts read more harmoniously together, the second text has been adapted into a “you” form with its concomitant object and possessive pronouns through the use of square brackets.

In a different proof for the soul, Ibn Sina makes a similar argument of subtracting from the body in order to prove the existence of the soul. He affirms that: If a man reflects on the thing by which he is called ‘he,’ and [by which] he refers to himself as ‘I,’ he will imagine that that [thing] is his body and his flesh. But then if he reflects or ponders [he would find] that if his hands, legs, ribs, and the rest of his external limbs did not belong to his body, he would continue to have [what is conceived by] the concept [which he refers to as ‘I’]. Thus, he would know that these parts of his body are not included in the concept [which he refers to as ‘I’] (Ibn Sina Soul 11).

It is true that references to uncivilized – meant in the non-pejorative sense of the
word – peoples of the wider world do find their way into the works of these three thinkers. For instance, Hobbes (Lev. 187) does mention “the savage people in many places of America” (original italics) and Locke similarly writes of the “several nations of the Americans” who “are rich in land, and poor in the comforts of life” (Locke, 1980: 25 – original italics). Rousseau, in his own footnotes to A Discourse on Inequality mentions “the men in barbarous and savage nations” (p.144). Nevertheless, neither of the three thinkers had any direct experience of the uncivilized peoples encountered by Europeans from the Age of Discovery onwards, and their views as to what man fundamentally is does not seem to have been deeply affected by the reports of others that were made of them. It is noteworthy in this context, for instance, that the natural man depicted by Montaigne in the sixteenth century draws upon such a report and depicts natural man as he supposedly existed in Brazil, whereas the very quite depiction by Rousseau is created in his imagination, as will be made clear here also. For more detail on this see: Dore, 2016a.

viii Locke exempts only the Jews from this assertion, noting however that they are exceptional in that “God himself immediately interposed” in the formation of their state (Locke, 1980: 54). Religious history in the Old Testament of the Bible shows God establishing certain forms of government. However, Locke did not think these were relevant models for his contemporary times, as he felt that it would not be right to set up “prophetic kingdoms” (qtd. in H-M,1992: 82) without God’s explicit instruction, consequently, it is left to “our natural reason in deciding how to establish government.”

x Their supposed failure is put down by Rousseau (DI. 78) to their “hav[ing] transported into the state of nature concepts formed in society”, and by doing so, “[t]hey speak of savage man and they depict civilized man”.

x Elsewhere in A Discourse on Inequality (96), Rousseau reveals a belief in a divine role in history. He exclaims that “I am ... convinced of the almost demonstrable impossibility that languages could have been created and established by purely human means”.

xi However, he seemingly contradicts himself in his next paragraph when he exclaims that “[t]he times of which I am going to speak are very remote” (Rou. DI. 79), and that he will relate “the age at which [mankind] would wish [its] whole species had stood still”.

xii Save that he may not willingly part with his life. See Hob. Lev. 189.

xiii Also, the state of war would exist even if all in the state of nature were essentially peaceable. This is because they would fall into what is called “the Hobbesian Trap”, which is the use of undesired pre-emptive violence in the interests of self-preservation. For more on this see: Dore, 2016d.

xiv For more details on Rousseau’s image of natural man see: Dore, 2016a.

xv The other is Émile.

xvi Mark Hulliung exclaims that “[p]erhaps no concept is more strongly attached to Rousseau’s reputation as a social and political thinker than that of the ‘general will’” (Riley, 2001: 70).

xvii Of course, in the Leviathan, Hobbes (Lev. 227) states, as has been quoted above, that in forming the Leviathan men in the state of nature need “to conferre all their power and strength upon one Man, or upon one Assembly of men, that may reduce all their Wills, by a plurality of voices, unto one Will” (my italics). And Richard Tuck notes that Hobbes’ “theory applies indiscriminately to all types of government,
including republics” (Tuck, 1992: 179-80). However, Tuck also notes that in his writings, Hobbes puts forward “some rather low-level reasons for preferring monarchy to other forms of government” (ibid). Russell makes a similar point, though rather stronger. He states that “Hobbes prefers monarchy, but all his abstract arguments are equally applicable to all forms of government in which there is one supreme authority not limited by the legal rights of other bodies” (Russell, 2004: 505). The preference of Hobbes, though, is clear from both of these commentators, and surely it is the case that the Leviathan, regardless of even Hobbes’ own assertion of applicability to other forms of government, primarily suits a monarchy. This is because if the sovereign is to be all-powerful with a single will then that is far more likely to be found in a single individual than in a group of ruling individuals who in their equality amongst themselves will be subject to the centrifugal forces of the state of nature.

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ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR
The Relation Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Job Satisfaction: A Research on the Education Sector*

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INTRODUCTION

Business life has become more complex than ever because of the growing pressure of globalization, technology, international competition, changing business associations, innovations or changes in consumer demand and increasing workforce diversity. This complexity is increasing day by day as many variables, systems and subsystems interact directly or indirectly with each other. This tendency complicates the management functions that leaders and executives must perform. Therefore the number of researches aimed to determine the variables that will ensure the success of the business is observed to increase. This change and work make it more important than ever to focus on the people in the organization. Researches show that development of organizational citizenship behavior and job satisfaction of employees has become obligatory. If employees feel they are a part of the organization and satisfied with their work, they become more willing to continue working in the organization. For sustainable competition, to perpetuate the will of qualified employees to work in the organization has become a critical management issue.

Today's employees are faced with complex and conflicting challenges. They are faced not only with the uncertainty and continuous changes, but also with the expectation of taking on additional business roles and responsibilities for improving their organization, which is also known as organizational citizenship behavior (Organ 1988). In addition, there is a pressure on organizations to be proactive, dynamic, effective, creative and innovative, able to respond quickly to changes. In order to remove this pressure and to achieve organizational success, organizational citizenship behavior has gained importance (Lapiere & Hackett, 2007: 539). Since the voluntary contributions such as the cooperation between academicians and managers, assistive behaviors and individual initiatives from employees are necessity and have a critical role for organizations, organizational citizenship behaviors are given more importance (Organ & Paine, 1999; Coleman & Borman, 2000; Paine & Organ, 2000; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Wan, 2016). Theories and researches support the claim that OCB is important for group and organizational effectiveness. A consistent relationship between intra-group organizational assistive behavior and organizational performance is found (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). The concept of Organizational Citizenship Behavior has been for the first time expressed by Bateman & Organ (1983). It is claimed that

*This study is an excerpt of thesis titled "The Relation Between Organizational Behavior and Job Satisfaction: A Research On The Education Sector" completed by İ. Akkoç at Institute of Social Sciences of University of Turkish Aeronautical Association in 2015.
organizational citizenship behavior influences organizational performance by facilitating resource transformation, innovation, and compliance (Organ, 1988). Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB) consists of appraisal-based individual behaviors that are not directly or explicitly accepted by the reward system, and which encourage effective functioning of the organization in society (Organ 1988: 4).

The positive mood that the employee has shown to work as a result of work experience is called job satisfaction and the negative mentality is called job dissatisfaction (Schermerhorn, 1994). Job satisfactions increase the well-being of employees and ensure them to be connected to their work, be productive, reduce errors and waste, and reduce job separation (Querstein et al., 1992: 860). While an employee with a high job satisfaction has a positive attitude toward the job, an employee with job dissatisfaction has a negative attitude (Robbins & Judge, 2007: 87). The belief that employees with high levels of job satisfaction are more productive compared to those with low ones is one of the accepted assumptions among managers (Robbins & Judge, 2011: 27). In this context, ensuring the job satisfaction of employees is among the most important management tasks of the organizations. Employees who are highly motivated and feel job satisfaction have higher morale levels and as a result, their benefits to their business are increasing. The high level of satisfaction of employees from their jobs increases their commitment to their managers and businesses, leading to extraordinary efforts during crisis periods (Suominen, et al., 2001, Kuokkanen, Leino-Kilpi & Katajisto, 2002).

In this study, within the framework of the above-mentioned approach, the effects of organizational citizenship behavior on teachers' job satisfaction in educational institutions in the education sector were investigated.

THEORIES AND HYPOTHESES

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

A great deal of research has been performed on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), being a remarkable research topic, and as a result, much is known about the nature of behavior and the network of complex relationships. For example, OCB is generally defined as a set of positive workplace behaviors that support organizational members and the working environment but differ from employee’s duties (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Podsakoff, et al., 1990). According to Organ, a personal behavior must have two characteristics in order to be accepted as organizational citizenship behavior. The first is a quality that increases organizational effectiveness and efficiency, thus provides benefits in the direction of organizational goals. The second is that this behavior is neither expressed in the job description nor stated as a rewarding behavior in the official documents, it is entirely the employee’s preference taking his own initiative. Therefore, they are the behaviors that are dependent on personal choice and do not require punishment when not done (Smith, et al., 1983: 653).Organ (1988, 1997) stated that the concept of organizational citizenship consists of five dimensions i.e altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship and civic virtue.

Altruism is voluntary behaviors aimed at helping other employees fulfill their duties. It refers to behaviors that volunteer to help employees to solve problems related to the current job (Organ, 1988). In other words, they are defined as voluntary behaviors aiming at helping other employees in their business tasks and problems (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994: 351). They are employee’s voluntary behaviors that intended to help
managers, colleagues and customers to contribute to the solution of a problem or a task or to the efficiency of company (Organ, 1997: 4).

Courtesy is related to demonstrating polite and good behaviors to prevent work-related problems among employees. It includes behaviors such as pre-notification and information transfer, which prevent problems from occurring to others. In short, it is the behavior of the employees to warn and remind each other whenever necessary. It is a behavior that respects the employees' minds (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, et al., 2000).

Conscientiousness refers to behaviors that go well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organization. It refers to expectations that the individual is punctual, that the participation is high and goes beyond the normal requirement (Organ, 1988). It expresses showing voluntary behaviors that employees go beyond the minimum role behavior by working very hard and without opposing the principles (Farh et al., 2004: 241).

Civic virtuous, employees take an active role in promoting the success of the organization (with responsibility consciousness). For example, people with high civic virtues generally attend non-mandatory meetings and contribute positively to responsible political issues in organizations, (Organ, 1988). It refers to being totally attached or highly related to the organization (George & Jones, 1997: 154). Employees feel responsible for situations that affect the business, participate in decisions and meetings responsibly and voluntarily (Kidder, 2002: 632).

Sportsmanship refers to the desire of an employee to tolerate uncomfortable conditions. It means that the employee does not complain unnecessarily or does not talk a lot about small problems. This dimension avoids negative behaviors that may lead to conflict and tension in the working environment, and it is a behavior that foresee not to complain because of simple problems (Organ, 1988, Organ, 1990).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the most investigated variables in the field of organizational work and has a lot of impact for both employees and organization (Locke, 1976). Job satisfaction has been the main dependent variable of organizational behavior due to two reasons. First, it is found from studies that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and performance factors. Second, it is among the values preferred by many researchers working in the field of organizational behavior (Robbins & Judge, 2011: 27).

There are various definitions in the literature about job satisfaction. For example, job satisfaction can be defined as an emotional relationship with the work of a person who is a function of situational factors, including nature of work, elements of human resources and organizational environment (Boswell, et al., 2009). Job satisfaction is the pleasant feelings that an employee experiences as a result of fulfilling important business values (Locke, 1976). Job satisfaction is expressed as the attitude of an employee to his job, the positive evaluation of the business environment and the general level of his love of work (Robbins & Judge, 2007: 87). Job satisfaction is how an employee feels himself or herself to work. Employees may have a positive or negative attitude toward the job. Positive attitude is evaluated as job satisfaction and negative attitude is evaluated as job dissatisfaction (Vroom, 1978: 99).

Many researchers have shown that job satisfaction leads to high productivity at the organizational level, better employee performance, retention of employees, and
subsequent economic benefits (Kim, 2005; Galup, Klein & Jiang, 2008).

**Relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Job Satisfaction**

When studies on organizational citizenship behavior are examined in Turkey, it is observed that they are mostly made by researchers in the management field. Organizational citizenship behavior is one of the newly introduced concepts in the literature. Examining the literature shows that the amount of studies carried out in Turkey on organizational citizenship behavior has increased in the last 10 years. When the postgraduate theses on organizational citizenship are examined, it is seen that these studies started in 2000. There are 225 master and doctoral thesis done on organizational citizenship. However, this study has shown that there are few studies on the relation of organizational citizenship behavior to job satisfaction in the education sector.

The Reciprocity Norm, Social Exchange and Organizational Support Theories predict that the higher level of job satisfaction of employees, the more they will depend on their organizations and exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors (Williams & Anderson, 1991). The empirical studies done on this issue supports the assertions of these theories. Many studies have found that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors and its sub-dimensions (Williams & Anderson, 1991; Judge vd., 2001; Saari & Judge, 2004; Yılmaz, 2012; Yeşilyurt & Koçak, 2014; Kanbur, Kanbur & Özdemir, 2017). In the study done by Kaplan (2011) on the Security Organization, severity of the relationship between OCB and job satisfaction is found to be moderate. It is determined that the relationship of job satisfaction with the sub-dimensions of civic virtue, courtesy, conscientiousness, altruism of organizational citizenship behavior is positive whereas with the sub-dimension of sportsmanship is weakly negative. Çıtak (2010) in his study carried out on four State Agencies in Ankara has found a relationship among the sub-dimensions of altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship and conscientiousness of organizational citizenship behavior but no relationship with civic virtue. In the study performed on the Defense Sector by Dilek (2005), a positive moderate relationship between altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue and job satisfaction has been determined. In the study done by Acar (2014) with the participation of 140 architects working in Istanbul, a positive relationship has been found between civic virtue, altruism, sportsmanship, conscientiousness being the sub-dimensions of OCB and job satisfaction. From the Çetin’s study (2011) carried out 673 participants working in the Bank Sector in Istanbul, it is determined that there is a positive relationship of the job satisfaction variable with all of the sub-dimensions of OCB. By taking into account the theoretical and empirical researches, the hypothesis developed in this study to test the effect of organizational citizenship behavior and its sub-dimensions on job satisfaction are presented below.

**Hypothesis 1**: Organizational citizenship behavior level of employees affects job satisfaction levels positively and significantly.

**Hypothesis 1a**: Altruism level of employees affects job satisfaction levels positively and significantly.

**Hypothesis 1b**: Conscientiousness level of employees affects job satisfaction levels positively and significantly.

**Hypothesis 1c**: Courtesy level of employees affects job satisfaction levels
positively and significantly.

Hypothesis 1d: Sportsmanship level of employees affects job satisfaction levels positively and significantly.

Hypothesis 1e: Civic virtue level of employees affects job satisfaction levels positively and significantly.

Research Model and Hypotheses

The model of this study is shown in Figure 1:

![Figure 1: The Research Model](image)

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Universe and Sampling

The universe of the research is composed of teachers working in public and private education sector in Karşıyaka district of İzmir province. The sample of the research is composed of teachers selected by the simple random method from the high, junior high and primary school teachers working in Karşıyaka province. The sampling size is calculated to be 302 people by taking into account an error margin of 5% within the reliability limits of 95% the universe (Sekaran, 1992). In this context, it was planned to conduct a questionnaire survey of 400 people randomly selected by sampling method according to the clusters. 334 of the submitted surveys returned and of 318 were found eligible for analysis. In the end value analysis, 18 data sets that distort the normal distribution of the variables were extracted and the questionnaire filled by 299 participants was included in the analysis. The demographic information of the survey participants is presented in the following table and figure.
Table 1: Numbers of Sampling Associated With Various Universe Sizes (Sekaran, 1992: 253)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Universe Size</th>
<th>100</th>
<th>200</th>
<th>250</th>
<th>500</th>
<th>750</th>
<th>1000</th>
<th>1400</th>
<th>5000</th>
<th>1000000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Sampling</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>384</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

90.6% of all participants are university graduate, 9.0% of them have master’s degree and 0.3% of them have doctorate degree. 68.6% of the participants are women and 79.6% of them are married. 89.6% of the participants are public sector employees. The average age of the participants is 41, and the average year of work experience of the participants is 18 years.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Work Experience (years)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>41.8</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Collection

In this research the questionnaire method was used as data collection tool. In this context, the questionnaires were applied face to face with participants consisting of school administrators and teachers. The questionnaire consists of two parts and a total of 34 questions. In the first part, there are 10 questions related to the demographic variables. In the second part, there are 19 questions, forming the organizational citizenship scale (5 dimensions, 19 items) and the job satisfaction (1 dimension, 5 items) scale.

The Organizational Citizenship Behavior Measure

In order to measure organizational citizenship behaviors of employees, a scale prepared benefiting from two separate studies was used. The first study was conducted by Vey and Campbell (2004), and the second study by Williams and Shiaw (1999). The questionnaire, prepared from both studies, is designed to measure the five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior that are revealed by Organ (1988). These dimensions are referred to as altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship and civic virtue (Organ, 1988). The scale with 19 items, used in this research, aiming at the evaluation of organizational citizenship behaviors, has designed to measure the dimensions of "altruism" (5 items), "conscientiousness" (3 items), "Courtesy" (3 items), "sportsmanship" (4 items) and "Civic virtue" (4 items). The questionnaire consists of judicial statements such as "I help a staff member dealing with excessive workload", "I do not spend any time for my personal work during my work", "I do not waste time complaining about minor problems". Participants in the questionnaire were asked to mark the 5-point Likert-type scale to find how much they agree with these judgment sentences. The total reliability of the Organizational Citizenship Behavior scale was found to be 0.87 in the source author study (Cronbach alpha).

In order to test the construct validity of organizational citizenship scale, first of all,
exploratory factor analysis was performed. From the analysis, it was determined that the data correspond to the 5 factorial structure of the scale. In one-dimensional analysis, one item with a factor load of less than .40 was subtracted from the scale (VD1). KMO analysis result of the scale was .70 and above for the whole scale and its all dimensions, and the Barrett test were found as significant (p=.000). The DFA findings of the scale are presented in Table 3. The variance explained in one dimension was 0.37. Following these analysis, confirmatory factor analysis was performed with the AMOS package program. As a result of the factor analysis, it was determined that the data correspond to the 5 factorial structure of the scale. The values of goodness of fit of the scale are presented in Table 3. The Structural Equality Model compliance criteria are also presented in Table 4. From the reliability analysis, Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of the scale were found to be .89 for organizational citizenship behavior (OVD), .70 for altruism (VD), .65 for conscientiousness (VV), .84 for courtesy (VN), .72 for sportsmanship (VC) and .81 for civic virtue (VS).

The values of goodness of fit of the scale are presented below along with those of the other scales. As can be seen, all the data on the scale show good the goodness of fit. It can also be seen from the table and figure that the values of the goodness of fit are within acceptable standards. Findings of Level 1 model fit analysis of the scale are presented in Figure 2.

**Table 3:** The Goodness of Fit Values of Scales as a result of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>X²</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>CMIN/DF ≤5</th>
<th>GFI  ≥.85</th>
<th>AGFI ≥.80</th>
<th>CFI  ≥.90</th>
<th>NFI  ≥.90</th>
<th>TLI  ≥.90</th>
<th>RMSEA ≤.08</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Organizational citizenship behavior (Level 2)</td>
<td>429.4</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** The Value Range of the Goodness of fit was arranged according to “the acceptable" standards

**Table 4:** Structural Equation Model Compliance Criteria (Meydan and Şeşen, 2010: 37)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement (Compliance Statistics)</th>
<th>Good Fit</th>
<th>Acceptable Fit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CMIN/DF(χ²/sd)</td>
<td>≤3</td>
<td>4-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>≤0.05</td>
<td>0.06-0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>≥0.90</td>
<td>0.89-0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGFI</td>
<td>≥0.90</td>
<td>0.89-0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>≥0.95</td>
<td>0.94-0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>≥0.97</td>
<td>≥0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TLI</td>
<td>≥0.95</td>
<td>0.94-0.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Job Satisfaction Measure

In order to determine the job satisfaction level of the employees, a 5-item scale prepared by Chen et al. (2009) by referring to Arnett (1999) and Judge et al. (2009) was used. The answers were taken with a 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). In this study, the scale employed in the study of Chen et al. (2009) which was then validated by Turunç and Çelik (2012) has been used. Reliability analysis conducted by Chen et al. (2009) found that the Cronbach alpha reliability
coefficient was higher than .90.

In order to test the construct validity of the job satisfaction scale, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed first. As a result of the analysis, it was determined that the data was consistent with the one-factor structure of the scale. An item (T3) was removed from the analysis due to low factor load. The KMO analysis result of the scale was .77 and Barlett test was significant (p=.000). The results of exploratory factor analysis and the variance values explained were determined. Following these analysis, confirmatory factor analysis was performed using the AMOS package program. From the factor analysis, it has been found that the data is consistent with the one-factor structure of the scale. The goodness of fit values of the scale are presented in Table 5. As a result of the reliability analysis, the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of the scale was found to be .84.

The values of goodness of fit of the scale are presented below. As can be seen, all the data on the scale show good the goodness of fit. Findings of the compliance analysis of the Level 1 model of the scale are given in Figure 3.

### Table 5: The Goodness of Fit of the Measure Values in Consequence of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>X²</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>CMIN/DF ≤5</th>
<th>GFI ≥.85</th>
<th>AGFI ≥.80</th>
<th>CFI ≥.90</th>
<th>NFI ≥.90</th>
<th>TLI ≥.90</th>
<th>RMSEA ≤.08</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** The Value Range of Goodness of Fit was arranged according to "acceptable" standards.
Data Collection and Evaluation Technique

One page data collection form was created by putting together the questions related to demographic variables and the scales of organizational citizenship behaviour and of job satisfaction variables. The data obtained from the data collection form was analyzed using SPSS and AMOS package programs. In order to find the sample consistency of the scales, structural validity was determined using confirmatory factor analysis in the AMOS package program. The reliability analysis of the scales was performed using the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient. Independent sample t-tests and one-way ANOVA analysis were conducted to examine whether the participants in the study differed in their organizational citizenship behavior and job satisfaction averages according to demographic variables.

FINDINGS

Descriptive Findings Related to Variables

The minimum, maximum and mean values of both dependent and independent variables obtained from the descriptive statistics of 299 participants in the study are given in Table-6. Five dimensions with total 19 items included in the perceived organizational citizenship behavior scale, which are independent variables of the research, were analyzed by taking their arithmetic averages separately and also as a whole. As for the job satisfaction being a dependent variable, it was determined by calculating the arithmetic averages of the four items identified as the result of the factor analysis. In the calculations, the score is based on five points, the lowest score is 1 (one) and the highest score is 5 (five). As seen in the Table 6, averages of the variables are between 3.62 and 4.52.

Table 6: Descriptive statistics related to the variables and their dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>0.072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruism</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courtesy</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sportsmanship</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civic Virtue</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Citizenship Behavior</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Relationships among the Variables

Pearson correlations were calculated to determine the relationships among the variables (Table 7). The table also shows the reliability findings in parentheses at the end of the lines. As a result of the analysis; it is seen that organizational citizenship behavior and its sub-dimensions have a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction being a dependent variable.
Table 7: Mean, Standard Deviation and Correlation Values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>(.84)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Altruism</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>(.70)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Conscientiousness</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>.41**</td>
<td>.40**</td>
<td>(.65)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Courtesy</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>.50**</td>
<td>.46**</td>
<td>(.84)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Sportsmanship</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.065</td>
<td>.41**</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td>.53**</td>
<td>.55**</td>
<td>(.72)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 6. Civic Virtue | 4.03 | .062 | .47** | .34** | .59** | .46** | .67** | (.81*) | *
| 7. Organizational Citizenship Behavior | 4.11 | .050 | .48** | .64** | .76** | .77** | .80** | .81** | (.89) |

Note: Alpha reliability coefficients are shown in parentheses.
**p<.01,  *p<.05

Differences in Demographic Groups

In this study, whether organizational citizenship and job satisfaction differ according to 4 different characteristics such as sex, marital status, job position and institution were tested by "t-test". In addition, if organizational citizenship and job satisfaction differ according to the education level, position and income status of the employees were tested by "ANOVA analysis".

As a result of the t-test (Table 8) which was performed to find whether organizational citizenship behavior differs according to sex, marital status, job position and institution (sector) or not, it has been determined that there is not a meaningful difference in the perception of organizational citizenship among male-female, married-single, employee-manager, class teacher-branch teacher and private-public sector employee.

Table 8: T Test Findings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Citizenship Behavior</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employee</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Class teacher</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Branch teacher</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.01,  *p<.05

From the result of the t-test (Table 9) carried out if job satisfaction levels differs according to sex, marital status, job position and institution (sector), it has been found that there is not a meaningful difference in the job satisfaction levels among male-female, married-single, employee-manager, class teacher-branch teacher and private-public sector employee.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employee</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Class teacher</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Branch teacher</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.01, * p<.05

Whether employees' perceptions of the research variables have changed according to their education level were tested by "ANOVA analysis". The results of the one way ANOVA analysis which determine whether organizational citizenship behaviors differ in education level is presented in Table 10. As seen in Table 10, organizational citizenship behaviors do not differ according to education levels (F = 0.86, p> 0.05). Comparisons of groups could not be made as required by the Tukey test since there is only one data at the doctoral level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Citizenship Behavior</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.01, * p<.05

One-way ANOVA analysis performed in order to determine whether organizational citizenship behavior differs according to school type is presented in Table 11. As seen in Table 11, the organizational citizenship behavior does not differ according to school type (F = 0.50, p> 0.05). Since there is no difference between the groups, the findings of the comparison of the groups (Tukey test) are not included.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Citizenship Behavior</td>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.01, * p<.05

One way ANOVA analysis performed in order to determine whether organizational citizenship behavior differs according to the level of income is presented in Table 12. As seen in Table 12, organizational citizenship behavior does not differ according to the
level of income of ($F=0.33, p>0.05$). The comparison of the groups could not be made as the Tukey test required because there is only one data item in the two income groups.

**Table 12: ANOVA Test Findings**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Citizenship Behavior</td>
<td>Less than 1500</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1501-2500</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2501-3500</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3501-5000</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5000-10000</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 10000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.01, *p<.05**

One way ANOVA analysis carried out to determine whether job satisfaction differs in education level is presented in Table 13. As seen in Table 13, job satisfaction does not differ according to educational levels ($F=0.57, p>0.05$). Comparisons of groups could not be made as required by the Tukey test since there is only one data item in the PhD degree.

**Table 13: ANOVA Test Findings**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.01, *p<.05**

One-way ANOVA analysis performed to determine whether job satisfaction differs according to school type is presented in Table 14. As seen in Table 14, job satisfaction does not differ according to school type ($F=0.21, p>0.05$). Since there is no difference between the groups, the findings of the comparison of the groups (Tukey test) are not included.

**Table 14: ANOVA Test Findings**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job</td>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.01, *p<.05**

One-way ANOVA analysis carried out to determine whether job satisfaction differs according to income level is presented in Table 15. As seen in Table 15, job satisfaction does not differ according to income levels ($F=0.49, p>0.05$). The comparison of the groups could not be made as the Tukey test required since there is only one data item in the two income groups.
Table 15: ANOVA Test Findings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>Less than 1500</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1501-2500</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2501-3500</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3501-5000</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5000-10000</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 10000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.01, * p<.05

The Variables Predicting Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Regression Analysis Findings

Regression analysis was carried out in order to reveal the direct relations between variables, in other words, the explanatory power of independent variables on dependent variables. In the regression analysis, job satisfaction is considered as a dependent variable, and organizational citizenship behavior and its sub-dimensions are considered as independent variables whose effects on the dependent variable have been examined.

When the results are evaluated, it is seen from the Table 16 that organizational citizenship behavior has a meaningful positive effect on job satisfaction (β=.48; p<001). Organizational citizenship behavior accounts for job satisfaction by 23% (R²=.23). In this regards, Hypothesis 1 is supported.

As seen in the Table 16, the sub-dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior, namely, altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, gentility and civic virtue seem to have a meaningful positive effect on job satisfaction. In this regards, Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 1c, 1d and 1e are supported.

Table 16: Regression Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Corrected R²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>β</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Citizenship Behavior</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>90.08***</td>
<td>.48***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruism</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>22.71***</td>
<td>.26***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>60.34***</td>
<td>.41***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courtesy</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>30.03***</td>
<td>.32***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sportsmanship</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>60.96***</td>
<td>.41***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civic Virtue</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>2242***</td>
<td>.94***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001

CONCLUSION

Pearson correlations have been calculated to determine the relationships between the variables of organizational citizenship and job satisfaction. The analysis has revealed that organizational citizenship behavior and its sub-dimensions have a meaningful positive relationship with the dependent variable of job satisfaction.

Whether organizational citizenship behavior and job satisfaction, taken as the research variables in this study, differ according to 4 different characteristics such as sex, marital status, job position and institution were determined by "t test", and whether the same variables differ according to education level, job position and income status of the employees were determined by "ANOVA analysis".

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From the t-test conducted to test whether organizational citizenship behavior and job satisfaction differ according to sex, marital status, job position and institution (sector) of the employees, it was concluded that there is not any meaningful difference in the organizational citizenship perception of the employees if they are married-single, employee-manager, classroom teacher-branch teacher and public-private-sector employees.

The "ANOVA analysis" was used to test whether the employees' perception of the research variables has differed according to education level, school type they work for and income level. It has been found that organizational citizenship behavior and job satisfaction do not differ according to education level, school type they work for and income level.

Regression analysis was carried out in order to reveal the direct relations between the variables, in other words, the explanatory power of independent variables on dependent variables. In the regression analysis, job satisfaction is considered as a dependent variable, and organizational citizenship is considered as independent variable and its effects on the dependent variable has been examined. When the results are evaluated: It is determined that organizational citizenship behavior has a meaningful, positive effect on job satisfaction (H1) and also that its sub-dimensions such as altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship and civic virtue have a meaningful, positive effect on job satisfaction (H1a, H1b, H1c, H1d, H1e). Thus, the hypotheses included in this research are found to be supported by the analysis made. These results are consistent with those obtained from other researches (Williams & Anderson, 1991; Judge, et al., 2001; Saari & Judge, 2004; Dilek, 2005; Çetin, 2011; Yılmaz, 2012; Acar, 2014; Yeşilyurt & Koçak, 2014; Kanbur, Kanbur & Özdemir, 2017).

This research has some limitations. The main limitation is that this research has been carried out only in the education sector and other sectors are not included. Another main limitation is the research is not longitudinal. It is estimated that the results, which will be obtained from researches repeated at certain intervals, may be more explanatory. It will be interesting to observe in a longitudinal study how the relationship of organizational citizenship behavior and its sub-dimensions evolve with the dependent variable of job satisfaction over time, as the employee matures and the relationship with his/her organization develops. In addition, there is a need to compare the findings of this study with those of other studies analyzing data collected with different methods. In this context, it is recommended that the subsequent researchers on the variables considered in this study, should choose different data collection methods, occupational groups and sectors.

REFERENCES


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behavior: Which are we measuring? Human Performance, 17(1), 119-135.
Chapter 70
The Role of Social Media in Physician-Patient Relationship
İrfan AKKOÇ
Assist. Prof. Dr., Izmir-Turkey

INTRODUCTION
Although health has emerged in every period of history and in every society with different understanding and practices, it has been one of the most important concepts of humanity since the beginning of civilization to today. Due to the economic, cultural and technological changes and developments experienced in the last century, health has emerged as an area consisting of new understanding and practices. The social media platforms that have evolved as a result of the development of information and communication technologies - has a major impact on transformations that take place in the healthcare field - by providing the individuals of the community to be both information sources and users. Nevertheless, the health sector is thought to be relatively slow to comply with social and technological changes of the last 50 years (Schmalzried and Fallon, 2012; Yellowlees, 2008).

Social media or communication tools, technically referred to as "Web 2.0", are communication between linked and interconnected networks of people, society and organizations, reinforced by communication, collaboration and technological possibilities and mobility (Solomon, 2013, 18). In other words, social media can be defined as, "a group of Internet-based applications that allows user-generated content to be created and to be changed" (Tiger and Haenlein, 2010). Examples of social media tools can be listed as; Social networking applications such as "Facebook and Twitter", social collaboration tools such as "Wiki and blogs", microblogging like "Yammer" and content monitoring tools such as "Delicious" (Granitz and Koernig, 2011).

Web-based and mobile technologies have become an important part of the daily life of society. Pew Research's Internet Project reports that in 2013, 85% of adults in the USA (18 years and above) are internet users (Zickuhr, 2013). According to Social Media, social networks and blogs report that the active internet users in the USA have reached 80% and they spend most of their online time in social media (Nielsen, 2011:1). Today, more than 70% of Europeans with access to the internet uses the Internet for health purposes (Andreassen, et al., 2007). Similarly, studies in the USA show that 56% to 79% of internet users utilize the internet to look for health information (Ybarra and Suman, 2006; Cotten and Gupta, 2004). In recent years, the use of social media by hospitals and health professionals has increased significantly. In the longitudinal study, consisting of 873 hospitals in 12 Western European countries and conducted on the use of social media from 2009 to 2011, it was determined that the use of social media (especially YouTube from 2% to 20% and Facebook from 10% to 67%) has increased (Van de Belt, et al., 2012). The social media carries a potential to create a major transformation in health care as underlined by applications which show that social media is being used increasingly for health-related purposes. Thielst (2011) noted that "the structure of social media, by existing everywhere, has created
opportunities for real patient-centered care”.

The emergence of advanced information and communication technology has led to dramatic changes in every aspect of human life; to the extent that young people born after the discovery of internet in 1989 are often referred to as "digital natives". This generation grew up in an environment where people living simultaneously in both real and virtual worlds were common and accepted. Many of them perceive the thought that; the traditional approach of the health services created with the idea that a patient should always physically travel to consult a physician, is outdated, wrong, costly and time-consuming. They are demanding that health services should be more accessible and to be served immediately just like other services in their lives (Yellowlees, Chan and Parish, 2015, 466).

Facebook, Twitter, MySpace, Instagram, LinkedIn and other examples of social media, which are characterized as cooperative, participatory and having open approach in terms of information sharing and information production, are used for a series of health-related purposes. These purposes generally include topics such as; medical care, public health, research and medical education. The social media platforms provide a forum to discuss treatments, share information, introduce new products and services, answer questions and provide mutual support. Rozenblum and Bates (2013) argue that health services, social media and the internet are converging together and this situation has a potential to make a significant difference in the communication of patients and healthcare providers (p.183). The research is focusing on how social media technologies, which is a new method, can be transformed into a platform where the physicians, patients and families can work together (Bacigalupe, 2011). Information on an increasing number of social media platforms are being developed for members and interest in how physicians and patients interact with these new tools is ever rising. It is obvious that this interest will have a series of effects on the physician-patient relationship. In this study, the resulting developments in the traditional physician-patient relationship, as social media starts to play a part in, are addressed. Thus, different aspects of social media in the physician-patient relationship are discussed as well as the question of whether this progress in social media platforms leads to a better physician-patient relationship or not.

**PHYSICIAN-PATIENT RELATIONSHIP MODELS**

The relationship between the physician and patient has significantly improved in the past quarter of the century. This type of relationship called the paternalism structure, where the physician has the authority in the physician-patient relationship, has continued for many years. Increase in the level of education of the patients, the development of internet-based social media and the patients reaching to more health information have led to diversified relationship models and ideal relationship models began to emerge. The models in the literature that examine the physician-patient relationships are listed below.

**Physician-Patient Relationship Model of Byrne and Long:** This model addresses physician-patient relationship from two aspects as patient-centered and physician-centered. In the patient-centered approach, the physician can use his knowledge and experience according to the patient's situation in the diagnosis and treatment stages of the disease and is actively involved in the patient's relationship process. In the physician-centric approach, the physician's duty is to use time efficiently and
effectively. Otherwise, the physician would lose a lot of time if he makes an effort to give detailed explanations about the disease to his patients and listen to all their complaints. In order to avoid this time loss, the physician should focus on his own knowledge and experience by preventing the patient's involvement in the treatment process (Morgan, 2003, 52).

Physician-Patient Relationship Model of Emanuel: A detailed study on the physician-patient relationship was carried out by E.J. Emanuel and L.L. Emanuel. In this model, the physician-patient relationship was examined under four titles such as; paternalistic, informative, interpretive and deliberative (Emanuel and Emanuel, 1992, 2221).

- **Paternalistic Model:** The physician-patient relationship is similar to the relationship of father-son in the families where the father is dominant. In this model, the patient must comply with the decision taken by the physician. The physician takes precautions to protect the patient's health and builds the belief that the individual is best treated for the disease using his / her expert medical knowledge. Paternalistic physician-patient relationship is a relationship where the physician has absolute dominance (Emanuel and Emanuel, 1992, 2221).

- **Informative Model:** In this model, the purpose of the physician-patient relationship is to give all information related to the illness to the patient by physician and in the light of this information the patient determines the most appropriate treatment form and the physician performs this determined treatment. The predominant party is the patient and decisions are made by the patient. The role of the physician in this relationship is to provide technical expertise (Emanuel and Emanuel, 1992, 2221).

- **Interpretive Model:** In this informative model, the physician assumes a more comprehensive role. In this model, similar to the explanatory model, while the physician gives information about the disease, he also additionally takes into account the patient's thoughts to reveal what he wants and helps him to choose the most appropriate treatment in accordance with the values the patient embraces (physician cannot judge the patient's values) (Emanuel and Emanuel, 1992, 2221-2222).

- **Deliberative Model:** In this model the physician assumes the role of a teacher/friend for the patient. In this model, the physician, after his interview with the patient, discusses with the patient the possible risks and benefits which will follow the medical intervention and the possible medical intervention options while associating them with the patient's dominant values. In this negotiation the physician tries to convince the patient only by expressing his views. However the physician cannot pressure the patient to choose the treatment method that he considers as appropriate, the patient is independent to take the decisions regarding the medical intervention options to be applied to him (Emanuel and Emanuel, 1992, 2222).

Physician-Patient Relationship Model of Parsons: In the existing system, while the physician's responsibility is to cure the patient, the patient is also responsible to take the necessary care to be cured. While the individual who has the role of the patient goes to the physician to get rid of the complaints which prevent him to perform his social role, Parsons sees the role of the physician as an important function that allows the
patients to perform their social responsibilities (Cockerham, 1992, 159). The physician and patient roles institutionalized by Parsons serves to reduce the destructive effects of the disease in society. The ability of the patient to return to his function in the system as quickly as possible is ensured by the cooperation expected of both the physician and the patient (Morgan, 2003, 50).

**Physician-patient relationship model of Szasz and Hollender:** This model examines the physician-patient relationship with three models, stating that the relationship between the patient and the physician changes according to the place and the content of the medical problem. Active-Passive Model: This model occurs when the individual is seriously sick, needs emergency treatment or faces a life-threatening danger. In this model, the patient is in an inactive/passive state. The physician has complete control over the decisions about patients. Guidance-Cooperation Model: The physician assumes the role of teaching and guiding the patient on what he should do and the patient assumes the role of accepting and implementing the proposals. This relationship model occurs when the patient has an acute illness and infectious disease. Bilateral Participation Model: In this model, which has equality between physician and patient, the duty of the physician is to enable the patient to help himself. In this type of relationship, each side should have equal power, should not be dependent on each other and it should be a satisfying relationship for both of them. This relationship model emerges in chronic illnesses such as diabetes, hypertension, psychiatric disorders and asthma (Cockerham, 2004).

In addition to the physician-patient relationship models described above, there are other models in the literature such as Freidson's model (1961) which is based on the differences of the physician's and the patient's objectives, Waitzkin and Stoecke's model which assumes the physician's dominance and centered on the patient's recovery and the Hayes and Bautista's model which focuses on the patient's preferences of treatment options.

**THE SOCIAL MEDIA IN THE PHYSICIAN-PATIENT RELATIONSHIP**

The social media involving in the physician-patient relationship can be explained by the theory of social capital. Because the basic principle of the theory of social capital is that people allow the network, in which they take place, to take advantage of the resources contributed by other members (Ellison, Steinfeld and Lampe, 2007, 1145). Social capital researchers think that relationships created through Internet-based social media allow users to develop and maintain wider networks that can potentially provide resources and benefits through the exchange of useful information, the formation and development of personal relationships (Mathwick, Wiertz, and De Ruyter, 2008; Stein, et al., 2008). Physicians perceived social media as an important tool to change the health behavior based on the benefits they provide to social media users. For example, in a meta-analysis study, it was determined that social media applications were influential in health-related behavioral changes (Laranjo, et al., 2015).

Innovations in health information technologies emerging in social media and other online platforms, that can deeply change health care services and physician relationships, began to take place within the daily life of society. Social media contains tremendous amounts of health information and a large proportion of users use social media to attain health-related information. Today, patients started to take an active role in the diagnosis and treatment of diseases and depending on the health information
obtained from social media. As Blumenthal (2012) noted, "The computer will be as important as the stethoscope everywhere." Over the last 5 years, the use of social media has spread very rapidly around the world through sites such as Facebook, YouTube, Twitter and blogs. Such platforms provided opportunities for more communication with patients and marketing, consequently a number of health service providers created social media entities (Kim, 2012). However health services are one of the sectors that are late to adopt or integrate information technology and social media when compared to other sectors (Yellowlees, 2008; Kim, 2012; Schmalzried & Fallon, 2012). The most important reasons for this are the physicians' concerns on protecting the patients' privacy and online violations of professionalism (Lagu and Greyson, 2011).

According to Graham (2011), there are three areas of use for social media in healthcare; the first is community development (professional and personal), the second is marketing tool for health service providers, and the third is information for medical treatment and disease prevention. In general, patients use the internet and social media to share their experiences with people with similar illnesses and manage their illnesses using these technologies (Rozenblum and Bates, 2013, 183). These platforms provide a cost-effective way for healthcare organizations to build trust with both community and potential patients as well as to promote health and wellness management and disseminate knowledge, since healthcare consumers prefer to use social media more and more to gather information and share experiences (Thielst, 2011). Online social media platforms are emerging as a new way to discuss treatments, share information, promote new products and services, answer questions and provide mutual support (Hawker, 2010). Moreover, these platforms are also used to inform target communities and help improve public health.

As social media platforms develop further, they become an integral part of society as well as physicians and thus serve as a useful resource for health information. Physicians can research and archive online many academic journals related to their field. Patients can also seek out the online patient communities, health care facilities and specialists to get the health information they need (Mandl, Kohane and Brandt, 1998). This development leads to further cases where patients may ask questions to the physician about the information they access on the internet or request a special treatment based on self-diagnosis. Health information on social media platforms by definition provides easy access and wide availability and by providing medical information to patients for all circumstances, it plays a role as a secondary source regarding traditional physician-patient relationships (Biermann, Golladay and Peterson, 2006). For example, social media platforms such as AmongDoctors, DailyRounds, OpenData, QuantiaMD, SERMO.com, and Doximity.com provide a supportive medium where only physicians can access and consult their professional problems and clinical experiences among themselves, share information with each other and receive postings from other official organizations (Prasad, 2013; Mearian, 2012). Also today, approximately 600,000 people are using PatientsLikeMe platform, which enables patient-patient communication, to share experiences about 2,800 different situations. Brooklyn-based HelloHealth.com is an online community that allows doctors to communicate with patients (instant messaging, video chat and social networks) and provide medical service (Hilliard, 2012, 25). In a study, five online social media platforms, namely The International Glaucoma Association (IGA) forum, Facebook, Twitter, YouTube and PatientOpinion.org.uk, were selected and a total of 3785
products were analyzed. The most common topics in these products are determined as: treatment (27%), care experience (18%), promotional materials (18%) and support (10%) (McGregor, et al., 2014).

Along with the development of the information society, trust in the health information in the social media had an immense effect on the physician-patient relationship. This new role of the physician, who helps the patient to choose the preferred treatment method, encourages the patient to actively investigate the health information and assists the patient in determining the quality of the information obtained by the patient will result in positive treatment and improve the physician-patient relationship (Jacob, 2002). Additionally, some physicians use social media to educate people about managing their health on their own. Some physicians also send e-mails to patient groups who have similar conditions as a preventive health care method (Freidman, 2012). On the other hand, patients with more medical knowledge and thus having a better harmony in physician-patient communication result in patients who feel more competent in discussing health and self-diagnosis (Gustafson, et al., 2001).

Social media also have indirect health benefits. For example, more Facebook friends are associated with greater perceived social support. This has been determined to be associated with lower levels of stress and consequently, less physical illness and more psychological well-being (Nabi, Prestin and So, 2013). Research carried out by McDaniel, Coyne and Holmes (2011) shows that blogging plays an important role in social support. Their study on new mothers and internet use showed that blogging and social networks increase the level of social well-being. In a new study on how technology interacts with medical care (including the Internet and mobile phones), researchers observed that social capital is created for pregnant women seeking advice and information on prenatal care. Women included in the research indicated that the information gained through social media helped them cope with the health conditions concerning their pregnancies (Kraschnewski, et al., 2014). It has been found that 40% of patients use the Facebook network for social support and this online support increases the level of self-efficacy regarding health issues (Oh, et al., 2013).

Social media platforms have negative effects on the physician-patient relationship just as positive effects. It has been found that when patients receive information from these platforms, its effect on the physician-patient relationship is generally positive, provided that the physician has adequate communication skills and is not challenged. However, 15% of the patients stated that physicians had difficulties when they received information from the internet. The physician's perspective is that accurate and relevant information support health services and the results obtained for the patient as well as the physician-patient relationship. The perception that patients challenge the authority of the physician is the strongest indicator of perceived impairment in the physician-patient relationship. Approximately 40% of physicians think that the clinic consultations are less effective when the patient had received information from the internet and asks for something unsuitable and challenges the physician. This data shows that, in some cases, presenting information acquired from the internet to the physician can further worsen the physician-patient relationship (Murray, et al., 2003).

For example, in a study of 493 Korean doctors, 89% of Korean physicians reported that they had experience with patients in discussing internet health information. They thought that internet health information would increase the knowledge of patients about their health. However, they stated that internet health information may also have
various negative effects listed as; increasing the cost of health services by adopting inappropriate health services (56.2%), patients overthinking about their health (74.5%) and adversely affecting time effectiveness of the consultation visit (60.9%). Physicians identified that the health information received from the internet was not related to the health status of the patients (42.7%) and was not even correct (39%). Physicians’ perception of internet health information is both positive and negative. Physicians perceive the general effects of this information on the physician-patient relationship as neutral (Kim and Kim, 2009).

One of the biggest risks that social media presents in health care is the violation of the right to privacy regarding patient information. Physicians are legally responsible if violations occur when they discuss the situation of their patients on online social media platforms, in a public domain. In this context, an important ethical problem in online health applications is privacy. Online social media users may be unaware that their health data is sometimes used by third parties. For example, when examining 12 health applications by the US Federal Trade Commission, it was determined that 76% of the data were shared with third parties (Federal Trade Commission, 2014). There are studies about how physicians use social media regarding patient privacy, especially how they use Facebook and how they discuss their interactions with patients. For example, in New Zealand, the use of Facebook was analyzed by examining the data on the Facebook profiles of 220 young physicians. It was found that 40% of physicians do not use privacy settings and disclose personal information that may affect the physician-patient relationship adversely (MacDonald, et al., 2010).

A common concern is that online information is misleading and low quality, may be harmful and a disinformation super highway may emerge (Munn-Giddings and McVicar, 2007). Another serious concern is that social networks have made it difficult to maintain professional boundaries in the physician-patient relationship or regarding treatments. These boundaries help to maintain a standard of care that prioritizes the patient’s therapeutic interests. Online social media platforms provide a broader information exchange, including images and comments made by others. Therefore, when online relationships with patients are established and personal information about the patient is shared, there is a risk that physicians may not be protecting the interests of the patient (Guseh, et al., 2009).

Various researches are carried out to determine the perceptions of physicians and patients regarding the use social media in health interactions. For example, in a study, the majority of physicians do not ethically accept interaction with patients in social media for either social (68.3%) or patient care reasons (68%). Almost half of the participants (48.7%) were pessimistic about the social media's potential to improve patient-physician communication and the majority (79%) expressed concerns about protecting the patient's privacy. Patient-physician interaction taking place in social media is mostly initiated by patients. The majority of participants view these online interactions as ethically problematic (Bosslet, et al., 2011). In a study conducted in the United States, 84% of the 843 respondents of a survey said they would not use social media to communicate with their doctors. Similarly, 73% of the patients stated that they would not use chat or instant messaging when offered by their physician and 54% stated that they would not use a special online forum. It was found that the participants, also known as the Millennium Generation (born after 1980), were not as eager for online communication as expected, only 43% were interested in social media, 49% were
interested in chatting or instant messaging and 21% were willing to communicate through an online forum (Capstrat, 2011). A Nielsen survey conducted in 2015 found that about 28% of the approximately 5,000 Americans surveyed wanted to use forms of communication such as patient portal, online messaging and e-mail (Council of Accountable Physician Practices, 2015). In one study, 290 reviews published on the online discussion forum were reviewed and it was found that patients (51.7%) were opposed to physicians being Facebook friends with patients and most of them (42%) were opposed to physicians who have any kind of Facebook presence (Peluchette, Karl and Coustasse, 2016, 112). In a survey of how physicians deal with friendship requests, 85% of physicians stated that they automatically reject requests of patients and 15% stated that they handle the situation on a case by case basis (Moubarak, et al., 2011).

CONCLUSION

It can be claimed that the social media really offers many possibilities and opportunities in physician-patient relationship and that these opportunities will affect the traditional patient-physician relationship. Health information on social media platforms by definition provides easy access and wide availability and it's a vital source of health information for all circumstances (Biermann, Golladay and Peterson, 2006). Because of these features, social media allows patients to have more health information compared to the traditional patient type. To the extent that the patient can attain a level of health knowledge which would enable him to diagnose the disease, choose from the types of treatment and discuss them with the physician. In this context, it is considered that the social media would facilitate the transformation of the classical paternalist physician-patient relationship, in which the physician is dominant in all processes; to a more participatory model where the physician helps the patient choose the treatment he prefers, encourages the patient to investigate and promotes patient values. Nowadays, the level of social media use in healthcare affects the health behaviors of the patients but the prominent opinion is that it will assume a complementary role instead of replacing traditional health services.

Considering the violations and risks associated with the use of social media in the physician-patient relationship, the belief that there are strong legal and ethical risks, which require implementation of social media policies and education, is increasing day by day. Therefore, making legal and ethical arrangements for social media platforms, moreover training of physicians about these arrangements are of the essence.

There is not enough evidence on whether the social media is leading to a better physician-patient relationship or on what its effects are (beneficial, harmful or ineffective). However, data obtained from new academic studies, that investigate the effectiveness and efficiency of new health services which are influenced by social media, will provide adequate evidence about the effects of social media on the physician-patient relationship.

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PHYSICAL EDUCATION and SPORTS
INTRODUCTION

Physical activity (PA) is associated with a range of health benefits, and its absence can have harmful effects on health and well-being, increasing the risk for coronary heart disease, diabetes, certain cancers, obesity, hypertension and all-cause mortality (CDC, 1996). Moreover, exercise is an integral part in the treatment and rehabilitation of many medical conditions. Improving physical wellbeing may also lead to improved psychological well-being. Physical inactivity may be associated with the development of mental disorders: some clinical and epidemiological studies have shown associations between physical activity and symptoms of depression and anxiety in cross-sectional and prospective-longitudinal studies (Goodwin, 2003). The wide range of physical and psychological health benefits can be achieved via participation in all types of PA, including structured continuous bouts of aerobic exercise (Turk et al., 2006, Tekin et al., 2015), interval exercise (Jakicic & Otto, 2005), resistance training (Braith & Vincent, 2006), recreational exercise (Tekin, 2009), and yoga and flexibility exercises (Tudor-Locke et al., 2000). Moreover, health benefits can be achieved from accumulated short bouts of exercise and lifestyle PA (Daley & Welch, 2004).

It is not easy to define the word “adjustment” as it is used and perceived in quite different forms. Researchers mainly refer to two main features when describing the concept of adjustment: ability to cope with daily problems, to have life-oriented goals, to have personal freedom, and to accept oneself as it is. When these features are taken into consideration, adjustment can be defined as “the process of the harmony between the parts of a whole or process of finding the forms of behavior that are appropriate for the environment and the changes in the environment (Çağlar, 1981). A study on the effect of aerobic physical exercise on adjustment level it was revealed that, walking has positive effects on individual, social and general adjustment levels at all ages in both sexes. Moreover, the acute and long term effect of walking was also highlighted (Tekin, 2003).

There is considerable evidence that physical activity has significant effects on mental health in adolescence and adulthood. As physical activity is known to have a variety of positive effects on the overall functioning of adolescents, understanding the effects of physical activity on mental health is of special concern. In order to understand the specific effects of physical exercise on individual adjustment of sedentary adolescents, this study aimed to find the effects of indoor climbing training on physical and psychological health.
individual adjustment levels of adolescents.

**MATERIAL AND METHOD**

This study was conducted upon the permission granted by the District Directorate of Youth and Sports Services in Fethiye District of Mugla Province. The population of study consisted of 151 adolescents who recruited for artificial wall climbing exercises under the sports academy organized by the District Directorate of Youth and Sports Services. The subjects of study were briefed by the researcher concerning the goal of the study, how and where it would be conducted and the fundamentals of the artificial wall climbing. It was stated that participation in the study was not compulsory but up to the preference of the adolescents, and they would contribute in a scientific research should they participate. 60 participants out of 105 who were present in the briefing meeting accepted to partake in the study on voluntary basis. Although the exercise group of the study consisted of 60 people, 13 subjects who decided to desist from participating after the climbing exercises started were taken out of the group. The experiment group was thus composed of 25 males and 22 females – 47 in total – between 12 and 17 ages. In formulation of the control group, each participant in the exercise group was asked to invite their peers in their age groups to participate in the study. The researcher conducted one-on-one interviews with 57 adolescents who accepted the invitation, and the control group was formed with 25 males and 25 females – 50 in total – between the ages of 12 and 17 who lead or have led a sedentary way of life. The Hacettepe Personality Inventory (HPI) was administered to the exercise group before the exercise program started (1st measurement), and in 4 weeks (2nd measurement) and 8 weeks (3rd measurement) after the exercise started. The exercise group attended theoretical and practical courses on climbing for 4 days a week throughout the 8-week program. The control group was given the HPI at the start of the exercise program (1st measurement) and at the end of the exercise program (2nd measurement). Participants in the control group kept on leading their regular lives and did not participate in any sports or physical activity throughout the study. The trainings were given by the researcher himself. The researcher has been doing mountaineering and climbing sports since 1994. He is a 3rd Degree Trainer (Technical Trainer) in “Turkish Mountaineering Federation”. Additionally, he worked as a coach and trained many climbers in national camps. The researcher is thus fully equipped with the technical and theoretical knowledge and skills required to train adolescents in field of mountaineering climbing. The 8-week training program applied to the participants is as follows.

In the study, the Hacettepe Personality Inventory (HPI) was developed by Özgüven (1992) was used as a tool for data collection. The inventory includes 168 items and 80 items are for individual adjustment. There are four sub-scales in the inventory for individual adjustment. Individual Adjustment Sub-Scales: Self-Actualization (SA), Emotional Stability (ES), Neurotic Tendencies (NT) and Psychotic Symptoms (PS). Individual Adjustment Scores was formed by the total scores of SA, ES, NT and PS. Data obtained through the inventory used in the study were analyzed in SPSS 16.0. For comparison, paired t-test was used in paired groups at the significance level of p<0,05.
Table 1: 8-Week Training Program (Instance of a week)

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FINDINGS

Figure 1: Comparison of pre, mid and post test for Self-Actualization in exercise group.

Figure 2: Comparison of pre, mid and post test for Emotional Stability in exercise group.
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The study had suggested that there would not be any significant difference between the pre and post test results in terms of sub-scales and individual adjustment scores of the control group who did not participated in artificial wall climbing exercises and kept on leading their regular life during the course of the study. Interpretation of the data obtained and submitted in the findings section has revealed that there was no difference between the pre and post measurement results of Individual Adjustment (IA)
and its subscales, which confirmed the hypothesis of the study.

1- One of the sub-hypotheses of the study was that there would be an increase in the SA scores of sedentary adolescents in exercise group. Statistics have shown that there was a significant difference in SA of sedentary adolescents owing to their participation in wall climbing activities and thus confirmed this sub-hypothesis (Figure 1).

Walters (1955) included motivated and unmotivated groups into a 7-week bowling program. The results have shown that both group increased their social adjustment levels due to the participation as a group and the motivated group had higher adjustment scores than the unmotivated group. When good and bad bowling players were compared for their social adjustment, it was observed that good players were more accepted by the members of the group and therefore had higher SA scores and adjustment levels. 68% of the 22 studies conducted by Doan and Scherman were on adults while 32% were on children. An increase in physical adjustment was achieved in 76% of these studies. A control group was used in 67% of these studies. There was an increase in SA scores in 43% of the studies, an increase in SA scores and an improvement in physical adjustment in 36%, only an increase in SA scores but no increase in the physical adjustment variable in 7%, and no increase in SA scores or physical adjustment in 16% of the studies (Doan & Scherman, 1987). Gulanick (1991) conducted a study on 28 males and 12 females at the age of 57.7 in average; Ewart et al. (1986) conducted a study on 43 males at the age of 55; and Taylor et al. (1985) conducted a study on 30 males and 30 females at the age of 52 in order to examine the impact of physical exercise and activity on self-efficacy, and they all suggested that rehabilitation programs including physical exercise, strength trainings, jogging and walking had a positive impact on the self and resulted in significant scores. Similar results were also achieved by Hogan and Santomeir (1984), Corbin et al. (1984) and Koplan et al. (1982). Ewart suggests that even the exercises that are conducted as a leisure time activity at home cause positive changes on self-efficacy. A comparison of the results of the study on the self-realization (SA) sub-scale with the relevant literature shows that most of the studies on this topic in the literature support the results of this study in terms of SR scores, except for a few suggesting otherwise.

2- One of the sub-hypotheses of the study was that there would be an increase in the emotional stability (ES) scores of sedentary adolescences who participated in artificial wall climbing exercises. Statistics have shown that there was a significant difference in emotional stability scores of sedentary adolescences who participated in artificial wall climbing exercises, which thus confirms this sub-hypothesis. In a study conducted on 62 females at the age of 40, Long tried to define the impact of exercise on constant relief and found out that the ES scores increased and the exercise prolonged the relief period after an 8-week jogging program (Long, 1983). On the other hand, Hardy and Rejeski researched into the correlation between affectivity and physical activity on 30 males at the age of 19.5 in average, made 4-minute sudden loads by using 30%, 60% and 90% of the maximal aerobic strength in the bicycle ergo-meter and concluded that adverse developments took place as loads increased (Hardy, Rejeski, 1989). It is safe to suggest that the type of the aerobic exercise used in this study was appropriate in terms of strength. Morgan conducted a study on 5962 male and 356 female staff of the Air Forces who were over age of 18 and reported a positive correlation between physical fitness achieved through physical exercise and affectivity
(Morgan & Vogel, 1975). Carter (1977) conducted a study on the correlation between participation in exercise and happiness in 216 people over the age of 18 and found out a positive correlation between the exercise participation level and happiness. Balazs (1975) researched into the psychological and social variables of success in a study conducted on the history of 24 female Olympic Champions and discovered that all athletes had normal personal adjustment and emotional stability in their history. The results which Jasnoski and Holmes (1988) obtained before and after the 15-week aerobic exercise program they gave to 103 college students suggested that the group that participated in the exercise had more self-confidence, creativity and emotional stability than the group that did not do so had while El-Naggar could not find any significant difference in pre- and post-test results due to the correlation between aerobic exercise and emotional stability in a 4-week aerobic exercise program (El-Naggar, 1986). Above-mentioned studies usually support the results of this study in terms of the ES scores.

3- Another sub-hypothesis of the study was that there would be a decrease in neurotic tendency (NT) scores of sedentary adolescents who participated in artificial wall climbing activity. Statistics have shown that there was not a significant difference in neurotic tendency scores of sedentary adolescences after they participated in artificial wall climbing exercises, which did not confirm this sub-hypothesis.

4- Another sub-hypothesis of the study was that there would be a decrease in psychotic symptom scores of sedentary adolescents who participated in artificial wall climbing activity. Statistics have shown that there was not a significant difference in psychotic symptom scores of sedentary adolescences after they participated in artificial wall climbing exercises, which did not confirm this sub-hypothesis.

As we compare the sub-hypotheses 3 and 4 with the previous works, we see that they have some aspects that contradict with the existing literature. Many studies have been found to be concluding that both neurotic tendency and psychotic symptoms decreased owing to physical activity (Folkins & Sime, 1981; Taylor et al., 1985; Brooks et al., 1998; Martinson et al., 1989; Skrinar et al., 1992).

5- The main hypothesis of the study was that there would be an increase in the IA scores of sedentary adolescents participating in the artificial wall climbing exercises. Statistics have shown that there was significant difference in IA, which thus confirmed the hypothesis. The existing literature on this subject also supports the results of this study (Medina, 2008; Churchill et al., 2002; Richards et al., 2003; Singh-Manoux et al., 2005). Additionally, physical exercise has been shown to reduce depression and negative emotional states in adults by increasing individuals’ self-esteem, improving moods, reducing anxiety, increasing their ability to handle stress, and improving sleep patterns (Sutton, 2009), which when coupled with the increasing prevalence of repressed negative emotions (e.g., stress and depression) in the workplace (Ganster, 2005; Shapiro, 2009), is a significant issue for people. As Lovelace, Manz, and Alves (2007) state, Physical fitness is a fundamental way to build good physical, psychological and social resiliency and therefore is an important way for the leader to sustain healthful regeneration. Building resiliency through physical fitness is especially important for leaders in high demand jobs because physically fit leaders have been found to have increased stamina and mental focus. Motor and physical skills develop during the participation in physical activity (Beck, 1956). The increased motor skills might result in increased self-efficacy, which leads, in turn, increased individual and
social adjustment levels (Saygılı, 2000). Research conducted in the late twentieth century into personality traits of climbers and psychological rewards of climbing is in accordance with this author’s anecdotal experience as a climber and climbing instructor. Hardy and Martindale (1982) studied personality traits of climbers and suggested that they were more intelligent, aggressive, and self-sufficient than the general population, but that they also tended to be less conscientious and sophisticated as a population when compared to non-climbers. Goma (1991) investigated the relationship between personality traits and participation in high physical risk sports, finding that participants shared the characteristics of extraversion, emotional stability, conformity to social norms, and seeking thrill and experience by socialized means.

As a conclusion, when compared to the results of the previous studies, the climbing exercise had a positive impact on IA of adolescents. It can thus be used as a toll for intervention in studies aiming at development of personal attributes of adolescents. These results were confined to the measurement tool and participants of this very study. Further studies are needed to generalize the results for larger populations.

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