Current Debates on Social Sciences 13

Zeynel KARACAGİL



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ISBN: 978-625-6925-27-4

1st Edition

25 Haziran 2023

Current Debates on Social Sciences 13

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Editor

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Publisher

Engin DEVREZ

Bilgin Kültür Sanat Yayınları

Certificate No: 20193

Selanik Cd. No: 68/10 06640 Kızılay / Ankara

Phone: 0 (312) 419 85 67 – Fax: 0 (312) 419 85 68

https://www.bilginyayinevi.com

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China's Strategy Culture: From Antiquity to the 21st Century

Birol AKDUMAN [1]

Introduction

In recent years, China's rise as a global power has drawn increasing attention from scholars and policymakers alike, leading to a growing interest in understanding the nation's strategic culture (Johnston, 1995:32). This article seeks to provide a comprehensive analysis of China's strategic culture, tracing its evolution from antiquity to the present day, and examining its implications for international relations, history, and strategy. By delving into the historical roots and contemporary manifestations of China's strategic thought, the study aims to offer valuable insights for those interested in deciphering the complex interplay between China's historical experiences, political ideologies, and strategic objectives (Gray, 1999:51).

The background and rationale for this study lie in the importance of strategic culture as a determinant of state behavior in international relations (Snyder, 1977:8). Strategic culture, as defined by Johnston, refers to the "set of beliefs, norms, and practices that shape a nation's approach to warfare and diplomacy" (Johnston, 1995:46). China's strategic culture, in particular, has garnered attention due to its historical depth, diversity, and the country's increasing role in global affairs (Kissinger, 2011:24). Understanding China's strategic culture is essential for comprehending its decision-making processes, which have significant implications for global stability and international relations (Mearsheimer, 2014:82).

The objective and scope of this article are to provide a historical analysis of China's strategic culture, spanning from the Warring States period to the 21st century, while examining the key elements and principles that have shaped its strategic thought. The study will cover various historical periods, including the Warring States period, the Imperial era, the rise of the Chinese Communist Party, and contemporary developments in the 21st century. The article will also consider the influence of strategic thinkers such as Sun Tzu and Mao Zedong, as well as the role of Confucianism, nationalism, and Marxism-Leninism in shaping China's strategic culture.

The importance of understanding China's strategic culture in contemporary international relations cannot be overstated. As the country emerges as a major global player, its strategic behavior has significant ramifications for international security, diplomacy, and the global balance of power (Swaine and Tellis, 2000:6). By examining the historical and contemporary dimensions of China's strategic culture, this article seeks to provide a nuanced understanding of the country's strategic thought, which can, in turn, inform policymaking and scholarly research in the fields of international relations, history, and strategy (Christensen, 2001:15).

Moreover, China's strategic culture has far-reaching implications for the international system. As China's influence in global politics grows, so too does the importance of understanding the nation's strategic thought and behavior (Mearsheimer, 2014:101). Studying China's strategic culture can contribute to the development of more effective foreign policies,

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improved conflict prevention and resolution strategies, and a deeper appreciation for the intricacies of great power relations (Swaine and Tellis, 2000:15). Furthermore, understanding China's strategic culture is essential for fostering cooperation in areas of mutual interest, such as climate change, counterterrorism, and global economic governance (Shambaugh, 2013:9).

Another reason for exploring China's strategic culture lies in the potential for misunderstandings and miscalculations between China and other states. The lack of familiarity with China's strategic thought and behavior may lead to misperceptions and misinterpretations of its intentions, which can, in turn, result in unintended escalations and crises (Fravel, 2010:29). By examining China's strategic culture and shedding light on its underlying principles, this study aims to facilitate better communication and understanding between China and the international community, thereby reducing the potential for conflicts and tensions (Yan, 2014:67).

This article will also contribute to the academic literature on strategic culture by offering a comprehensive historical analysis of China's strategic thought, which has not been adequately addressed in existing studies. While previous research has focused predominantly on the strategic culture of Western states or the former Soviet Union (Snyder, 1977; Gray, 1999), relatively little attention has been paid to China's strategic culture and its implications for the international system (Johnston, 1995). By filling this gap in the literature, the article aims to foster a more balanced and informed understanding of strategic culture as a concept and its relevance for the study of international relations, history, and strategy (Kissinger, 2011:44).

Lastly, the study of China's strategic culture can inform the ongoing debate on the nature of the emerging international order and the potential for conflict or cooperation between China and other great powers, particularly the United States. As the balance of power in the international system shifts, understanding the strategic culture of rising powers like China becomes increasingly vital for anticipating their behavior and developing appropriate policy responses (Mearsheimer, 2014:123). By providing a comprehensive analysis of China's strategic culture, this article aims to contribute to this critical debate and inform the development of more effective strategies for managing the challenges and opportunities of the 21st century.

Methodology

To provide a comprehensive analysis of China's strategic culture from antiquity to the 21st century, this study will employ a multidisciplinary methodology that combines elements of history, strategy, and international relations. This approach will enable the exploration of the complex interplay between China's historical experiences, political ideologies, and strategic objectives, providing a nuanced understanding of the country's strategic culture.

The historical analysis will be a vital component of the methodology. This will involve a detailed examination of primary and secondary sources related to China's strategic thought from the Warring States period to the present day. Primary sources will include classical texts such as Sun Tzu's "The Art of War," as well as historical documents, speeches, and writings of key political and military leaders. Secondary sources will encompass academic books, journal articles, and scholarly essays that analyze and interpret China's strategic culture across various historical periods.

In addition to historical analysis, the study will employ strategic analysis to examine the evolution of China's strategic doctrines, military capabilities, and geopolitical objectives. This analysis will involve a review of defense white papers, military publications, and scholarly works that focus on China's strategic thinking and military modernization efforts. Comparisons will be made with other countries' strategic cultures and doctrines to identify similarities and differences, as well as the unique aspects of China's approach to strategy.

To further understand China's strategic culture in the context of international relations, the study will analyze its foreign policy behavior, diplomatic initiatives, and participation in international organizations. This will involve an examination of official policy documents, speeches by political leaders, and academic literature that addresses China's engagement with the global community. Additionally, the study will incorporate case studies of specific events and incidents, such as territorial disputes and diplomatic crises, to illuminate the underlying principles that guide China's strategic decision-making.

Throughout the research process, the study will adopt a qualitative approach, utilizing content analysis to identify patterns and themes within the primary and secondary sources. This will allow for a systematic and in-depth exploration of China's strategic culture, as well as its implications for international relations, history, and strategy. By employing this multidisciplinary methodology, the study aims to provide a comprehensive and nuanced understanding of China's strategic culture from antiquity to the 21st century.

1.Ancient China's Strategic Culture

1.1.The Warring States Period and the Birth of Strategic Thought

The Warring States period (475-221 BCE) was a transformative era in Chinese history, marked by intense competition among rival states vying for supremacy. This period of incessant warfare and political intrigue provided the impetus for the development of strategic thought in ancient China (Huang, 2014:75). During this time, various philosophical schools emerged, each offering unique perspectives on the nature of power, statecraft, and warfare. Three of the most influential schools were Confucianism, Legalism, and Daoism, which profoundly shaped China's strategic culture and its approach to diplomacy and war.

1.1.1.Confucianism, Legalism, and Daoism

Confucianism, founded by Confucius, emphasized moral virtues, benevolent governance, and the importance of ethical conduct in both personal and political life (Yao, 2000:68). Confucianism advocated for a harmonious society and promoted the idea that rulers should lead by example, focusing on the cultivation of personal virtues and the establishment of a well-ordered state (Bell, 2010:112). As such, Confucianism shaped China's strategic culture by encouraging restraint, the pursuit of diplomacy, and the prioritization of moral authority in international relations.

Legalism, on the other hand, was a more pragmatic and ruthlessly efficient approach to statecraft. Legalist thinkers, such as Han Fei, argued that rulers should maintain strict control over their subjects through a comprehensive system of laws and harsh punishments (Goldin, 2013:42). Legalism provided a framework for the development of a highly centralized and authoritarian state, which proved to be instrumental in the unification of China under the Qin dynasty (221-206 BCE) (Lewis, 2007:29). Legalism contributed to China's strategic culture by emphasizing the importance of state power, discipline, and military might in achieving political objectives.

Daoism, a philosophy focused on the natural order and the harmony of opposing forces, also had a significant impact on China's strategic culture. Daoist thinkers, such as Laozi and Zhuangzi, emphasized the importance of adaptability, flexibility, and the ability to exploit the natural course of events to one's advantage (Kohn, 2009:34). This philosophical approach lent itself to the development of unconventional military strategies, such as deception, surprise, and the use of psychological warfare (Sawyer, 1993:57). Daoism thus contributed to China's strategic culture by fostering a willingness to embrace unconventional and innovative tactics in the pursuit of victory.

1.1.2.Sun Tzu and "The Art of War"

Sun Tzu's seminal work, "The Art of War," represents a synthesis of ancient Chinese strategic thought, drawing upon the insights of Confucianism, Legalism, and Daoism. Written during the Warring States period, this treatise on military strategy has had a lasting impact on China's strategic culture, as well as on the study of warfare and statecraft around the world (Ames, 1993:33). Sun Tzu's emphasis on the importance of intelligence, deception, and adaptability in warfare reflects the influence of Daoist thought, while his insistence on the primacy of moral authority and the need for a well-ordered state demonstrates the enduring legacy of Confucianism (Handel, 2000:77).

Sun Tzu's "The Art of War" also highlights the central role of "shi" or strategic advantage in ancient Chinese warfare. According to Sun Tzu, the key to victory lies in understanding and exploiting the changing dynamics of the battlefield, as well as the strengths and weaknesses of one's adversaries (Sun Tzu, 1994:63). This concept of "shi" underscores the importance of seizing the initiative and maintaining the momentum of one's forces, as well as the need to adapt and respond to the changing circumstances of war. In this way, Sun Tzu's insights on the nature of warfare and the pursuit of strategic advantage have continued to inform China's strategic culture and its approach to military and political challenges throughout history.

1.2.The Concept of "shi" (Strategic Advantage) and Its Role in Ancient Chinese Warfare

The concept of "shi" is a fundamental principle in Chinese strategic culture, deeply rooted in the ancient philosophies of Confucianism, Legalism, and Daoism (Lai, 2012:82). In a military context, "shi" refers to the ability to create and exploit favorable conditions in the pursuit of victory, whether by seizing the initiative, outmaneuvering adversaries, or capitalizing on the inherent weaknesses of one's opponents (Sawyer, 1994:101). This emphasis on strategic advantage highlights the importance of foresight, adaptability, and the capacity to perceive and exploit opportunities in the constantly shifting landscape of warfare.

Throughout Chinese history, military commanders have sought to cultivate and apply the concept of "shi" in their strategies and tactics. For instance, the renowned general Cao Cao of the Three Kingdoms period (220-280 CE) was known for his ability to outthink and outmaneuver his enemies, often leveraging his superior understanding of the strategic situation to overcome seemingly insurmountable odds (de Crespigny, 2007:45). This emphasis on strategic advantage has continued to shape China's military doctrine and strategic culture, even in the face of changing technologies and geopolitical challenges.

1.3. 1.3.The Impact of Ancient China's Strategic Culture on Its Political Development

1.3.1. 1.3.1.Formation of Centralized States

Ancient China's strategic culture played a crucial role in the formation of centralized states and the establishment of a unified political order. The competing philosophies of Confucianism, Legalism, and Daoism each offered distinct visions for the ideal state, with profound implications for the development of political institutions and structures (Huang, 2014:85). The influence of these philosophies can be seen in the rise of the Qin dynasty, which adopted Legalist principles to create a highly centralized and bureaucratic state apparatus capable of enforcing its rule over a vast territory (Lewis, 2007:31).

The consolidation of political power under the Qin dynasty set the stage for the emergence of a stable and enduring political system, which was further refined and developed during the subsequent Han dynasty (206 BCE - 220 CE) (Wang, 2015:47). Confucianism, with its emphasis on moral authority and benevolent governance, became the dominant ideological

framework for the Han dynasty, shaping the development of a complex and sophisticated bureaucracy that would serve as the foundation for China's imperial system for centuries to come (Yao, 2000:74).

1.3.2. 1.3.2.The Mandate of Heaven and Dynastic Cycles

The concept of the Mandate of Heaven is another key aspect of ancient China's strategic culture, with significant implications for its political development. According to this doctrine, the right to rule was granted by Heaven, and a ruler who governed justly and effectively would enjoy the support of the celestial realm (Pines, 2002:62). Conversely, a ruler who failed to uphold the principles of good governance would lose the Mandate of Heaven, leading to political instability and, ultimately, the rise of a new dynasty to restore order and harmony (Wang, 2015:49).

The Mandate of Heaven provided a powerful legitimizing force for China's imperial system, reinforcing the centrality of moral authority and the importance of maintaining a well-ordered state in the pursuit of political power (Bell, 2010:118). Furthermore, the notion of dynastic cycles, in which successive rulers rise and fall based on their adherence to the principles of good governance, underscores the inherent fluidity and adaptability of ancient China's strategic culture (Yao, 2000:76). This cyclical view of history provided a framework for understanding and navigating the complex and unpredictable dynamics of power, conflict, and statecraft that have characterized Chinese history throughout the ages.

In summary, the strategic culture of ancient China, shaped by the competing philosophies of Confucianism, Legalism, and Daoism, as well as the concept of "shi" and the Mandate of Heaven, played a pivotal role in the political development of the nation. These ideas and principles continue to inform and influence China's strategic culture in the modern era, offering valuable insights into the nation's evolving approach to diplomacy, statecraft, and warfare.

2.China's Strategic Culture During Imperial Period

2.1.The Influence of Confucianism on China's Diplomatic and Military Strategies

Throughout its history, Confucianism has played a crucial role in shaping China's diplomatic and military strategies. As a philosophy that emphasizes harmony, stability, and ethical conduct, Confucianism informed Chinese strategic thinking and behavior in several ways during the Imperial Period (Fairbank, 1968:47).

2.1.1.The Tribute System and Hierarchical Worldview

One of the most significant manifestations of Confucian influence on China's strategic culture during the Imperial Period was the tribute system. Rooted in the Confucian hierarchical worldview, the tribute system was a diplomatic framework that organized China's relations with its neighbors, based on the premise that the Chinese emperor was the "Son of Heaven" and the center of the civilized world (Kang, 2010:31).

Under the tribute system, neighboring states acknowledged the superiority of the Chinese emperor and, in exchange for protection and trade privileges, presented tribute to the Chinese court (Hsü, 2000:78). This system reinforced the notion that China was the Middle Kingdom, occupying a central position in the world order, with all other states existing in a hierarchical relationship to it (Kang, 2010:33).

The tribute system was more than a mere ceremonial exchange of gifts; it also played a role in maintaining regional stability and promoting peaceful relations. By establishing a hierarchical structure and emphasizing ritual and etiquette, the tribute system created a sense of order and harmony among the participating states (Wang, 2011:45). In this context,

Confucianism served as a guiding principle for China's diplomatic strategy, emphasizing the importance of maintaining harmonious relations with its neighbors and the broader international community.

2.1.2.Civil-Military Relations

Confucianism also had a significant impact on China's civil-military relations during the Imperial Period. Confucius believed that a just and harmonious society required the cultivation of moral virtues among its leaders, with a particular emphasis on benevolence, righteousness, and proper conduct (Confucius, 2000:41). This emphasis on ethical leadership was applied not only to civilian officials but also to military commanders and soldiers (Feng, 2015:61).

As a result, Confucianism fostered a preference for civil governance over military rule, with the scholar-official class being regarded as the backbone of the state's administration. Military affairs were considered subordinate to the civil administration, and military leaders were expected to defer to the authority of civilian officials (Zhang, 2015:56). This hierarchical relationship between civil and military authorities, rooted in Confucian values, shaped the development of China's strategic culture during the Imperial Period.

Furthermore, Confucianism's emphasis on moral virtues and ethical conduct in statecraft extended to the conduct of warfare. Confucius taught that war should be a last resort, and that it should be waged only when all other means of resolving disputes had been exhausted (Confucius, 2000:41). Additionally, Confucianism promoted the idea that military force should be used judiciously and with restraint, with the ultimate aim of restoring peace and harmony (Feng, 2015:64). Thus, Confucianism exerted a profound influence on China's strategic culture during the Imperial Period, shaping its diplomatic and military strategies in ways that continue to resonate in contemporary Chinese strategic thinking.

2.2.Key Strategic Thinkers and Developments in China's Strategic Culture

Throughout the Imperial Period, China witnessed the emergence of several key strategic thinkers who significantly shaped its strategic culture. Their ideas and innovations not only informed military tactics and strategies during their time but also continue to influence contemporary Chinese strategic thinking.

2.2.1.Zhuge Liang and the "Three Kingdoms" Period

Zhuge Liang (181-234 CE) was a legendary strategist, statesman, and military commander during the tumultuous Three Kingdoms period (220-280 CE). As the chief advisor to the Shu Han state's ruler, Liu Bei, Zhuge Liang played a pivotal role in the formation of the state and its military campaigns (De Bary and Lufrano, 2000:145).

Zhuge Liang's strategic brilliance is best exemplified by his famous "Empty Fort Strategy," a deceptive tactic designed to deter enemy forces from attacking an ostensibly undefended position (Sawyer, 1993:116). By projecting confidence and creating the appearance of hidden forces, Zhuge Liang managed to deter stronger adversaries from taking advantage of his state's vulnerable position. This innovative strategy is emblematic of the creative and psychological elements that define much of China's strategic culture.

Additionally, Zhuge Liang authored the "36 Stratagems," a collection of maxims that provide guidance on various aspects of warfare, including deception, diplomacy, and intelligence gathering (Sawyer, 1993:120). These stratagems are still widely studied in China today, as they offer timeless insights into the art of strategic thinking.

2.2.2.Qi Jiguang and the Defense Against Japanese Pirates

Qi Jiguang (1528-1588) was a renowned Ming Dynasty general who successfully defended China's southeastern coast from Japanese pirates, known as wokou, during the mid-16th century (Clements, 2016:112). Qi Jiguang's innovative military strategies and tactics played a crucial role in China's ability to repel the pirate threat and maintain its territorial integrity.

Qi Jiguang's military prowess was characterized by his emphasis on training, discipline, and adaptability. Recognizing the limitations of traditional Chinese military tactics when faced with the agile and ferocious wokou, Qi Jiguang introduced new formations and weapons, incorporating elements of Japanese martial arts and European firearms into his forces' repertoire (Clements, 2016:115). These innovations allowed Qi Jiguang's troops to outmaneuver and defeat the pirates in numerous engagements along the coast.

Beyond his tactical innovations, Qi Jiguang also demonstrated strategic acumen in his approach to defense. He devised a comprehensive coastal defense system, which included the construction of fortified watchtowers, naval patrols, and the establishment of local militias (Clements, 2016:118). This integrated defense strategy not only deterred pirate attacks but also facilitated rapid responses to incursions when they occurred.

Qi Jiguang's strategic innovations and accomplishments significantly contributed to the development of China's strategic culture during the Imperial Period. His emphasis on adaptability, training, and a comprehensive approach to defense continues to resonate in contemporary Chinese military thought.

2.3.The Impact of Western Imperialism on China's Strategic Culture

2.3.1.The Opium Wars and the "Century of Humiliation"

The Opium Wars (1839-1842 and 1856-1860) marked a turning point in China's strategic culture, as they ushered in the "Century of Humiliation," a period characterized by foreign invasions, unequal treaties, and territorial concessions. The Qing Dynasty was unable to repel the incursions of the technologically superior British forces, which exposed the inadequacies of China's traditional strategic culture (Fairbank, 1968:222).

The consequences of the Opium Wars were far-reaching, as they revealed the weaknesses of the tribute system, Confucian values, and outdated military tactics and technologies that had underpinned China's strategic culture for centuries (Feng, 2015:74). The humiliating defeats and the subsequent imposition of unequal treaties, such as the Treaty of Nanjing (1842) and the Treaty of Tientsin (1858), led to a loss of territory, sovereignty, and prestige, prompting a radical reassessment of China's strategic culture.

As a response to the Opium Wars and the ensuing encroachments of Western powers, China's strategic culture underwent significant changes. The Self-Strengthening Movement (1861-1895) was one such attempt to modernize China's military, industry, and diplomacy by selectively adopting Western technologies and ideas (Wright, 1969:131). However, the movement was plagued by internal factionalism, corruption, and an unwillingness to fully embrace Western innovations, ultimately resulting in its failure to prevent further humiliations, such as the defeat in the First Sino-Japanese War (1894-1895) (Hsü, 2000:252).

The Century of Humiliation left an indelible mark on China's strategic culture, instilling a deep sense of nationalism and a determination to regain the country's lost power and prestige. It also set the stage for the emergence of new political and military leaders, such as Sun Yat-sen and Chiang Kai-shek, who would seek to modernize China's strategic culture in the early 20th century (Fenby, 2019:45).

2.3.2.The Rise of Nationalism and the Quest for Modernization

The Century of Humiliation and the perceived failure of traditional strategic culture prompted a surge of nationalism and a quest for modernization in China. This transformative period saw the emergence of various political and ideological movements that sought to reshape China's strategic culture and reassert its sovereignty (Gries, 2004:33).

One such movement was the Xinhai Revolution (1911), led by Sun Yat-sen, which overthrew the Qing Dynasty and established the Republic of China. This revolution signified the rejection of the old imperial system and the embrace of new political ideas, such as democracy and nationalism (Bergère, 1998:319). Sun's Three Principles of the People – nationalism, democracy, and socialism – became the guiding principles for the modernization of China's strategic culture.

The rise of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) under Mao Zedong further underscored the shift in China's strategic culture. The CCP pursued an alternative modernization path, drawing on Marxist-Leninist principles and advocating for a radical social and economic transformation of China (Pantsov and Levine, 2012:167). The Long March (1934-1935) and the Chinese Civil War (1946-1949) showcased the adaptability and resilience of the CCP's military strategy, which eventually led to the establishment of the People's Republic of China in 1949.

Throughout the 20th century, China's strategic culture continued to evolve, reflecting the changing political, social, and economic circumstances of the country. The rise of nationalism and the quest for modernization shaped the development of China's strategic culture, as it sought to regain its status as a major global power and to chart its own path amid an increasingly complex international landscape (Shambaugh, 2013:235).

3.China's Strategic Culture in the 20th Century

3.1.The Chinese Communist Party (CCP) and the Transformation of China's Strategic Culture

The emergence of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) in the early 20th century marked a significant transformation in China's strategic culture. This transformation was driven by a combination of domestic and international factors, such as the need to resist foreign imperialism, the desire to establish a modern Chinese state, and the influence of Marxist-Leninist ideology (Dittmer, 2017:34). The CCP's revolutionary struggle and eventual rise to power fundamentally altered China's strategic culture, leading to a new era characterized by ideological struggles, radical social changes, and the pursuit of national rejuvenation.

One of the key figures in shaping the CCP's strategic culture was Mao Zedong, who played a central role in the development and application of the revolutionary doctrine known as "People's War" (Chen, 2017:89). Mao's approach to warfare was heavily influenced by his understanding of China's historical experiences and Marxist-Leninist theories. He emphasized the importance of guerrilla warfare, the mobilization of the peasantry, and the strategic coordination of political and military activities. Mao's concept of People's War provided a unique framework for the CCP to wage its struggle against both domestic and foreign adversaries, enabling it to successfully navigate the complex political and military landscape of the time.

The Long March (1934-1935) and the subsequent Chinese Civil War (1946-1949) were two pivotal events in the CCP's rise to power and the transformation of China's strategic culture. The Long March, a strategic retreat by the Red Army from the Nationalist forces, demonstrated the resilience and adaptability of the CCP in the face of adversity (Mitter, 2013:52). The arduous journey, covering over 6,000 miles, allowed the Red Army to regroup and rebuild its

forces, while also gaining valuable experience in guerrilla warfare and political mobilization. These lessons would later prove crucial in the Chinese Civil War, where the CCP emerged victorious against the Nationalist forces led by Chiang Kai-shek, ultimately leading to the establishment of the People's Republic of China in 1949.

The Cold War era saw a further transformation of China's strategic culture as the country sought to navigate the complex geopolitical landscape marked by ideological competition and shifting alliances. The Sino-Soviet alliance (1950-1960) played a significant role in shaping China's strategic culture during this period, as it provided the PRC with economic, military, and ideological support (Lüthi, 2008:40). However, the relationship eventually soured due to ideological differences, border disputes, and competition for leadership in the socialist world. The breakdown of the alliance had profound implications for China's strategic culture, as it pushed the country to reevaluate its international alignments and pursue a more independent foreign policy.

The Sino-American rapprochement in the 1970s represented another critical juncture in the evolution of China's strategic culture. The normalization of relations with the United States was driven by both countries' shared interest in countering the Soviet Union's influence and by China's desire for economic modernization (Ross, 2000:25). The rapprochement had significant implications for China's strategic culture, as it led to a more pragmatic and flexible approach to international diplomacy, as well as an increased focus on economic development as a key component of national power.

In the era of reform and opening up, which began in the late 1970s under the leadership of Deng Xiaoping, China's strategic culture underwent further transformations. Deng's policy of "hide your strength , bide your time" (taoguang yanghui) signaled a shift in China's strategic orientation towards a more low-profile and pragmatic approach to international affairs (Yahuda, 2013:45). This strategy emphasized economic development, modernization, and technological innovation as the main drivers of national power, while also advocating for a peaceful international environment to facilitate China's rise. Under Deng's leadership, China pursued a policy of engaging with the global economy and participating in international institutions, marking a significant departure from the revolutionary and isolationist tendencies of the Mao era.

The evolution of China's military and foreign policy in the late 20th century reflected the broader transformations in its strategic culture. As the country's economic and technological capabilities grew, so did its military ambitions and capabilities. China began to invest heavily in military modernization, with a focus on developing a more professional, technologically advanced, and capable fighting force (Scobell, 2016:60). The modernization of the People's Liberation Army (PLA) was driven by the recognition that a strong military was essential for safeguarding China's national interests and asserting its influence in the international arena.

China's foreign policy during this period also evolved to reflect the changing priorities and objectives of its strategic culture. While maintaining its commitment to the principles of non-interference and peaceful coexistence, China became more assertive in defending its territorial claims and promoting its economic interests abroad (Christensen, 2015:105). The country's growing global presence, coupled with its increasing economic and military power, generated both opportunities and challenges for its strategic culture, as it sought to balance its domestic and international objectives while managing the risks and uncertainties associated with its rise as a major power.

In conclusion, the 20th century witnessed a series of profound transformations in China's strategic culture, driven by the emergence of the CCP, the influence of Marxist-Leninist ideology, and the country's evolving geopolitical circumstances. The various stages of this transformation – from the revolutionary struggle and the establishment of the People's Republic,

to the Cold War alignments and the era of reform and opening up – reflect the dynamic and adaptive nature of China's strategic culture, as well as its ability to respond to both internal and external challenges. As China continues to rise in the 21st century, its strategic culture will undoubtedly continue to evolve, shaping and being shaped by the complex and rapidly changing international environment.

3.2.The Cold War and China's Strategic Alignment

The Cold War was a defining period for China's strategic culture, as the country navigated a complex and rapidly changing international environment marked by ideological rivalry, geopolitical competition, and the ever-present threat of nuclear war. Throughout this period, China's strategic alignment underwent several significant shifts, reflecting the evolving nature of its relations with the two superpowers – the United States and the Soviet Union – as well as the broader dynamics of the global Cold War order.

3.2.1.The Sino-Soviet Alliance and Its Eventual Breakdown

In the early years of the People's Republic of China, the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) viewed the Soviet Union as a natural ally, given their shared commitment to communism and their mutual opposition to the United States and its Western allies (Lüthi, 2008:15). The Sino-Soviet alliance, formalized in the 1950 Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship, Alliance, and Mutual Assistance, provided China with crucial economic and military assistance, as well as diplomatic support in the United Nations and other international forums.

However, the Sino-Soviet alliance was not without its tensions, as the two countries held divergent views on key ideological and strategic issues. The Sino-Soviet split, which began to emerge in the late 1950s, was fueled by a combination of factors, including China's dissatisfaction with the Soviet Union's "revisionist" approach to communism, the USSR's perceived failure to provide adequate support for China's nuclear program, and escalating border disputes between the two countries (Lüthi, 2008:27). The split reached its peak in the late 1960s, with armed clashes along the Sino-Soviet border and a complete breakdown in diplomatic relations.

The Sino-Soviet split had significant implications for China's strategic alignment and its role in the global Cold War order. As its relations with the Soviet Union deteriorated, China found itself increasingly isolated and vulnerable, prompting it to explore new partnerships and alignments to counterbalance the growing Soviet threat. This strategic reorientation would eventually lead to a dramatic rapprochement with the United States, marking a major turning point in both China's strategic culture and the broader dynamics of the Cold War.

3.2.2.The Sino-American Rapprochement and Its Implications for China's Strategic Culture

The Sino-American rapprochement of the early 1970s was a landmark event in the history of the Cold War, as it signaled a fundamental realignment of the global balance of power and the emergence of a new configuration of strategic relationships (Ross, 2000:35). For China, the rapprochement with the United States represented a major shift in its strategic culture, as it abandoned its previous alignment with the Soviet Union in favor of a more pragmatic and flexible approach to diplomacy and international relations.

The Sino-American rapprochement was driven by a confluence of factors, including China's desire to counterbalance the Soviet threat, the United States' interest in exploiting the Sino-Soviet split to its advantage, and the mutual recognition that improved relations between the two countries could serve their respective strategic objectives (Ross, 2000:40). The rapprochement culminated in the historic 1972 visit of U.S. President Richard Nixon to China,

which paved the way for the normalization of diplomatic relations and the establishment of a new foundation for Sino-American cooperation.

The implications of the Sino-American rapprochement for China's strategic culture were profound and far-reaching. First, it marked a significant departure from the ideological rigidity and revolutionary ferv or that had characterized China's foreign policy during the Mao era, signaling a more pragmatic and flexible approach to international relations (Ross, 2000:43). Second, it demonstrated China's ability to adapt its strategic alignment in response to changing geopolitical circumstances, highlighting the importance of strategic flexibility and adaptability in its strategic culture.

Furthermore, the Sino-American rapprochement facilitated China's integration into the global economic and political system, which would become a key driver of its subsequent economic development and modernization. As China's relations with the United States and other Western countries improved, it gained access to new markets, technology, and capital, which contributed to its rapid economic growth and transformation.

The Sino-American rapprochement also had significant implications for the broader dynamics of the Cold War. By forging closer ties with the United States, China effectively undermined the bipolar structure of the global Cold War order and created new opportunities for strategic cooperation and competition among the major powers. This development would have lasting effects on the international system, as it set the stage for a more multipolar and complex global order in the years following the end of the Cold War.

In conclusion, the Cold War period was a crucial phase in the evolution of China's strategic culture, as it navigated the challenges and opportunities presented by its shifting alignments with the United States and the Soviet Union. The Sino-Soviet split and the subsequent Sino-American rapprochement marked major turning points in China's strategic orientation, reflecting its growing pragmatism, flexibility, and adaptability in response to a rapidly changing international environment.

3.3.China's Strategic Culture in the Era of reform and Opening up

The era of reform and opening up, which began in the late 1970s under the leadership of Deng Xiaoping, marked a new phase in the evolution of China's strategic culture. This period was characterized by a shift away from the revolutionary zeal and ideological rigidity of the Mao era, towards a more pragmatic, flexible, and adaptive approach to diplomacy, economic development, and national security. This transformation was driven by a range of factors, including China's growing integration into the global economy, the changing dynamics of the international system, and the CCP's internal reassessment of its strategic priorities and objectives.

3.3.1.Deng Xiaoping's "Hide Your Strength, Bide Your Time" Strategy

Deng Xiaoping's "hide your strength, bide your time" strategy, also known as the "24-Character Strategy," played a central role in shaping China's strategic culture during the reform and opening up era. This strategy, which emphasized the need for China to maintain a low profile and avoid confrontation while focusing on its internal development, reflected Deng's belief that China's primary strategic objective should be to build up its comprehensive national power and lay the foundation for its future rise (Sutter, 2013:62).

The "hide your strength, bide your time" strategy had several key implications for China's strategic culture. First, it signaled a shift away from the more aggressive and confrontational approach that had characterized China's foreign policy during the Mao era, towards a more cautious and pragmatic approach to international relations. This shift was manifested in China's efforts to improve its relations with its neighbors, reduce tensions with the United States and

other major powers, and avoid getting entangled in regional conflicts or rivalries (Sutter, 2013:65).

Second, the "hide your strength, bide your time" strategy highlighted the importance of economic development as a key driver of China's strategic objectives and capabilities. During the reform and opening up era, China prioritized its economic modernization and pursued a range of domestic reforms, including the establishment of Special Economic Zones, the liberalization of its economic system, and the promotion of foreign trade and investment. These efforts contributed to China's rapid economic growth and transformation, which in turn bolstered its national power and international influence.

3.3.2.The Evolution of China's Military and Foreign Policy

The era of reform and opening up also witnessed significant changes in China's military and foreign policy, which reflected the evolving priorities and objectives of its strategic culture. On the military front, China embarked on a comprehensive modernization program aimed at upgrading its armed forces, enhancing its technological capabilities, and improving its overall military effectiveness (Scobell, 2012:15). This modernization program was driven by several factors, including the need to address the growing gap between China's military capabilities and those of the United States and other major powers, as well as the changing nature of warfare and the growing importance of advanced technology and information systems.

China's foreign policy during the reform and opening up era also underwent significant changes, as it sought to adapt to the evolving dynamics of the international system and pursue its strategic objectives more effectively. Key developments in this regard included China's efforts to expand its diplomatic relations, deepen its economic engagement with the world, and play a more active role in regional and global governance (Yahuda, 201:22). These efforts were underpinned by a broader shift in China's strategic culture, which emphasized the need for a more proactive, pragmatic, and flexible approach to diplomacy and international relations.

In conclusion, the era of reform and opening up marked a critical juncture in the evolution of China's strategic culture, as it transitioned from the revolutionary fervor and ideological rigidity of the Mao era to a more pragmatic, adaptive, and flexible approach to diplomacy, economic development, and national security. This transformation was driven by a combination of internal and external factors, including China's growing integration into the global economy, the changing dynamics of the international system, and the CCP's reassessment of its strategic priorities and objectives.

Under Deng Xiaoping's leadership, China pursued a "hide your strength, bide your time" strategy, which emphasized the importance of maintaining a low profile, avoiding confrontation, and focusing on internal development. This strategy reflected a shift in China's strategic culture towards a more cautious and pragmatic approach to international relations, as well as the growing recognition of the importance of economic development as a key driver of national power and influence.

4.China's Strategic Culture in the 21st Century

4.1.The Rise of China as a Global Power and the Implications for Its Strategic Culture

Over the past few decades, China has experienced remarkable economic growth, transforming it into a global power. This rapid rise has had significant implications for China's strategic culture, as the country has needed to adapt its strategies to address new challenges and opportunities (Yee and Storey, 2002:22). Two key aspects of this transformation include the "peaceful development" strategy and the Belt and Road Initiative.

4.1.1.The "Peaceful Development" Strategy

The "peaceful development" strategy has been a central component of China's strategic culture in the 21st century. It reflects China's commitment to pursuing economic growth and modernization without resorting to aggression or expansionism (Zhao, 2004:119). The strategy emphasizes the importance of maintaining a peaceful international environment, which is seen as essential for China's continued economic development (Yuan, 2010:35).

China's adoption of the "peaceful development" strategy has led to a more cooperative and less confrontational approach to international relations, with the country increasingly participating in multilateral institutions and working with other countries to address global challenges (Yang, 2011:161). This approach has allowed China to expand its global influence, gain access to new markets, and secure vital resources, all while avoiding major conflicts with other powers (Yee and Storey, 2002:25).

4.1.2.The Belt and Road Initiative

Launched in 2013, the Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) is a cornerstone of China's 21st-century strategic culture. It is a massive infrastructure and investment project that aims to enhance regional connectivity, promote economic growth, and deepen political ties between China and other countries along the ancient Silk Road (Jacques, 2016:3). The BRI has expanded China's global influence, particularly in Asia, Africa, and Europe, and has positioned China as a key player in global economic governance (Wang, 2016:60).

Through the BRI, China has also sought to reshape the international order in ways that better align with its interests and values. By promoting economic integration, infrastructure development, and political cooperation, the BRI advances China's vision of a more interconnected and multipolar world, in which its role as a global power is recognized and respected (Wang, 2016:62). At the same time, the BRI has raised concerns among some countries, particularly the United States, about China's intentions and the potential for the initiative to be used as a tool for political leverage and strategic advantage (Economy, 2018:10).

In conclusion, China's rise as a global power has had profound implications for its strategic culture. The adoption of the "peaceful development" strategy and the launch of the Belt and Road Initiative reflect China's efforts to adapt to its new status and pursue its interests in a more cooperative and less confrontational manner. While these strategies have allowed China to expand its global influence and address new challenges, they have also raised concerns among some countries about China's intentions and the potential for strategic competition.

4.2.Key Elements of China's Contemporary Strategic Culture

4.2.1.Assertiveness in Territorial Disputes

China's assertiveness in territorial disputes has become a defining feature of its contemporary strategic culture. The country has long-standing disputes with its neighbors over territory in the South China Sea and East China Sea, as well as unresolved border issues with India (Fravel, 2008:7). In recent years, China has taken a more assertive stance in these disputes, engaging in a range of activities to assert its territorial claims, such as island-building, resource extraction, and the establishment of military outposts (Mearsheimer, 2014:386).

This assertiveness can be attributed to several factors, including China's growing military capabilities, its perception of a declining U.S. presence in the region, and its desire to protect its vital interests, such as energy security and access to maritime trade routes (Fravel, 2008:10). While China's assertiveness in territorial disputes has generated tensions with its neighbors and raised concerns about the potential for conflict, it also reflects the country's evolving strategic

culture, which prioritizes protecting its sovereignty and territorial integrity (Mearsheimer, 2014:392).

4.2.2.Military Modernization and "Local Wars Under Informatized Conditions"

Another key element of China's contemporary strategic culture is its focus on military modernization and the concept of "local wars under informatized conditions." This concept refers to the idea that future conflicts will be limited in scale and duration, and will be characterized by the extensive use of advanced technology, such as cyber capabilities, precision-guided munitions, and unmanned systems (Mulvenon, 2015:2).

China's military modernization efforts have been guided by this concept, with the country investing heavily in the development of advanced technology and capabilities to ensure its ability to prevail in such conflicts (Mulvenon, 2015:4). These efforts have included the establishment of a strategic support force, which focuses on cyber, space, and electronic warfare capabilities, as well as the modernization of China's nuclear forces and the development of advanced missile systems (Chase, 2017:34).

China's focus on military modernization and "local wars under informatized conditions" reflects its recognition of the changing nature of warfare and its desire to maintain a strong deterrent against potential adversaries, particularly the United States (Mulvenon, 2015:5).

In summary, assertiveness in territorial disputes and military modernization focused on "local wars under informatized conditions" are key elements of China's contemporary strategic culture. These elements demonstrate China's evolving priorities and capabilities as a rising global power, and its determination to protect its interests and maintain a strong deterrent against potential adversaries. As China continues to rise, its strategic culture will likely continue to evolve, shaping its approach to security, diplomacy, and international relations.

4.3.China's Strategic Competition with the United States and Its Impact on China's Strategic Culture

As China's global influence and military capabilities have expanded in the 21st century, the country has entered into strategic competition with the United States, the world's preeminent superpower. This competition has had a profound impact on China's strategic culture, shaping its priorities, policies, and approach to international relations. Two key aspects of this competition include the "Thucydides Trap" and the potential for conflict, as well as China's attempts to reshape the international order.

4.3.1.The "Thucydides Trap" and the Potential for Conflict

The term "Thucydides Trap" was coined by Harvard professor Graham Allison to describe the phenomenon where a rising power and an established power inevitably enter into conflict as the former challenges the latter's dominance (Allison, 2017:5). The concept has gained traction in recent years, as tensions between China and the United States have increased due to various issues, including trade disputes, cyber espionage, and territorial claims in the South China Sea.

China's strategic culture has been significantly influenced by the Thucydides Trap narrative, as it has led to a greater emphasis on military modernization, assertiveness in territorial disputes, and the development of asymmetric capabilities designed to counter U.S. military advantages (Allison, 2017:12). Additionally, China has sought to balance its desire for a peaceful rise with the need to prepare for potential conflict, which has driven the development of concepts such as "active defense" and "local wars under informatized conditions" (Mulvenon, 2015:3).

While the Thucydides Trap narrative raises the specter of war between China and the United States, it also highlights the importance of diplomacy, crisis management, and confidence-building measures in mitigating the risk of conflict. Both countries have a vested interest in avoiding war, and their strategic cultures will continue to evolve in response to the challenges and opportunities presented by their complex relationship.

4.3.2.China's Attempts to Reshape the International Order

As China's global influence has grown, it has increasingly sought to reshape the international order in ways that better align with its interests and values. This effort has manifested itself in a variety of ways, including the creation of new international institutions, such as the Asian Infrastructure Investment Bank (AIIB) and the New Development Bank (NDB), as well as the promotion of the Belt and Road Initiative (BRI), a massive infrastructure and development project aimed at connecting China to markets and resources across Asia, Europe, and Africa (Lampton, 2018:32).

China's efforts to reshape the international order have had a profound impact on its strategic culture, as they have required the country to adopt a more proactive and assertive stance in global affairs. This has involved the development of new diplomatic strategies, such as "major country diplomacy with Chinese characteristics," which seeks to balance China's pursuit of its national interests with the promotion of global governance and the maintenance of international peace and stability (Wang, 2016:5).

As China's strategic competition with the United States intensifies, its efforts to reshape the international order will continue to evolve and will likely play an increasingly central role in its strategic culture. The outcome of this competition will have significant implications for global politics, economics, and security, and will shape the trajectory of China's rise as a global power.

5.Conclusion

Throughout this paper, we have examined the evolution of China's strategic culture from ancient times to the present day. We have seen that China's strategic thought has been influenced by various philosophical traditions, particularly Confucianism, Legalism, and Daoism. These schools of thought played a significant role in shaping China's approach to diplomacy, warfare, and statecraft during the Warring States period and the Imperial era.

During the Imperial period, Confucianism heavily influenced China's diplomatic and military strategies, leading to the development of the tribute system and a hierarchical worldview. Key strategic thinkers such as Zhuge Liang and Qi Jiguang emerged, contributing to the development of China's strategic culture. The impact of Western imperialism in the 19th century led to a "Century of Humiliation" and the rise of Chinese nationalism, which further transformed China's strategic culture.

In the 20th century, the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) under Mao Zedong played a critical role in shaping China's strategic culture through the concept of "People's War" and the experiences of the Long March and the Chinese Civil War. The Cold War period saw China's strategic alignment shift from the Sino-Soviet alliance to the Sino-American rapprochement, with significant implications for China's strategic culture. The era of reform and opening up under Deng Xiaoping led to a more pragmatic approach to China's military and foreign policy.

In the 21st century, China's rise as a global power has had profound implications for its strategic culture. The "peaceful development" strategy and the Belt and Road Initiative are key components of China's contemporary strategic culture, along with assertiveness in territorial disputes and military modernization. China's strategic competition with the United States has

further shaped its strategic culture, with concerns about the "Thucydides Trap" and China's attempts to reshape the international order.

China's strategic culture has evolved over time, adapting to changing geopolitical circumstances and domestic political contexts. As China continues to rise as a global power, its strategic culture will have significant implications for international relations and global stability. The assertiveness in territorial disputes and military modernization efforts may increase regional tensions and the potential for conflict. Additionally, the strategic competition between China and the United States could lead to a global power struggle, impacting the international order and potentially causing instability.

On the other hand, China's emphasis on peaceful development and its involvement in global initiatives, such as the Belt and Road Initiative, may foster greater cooperation and economic interdependence among nations. This could contribute to increased stability and a more inclusive global order. The way China navigates its rise and manages its strategic culture will have far-reaching consequences for international relations and global stability in the coming years.

The study of China's strategic culture offers numerous avenues for further research and exploration. One area worth examining is the role of Chinese nationalism in shaping its strategic culture and the implications for China's relations with neighboring countries. Another area of interest is the potential impact of technological advancements, such as artificial intelligence and cyber warfare, on China's strategic culture and military modernization efforts.

Furthermore, the study of the relationship between China's domestic politics and its strategic culture could yield valuable insights, particularly in light of the growing influence of the CCP under Xi Jinping. Finally, exploring the role of strategic culture in the decision-making processes of other major powers, such as the United States, Russia, and India, could contribute to a broader understanding of the interplay between strategic culture and international relations in an increasingly interconnected world.

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Perceptions of Secondary School Administrators on Self-Confidence and Self-Efficacy

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INTRODUCTION

The formation of self-judgments, beliefs, and self-knowledge processes differ from individual to individual. Individual thoughts and behaviors are shaped by individuals' self-judgments and beliefs. In this sense, it is important for individuals to believe in themselves in every activity that they do and to be aware of their own strengths and capacity. Self-confidence and self-efficacy are interrelated concepts. The concept of self-confidence was also conceptualized as self-efficacy by Bandura (1977), and Vealey (1986) defined self-efficacy as a situation-specific form of self-confidence; for example, it is explained as the individual's academic self-confidence while experiencing a high level of anxiety in terms of expressing himself in social environments (Akın, 2007).

The basis of the concept of self-efficacy is self-awareness, knowing one's own limits or what one can do (Baltacı, 2020). Bandura (1997) states that individual performance experiences, effect of success or failure of other people on the individual which can also be called indirect experiences, the attributions made to the individual by the people around him/her about success, and psychological state of the person are important factors in the formation of an individual's perception of self-efficacy.

According to Bandura (1997), an individual's self-efficacy level affects his/her personal judgment of what s/he can do, his/her effort towards a goal, his/her struggle, his/her quit-continuation state, his/her perspective on success, his/her motivation, his/her belief that s/he will succeed, and his/her ability to perform efficiently. Perception of self-efficacy is a determinant on level of dedication to goals, efforts to reach goals, reactions to rejection and frustration (Maddux & Kleiman, 2018) and solving problems encountered in daily life more effectively (Champoux, 2016). In the study conducted by Schunk (1991), it was stated that individuals with high self-efficacy perceptions spend more effort in facing problems.

Individuals with high self-confidence and self-efficacy learn from their successes and care about the problems they encounter, do not give up in the face of difficulties, criticize themselves objectively and see their shortcomings, and take pleasure in the criticism of others in order to improve themselves (Scott & Davis, 2015; Pajares & Schunk, 2001). According to Akın (2007), self-efficacy expectations determine the individual's behavioral decisions, activity choices, and the quality and quantity of effort; on the other hand, the more often the actions of the individual are successful, the higher the level of self-confidence and, in parallel, the stronger the ability to cope with difficulties; in low self-confidence, the individual becomes more

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emotionally dependent on others and avoids acting independently and making decisions individually.

In the literature, self-confidence is defined as the belief that an individual will successfully perform a certain activity, while self-efficacy is a concept related to what individuals can do within the framework of their capacity and abilities. Therefore, self-confidence and self-efficacy are concepts that complement each other. It can be said that it is a process that is completed by individuals having the ability to achieve anything and have the self-confidence to achieve it. It is important both for their own lives and for society to experience conscious awareness in terms of their competence and self-confidence in the secondary school period, when individuals experience the transition period from childhood to adolescence, and with an exam at the end of the secondary school period, which will require them to take important decisions about their lives and lead them. In order for the students attending secondary school to experience this conscious awareness, it is important that the administrators who manage our secondary schools be role models with the awareness they experience in their own self. Indeed, according to Baltacı (2020), self-efficacy requires to have the ability to learn from past successes and failures, be aware of the knowledge, behavior and experience that can achieve organizational goals, to have the determination to direct the organization in accordance with its goals, to be aware of the skills to be used in crisis situations, developed social relationship strength and social interaction skills, competence to operate new policies and strategies for production, to have an ethical and fair management approach, to be aware of internal processes such as the desire for success, self-confidence, self-esteem and resilience for administrators.

In this sense, it is extremely important for education administrators to be aware of their self-confidence and self-efficacy levels and to use this awareness to improve themselves, both for their own development and for the development of their institutions. When the literature is examined, it is thought that the results of this study will contribute to the literature, because the studies on self-confidence and self-efficacy with students and teachers are in the majority. So, the aim of this research is to examine the relationship between the self-confidence and self-efficacy perceptions of administrators working in public secondary schools in Bursa.

METHOD

The research is a survey model designed with descriptive and quantitative research model. Survey models aim to describe a past or present situation as it is (Karasar, 1999). In this research, it is aimed to reveal the self-confidence and self-efficacy perceptions of the administrators working in the public secondary schools in Bursa.

Research Sample

The research sample consists of 132 administrators working in 417 public secondary schools in Bursa, according to the MEB 2021-2022 statistics. Simple random sampling method, which is one of the non-probability sampling methods, was used in the selection of the sample and was based on voluntariness.

Data Collection Tools

Personal Information Form prepared by the researchers, Self-Efficacy Scale developed by Baltacı (2020) and Self-Confidence Scale developed by Akın (2007) were used as data collection tools in the research. The Self-Efficacy Scale consists of 5 sub-dimensions and 20 items, including social, psychological, ethical, economic and managerial efficacy, and a 5-point Likert-type rating was used in the scale. In the validity-reliability study of the scale, the reliability coefficients were found between .75 and .83. In this study, the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient was calculated as .91. The Self-Confidence Scale consists of 2 sub-dimensions as

internal self-confidence and external self-confidence, and 33 items. 5-point Likert-type rating was used in the scale. The reliability coefficients of the scale were found between .87 and .97. In this study, the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient was calculated as .94. There is no reverse scored item in the scale. A high score from the scale indicates a high level of self-confidence (Akın, 2007). Similarly, a high score from the other scale indicates a high level of self-efficacy. When the averages are considered, scores between 1-2.5 indicate low, scores between 2.5-3.5 indicate medium and scores between 3.5-5 indicate high levels. The findings were interpreted accordingly.

Data Collection and Data Analysis

First of all , in order to be used in the study, necessary permissions were obtained from Baltacı and Akın for the scales and then research permissions were obtained with the approval of Bursa Governorship dated 02.02.2022 and numbered 42580183. Informed consent form was signed by the participants. Research data were collected by the researchers. The data were first processed into the table in the excel program and then analyzed using the SPSS 23 program. First, it was checked whether the data were normally distributed or not. As a result of Kolmogorov Smirnov Test, it was measured as p =.200 (p>.005). When we look at the results of the skewness and kurtosis test, it is seen that the skewness value is -.534, the kurtosis value is .258, and it is in the expected range in the 5% confidence interval (statistical value range ±2.58 for the 5% confidence interval). Since the data showed a normal distribution, the data were analyzed with parametric test statistics. The characteristics of the participants are presented in Table 1.

According to Table 1, 68.2% of the secondary school administrators participating in the research were principals, 31.8% were vice principals, 12.1% were female, 87.9% were male, and 73.5% had undergraduate. 25.8% of them have 1-5 years of management seniority, 15.2% of them have a professional seniority of 26 years or more, and 26.5% of them are 51 years old and over.

Research Ethics

All the rules stated in the "Higher Education Institutions Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Directive" were followed in the entire process from the planning, implementation, data collection to the analysis of the data. None of the actions specified under the second section of the Directive, "Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Actions" have been carried out.

During the writing process of this study, scientific, ethical and citation rules were followed; no falsification was made on the collected data and this study was not sent to any other academic media for evaluation. Informed consent form was signed by the participants.

Research ethics committee approval information

The committee involved in ethics evaluation: ….. University, Research and Publication Ethics Committees, Social and Humanity Sciences Research and Publication Ethics Committee

The date of ethics evaluation: 25 February 2022 The serial number of the document of ethics evaluation: 49591

Table 1 - The Characteristics of the Participants

Duty		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Principal	90	68,2	68,2	68,2
	Vice Principal	42	31,8	31,8	100,0
	Total	132	100,0	100,0	
Gender	Female	16	12,1	12,1	12,1
	Male	116	87,9	87,9	100,0
	Total	132	100,0	100,0	
Branch	Turkish	17	12,9	12,9	12,9
	Maths	10	7,6	7,6	20,5
	Science	12	9,1	9,1	29,5
	Social Studies	21	15,9	15,9	45,5
	English	5	3,8	3,8	49,2
	Religious Culture and Moral Knowledge	26	19,7	19,7	68,9
	Visual Arts-Music	5	3,8	3,8	72,7
	Sports	7	5,3	5,3	78,0
	Technology and Design	8	6,1	6,1	84,1
	Information Technologies	7	5,3	5,3	89,4
	Other	14	10,6	10,6	100,0
	Total	132	100,0	100,0	
Educational Status	Undergraduate	97	73,5	73,5	73,5
	Master in Ed. Ad.	22	16,7	16,7	90,2
	Master in other sciences	13	9,8	9,8	100,0
	Total	132	100,0	100,0	
Managerial Seniority	1-5	34	25,8	25,8	25,8
	6-10	49	37,1	37,1	62,9
	11-15	23	17,4	17,4	80,3
	16-20	12	9,1	9,1	89,4
	21-25	6	4,5	4,5	93,9
	26 years and over	8	6,1	6,1	100,0
	Total	132	100,0	100,0	
Professional Seniority	6-10	2	1,5	1,5	1,5
	11-15	14	10,6	10,6	12,1
	16-20	26	19,7	19,7	31,8
	21-25	36	27,3	27,3	59,1
	26 years and over	20	15,2	15,2	74,2
	Total	34	25,8	25,8	100,0
Age	26-30	4	3,0	3,0	3,0
	31-35	15	11,4	11,4	14,4
	36-40	25	18,9	18,9	33,3
	41-45	38	28,8	28,8	62,1
	46-50	15	11,4	11,4	73,5
	51 years old and over	35	26,5	26,5	100,0
	Total	132	100,0	100,0	

FINDINGS

The findings regarding the views of the administrators on self-confidence and self-efficacy are given in Table 2.

Table 2 - Administrators' Views on Self-Confidence and Self-Efficacy

Variables	N	$\bar{X}$	ss	Minimum	Maximum	Level
Self-Confidence	132	4.19	14.62	90.00	165.00	High level
1. Internal Self-Confidence	132	4.21	7.97	41.00	85.00	High level
2. External Self-Confidence	132	4.17	7.64	46.00	80.00	High level
Self-Efficacy	132	4.43	7.03	71.00	100.00	High level
1. Managerial	132	4.47	1.68	12.00	20.00	High level
2. Social	132	4.41	1.68	13.00	20.00	High level
3. Political	132	4.29	1.81	10.00	20.00	High level
4. Ethical	132	4.65	1.43	15.00	20.00	High level
5. Economical	132	4.32	1.72	12.00	20.00	High level

According to Table 2, when the findings on the views of the administrators about self-confidence and self-efficacy are examined, the perceptions of the administrators on the self-confidence are high and the average value is $\bar{X}$ = 4.19, the perceptions of administrators on the self-efficacy are also high and the average value is $\bar{x}$ = 4.43. The perceptions of the administrators on the sub-dimensions of the self-confidence as internal self confidence ($\bar{X}$ = 4.21) and external self-confidence ($\bar{X}$ = 4.17) are high and also perceptions of the administrators on the sub-dimensions of the self-efficacy as managerial ($\bar{x}$ = 4.47), social ($\bar{x}$ = 4.41), political ($\bar{X}$ = 4.29), ethical ($\bar{X}$ = 4.65) and economic ($\bar{X}$ = 4.32) are high. It can be said that the fact that the perceptions of the administrators are higher than other dimensions in ethical self-efficacy stems from the fact that administrators think that they are more sufficient than other dimensions in terms of ethics. On the other hand, it is noteworthy that the perceptions of the administrators related to political and economic self-efficiency are lower than other dimensions. The t-test results of the administrators' views on self-confidence and self-efficacy according to gender are given in Table 3.

Table 3 - The t-test Results of the Administrators' Views on Self-Confidence and Self-Efficacy due to Gender

Variables	Gender	N	$\bar{x}$	ss	df	t	p
Self-Confidence	Female	16	4.58	9.72	130	2.433	.016*
	Male	116	4.29	14.85			
1. Internal Self-Confidence	Female	16	4.45	5.81	130	2.169	.032*
	Male	116	4.18	8.09			
2. External Self-Confidence	Female	16	4.43	4.96	130	2.379	.019*
	Male	116	4.13	7.78			
Self-Efficacy	Female	16	4.59	6.59	130	2.056	.042*
	Male	116	4.40	6.98			
1. Managerial	Female	16	4.65	1.75	130	1.932	.056
	Male	116	4.44	1.65			
2. Social	Female	16	4.59	1.78	130	1.912	.058
	Male	116	4.38	1.65			
3. Political	Female	16	4.44	1.39	130	1.362	.176
	Male	116	4.27	1.85			
4. Ethical	Female	16	4.81	1.18	130	2.004	.047*
	Male	116	4.62	1.45			
5. Economical	Female	16	4.47	1.89	130	1.496	.137
	Male	116	4.30	1.69			

According to Table 3, perceptions of administrators on self-confidence [t (130)= 2.433, p<.05] and internal self-confidence [t (130)= 2.169, p<.05] and external self-confidence [t (130)= 2.379, p<.05] as sub-dimension of self-confidence differ statistically significantly according to gender. Female administrators' perceptions on self-confidence ($\bar{X}$ = 4.58), internal self-confidence ($\bar{X}$ = 4.45) and external self-confidence ($\bar{X}$ = 4.43) are higher than male administrators ($\bar{X}$ = 4.29, $\bar{X}$ = 4.18, $\bar{X}$ = 4.13). Perceptions of administrators on self-efficacy [t (130) = 2.056, p<.05] and ethical self-efficacy [t (130) = 2. 004, p<.05] as sub-dimension of self-efficacy differ statistically significantly according to gender. Female administrators' perceptions on self-efficacy ($\bar{X}$ = 4.59) and ethical self-efficacy ($\bar{X}$ = 4.81) are higher than male

administrators ($\bar{X}$ = 4.40, $\bar{X}$ = 4.62). Perceptions of administrators on managerial self-efficacy [t (130)= 1.932, p>.05], social self-efficacy [t (130)= 1.912, p>.05], political self-efficacy [t (130)= 1.362, p>.05] and economical self-efficacy [t (130)= 1.496, p>.05] do not differ statistically significantly according to gender. The t-test results of the administrators' views on self-confidence and self-efficacy according to duty are given in Table 4.

Table 4 - The t-test Results of the Administrators' Views on Self-Confidence and Self-Efficacy due to Duty

Variables	Duty	N	$\bar{x}$	ss	df	t	p
Self-Confidence	Principal	90	4.18	13.95	130	-.511	.610
	Vice Principal	42	4.22	16.09			
1. Internal Self-Confidence	Principal	90	4.21	7.57	130	-.084	.933
	Vice Principal	42	4.22	8.86			
2. External Self-Confidence	Principal	90	4.15	7.36	130	-.892	.374
	Vice Principal	42	4.23	8.24			
Self-Efficacy	Principal	90	4.43	6.45	130	.431	.667
	Vice Principal	42	4.41	8.19			
1. Managerial	Principal	90	4.46	1.48	130	-.377	.706
	Vice Principal	42	4.49	2.07			
2. Social	Principal	90	4.41	1.51	130	.267	.790
	Vice Principal	42	4.39	2.01			
3. Political	Principal	90	4.32	1.72	130	.858	.392
	Vice Principal	42	4.24	1.99			
4. Ethical	Principal	90	4.64	1.46	130	-.324	.746
	Vice Principal	42	4.66	1.19			
5. Economical	Principal	90	4.35	1.63	130	1.243	.216
	Vice Principal	42	4.25	1.91			

According to Table 4, perceptions of administrators on self-confidence [t (130) = -.511, p>.05] and internal self-confidence [t (130) = -.084, p>.05] and external self-confidence [t (130) = -.892, p>.05] as sub-dimension of self-confidence do not differ statistically significantly according to duty. Perceptions of administrators on self-efficacy [t (130) = .431, p>.05], managerial self-efficacy [t (130)= -.377, p>.05], social self-efficacy [t (130)= .267, p>.05], political self-efficacy [t (130)= .858, p>.05],], ethical self-efficacy [t (130)= -.324, p>.05], and economical [t (130)= 1.243, p>.05] do not differ statistically significantly according to duty. The ANOVA results of the administrators' views on self-confidence and self-efficacy due to professional seniority are given in Table 5.

Table 5- The ANOVA Results of the Administrators' Views on Self-Confidence and Self-Efficacy according to Professional Seniority

Variables	Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	p	Difference
Self-Confidence	Between Groups	746.911	5	149.382	.691	.631	-
	Within Groups	27242.150	126	216.208			
	Total	27989.061	131				
1. Internal Self-Confidence	Between Groups	201.600	5	40.320	.625	.681	-
	Within Groups	8123.211	126	64.470			
	Total	8324.811	131				
2. External Self-Confidence	Between Groups	232.220	5	46.444	.788	.560	-
	Within Groups	7422.530	126	58.909			
	Total	7654.750	131				
Self-Efficacy	Between Groups	162.902	5	32.580	.651	.661	-
	Within Groups	6303.977	126	50.032			
	Total	6466.879	131				
1. Managerial	Between Groups	10.275	5	2.055	.718	.611	-
	Within Groups	360.536	126	2.861			
	Total	370.811	131				
2. Social	Between Groups	10.886	5	2.177	.762	.579	-

	Within Groups	359.924	126	2.857			
	Total	370.811	131				
3. Political	Between Groups	24.012	5	4.802			
	Within Groups	404.980	126	3.214	1.494	.196	-
	Total	428.992	131				
4. Ethical	Between Groups	5.766	5	1.153			
	Within Groups	264.317	126	2.098	.550	.738	-
	Total	270.083	131				
5. Economical	Between Groups	9.566	5	1.913			
	Within Groups	380.616	126	3.021	.633	.675	-
	Total	390.182	131				

*p<.05

According to Table 5, perceptions of administrators on self-confidence [$F_{(5,126)}$=.691, p>.05] and internal self-confidence [$F_{(5,126)}$=.625, p>.05] and external self-confidence [$F_{(5,126)}$=.788, p>.05] as sub-dimension of self-confidence do not differ statistically significantly due to professional seniority. Perceptions of administrators on self-efficacy [$F_{(5,126)}$=.651, p>.05], managerial self-efficacy [$F_{(5,126)}$=.718, p>.05], social self-efficacy [$F_{(5,126)}$=.762, p>.05], political self-efficacy [$F_{(5,126)}$=1.494, p>.05],], ethical self-efficacy [$F_{(5,126)}$=.550, p>.05], and economical [$F_{(5,126)}$=.622, p>.05] do not differ statistically significantly according to professional seniority. The ANOVA results of the administrators' views on self-confidence and self-efficacy according to managerial seniority are presented in Table 6.

Table 6 - The ANOVA Results of the Administrators' Views on Self-Confidence and Self-Efficacy according to Managerial Seniority

Variables	Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	p	Difference
Self-Confidence	Between Groups	665.791	5	133.158	.614	.689	-
	Within Groups	27323.270	126	216.851			
	Total	27989.061	131				
1. Internal Self-Confidence	Between Groups	242.802	5	48.560	.757	.582	-
	Within Groups	8082.009	126	64.143			
	Total	8324.811	131				
2. External Self-Confidence	Between Groups	146.403	5	29.281	.491	.782	-
	Within Groups	7508.347	126	59.590			
	Total	7654.750	131				
Self-Efficacy	Between Groups	226.159	5	45.232	.913	.475	-
	Within Groups	6240.720	126	49.530			
	Total	6466.879	131				
1. Managerial	Between Groups	17.678	5	3.536	1.262	.285	-
	Within Groups	353.132	126	2.803			
	Total	370.811	131				
2. Social	Between Groups	12.323	5	2.465	.866	.506	-
	Within Groups	358.487	126	2.845			
	Total	370.811	131				
3. Political	Between Groups	24.056	5	4.811	1.497	.195	-
	Within Groups	404.937	126	3.214			
	Total	428.992	131				
4. Ethical	Between Groups	6.668	5	1.334	.638	.671	-
	Within Groups	263.415	126	2.091			
	Total	270.083	131				

5. Economical	Between Groups	14.259	5	2.852	.956	.448	-
	Within Groups	375.923	126	2.984			
	Total	390.182	131				

*p<.05

According to Table 6, perceptions of administrators on self-confidence [$F_{(5,126)}$=. 614, p>.05] and internal self-confidence [$F_{(5,126)}$=. 757, p>.05] and external self-confidence [$F_{(5,126)}$=. 491, p>.05] as sub-dimension of self-confidence do not differ statistically significantly according to managerial seniority. Perceptions of administrators on self-efficacy [$F_{(5,126)}$=. 913, p>.05], managerial self-efficacy [$F_{(5,126)}$= 1.262, p>.05], social self-efficacy [$F_{(5,126)}$=. 866, p>.05], political self-efficacy [$F_{(5,126)}$=1.497, p>.05],], ethical self-efficacy [$F_{(5,126)}$=.638, p>.05], and economical [$F_{(5,126)}$=.956, p>.05] do not differ statistically significantly due to managerial seniority. The ANOVA results of the administrators' views on self-confidence and self-efficacy due to educational status are presented in Table 7.

Table 7 - The ANOVA Results of the Administrators' Views on Self-Confidence and Self-Efficacy according to Educational Status

Variables	Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	p	Difference
Self-Confidence	Between Groups	206.238	2	103.119	.479	.621	-
	Within Groups	27782.822	129	215.371			
	Total	27989.061	131				
1. Internal Self-Confidence	Between Groups	85.908	2	42.954	.673	.512	-
	Within Groups	8238.902	129	63.867			
	Total	8324.811	131				
2. External Self-Confidence	Between Groups	35.474	2	17.737	.300	.741	-
	Within Groups	7619.276	129	59.064			
	Total	7654.750	131				
Self-Efficacy	Between Groups	101.256	2	50.628	1.026	.361	-
	Within Groups	6365.623	129	49.346			
	Total	6466.879	131				
1. Managerial	Between Groups	5.056	2	2.528	.892	.412	-
	Within Groups	365.754	129	2.835			
	Total	370.811	131				
2. Social	Between Groups	5.996	2	2.998	1.060	.349	-
	Within Groups	364.814	129	2.828			
	Total	370.811	131				
3. Political	Between Groups	6.899	2	3.449	1.054	.351	-
	Within Groups	422.094	129	3.272			
	Total	428.992	131				
4. Ethical	Between Groups	3.573	2	1.787	.865	.424	-
	Within Groups	266.510	129	2.066			
	Total	270.083	131				
5. Economical	Between Groups	12.141	2	6.070	2.071	.130	-
	Within Groups	378.041	129	2.931			
	Total	390.182	131				

*p<.05

According to Table 7, perceptions of administrators on self-confidence [$F_{(2,129)}$=.479, p>.05] and internal self-confidence [$F_{(2,129)}$=.673, p>.05] and external self-confidence [$F_{(2,129)}$=.300, p>.05] as sub-dimension of self-confidence do not differ statistically significantly according to educational status. Perceptions of administrators on self-efficacy [$F_{(2,129)}$=1.026, p>.05], managerial self-efficacy [$F_{(2,129)}$=.892, p>.05], social self-efficacy [$F_{(2,129)}$=1.060, p>.05], political self-efficacy [$F_{(2,129)}$=1.054, p>.05],], ethical self-efficacy [$F_{(2,129)}$=.865, p>.05], and economical [$F_{(2,129)}$=2.071, p>.05] do not differ statistically significantly due to educational status. The ANOVA results of the administrators' views on self-confidence and self-efficacy due to age are given in Table 8.

Table 8- The ANOVA Results of the Administrators' Views on Self-Confidence and Self-Efficacy due to age

Variables	Source of Variance	Source of Variance	df	Mean Squares	F	p	Difference
Self-Confidence	B. Groups	1862.262	5	372.452	1.796	.118	-
	W. Groups	26126.799	126	207.356			
	Total	27989.061	131				
1. Internal Self-Confidence	B. Groups	362.722	5	72.544	1.148	.339	-
	W. Groups	7962.089	126	63.191			
	Total	8324.811	131				
2. External Self-Confidence	B. Groups	647.382	5	129.476	2.328	.056	-
	W. Groups	7007,368	126	55.614			
	Total	7654,750	131				
Self-Efficacy	B. Groups	232.787	5	46.557	.941	.457	-
	W. Groups	6234.092	126	49.477			
	Total	6466.879	131				
1. Managerial	B. Groups	23.495	5	4.699	1.705	.138	-
	W. Groups	347.315	126	2.756			
	Total	370.811	131				
2. Social	B. Groups	12.818	5	2.564	.902	.482	-
	W. Groups	357.993	126	2.841			
	Total	370.811	131				
3. Political	B. Groups	12.338	5	2.468	.746	.590	-
	W. Groups	416.654	126	3.307			
	Total	428.992	131				
4. Ethical	B. Groups	7.953	5	1.591	.765	.577	-
	W. Groups	262.130	126	2.080			
	Total	270.083	131				
5. Economical	B. Groups	11.055	5	2.211	.735	.599	-
	W. Groups	379.127	126	3.009			
	Total	390.182	131				

*p<.05

According to Table 8, perceptions of administrators on self-confidence [$F_{(5,126)}$=1.796, p>.05] and internal self-confidence [$F_{(5,126)}$=1.148, p>.05] and external self-confidence [$F_{(5,126)}$=2.328, p>.05] as sub-dimension of self-confidence do not differ statistically significantly according to age. Perceptions of administrators on self-efficacy [$F_{(5,126)}$=.941, p>.05], managerial self-efficacy [$F_{(5,126)}$=1.705, p>.05], social self-efficacy [$F_{(5,126)}$=.902, p>.05], political self-efficacy [$F_{(5,126)}$=.746, p>.05],], ethical self-efficacy [$F_{(5,126)}$=.765, p>.05], and economical [$F_{(5,126)}$=.735, p>.05] do not differ statistically significantly according to age. The ANOVA results of the administrators' views on self-confidence and self-efficacy due to branch are given in Table 9.

Table 9 - The ANOVA Results of the Administrators' Views on Self-Confidence and Self-Efficacy according to Branch

Variables	Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	p	Difference
Self-Confidence	B. Groups	3335.490	10	333.549	1.637	.104	-
	W. Groups	24653.571	121	203.749			
	Total	27989.061	131				
1. Internal Self-Confidence	B. Groups	837.267	10	83.727	1.353	.210	-
	W. Groups	7487.544	121	61.881			
	Total	8324.811	131				
2. External Self-Confidence	B. Groups	1018.344	10	101.834	1.857	.058	-
	W. Groups	6636.406	121	54.846			
	Total	7654.750	131				
Self-Efficacy	B. Groups	511.113	10	51.111	1.038	.416	-
	W. Groups	5955.765	121	49.221			

	Total	6466.879	131				
1. Managerial	B. Groups	53.785	10	5.379	2.053	.054	-
	W. Groups	317.025	121	2.620			
	Total	370.811	131				
2. Social	B. Groups	28.619	10	2.862	1.012	.437	-
	W. Groups	342.192	121	2.828			
	Total	370.811	131				
3. Political	B. Groups	18.470	10	1.847	.544	.855	-
	W. Groups	410.523	121	3.393			
	Total	428.992	131				
4. Ethical	B. Groups	16.731	10	1.673	.799	.630	-
	W. Groups	253.352	121	2.094			
	Total	270.083	131				
5. Economical	B. Groups	22.673	10	2.267	.746	.679	-
	W. Groups	367.509	121	3.037			
	Total	390.182	131				

*p<.05

According to Table 9, perceptions of administrators on self-confidence [$F_{(10,121)}$=1.637, p>.05] and internal self-confidence [$F_{(10,121)}$=1.353, p>.05] and external self-confidence [$F_{(10,121)}$=1.857, p>.05] as sub-dimension of self-confidence do not differ statistically significantly according to branch. Perceptions of administrators on self-efficacy [$F_{(10,121)}$=1.038, p>.05], managerial self-efficacy [$F_{(10,121)}$=2.053, p>.05], social self-efficacy [$F_{(10,121)}$=1.012, p>.05], political self-efficacy [$F_{(10,121)}$=.544, p>.05],], ethical self-efficacy [$F_{(10,121)}$=.799, p>.05], and economical [$F_{(10,121)}$=.746, p>.05] do not differ statistically significantly according to branch. Correlation analysis results of the administrators' views on self-confidence and self-efficacy are given in Table 10.

Table 10 - The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient Analysis Results of the Administrators' Views on Self-Confidence and Self-Efficacy

Variables		Self-Confidence	Self-Efficacy
Self-Confidence	Pearson Correlation	1	.689**
	p		.000
	N	132	132
Self-Efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.689**	1
	p	.000	
	N	132	132

p<.01

According to Table 10, there is a moderate positive relationship between self-confidence and self-efficacy (r = .689, p <.01). It can be said that the perceptions of self-efficacy increases as self-confidence increases.

DISCUSSION AND RESULTS

The results of the research based on the findings of the research conducted with the participation of 132 administrators working in public secondary schools in Bursa in order to examine the relationship between managers' self-confidence and self-efficacy perceptions are as follows.

When the findings of the administrators' views on self-confidence and self-efficacy were examined, it was seen that the perceptions of the administrators regarding self-confidence and self-efficacy and the sub-dimensions were high. The perceptions of administrators are higher than other dimensions in ethical self-efficacy. In this regard, administrators see themselves more sufficient on ethical self-efficacy than other dimensions. On the other hand, it is noteworthy that the perceptions of the administrators related to political and economic self-efficacy are lower than other dimensions. It was concluded that there was a moderate positive

relationship between self-confidence and self-efficacy, and as the self-confidence of the administrators increased, the perceptions of self-efficacy increased.

It is seen that the perceptions of the administrators' perceptions of self-confidence and internal and external self-confidence which are sub-dimensions of self-confidence differ significantly due to gender. It has been seen that female administrators' perceptions of self-confidence, internal and external self-confidence are higher than male administrators. However, in the study conducted by Okyay (2012), it was found that the views of the administrators on self-confidence and on the sub-dimensions of self-confidence did not differ due to gender.

Furthermore, perceptions of the administrators on self-efficacy and ethical self-efficacy differ statistically significantly due to gender. It has been seen that female administrators' perceptions on self-efficacy and ethical self-efficacy are higher than male administrators. It has been seen that the perceptions of the administrators on managerial, social, political and economical self-efficiency did not differ significantly according to gender.

Furthermore, perceptions of the administrators on the self-confidence, self-efficacy and sub-dimensions do not differ significantly according to the task, professional seniority, managerial seniority, age, branch and educational status. In the study conducted by Gül (2018), which supports this research, it was found that views of school administrators on self-confidence and sub-dimensions of self-confidence did not differ due to gender, branch, task, managerial seniority, school type and age variables.

All in all, we recommend that administrators should be aware of their self-confidence and self-efficacy, and to receive individual support or group education that will make it easier for them to develop awareness in this regard. Another research can be designed for the views of administrators, teachers and students on self-safety and self-efficacy and the dynamics between these groups of participants can be examined.

Limitations of the Study

This research is limited to the views of the administrators working in public secondary schools in Bursa in the 2021-2022 academic year.

Acknowledgement and Support

As the authors, we do not have any acknowledgment or support for the process of conducting the research.

Statement of Contribution Rate

The authors of the study contributed equally to all processes of the study.

Declaration of Conflict of Interest

As the authors of the study, we declare that we do not have any declaration of interest/conflict.

Statement of Publication Ethics

All the rules stated in the "Higher Education Institutions Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Directive" were followed in the entire process from the planning, implementation, data collection to the analysis of the data. None of the actions specified under the second section of the Directive, "Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Actions" have been carried out.

During the writing process of this study, scientific, ethical and citation rules were followed; no falsification was made on the collected data and this study was not sent to any other academic media for evaluation. Informed consent form was signed by the participants.

Research ethics committee approval information

The committee involved in ethics evaluation: Bursa Uludağ University, Reseach and Publication Ethics Committees, Social and Humanity Sciences Research and Publication Ethics Committee

The date of ethics evaluation: 25 February 2022

The serial number of the document of ethics evaluation: 49591

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Control And Socıal Self-Efficacy: As A Copıng Mechanısm

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Introduction

Stress, in the cognitive sense, is a process requiring the appraisal of cognitive schemes considering the difference between the stimulant and status to be reached on the side of psychological balance (Robinson, Garber & Hilsman, 1995). Stress covers behavioral, emotional, and cognitive elements, and it is a type of stimulus preparing the effects requiring such responses (Baltaş & Baltaş, 1997).

It is referred to as eight periods that are operated by the stimulant effect of stress and that develop with respect to the status: (1) the effect of another person, internal and external stimulus/stimuli, fearsome object or emotion, (2) the perceptions with respect to the reaction and defense affecting by personal choices and efforts, (3) the operational characterization of the stimulus, and the perception of it with its different aspects, (4) the estimation of possible outcomes through experiences without changing the past interpretations, and the process formation of other primary cognitive contents, (5) changes in interpretations, effort for getting more information, endeavoring, effort to use the potential cognitive efforts with all their aspects, (6) inclusion of emotional responses and activations in the process, (7) behavioral efforts, tendencies for the control and complete management of stressing effects, and exhibition of direct behaviors, and (8) appraisal of cognitive feedbacks. The ability to continuously use these steps in different stress statuses determines the content that will fictionalize the perception of the stressor and the development of effects, the exposure of the individual, and the skills of managing such effects (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984). When we experience stress, our bodies respond with a cascade of physiological changes, including increased heart rate, blood pressure, and stress hormones like cortisol. While this response can be helpful in short-term situations, chronic stress can take a toll on our bodies and minds.

Some of the physical health problems that can be linked to chronic stress include cardiovascular disease, high blood pressure, digestive issues, immune system dysfunction, and even chronic pain. In terms of psychological well-being, chronic stress can contribute to anxiety disorders, depression, and other mental health conditions. Statistics on the impact of stress on health and well-being are difficult to pin down, as stress is a complex and multifaceted issue that can manifest in different ways for different individuals. However, research suggests that stress is a common problem in many societies, with significant implications for public health. For example, one study estimated that workplace stress costs U.S. employers up to $190 billion in healthcare expenses each year. The World Health Organization (WHO) recognizes the impact of stress on health and well-being. In a 2019 report, the WHO stated that "stress can be a major determinant of health and well-being, affecting physical and mental health, and it is now widely recognized that chronic stress is a risk factor for non-communicable diseases." The report goes on to note that "stress can be effectively managed, both at the individual and population levels," highlighting the importance of addressing stress in public health efforts. The WHO recommends a range of strategies for managing stress, including relaxation techniques,

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cognitive-behavioral therapy, and addressing the root causes of stress in social and environmental factors.

Level of Stress and Its Characteristics of Affecting Coping Choices

Three statuses determining the reflections of stress with respect to the individual prepare the suggestion of ability or inability to control the effects regarding the stressor: (1) threatening factor and its level; (2) continuity of threat; and (3) state of whether the source of threat is distinct, accessible, and changeable or not. In general, the excessiveness and strength of the level of threat constitute more urgent and distinct cognitive appraisal processes, but the continuity of such a high effect blunts the selectivity of the alarm reactions of GAS (General Adaptation Syndrome) against significant stimuli, and the uncertainty increases. Thus, the ability to think of alternatives, to make comparisons, and to select coping activities becomes harder (Zimbardo, 1985).

The stress level perceived by the individuals enables the coping preference to be determined as emotion-focused or problem-focused. In brief, the factor determining the reaction of struggle or escape is the low or high stress level as per the personal coping source. The statuses that require high levels of emotional and cognitive effort make it difficult to reach a conclusion. Deeming the ability to take coping and negative effects under control is very difficult, and the inability to make use of the personal and social supports may develop tendencies of emotional and defensive behavior that will generate the change of the individual, not the problem, even if it is ultimately adaptive. If the individual deems the level of threat high and is unable to find the personal factors and social supports that will balance it, the possibility of making use of emotion-focused coping choices increases in a general sense (D'Zurilla & Chang, 1995). If the person believes that he will be able to control the level of threat in the sense that he will be able to solve his problems through physical, cognitive, and adaptive behavior efforts, he doesn't feel the requirement to exhibit avoidance-type behaviors (Holahan & Moos, 1985).

The ability to use sociality and personal potentials against life stress through alternative choices has undertaken buffer tasks that will preserve mental health. Such support, which meets the psychological needs in the beginning and that ensures durability against stress in an emotional sense, operates in time as environed also with getting the concrete assistance, being organized, and using the suggestions on his own account, and ensures to continuously test at each level the solutions that may be developed as per the stress level (Hamilton, Hoffman & Broman, 1993). The WHO has recognized the impact of stress on health and well-being and has issued a statement on this subject. According to the WHO, "Stress can cause physical illness as well as mental or emotional problems. It is important to recognize the signs and symptoms of stress and to take steps to manage it." The organization emphasizes the importance of addressing stress through a combination of individual-level and organizational-level interventions, such as promoting healthy lifestyle habits, providing social support, and implementing workplace policies that promote work-life balance.

Coping

Folkman & Lazarus (1984, p. 84) define coping as "continuously changing cognitive and behavioral efforts for overcoming the specific internal and external demands that the individual considers to exceed his own resources". Coping is built through cognitive restructuring and self-learning (development) for easing the individual. As pointed out by Bandura in his theory of social learning, coping is a product of the interaction process between personality and status just like our other behaviors. Basically, coping is the phenomenal opposition link between the stressor status and the person, and it is the general appraisal and distinct struggle efforts regarding the statuses causing anxiety (Smith, 1989).

Coping is a set of cognitive, behavioral, and emotional choices that are best characterized in the direction of useful and personal objectives based on the individual and his surroundings, and that is relevant to organizing the personal effects (internal) and changing the personal surroundings (external) through the dynamics it has. Personal differences and factors depending on the status of stress reveal the causalities adjusting the relationship between the person and the environment and the interaction manner of stress and coping, and they make the consequence of coping distinct (Lennon et al., 1990).

In general terms, coping covers the proper behavioral approaches that the person will use for attaining the consequence in which he will feel well in a psychological sense, or the proper avoidance behaviors that will prevent the person from feeling bad (Valentiner, Holahan & Moos, 1994).

As the psychoanalytical approach extensively uses the definition of "defense against threat", it also provides a limited field of explanation for cognitive responses. Such approaches address coping as reactions of avoidance from effects that compels and harm the person and as specific defense reactions regarding the same. Coping covers behaviors that include the elimination or mitigation of stress or stressing statuses through explicit or implicit behaviors (Fleishman, 1984).

Coping is evaluated as being subjected to a personal knowledge process. Accordingly, the status of the threat is analyzed by the person and interpreted according to himself. In this sense, coping is a cognitive process. Coping behavior is actualized under two constructs: In the first construct, the person tries to actively do something against the stressing status, and in the second construct, the person addresses the status in an emotional manner and resorts to mitigating the threat degree of the source of stress in a passive manner. Findings from various researches require addressing and searching coping as a personality dimension due to its construct. In the literature on stress and coping, the concept of coping is addressed as a different strategy and approach model rather than a single dimension variable, and it is emphasized that it is required to understand how the person copes rather than his level of coping (Coyne, Aldwin & Lazarus, 1981). Improving our sense of control and social self-efficacy can be beneficial for improving our coping skills. A sense of control refers to the belief that we have the ability to influence the incidents and outcomes in our lives. Social self-efficacy, on the other hand, refers to our belief in our ability to effectively navigate social situations.

When we have a stronger sense of control and social self-efficacy, we may feel more confident in our ability to manage difficult situations and cope with stress. We may be more likely to take proactive steps to manage stressors, such as seeking social support, engaging in problem-solving, or using relaxation techniques.

Proactive coping skills are strategies that we can use to anticipate and prepare for future stressors. These skills are related to our sense of control because they involve taking action to manage stressful situations rather than simply reacting to them. When we use proactive coping strategies, we may feel more empowered and in control, which can help to reduce our stress levels.

Overall, improving our sense of control and social self-efficacy can be an important part of developing effective coping skills. By building our confidence and sense of agency, we may be better able to manage stressors and handle difficult situations with greater ease.

Types of Coping

Coping with stress is grouped into two main groups as a general trend. The first type of coping covers problem-focused (active) strategies that involve dealing with stress directly, and here, cognitive activities are used for solving the problem in a realistic manner. It is focused on the problem, and responses regarding a possible solution are constructed. The second type

of coping involves resorting to adjustment in emotions regarding the stressor status instead of seeking a change (emotion-focused coping). While the construct is actualized with emotional choices, the consequence of coping that may be attained is often in the direction of mitigating or changing the effects of stress.

Folkman & Lazarus (1980) searched for what people use as coping strategies for each status of stress based on the indications observed in people experiencing stress, and four general strategies were determined. These are: (1) efforts for changing the status; (2) efforts for gathering the information intended for managing the status; (3) accepting the incident; and (4) acting as if trying to estimate what the others expect. The first two cover the active form, namely, the problem-focused coping approach, and the other two cover the passive form (choice of emotion-focused coping), namely, the will of the person to withdraw only from the status disturbing himself. Coping is drawn up as (a) responses given for changing the status, (b) rating the stress and in a cognitive construct, building the response conforming to this, and (c) attempts to be able to take under control the negative emotions caused by stress. Cognitive reconstruction refers to the reappraisal and change of the meaning of internal and external effects in the cognitive sense. They propose that it is an organization for active struggle and opposition.

Emotion-Focused Coping

As generally accepted in literature, emotion-focused coping covers issues such as strategies for mitigating and minimizing the threat status, avoidance, simplification, dealing with only one aspect of the problem, making positive comparisons, and trying to deem the negative statuses only with their aspects that may be positive by transforming the cognitive processes regarding the stressing statuses directly to emotional choices. Emotion-focused coping covers issues such as ignoring the problem, feeling the power of personal control inadequate, seeking social support, escape and avoidance, accepting the status, and positive cognitive reconstruction. It is frequently used in cases where the status is deemed as uncontrollable. Emotion-focused coping prepares approaches that will keep the individual at ease by trying to deny or keep away from statuses that are hard to control (Burgess & Haaga, 1988). It is specified that it will be proper to address emotion-focused coping under two sub-headings with its aspects of effort in controlling and managing in an emotion-focused manner and avoidance. Escape may be observed with emotional reactions as well as with consequences such as social withdrawal, cigarette consumption, alcohol and drug addiction, excessive food consumption, oversleeping, etc. Emotion-focused avoidance is a tendency that will cause personal damage in the long term, and that will constitute the basis for possible problems.

In addition, emotion-focused coping may provide some positive contributions. By regulating personal appraisal standards, the dominant concepts regarding effective coping are brought to the forefront by emotional tendencies. It is specified that social support obtained through interpersonal relationships presents valid and reasonable relationship content for defining emotion-focused coping choices. The emotional links used while preparing adaptive responses in both men and women increase the perception of ability to control in company with social support. Emotion-focused coping tendencies used by getting social support enable the individual to feel better. It is specified that the avoidance behaviors of individuals who cannot make use of social support and who have inadequate interpersonal relationship levels increase significantly (Stanton et al.,1994).

Perception of control and self-efficacy can help increase our sense of agency and proactivity in coping with challenges. Believing that we have some level of control over a situation can give us a sense of empowerment and help us feel more motivated to take action. Research has shown that people who believe they have control over a situation are more likely to engage in problem-solving behaviors and to persevere in the face of challenges. In addition, having a sense of self-efficacy - the belief in one's ability to accomplish a specific task or achieve a certain goal - can increase our confidence in our ability to cope effectively. In the

context of emotionally focused coping, increasing the perception of control and self-efficacy can help individuals move from a passive, reactive approach to a more proactive one. This can involve identifying areas where they have some degree of control and focusing their efforts there, or developing new skills or strategies to better cope with the challenges they face.

Ultimately, the belief and power of control can be a powerful tool in helping us cope with difficult situations, providing us with the motivation and confidence we need to take action and work towards positive outcomes.

Problem-Focused Coping

Problem-focused coping presents the direct definition and comprehension of the problem, the preparation of alternatives, and the significance and requirement of personal efforts that will direct to beneficial and useful consequences as a choice of coping. Problem-focused coping strategies, along with bearing a meaning similar to problem solving skills, cover embracing and concluding the subject with all its dimensions through a solution organization more extensive than problem solving skills. While problem solving focuses on the problem rather than through environment-focused analyses, problem-focused coping is built on strategies covered directly by personal resources in the struggle with the problem. Problem-focused coping is the continuous effort to directly change the factors of the negative status (Chang, 1998; Folkman & Lazarus, 1987).

Active coping and relevant cognitive strategies are rather relevant to information gathering, analysis, and positive change. On the other hand, emotional strategies cover avoidance, finding the accountable party, and the ability to partially prevent the negative change. The second style referred to has a slow-moving cognitive appraisal and coping process with lower comprehension and adaptation content. Altmaier (1995), by his research performed for determining the factors affecting problem-focused coping choices, specified that concepts such as competence of directly preparing the response, adequate comprehension of the problem (proper information gathering and perception), rate of preparing cognitive responses, and the ability to observe the relationship of emotional responses with the statues affect by first degree the ability to exhibit problem-focused coping choices.

Problem-focused coping presents a homogenous and categorical array. This type of coping is able to be operated at various levels and styles depending on the style of occurrence of the problem, the problem's effect on interpersonal relationships, and the perception of personal control. Homogeneity is ensured by the action directly aimed at the problem, solution efforts, and tendency to manage the problem, which are the common elements for nearly all the stressor statuses. In order to make use of such coping, the person must be able to operate the process by himself without being affected by someone else and seeking external assistance (Fleishman, 1984).

The coping choices of being active or passive are related to logical status analysis, tendencies regarding the search for assistance, problem-solving skills, the ability to exhibit adaptive behaviors, and beliefs of personal control. Perceptions of self-confidence and ability to control have the power to mitigate the negative effects of psychological stressors that make living conditions difficult (Holahan & Moos, 1985). On the other hand, Kobasa (1982) specifies that the lawyers simplify many statuses that they deem uncontrollable under intense work pressure by dividing them into pieces and that they degrade such statuses to levels that they can cope with. Similarly, regarding the intense stress periods in marriages, he speaks of the presence of efforts to “ignore the problem”, or “cascade the problems by dividing them towards solution” as coping tendencies of insecure couples for being able to prevent the down-cycle or at least remain at the current problem level. In this sense, even if the formation of active or passive coping choices is deemed to develop depending on the content of stressing statuses, it is clear that there are differentiations depending on the quality of personal resources and the

manner of interaction of personal and environmental factors determining the use of the same against the problem.

The discussions between problem-focused and emotion-focused coping choices are at the center of theoretical explanations regarding the coping process. In the literature on coping, it is specified that examination and comparison of problem-focused and emotion-focused coping choices in the context of different variables are important (Endler & Parker, 1990).

Problem-focused coping skills are characterized by taking direct action to manage a stressful situation, such as problem-solving, planning, and seeking social support. These skills can be beneficial in increasing an individual's perceived control over a situation, as they allow individuals to actively address stressors and take steps towards resolving them. Research has found that individuals who engage in problem-focused coping tend to have higher levels of perceived control, as they believe that they have the ability to effectively manage their stressors. Additionally, individuals who have higher levels of social competence tend to use problem-focused coping skills more frequently, as they may have a larger social network to draw on for support and assistance. Psychological well-being is closely related to coping skills and perceived control. Individuals who have higher levels of psychological well-being tend to engage in active coping strategies, as they are better able to manage stressors and maintain a positive outlook on life. Additionally, individuals who perceive a greater sense of control over their lives tend to have higher levels of psychological well-being, as they feel more capable of managing stressors and achieving their goals.

In summary, problem-focused coping skills are related to higher levels of perceived control and social competences. Active coping strategies and perceived control are positively correlated with psychological well-being, suggesting that developing effective coping skills can be beneficial in promoting overall mental health and well-being.

Coping as a Process

As a process, coping is dynamic, has distinctive traits, and is not incidental. Coping is a function expressing the ongoing cognitive appraisals, the cognitive reconstructions, and the continuity of change in the relationship between the person and the environment (Robinson, Garber & Hilsman,1995).

Coping is a process organization rather than a work organization because

- It establishes a mechanism of continuous change regarding specific damaging effects
- It makes use of personal resources within a continuity and sometimes at the highest limit
- It is the process of managing the internal and external demands that continues with life
- In cases when there is no management and opposition, it is preparing in various manners the alternatives conforming to the person and status, such as getting used to, accepting, simplifying, avoiding, or tolerating the stressor environmental factors
- The outcomes attained are tested or appraised as per a specific criterion. The feedbacks regulate the current or future coping choices; they are talked about, or alternative notions are continuously generated.
- Emotions are always kept under operation by their dimensions, which will continuously support the person (Bowman &Stern, 1995).

In the context of both cognitive appraisal and perception of control, coping, which passes through two different and linked processes, has not yet gained a cognitive appraisal

process and an extensive suggestion regarding the objectives, but the questions of "What will happen?" and "When will it happen?" engage the person. In this process, the cognitive appraisal is in charge of adjusting "what is being expected", "how the person will be able to manage the threat", and "how the secondary cognitive appraisal and proper control sensitivity will be ensured". The questions of "What may happen?", "In which ways I may get affected?", "How can I mitigate the damages of a threat?", "Can I defer the effects of danger reaching me in order to gain time?" are scrutinized in the periods, and the response to arise along with the continuous link to be established is determined as processes in a manner conforming to the outcome organization. The threatening effect doesn't yet wane in the second period, and the actions and constructs conforming to the perception of personal control are prepared in a gradually increasing and clarifying manner. The person tries to realistically observe the damage and the means by which it will affect him, and he examines in detail the unexpected statuses and variables by spending mental energy. By determining the degree of threat, he tries to meet the required effort of control with his resources (D'zurilla & Chang, 1995; Lazaruz & Folkman & Lazarus, 1987; Robinson, Garber &Hilsman, 1995).

They examine coping by determining processes in the purposeful avoidance and denial dimensions. Denial is in charge of undertaking the fact of gaining time that may make beneficial the possible early effects and primary stress status as much as possible. When the person faces the status of threat, he is obliged to fictionalize as a process a construct that advances and concludes in parallel to the status in order to isolate the threat from his emotions and clearly mitigate the level of stress by preventing the hitches.

Perception of Control, Stress, and the Process of Cognitive Appraisal

Cognitive appraisal is a person's personal judgment attributed to the threat degree of a stressor status faced for him to be happy and peaceful (Folkman & Lazarus, 1987). Cognitive appraisal is a variable that clearly proceeds with the process of stress. It is not a stable status or factor but a variable in which many determinant factors of the coping choice are integrated, that carries warning and response regarding coping by preparing them, and that concludes the choice of coping. Cognitive appraisal is a process operated in determining what the stressful incident means for the person and the manner of coping with the danger interpreted as per such determination through the engagement of personal traits. It is serial cognition operating between the status and the person's resources. It is the operation of taking the risks and constructing the change according to the expectations.

The content of the cognitive appraisal chosen reflects the personal aspects that the person uses in coping with stress. Understanding the surroundings, manner of use of personal resources, and personal objectives may reflect on the process of coping through cognitive appraisal. Despite the fact that environmental factors and stressor statuses may be similar for many people, the type and degree of personal reactions are always different. Different cognitive appraisals arise from the individuals and groups occur. The process of "cognitive appraisal" should be examined when it is desired to understand what kind of effects personal differences form under similar conditions. Cognitive appraisal is the determinant of coping that defines the threat, interprets the characteristics of the threat with all its details and presents the same to the person, suggests the use of personal resources conforming to the same, and prepares the efforts of change conforming to the expectations of the outcome as peculiar to the person (David & Suls, 1999).

In the 1980s, Folkman & Lazarus continued their studies on understanding cognitive appraisal operations by indicating the presence of direct relationships between coping and cognitive appraisal that are more important than known. The research performed on prisoners of war indicated the presence of significant differences in the attitudes of prisoners toward coping with stress, despite the equality of all the threatening stimuli against them. But the emphasis here is not just on personal resources and attributions to these; it is on the

"psychological state" prepared by the cognitive appraisal. This state forms as the result of the joining of personal resources with environmental factors, and it directs the cognitive appraisal process. The process of cognitive appraisal has the power to affect behaviors, along with numerous other factors. Cognitive appraisal, along with its observable or unobservable aspects, represents a way of brightening the pattern of coping. This process, reflecting personal differences, enriches by getting strength from beliefs of ability, perceptions of control, learned symbolic activities, attributions ensuring social adaptation, experiences, and intuitions.

Cognitive appraisal processes mediate to join at a point the relationship between the desires regarding status and special emotional experiences. Another indicator of the cognitive appraisal process is the is the manner of shaping of the content of coping behaviors that manifest itself as adhering to environmental causes.

The beliefs regarding the ability to control are able to affect the cognitive appraisal processes, and such an effect has at least two directions;

(a) Through the effect of the beliefs regarding the ability to control, stressor factors are perceived more easily, and the start of the appraisal process is given by such perception,

(b) Personal determinants affecting the cognitive appraisal processes are interpreted with the beliefs of control or may be included in the process (Tomaka & Bloscovich, 1994).

It is known that depressed individuals act slower than normal in operating the cognitive appraisal processes and in taking action for coping, and as a consequence, they fall behind in coping with increasing problems and exhibit passive coping choices. The depressed individuals have problems regarding the preparation of their cognitive appraisals through the use of their power of personal ability to control and the maintenance of their cognitive appraisals by generating alternative solutions (Coyne, Aldvin & Lazarus, 1981). The cognitive (mental) operating capacity that will withstand stress would affect the cognitive appraisal process as a personal trait. In research performed for the determination of children's IQ levels and their level of stress in familial relationships, it was found that children with high IQ levels exhibit active coping tendencies and that they experience less stress arising from interpersonal relationships. There is a critical relationship between the IQ level and rate of cognitive operation (period) that significantly affects the outcome of coping (Reynolds and Brewin, 1998).

Perception of Personality Control and Coping

Personality, through some of its persistent and rooted organized strategies, has the power suggesting to regulate the individuals' cognitive interactions with other people and statuses, their differences, motivational constructs, emotions, continuous or temporary mutual social interactions, and intentions and plans. Coping is generated from personal resources just like the other behaviors. Coping forms from personal effects and state-dependent effects, and human behavior doesn't form unidirectionally, so the effect of personal and environmental factors on the behavior should be pointed out. Self-efficacy has significant effects with respect to psychological objectives and personal control. Self-efficacy is effective in coping through its effects on facilitating the difficulties of various levels, responsibilities, and social functions. Modern theories of stress have aspired to define the changes formed by personal differences in coping (D'Zurilla & Burns, 1999).

The factor of stress is considered along with coping, and coping is considered along with the cognitive appraisal process, which is its basic founder and regulator. The outcome of the cognitive appraisal process and feeling good become genuine through phenomenal and subjective personal perspectives. The research hypotheses developed for the revealability of stress and coping in a cognitive sense have, in time, been deemed proper to define specific personal factors as significant inputs and mediative variables forming between the stressor and

coping. The notion of examining the effect of concepts such as manner of cognitive appraisal (Folkman, 1984), differences of motivation along with cognitive differences (Kobasa, 1982), importance attributed to personal consistency (Antonovsky, 1987), self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977), manner of personal explanation (Altmaier, 1995), perception of control (Skinner, 1996), depressive tendencies (Epstein &Katz, 1992), trends of getting personal information (D'Zurilla & Burns 1999), being optimistic or pessimistic (Chang, 1998), locus of control (Judge, Tmothy & Thoresen,1999), and neuroticism (David & Suls, 1999), among such personal differences affecting coping, on the responses regarding stress has brought in an actual level that is required to be reflected on the researches.

Personal differences may be understood through examination of social resources that may be used accordingly. Certain choices made by the person, depending on his specific traits, have the effect of developing alternative cognitive and behavioral coping responses.

Definition of specific personality traits by the person and determination of the limits of the ability to control by the person undertake significant functions that will be able to convey to the process the personal resources with all their efficiency at each required stage of the process in ensuring an active and realistic coping tendency and in progress. The personal factors bear on or determine the purposefulness of controlling the cognitive efforts and behaviors. The transactional perspective specifies that "personality" provides a significant phenomenal input to stress and coping. "Personal resources" (personal differences) play a role in coping as an operational strength or tendency. Such tendencies regularly call for and operate on the perception of control, self-efficacy, and self-confidence.

The relationship between stressor status and personal factors covers dynamic factors. This relationship is also in operation prior to the cognitive appraisal process and bears potential information regarding general personal competence and ability to control. If the personal factors are not adequately used prior to the initiation of the cognitive appraisal process, the preliminary predictions that will contribute to the initiation and development of the process cannot be provided.

And a significant causality affecting the cognitive appraisal process is personal agenda. The statuses forcing the person to exert effort for coping get strength from both cognitive and behavioral internal and external effects and specific personality traits (Holahan & Moos, 1985). General personality tendencies may require a struggle with environmental factors (active coping), or the person may determine the coping tendencies in his emotions and thoughts in a manner that will not resist the reconstruction (emotion-focused). These cognitive appraisal processes, which will be implemented at personal origin, will perform operations that will change the problem by primarily using the existing mechanisms (Coyne, Aldwin & Lazarus, 1981).

The person's determination of his behaviors with cognitive emphasis and contents of notion, or the person's excessive emotional reactions in the face of incidents also determines the manner of coping style to arise. The problem-focused coping efforts are aimed at eliminating the effects formed by environmental conditions, and they suggest the person undertake the responsibility regarding change by adhering to attributions of the ability to control. The people may develop high sensitivity and reactions against the statuses that they consider as being beyond their control. Low sensitivity level or ignoring the problem is a product of the appraisal of a lack of basic notions regarding the ability to control or of being unsuccessful.

General personality traits are effective with the use of many specific personality traits. Being married, being a parent, having adopted typical roles of mother and father, and having social skills present significant variabilities determining coping. The manner of interpersonal

communication and emotion-focused thinking in human relationships are other factors directly affecting coping attitudes.

Self-efficacy affects the possible problem-solving skills that will ensure escape from negative mood or the attitudes of avoidance from stressor status as a construct that mutually increases or decreases with the efforts for coping. While self-efficacy increases coping performance, it also decreases the emotional stimulation that may be presented as a response regarding the status. Self-efficacy presents explanatory effects regarding numerous variables. It assists in explaining the causality of coping responses. Factors such as being successful, withdrawal from unsuccess, strength attributed to control or unrealistic personal strength, efforts to get used to the status, developing distinctive struggle manners and personal career designs affect coping through self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982). The sufficiency of self-efficacy perception is used in the formation of problem-solving notions, beliefs of ability to control, and emotions of success in coping (Schwarzer, Hahn & Jerusalem, 1993). In his research, he addresses the personality traits in the context of determination, control, and the ability to oppose stress. While it was determined that anxiety and depressive tendencies increase in external control-focused individuals exposed to stress, a significant pathology was not found in internal control-focused individuals. The locus of control affects coping tendencies as a personal trait. Being internal control-focused increases problem-focused coping tendencies and supports organized coping strategies (Judge, Tmothy & Thoresen,1999).

Two personal factors have the power to significantly determine the content of coping with stress: (a) personal attributions regarding fatalism and control focus, and (b) tendencies of stubbornness and being persistent regarding coping. Within the framework of the model of "five factors" in coping, which has been extensively acclaimed in recent years, the significant personality factors' strength in affecting the adolescents' coping choices was examined. In the research, the factors considered to be significantly related to coping are listed as being conscientious and emotional, open to experiences, neurotic, flexible, and extroverted. These traits are important also due to their direct effect on interaction with the environment. Being conscientious and emotional, and neurotic are related to emotion-focused choices. Neuroticism makes it hard to understand and perceive social support in the coping process.

It can be said that individuals with optimistic personality traits exhibit problem-focused coping choices and that individuals with pessimistic personality traits resort to emotion-focused choices. Moreover, significant causalities were found in the predictions made about the depressive syndromes of pessimistic individuals. It is observed that optimism and relevant expectations are explanatories of central importance in adjusting general psychological and physical health as well as in determining coping tendencies as a personal factor (Chang, 1996). The traits that arise from personal differences and that are adopted by the person, for instance, the tendency to manage, the tendency to be strong, or the will to not to be exposed to negative effects, are constructs determining the responses for coping. During the self-appraisal of the person, his appearance or non-appearance as a person "who can well cope" or "who is exhibiting poor coping tendencies" affects his persistent behavior in the coping process. In the context of responses given regarding stress, people have been discussed in many researches with the definition of type-A and type-B personality traits. Individuals with a type-A behavior pattern have the following distinct traits: (a) being competitive and success-focused; (b) having an exaggerated shortness of time; (c) including offensive and hostile emotions; (d) being highly mobile and experiencing panic frequently; (e) having self-centered thinking; and (f) having intense impulses. Such individuals, in whom heart and stomach conditions are observed more frequently, perceive stress more quickly and have the characteristic of keeping themselves at an alarm status higher than required by the threat level (Baltaş & Baltaş, 1997). Type-B individuals are ones who are more distinguished, who think more calmly, who like competition less, and who are more stagnant and patient than type-A individuals. Such individuals'

tendencies of coping conforming to the status, and their skills of choosing and being able to implement are higher (Luo, Ge & Qu, 2023).

As the responses to coping with stress are appraised as cognitive and intuitional-sourced, control presents variability for the coping process in a manner that will ensure the skill of changing the meaning of perceived statuses and/or the skill of being able to manage the emotions and behaviors of someone by the use of environmental and personal alternatives (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984). The perception of control may simply be defined as "sufficiency of the perception of changing the statuses deemed to be significant or adapting to change" (Skinner, 1996); it is the skill of adapting to stressor status (Osowiecki & Compas, 1999); it is the manner of exhibiting personal strength (Pearlin, 1981); and it is the factor adjusting personal sensitivity. The perception of control plays a significant role as a cognitive dimension in preserving physical health, and it prepares the linkages of self-efficacy in personal practices. In the secondary cognitive appraisal process, control and self-efficacy affect the link between coping and outcome and are significant personal variabilities settled in the process. It determines the competence of choosing and represents the strength of opposition to a potential threat. The combination of self-efficacy and control prepares motivation, which will be the source of coping. Personal differences, which constitute the basis of different choices in coping with stress, are affected by differences in the perception of control in terms of formation. Control is a factor in the interpretation of psychological functions and personal differences (such as coping, health, accord, ability to orient, self-respect, manner of loading, success, and unsuccess) (Bowman & Stern,1995; Catanzaro, Horaney & Creasey, 1995; Epstein, 1992; Law, Logan & Baron, 1994; Ralph & Mineka, 1998; Tomaka &Blascovich, 1994).

Control exhibits different structural statuses that are related to numerous concepts or that are formed by the effect established with its own content. These are such things as personal control, control sensitivity, locus of control, cognitive control, perception of representative control, attributed control and its strength, perception of general control, baseless control, control regarding expectations, primary control, secondary control, action control, control ensuring the decision, predictive control strength, guiding control, and intermediary control. Numerous personality traits known to be structurally related to the concept of control directly affect the coping process. Such constructs intersect their operations with implicit links, even if not observed explicitly, with the infrastructure ensured by the control along with their own infrastructures. These are concepts such as helplessness, self-efficacy, self-confidence, capacity, being superior, being effective, autonomy, personal determination, ability, manner of approach to unexpected incidents, causality attributions, manner of personal explanation, responsibility, tolerating the unsuccess, will to be successful, and ability to adjust expectations and consequences (Abramson & Seligman, 1978; Bandura, 1977; 1982; Skinner, 1996; Swendsen, 1998). When faced with stressor statuses, control requires making cognitive and behavioral efforts. In one aspect, control may be considered a factor determining coping (the cognitive appraisal process), and in another aspect, it may be considered a type of coping choice. In general terms, this approach defines the level of threat that will manifest itself along with the cognitive appraisal process and the definition of control that will mediate challenging the level of threat. There is a difference, even if limited, between the perception of control as a significant factor in determining and affecting the cognitive appraisal process and the perception of control as a style of coping. But the clear point is that control explicitly and significantly affects stress and the coping process in both senses (Folkman & Lazaruz, 1984).

Control determines the specific solution suggestions and ensures the ability to make interpretations that will be required to be used between coping with stressor status and the choice process. By operating a correct cognitive appraisal process, the perception of control organizes the attainment of the results of correct comprehension of the incidents, correct determination of the objectives, and amplification of the problem-solving skills that will assist

the people in feeling good. It also has the strength to determine the direction of behavioral change and struggle with negative effects that may be involved in the coping process later on.

Control, along with being considered a mediative variable in the process of determination and processing of the coping process, is also a factor affecting the variability of outcome. This factor presents to the cognitive appraisal process its controllable or uncontrollable provisions regarding the outcome as a suggestion in the beginning. Control defines social roles and determines expectations for the future. While it ensures easier comprehension and acceptance of the problem, it also has the competence of directly affecting and changing the cognitive appraisal process. In the beginning stage, gaining control over the stressor effect increases personal motivation and thus prepares a construct that will gradually increase the effectiveness of coping efforts in the process. Keeping the control at a low level in the beginning eventually makes ineffective the other negative factors developing within the process or the struggle with the content of the status that becomes more difficult, the motivation level decreases, the person becomes passive, negative disintegration gradually increases, and as a consequence, depression may occur. The important point is the inclusion of continuous, occasional, and realistic approaches by the perception of control in the link of coping. Control has the strength of preventing damaging effects as well as assisting in the attainment of beneficial consequences. In order to be able to escape negative experiences, it is important to keep the perception of control high (Wheaton, 1983).

Control has an inevitable guidance function in the solution of problems. Control follows both the coping strategies and the cognitive appraisal process, determining it at each stage from the beginning until finalization. In the realistic adjustment of expectations regarding short- and long-term outcomes of coping and in the determination of adaptive outcomes, control has an interaction that increases and strengthens depending on the process. This strengthening and developing effect also defines the construct representing the transformation of the perception of control to the style of coping within the process. In the primary cognitive appraisal process, it defines personal limits by interpreting personal competence, environment, and emotions, and in addition, it facilitates the acceptance of the problem (Folkman & Lazarus &, 1987; Stone & Neole, 1984).

If environment-focused behavior control is established with environmental identifications as a general trend, the obligation to exhibit behaviors and direct actions as being adhered to environmental factors increases. The appraisal implemented in the effectiveness of control teaches the potential means (optional alternatives) that will be able to interpret the behaviors that will be actualized through personal analyses. Control with an effective approach to ensuring decision-making and coping regulates some choices that are open to personal preferences, and moreover, by determining a significant part of the personal beliefs, it prepares the genuine basis that ensures being able to find coping choices and outcomes positive, and being able to bring continuity to coping attitudes by improving them. Rotbohum, Weisz, & Snyder (1982) address control in two categories: (1) primary control, efforts to change the environment; and (2) secondary control, efforts to become compatible with the environment. The key concept in these two processes is effort (taking action), because this concept represents the definition of control ensuring to keep the personal beliefs or cognitive appraisal processes in operation rather than categorizing coping within the scope of control.

In the coping process, a two-stage effectiveness of control that proceeds in parallel with the primary cognitive appraisal and secondary cognitive appraisal processes may be defined. Primary control generally suggests the reestablishment of the perception of control regarding threatening statuses, and it suggests the primary use of control for the purpose of testing. It supports the initial idea that the person is required to change the environment and himself properly. It shelters the potential indicators that prevent being passive, depressive (over time), and desperate against negative statuses and that adjust personal strength (Rotbohum, Weisz, &

Snyder, 1982). Secondary control covers changing the non-compatible perceptions of control and related personal statuses towards the preferred compliance and attribution of the outcomes obtained to coping choices in order to be used as a concretized preference. Secondary control supports and balances coping by undertaking the improvement and simplification of the status, the ability of personal resources, or ending the threat. In this period, control may also operate as a style of coping if required. In this context, the perception of control and ability clearly operate together and determine the outcome of coping. The cognitive reappraisal process brings in the strength of understanding the relation of control perception and personal change, and changing the environment and choices of coping towards the positive. Moreover, it increases the rate of appraisal and acceptance of new information obtained as a result of coping. The outcomes of coping are significantly affected by the notions of the ability to control. In the determination of challenge degree regarding the threat, the level of persistence to be adopted, the amount of coping that would be adequate, and the tendency to be active or passive, the secondary cognitive appraisal process reaches the decision with the strength provided by the perception of control. Moreover, in comparisons made regarding the outcomes obtained and in the assignment of criteria, the control for the cognitive appraisal process under operation is the significant juror whose opinion is asked. The control over the problem generally affects the pattern rather than the frequency of directly manifested behaviors while struggling with the problem. The beliefs and appraisals of control ensure being a variable regarding the outcomes to be obtained in coping with stress, the transaction of success, and the outcome of feeling good (Folkman et al.,1986).

Bowman & Stern (1995) specify that a high perception of control significantly increases the problem-solving strategies and effectiveness of coping, even in highly effective stress experiences that have extended over a long period of time. Based on this point, it can be concluded that if an individual is able to properly use his perception of control, he feels the responsibility of changing the status more effectively and tries to actualize the coping effort at a higher level. The expectation of personal control is a factor affecting active coping skills and the increase and decrease of emotional tendencies. Problem-focused coping will remain ineffective without personal control and strength. Active coping attitudes are supported by the problem-solving effort bearing alternatives, suitable personal beliefs, and the mood to be formed by the level of control. Adequate success cannot be attained unless active plans or problem-focused coping strategies are integrated with personal beliefs and determination. Beliefs of ability or perception of the ability to control in the beginning make adequate the tendencies that will ensure the struggle regarding the solution of the problem (Catanzaro, Horaney & Creasey, 1995; Rotbohum, Weisz, & Snyder, 1982).

Emotional coping tendencies and perceptions regarding the parameters of the stressor status are related to beliefs attributed regarding the perception of control and its content which determine the level of adaptation to the status. Especially in women, depressive symptoms, uncontrollable statuses, and risks encountered in interpersonal relationships are indications of the distortion of such harmony. The beliefs enabling personal control are also effective in managing emotions and providing confidence. The sufficiency of control has a strength that opposes the tendency to use an avoidance style of coping. Control regulates the emotional reactions and prevents the transformation of negative psychological symptoms (due to stress) into depressive experiences (Averill, 1977; Osowiecki & Compas, 1999).

Control sensitivity, when faced with a stressor status, also adjusts the degree to which it affects the cognitive appraisal process that will ensure attainment of the expected outcomes and that will generate the definition of controllable (Baron et al., 1996). In choosing and concretizing the cognitive behaviors and putting them into practice, the cognitive appraisal process is significantly affected by notions of the ability to control. Especially, some specific coping choices may be obtained through the sufficiency of the perception of control. Control assists in concretizing the cognitive predictions to be actualized regarding different statuses

(David & Suls, 1999). The perception of control has a strength supporting personal determination, personal selectivity, and acting persistently in solutions, which are useful in decreasing the effects of stress or transforming them into an acceptable pattern (Terry, 1994).

The notion of the ability to control mediates for quick use when social supports are also required. When coping activities are used for attaining adaptive outcomes by ensuring social support, the perception of control in this process facilitates the person's ability to observe and define his own status, the undertaking of responsibilities by the person in a complete manner, and the adjustment of outcomes as conforming to social balances. The perception of control covers the behaviors of responsibility and risk-taking. Control is the factor that keeps strong and eager the tendencies of occupation regarding stress and distress. It is specified that the adequate presence and use of the power of control would require neither taking more risks than required nor having behaviors requiring excessive special skills, and that the general perception of control, as a simple and basic factor, mediates to form distinct and certain cognitive preferences regarding stress in all people. When self-efficacy and perception of control come together through a correct cognitive appraisal, they increase the tendency of using the potential of being at the moment against statuses causing fear and concern. Moreover, self-efficacy and level of motivation increase coping efforts and generate functions supporting the person. It supports increasing the expectations of outcome and ability to a suitable level. Control increases self-confidence and affects the level, quality, and span of attention. It ensures the ability to integrate into the coping process the emotional support that develops with confidence (Bandura, 1982; David & Suls, 1999).

Control also serves with its specific form that is peculiar to the statuses as well as with its general construct of organizing the notions. In cases where uncertainty dominates, the perception of control is also important with its ability to transfer and concretize the personal effects that may direct the cognitive appraisal process. In the cognitive appraisal processes of individuals with low levels of control, statuses that are subject to uncertainty are defined as effects that cannot possibly be controlled by the individual. Cognitive appraisal and perception of specific control regarding the status ensure the person comprehends the personal and environmental effects and includes them in the cognitive appraisal process (Terry, 1994; Osowiecki et al., 1999). The perception of control, as a factor of the process, integrates the developing effects of the dynamic stressor factor into coping in a manner that will comply with the outcome organization of the process. The perception of control and cognitive appraisal processes, which develop depending on specific statuses, support higher problem-focused coping and conclude such efforts in such a manner as to ensure higher personal acceptance on the side of control power.

In the research performed in order to observe the effect of suffering statuses (physical, and psychological) on the person that he begins to experience along with stressor statuses, it was found that increasing the effectiveness of control over statuses causing suffering provides some generalizations that will ensure the attainment of positive coping outcomes and emotional processes. The laboratory studies showed that, even if the stressor statuses had already been experienced by the person at the threat dimension, the person’s sensitivity regarding recognition and control of similar future statuses (Lennon et al., 1990) and skills of making perceptional change increased in a positive direction along with the notions of ability to control (Law, Logan & Baron, 1994).

The relationship between control and stress has an interaction that exhibits relationships in different aspects and that soothes the environment of stress in general terms. There is the causality of the loss of the perception of control in the inability to construct the responses to be prepared regarding stress and the cognitive appraisal process in accordance with personal and environmental expectations, in the incorrect and negative perception of external and internal effects, and in the operation of psychological determinants with an orientation different than

necessary. Examined the effect of being internal or external control-focused on coping attitudes of managers and business people with three years of research, and it was determined that the internal control-focused persons exhibit behaviors of taking more responsibility and higher coping by using their personal resources at the highest level. External control-focused people rather exhibit defensive coping tendencies.

Being internal control-focused is a factor in adequately reflecting personal traits in the cognitive appraisal process. The locus of control also affects the skills of managing stress, and being internal control-focused increases the tendencies of managing stress and supports organized coping strategies regarding personal change (Judge, Tmothy & Thoresen, 1999). Rotbohum, Weisz & Synder (1982), by their study performed regarding the children's coping attitudes and control-focused relationships, found that internal control-focused children were exhibiting problem-focused coping tendencies and that external control-focused children were exhibiting emotion-focused coping tendencies.

The perception of control has a regulating role in improving the person's coping competence regarding the stressor statuses, in the organization of their general attributions to the intended purpose in a changeable sense, and in ensuring psychological balance against stress.

Even if the development of symptoms due to post-traumatic stress and the formation of coping struggles occur in a very short time, the critical periods within such a term and personal traits are very important in making some irrevocable decisions. General personal and environmental supports are either never recognized or recognized very late due to panic or a short cognitive appraisal period. Nevertheless, the perception of the ability to control in the beginning regarding threat minimizes the notions of lack of self-defense that will form in time between the symptom and coping. The notions of excessive depression, frustration, and helplessness observed in such statuses may be prevented to some degree (Valentiner et al., 1996).

In the study performed on depressive patients not at a psychiatric level, it was found that problem-focused coping was significantly decreasing the causality directing to depressive experiences. A significant relationship was found among depressive persons' emotion-focused coping choices that they deem beyond their control and that they choose rather regarding statuses developing with external factors. It was specified that the statuses considered to be uncontrollable eventually generate effects extending to a sense of helplessness, the use of passive coping tendencies, ultimately demoralized experiences, and depression.

It wouldn't be possible to define the problem-focused coping mechanism, which will manifest itself as adhering to personal differences against stress, without using the concept of perception of control. Control ensures the ability to choose suitable personal functions, maintain cognitive appraisal, and use social supports. From the beginning until the end, either directly or with the concepts and factors they are integrated into, "control and coping" exhibit a significant interaction through roles such as facilitating the coping process, deeming positive the symptoms caused by stress, choosing the alternatives, maintaining personal development, solving problems and preparing strategies, understanding the change, determining the motivation level and self-confidence, adjusting the expectations regarding outcome, adjusting the personal strength and emotions, and if necessary, through the preparation of direct effects on the coping efforts as only the power of control.

Social Cognition and Coping

As with numerous other factors, social adjustments, expectations of outcome and acceptability of behavior in a social sense, or mood level adjusted as per the then-current time, and attributions regarding the same, have a significant effect on the coping process. Just like the relationship between depression and learned helplessness, attribution regarding social factors and consequently one's own perception of inadequacy, failure, low mood, and

motivation, as well as the inability to adjust external assistance and links, affect or change coping. This opinion has been expressed similarly by numerous researchers. The social system provides significant resources as well as some harm in the sense of limiting individuals. The social system affects personal notions, emotions, and behaviors through constructs of affinity, family, marriage, etc., and through values regarding the same. The social system also specifies which problems should be addressed gently and softly and which should be avoided.

The social system presents social cognitive transferences that the person may directly use regarding coping, whose acceptability was determined by society, and which were tested. These may also be considered social automatic notions open for attribution that may be used in the organization of coping (Bandura, 1982). It is impossible to implement the expectations and outcomes of coping without observing social balance. It is required to make assignments conforming to the cognitive appraisal process by considering such notions. Social functions are dominant in the preparation of significant strategies and acceptance mechanisms regarding the acceptance of the outcomes of possible negative experiences within the secondary cognitive appraisal process. Having cognitive attribution regarding the ability to get support in a social sense when required increases personal risk-taking behaviors in building problem-focused coping strategies. Moreover, social attributions present the criteria that will compare the outcomes of coping regarding numerous specific statuses within the process. Social constructs significantly affect the decisions that a person makes when faced with stressor status. The person's tendency to exhibit avoidance-type coping behavior decreases when he gets adequate support from his family and spouse, and he may rather reach the choice by staging the problem-focused solution according to his sense of personal strength and quality of support.

Social learning theory rejects the presence of deterministic factors determining behaviors. The content of the interaction between the person and environment to determine each other adjusts the attributions and responsibilities dependent on external factors, the desire to be successful, or the competences, and these affect the emotional reactions. Such emotional responses or interpretations accompany personal determinations regarding stressor statuses along with attributions. The attributions to be prepared by attributions such as "controllable and uncontrollable", "practicable and impracticable", "specific causes and mixed causes", etc. affect the cognitive appraisal. The attributions, with their support, prepare the emotions for acceptance in subjective reality as much as in objective sense, present the required interim solution of feeling good, and support the person forward in a positive sense in the process of struggle (Harrison,1997).

The attributions don't present emotional or cognitive definitions for each status that are ready to be used in all aspects. In the coping process, the main functions of the attributions are to compare the significant resources regarding the person and the environment, integrate the required information into the coping process with the proper effort level, and attribute it to relevant stages of the cognitive appraisal process. In the context of gender and coping, the difference between the women and men depends on the men's tendency to manifest their emotions more directly. Swendsen (1998) specifies that the attributions and the perception of control are not adequate by themselves in clarifying the statuses causing concern among the people and the depressive tendencies, and that the perception of control and related attributions assist in understanding the environmental effects and clarifying the causalities regarding the possible outcome. The perception of the ability to control, as a factor affecting the increase or decrease of level of concern arising in the face of specific statuses, often functions by itself without being affected by the attributions, but the attributions ensure functionality support for the perception of the ability to control by using the transferences regarding the interaction of learned helplessness and personal strength (ability) and coping.

By using the attribution model, people may attain personal meanings and inferences that would affect the outcomes of coping. The attributions prepared with personal and

environmental access also attribute personal standards regarding success or failure. The person prepares the criterion of feeling good as the result of coping by adhering to these attributions. The manner of attribution also prepares the ground for failure in coping with stress (I became sick due to my own inadequacies; I cannot establish and maintain adequate communication; I'm so quiet and unresponsive). The attribution model defines the personal beliefs and competence of control in the coping process by gathering information regarding social criteria just like many other factors. Coping that uses personal differences may contribute to research regarding the clarification of the relationship between modern stress and coping through its revealability with social dimensions. Depressive experiences, related styles of attribution, and the interaction of stressors relevant to these mediate the formation of personal approach differences regarding stress and coping. It should be deemed possible that the stressors that the style of attribution, which may be deemed negative, interacts with, the perception of low personal value, the depressive effects, and the limited characterizations regarding the ability to control may form inadequate coping activities (Law, Logan & Baron, 1994).

As per the procedure of control and helplessness, the people made attributions that didn't provide solutions for specific statuses. Sometimes, listening to the noise of speech was defined as inevitable. It cannot be thought of as doing anything to change this status. People similarly don't think of evoking their perceptions of ability to control, which would evoke the cognitive appraisal and solution processes that would function in cases of stressor status or danger. Coping with stress, in order to get started, requires the attributions of ability to control and ability to challenge (Abramson &Seligman, 1978). It seems that the key feature in most of the perceptions of causality preventing the ability is the noncompliance of attributions between the internal appraisal and social meaning of a specific behavior, action, or incident (Dönmez, 1993).

Correlations among Control, Age, and Factors of Coping

In addition to the previous analyses, when the relationship between control and coping styles is examined in a correlational context, similar outcomes emerge. In Table 10, it is understood that there are significant relationships among active planning, emotional escape and cognitive reconstruction when the level of control is addressed as a continuous variable. On the other hand, the relationships between age and all the variables were determined with a descriptive quality and limitation and given in the relevant table.

Table 1. Correlation of coping and perceived control

Variable	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**
(1) AP	1.00							
(2) ExH	.128*	1.00						
(3) IN-Re	0.49	.159**	1.00					
(4) ES	-.117*	.289**	-.052	1.00				
(5) AcCR	.206**	.100	.199**	.139*	1.00			
(6) EBch	-.088	-.066	-.235**	.150**	-.074	1.00		
(7) Control	.192**	-.021	.028	-.163**	.151**	-.045	1.00	
(8) Age	-.018	-.090	-.037	-.114**	-.055	.187**	.163**	1.00

When the table is examined, a strong relationship in positive direction is observed between the perception of ability to control and coping with stress.

Perception of Control and Social Anxiety

The ability to control is at the source of the strength of general ability, which may be directly generated from personal resources regarding all the stimuli. In this sense, cognitive control is considered along with the interpretation of the stimulus with the appraisal process and the strength of opposition. The perception of ability to control is the competence of the

ability to change the statuses deemed significant and the ability of personal interference and challenge. In a cognitive sense, the perception of control as a form above statuses that keeps the existential layers and personal awareness together is a significant cognitive trait. It is the ability to present personal strength and continuity of behavior under a specific determination (Pearlin, 1981; Derryberry & Reed, 2002). The perception of control is related to the potential of behavior being the source of well-being and strength of prevention (Korkut, 2004), competence in choosing and decision-making, strength of ability of opposition to potential threats (Averill, 1977), and motivation and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Smith, 1989). In the process of anxiety and stress research, it is the perception of ability regarding these problems (Bandura & Locke, 2003). When considered within the scope of the coping process, control is the variability that will ensure the skill of changing the meaning of perceived statuses and/or managing the emotions and behaviors of someone by the use of environmental and personal alternatives (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984, p.170). It is the strength of being able to use active and focused problem solving skills in a manner that will correspond to attributions regarding the use of problem-focused coping skills and avoidance in an emotional sense.

Control assists in determining the perception of ability regarding statuses in which it is required to be social, the personal responsibility and behavior requirement, the cognitive appraisal process, feeling good in interpersonal relationships, and the tendencies of being able to consider the incidents as positive or negative. It will be able to increase the strength of struggling with negative status as a cognitive trait and personal construct (Lang & Heckhausen, 2001; Paterson & Neufeld, 1995).

It was found that the inadequacy of the perception of ability to control negatively affects the social anxiety and adaptation levels of the university students. The perception of control was considered one of the significant predictors of social anxiety (Mash, 2001). There is a relationship between the increase in control level and decrease in stress that occur in interpersonal relationships and the adequacy of performance that is exhibited in interpersonal relationships (Yangseok, 1997). The contribution of control in this sense may be examined with a cognitive appraisal dimension affecting the beliefs of self-efficacy and the processes occurring in interpersonal relationships (Endler, 2000). In a personal sense, the perception of the ability to control will affect the competence of choosing and using social skills. This will be able to decrease the tendency to experience of social anxiety. In the social anxiety process, an interaction was found between the increase in stress and the level of symptoms and the level of control and being vulnerable. In the research performed, the perception of ability to control's effect regarding psychological, cognitive, and emotional processes and its relationship with social anxiety, panic, and depression were defined (Squire, 1999). Moreover, the relationship between being able to balance the level and quality of threat and negative selectivity of memory in the social anxiety process and the perception of ability to control is known (Derryberry & Reed, 2002).

The effect of the perception of ability to control regarding psycho-pathological processes may be considered under the following headings in the social anxiety process: (a) tendency of social withdrawal; (b) fulfillment of or desistence from social responsibilities; (c) definition of personal attributions regarding social statuses as positive or negative. In the social anxiety process, control is related to general behavior tendencies, sociality and withdrawal preferences, cognitive skills, and the choice of strategies. In the end, in-person appraisals observe the expectations of the social circle in the selection of the type of coping. This is also manifested as per how much of the behaviors are adjusted in the person for solving the problem (Swendsen, 1998). It is known that first impressions and reactions of avoidance in statuses requiring being subject to appraisal, being introduced to someone, constituting a new environment, etc. are affected by the perception of ability to control in this sense (Butler, 1989). The inadequacy of the perception of control increases the level of negative stimulation regarding social status. The adequacy of the perception of control also affects skills such as the ability to be social,

determining and changing purpose, thinking realistically and analytically, and tolerating emotional uncertainty (Bandura &Wood, 1989).

The lowness of beliefs about self-efficacy in social relationships is among the causalities of having notions of personal failure and of a decrease in problem-solving skills in interpersonal relationships. The lowness of the perception of self-efficacy or negativity of beliefs in this direction is basically affected by the inadequacy of the perception of ability to control. Consideration of the relationship between self-efficacy and the definition of ability to control in a cognitive sense brings in explanations that assist in defining personal standards and manners of self-appraisal (Bandura &Locke, 2003). The adequacy of the perception of control provides contribution to psychological well-being through social ease and easy behavior by also determining the beliefs of self-efficacy that it interacts with (Flammer, 2002).

Coping and Social Anxiety

Coping is grouped into two main groups as a general trend. The first type of coping covers problem-focused (active) strategies, including directly dealing with stress. Here, cognitive activities for solving the problem realistically are used. It is focused on the problem, and responses regarding a possible solution are constructed. The second type of coping involves resorting to adjustment in emotions regarding the stressor status instead of seeking a change (emotion-focused coping). While the construct is actualized with emotional choices, the consequence of coping that may be attained is often in the direction of mitigating or changing the effects of stress (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984). During the interpretation of reactions with respect to coping, it is not possible to understand coping as a narrow construct for being able to show cognitive and behavioral strictness, rigor, and resistance. Coping represents a general capacity that becomes integrated with the participation of adaptive perception, cognition, emotions, personal traits, and behaviors (Epstein & Katz, 1992).

Social anxiety, in its phenomenal sense, may be defined as the inability to properly transfer a person's cognitive traits, problem-solving skills, and coping competence towards social statuses in a complex framework. Within this frame, it is required for personal traits and ability to be able to exhibit the social behaviors conforming to struggling with negative emotions and expectations (Hofmann and Dibortolo, 2001) The decrease in social anxiety is related to the adequacy of coping skills that will be able to increase adaptation to social life. Negative life events attributed to the external world, the process of getting information, and the strength of defining and using social skills may be exemplified for these. In a social sense, a significant part of the cognitions and behaviors are considered from the perspectives of other people. Negative feedback obtained from other people and notions of being rejected in a social sense increase the stress of individuals against both internal and external stimuli in a social sense. In this case, such people do not behave eagerly for exhibiting such social purposes, even if they have similar social goals with the others. Especially in individuals with high social anxiety, inadequacy is observed in their cognitive appraisal processes and coping with problem skills. In this sense, coping is able to play a determinant role in being able to exhibit healthy behaviors.

When considered as related to the environment, coping also covers the competence of being able to dominate the environment and social relationships. In an effective sense, coping should be able to interfere with and change the things happening around. In this sense, the presence of coping efforts for avoidance of social relationships may be addressed and explained along with the inadequacy of self-esteem, the incapacity of the communication process to develop and support positive emotions, and the inadequacy of social problem-solving skills (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984). The perception of ability to control is related to the selection of suitable coping skills as a cognitive process and to the psychological symptoms that may occur (Bandura, 1989b; Fleisman, 1984; Folkman & Lazarus, 1984; Folkman & Lazarus, 1987;

Smith, 1989; Skinner, 1996). There is also a relationship between coping with social anxiety and exhibiting proper coping efforts (Squire, 1999). There is a relationship between adequacy, activeness or lowness of strength of control, and choices of emotional coping (Baron et al., 1996; Bowman & Stern, 1995; Endler., 1997; Palancı, 2000). Social anxiety may be considered an avoidance-style coping tendency. It may be considered that the coping efforts experienced in the social anxiety process are not adaptive and don't include realistic choices. In this sense, it is known that personal (internal) traits affect the coping process. It was found that the variables affecting the active coping skills in the coping process also affect the outcomes regarding experiencing social anxiety. Defining the social statuses and outcomes of behavior as uncontrollable in the social anxiety process increases emotional coping tendencies (McWilliams, 2000).

The cognitive appraisal, responding (reacting) processes, and coping are affected by the perception of control. The belief regarding struggle, which is had in the process of coping with social anxiety, is related to the perception of the ability to control. In the process of psychological assistance, the relationship between beliefs regarding the adequacy of control and notions of helplessness should be considered. The effect of the adequacy of the perception of control on constructing effective coping efforts in struggling with stress that occurs in interpersonal relationships was defined (Yangseok, 1997). The state of not experiencing social anxiety is actualized through the strong presentation of ego in interpersonal relationships. In this sense, adequate perception of the personal image brings with it the competence to solve many problems in social life. In a cognitive sense, such strength is possible with the ability to exhibit effective coping skills and have a high perception of the ability to control (Endler, Macrodimitris & Kocovski, 2000).

When the problems regarding past significant life events of those experiencing the problem of social anxiety were examined, exaggerated reactions were observed. For a person with social anxiety, the period of reaction against the status deemed to be dangerous is shorter compared to others. In this context, it can be considered that automatic thoughts, tendencies toward getting information, and cognitive appraisal characteristics are distinguishing explanatories for people with social anxiety. It is known that such effects are also affected by determination regarding the adequacy of coping (Mattrick & Peters, 1998). There is a relationship between the skill of being able to use the characteristics of open communication and being empathetic in interpersonal relationships and the beliefs of the person regarding his acceptability in a social sense. Social skills and the skill of coping with statuses deemed problematic in a social sense are related to the adequacy of interpersonal communication skills (Ewart, 2002).

In a social sense, it is difficult for people who cannot sufficiently operate the skill of getting external assistance to opt for specific coping methods while coping with statuses constituting social anxiety. The inability to adequately use social supports in the coping process regarding social statuses also negatively affects the strength of other personal competences. In the process of coping with social anxiety, the outcome that may prepare the psychological health may be obtained more easily with the support of other people (Margolin, 2001). With the assistance of social skills, the ability to effectively use social support and to implement active coping choices implemented, with such confidence, becomes easier. The skills and strategies of coping are affected by the system of affinity and support in social relationships. Psychosomatic outcomes, being the consequence of nonfunctional behaviors, may affect social skills and relationships. Stress, manifested as the consequence of distress experienced as relevant to being included in social life, will mediate easier coping by the use of this system again in an instrumental sense (Fresr, 1999). In similar research, it was found that university students getting inadequate social support in interpersonal relationships have low psychological adaptation skills and low active coping skills (Siegel and Alloy, 1990).

Top of Form

Among the factors preventing the eagerness to develop close interpersonal relationships is the difficulty of coping with negative emotions regarding refusal. This concern is among the causes of efforts to avoid interpersonal relationships. The level of stress perceived in interpersonal relationships is affected by primary cognitive appraisal and subsequent personal explanations. Perceiving the presence of other people as worrisome may cause considerations regarding whether they would prevent meeting social requirements. In this sense, appraising the coping efforts as inadequate may make the opposition efforts ineffective (Portello, 2001). The increase of vulnerability level in social relationships will be able to increase the perceived stress as well as making the coping process ineffective. This status will negatively affect the effectiveness of perceiving and using social skills and thus, the skills to cope with the concern of social criticism. The contribution of the training of coping skills to decreasing social anxiety was determined. It was found that the training of coping skills also assists in increasing beliefs about self-efficacy (Schaubroeck, Lam & Xie, 2000). We can specify that coping skills are affected by perceptions of ability to control and that this perception is affected by the beliefs of self-efficacy in a loop. The perception of control may thus present the support that will make the efforts of self-efficacy and coping adequate (Smith, 1989). The notions of perfectionism constitute excessive sensitivity and social avoidance behaviors regarding being criticized. This status decreases effective coping choices due to adhering to behaviors of avoidance in interpersonal relationships. It was found that the notions of perfectionism, which would cause the experience of social anxiety, exhibit a negative correlation with active coping efforts, the perception of control, and the positive perception of social support (Dunkley, Zuroof & Kirk, 2003). The high level of problem-solving skills facilitates exhibiting active coping efforts in the process of coping with social anxiety. Coping as a significant factor in the determination of variables within and among the persons assists in adjusting the personal traits in the social anxiety process, and especially to adjust the same regarding specific problems. The concerns regarding appraisal in a social sense are rather effective in the exhibition of emotion-focused coping behaviors (Ellis, 1994). In this sense, the effects of adaptive efforts on social adaptation and psychological well-being assist in examining the skills of coping with social anxiety (Chang, 2003).

Table 2. Correlations of social self-efficacy, social anxiety and coping scores

Variable	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**
(1) SK	1.00								
(2) AP	-0,077	1.00							
(3) ES	0,241**	-0,03	1.00						
(4) ExH	.115**	.286***	.181***						
(5)Control	-0,38***	0,064	-0,22**	-0,10**	1.00				
(6) PRFT	0,371***	0,088*	0,129**	-0,04	-0,207**	1.00			
(7) VL	0,518***	-0,036	0,287***	0,17***	-0,352***	0,307***	1.00		
(8) SAv	0,312***	-0,296***	0,167***	-0,05	-0,207***	0,137**	0,255***	1.00	
(9) SSEF	-0,529***	0,24**	-0,085*	.0,19***	0,331***	-0,28***	-0,151***	-0,279***	1.00

Improving our sense of control and social self-efficacy can enhance our coping skills in various ways. Sense of control refers to the belief that one has the ability to influence and control the events and circumstances that affect their lives. When we have a strong sense of control, we are better equipped to cope with stressors and challenges as we feel empowered to take action to manage them.

Social self-efficacy, on the other hand, is the belief in one's ability to effectively navigate social situations and interactions. When we have a high level of social self-efficacy, we are more confident in our ability to communicate effectively, build relationships, and resolve conflicts, which can improve our social support and enhance our ability to cope with stress.

Proactive coping skills, which involve anticipating and planning for potential stressors, are closely related to our sense of control. When we have a strong sense of control, we are more likely to engage in proactive coping behaviors, such as problem-solving, seeking social support, and engaging in self-care activities. In terms of social self-efficacy, building strong social connections and networks can enhance our coping skills by providing us with a source of emotional support and resources during times of stress. When we feel confident in our ability to navigate social interactions, we are also more likely to seek out and receive social support, which can improve our resilience in the face of stressors.

Overall, improving our sense of control and social self-efficacy can enhance our coping skills by empowering us to take action to manage stressors, engage in proactive coping behaviors, and build strong social support networks.

Perception of control, self-efficacy, and cognitive appraisal processes play an important role in coping with stress. Here's how each of them affects coping:

1. Perception of control: Perception of control refers to an individual's belief about the extent to which they can control the outcome of events in their lives. When people perceive that they have control over a situation, they are more likely to cope with stress effectively. This is because they feel empowered to take action and make changes that can help them deal with the stressor. On the other hand, when people feel that they have no control over a situation, they may experience a sense of helplessness, which can make coping with stress more difficult.
2. Self-efficacy: Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief in their ability to perform a specific task or achieve a specific goal. When people have high self-efficacy, they are more likely to cope with stress effectively because they believe that they have the skills and resources to deal with the stressor. In contrast, people with low self-efficacy may feel overwhelmed by the stressor and may be less likely to take action to address it.
3. Cognitive appraisal processes: Cognitive appraisal processes refer to the way that individuals interpret and evaluate the events in their lives. When people appraise a stressor as a challenge that they can overcome, they are more likely to cope with it effectively. On the other hand, if they appraise the stressor as a threat that they cannot handle, they may experience more stress and have more difficulty coping.

Overall, perception of control, self-efficacy, and cognitive appraisal processes are important factors that can affect an individual's ability to cope with stress. By developing a sense of control, building self-efficacy, and using effective cognitive appraisal processes, individuals can improve their ability to cope with stress and maintain their well-being.

A client can recommend the following coping strategies to a client who wants to improve their coping skills:

1. Identify and Challenge Negative Thoughts: Encourage the client to become more aware of negative thoughts that contribute to stress, anxiety or depression. Teach them to challenge negative self-talk by finding evidence to counter those thoughts.
2. Practice Mindfulness: Mindfulness practices can help individuals to stay present and focused on the current moment, rather than getting caught up in negative or worrying thoughts. Psychologists can teach mindfulness techniques such as deep breathing, meditation, or progressive muscle relaxation.

3. Develop Social Support: Having a strong support system can help individuals to cope with difficult situations. Encourage the client to reach out to friends, family, or support groups for help and support.
4. Exercise: Exercise has been shown to reduce stress and anxiety, and can help individuals to feel more energized and motivated. Encourage the client to incorporate physical activity into their daily routine.
5. Identify and Utilize Coping Skills: Teach the client different coping skills such as problem-solving, positive self-talk, visualization, or distraction techniques. Encourage them to practice these skills regularly to help manage stress and difficult situations.
6. Identify triggers: It's essential to identify the events, people, or situations that trigger negative emotions or reactions.
7. Build resilience: Learning how to bounce back from setbacks and difficult times is an important skill to develop. A psychologist may teach resilience-building strategies such as reframing, positive self-talk, and mindfulness techniques.
8. Develop problem-solving skills: A psychologist may help the client to develop effective problem-solving skills, so they can identify and address challenges more effectively.
9. Build social support networks: Having supportive friends, family, and colleagues can be helpful in managing stress and building resilience. A psychologist may help the client to build and strengthen their social support networks.

To develop a sense of control and social self-efficacy, a psychologist may recommend the following:

1. Set Achievable Goals: Encourage the client to set achievable goals for themselves and to break them down into smaller, manageable steps. Help them to create a plan for achieving those goals and provide support and encouragement along the way.
2. Challenge Negative Beliefs: Negative beliefs can undermine a person's sense of control and self-efficacy. Help the client to identify and challenge negative beliefs that may be holding them back, and encourage them to replace those beliefs with more positive and empowering ones.
3. Develop a Support Network: Social support can be a valuable source of encouragement and motivation. Encourage the client to reach out to friends, family, or support groups for help and support.
4. Practice Assertiveness: Help the client to develop assertiveness skills so they can communicate their needs and wants effectively, and assert their boundaries.
5. Celebrate Successes: Encourage the client to celebrate their successes, no matter how small. This can help to boost their confidence and sense of self-efficacy.
6. Set achievable goals: Setting goals that are specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time-bound (SMART) can help clients feel more in control of their lives.
7. Break tasks into manageable steps: Breaking tasks down into smaller, more manageable steps can help clients feel less overwhelmed and more capable of achieving their goals.
8. Use positive self-talk: Encouraging clients to use positive self-talk can help them feel more confident and capable of achieving their goals.
9. Seek social support: Building a support network can help clients feel more confident and capable of achieving their goals. A psychologist may help clients identify people in their lives who can offer emotional support and encouragement.

The correlation values and findings examined indicate the relationship between social self-efficacy and coping skills. It is observed that significant outcomes occur for personal preferences, which would especially correspond to taking an active role, leaving obedience, and being more extroverted.

Note: *This section of the book was prepared by integrating the relevant parts of the "Behaviors of Overcoming Stress Differentiating Depending on Perceived Control Level" named postgraduate thesis and the "Development of an Assistance Model with Orientation of Reality Therapy for Clarifying and Eliminating the Social Anxiety Problems of University Students" named doctoral thesis of Dr. Mehmet Palancı, which were prepared as being affiliated to the Social Sciences Institute of Karadeniz Technical University.*

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Social Anxiety Scale (SAS)

Description: Sentences reflecting the statuses that may be encountered in interpersonal relationships in daily life are given below. Please read each article carefully, and try to respond by concretizing it in your mind. You can actualize your responses as per the rating corresponding to the question. The frequency status expressed by each number is given below.

(0) Never (1) Hardly (3) Occasionally (4) Frequently (5) Always

1.	I hesitate in responding even if I know the answer of the questions asked	0	1	2	3	4
2.	I avoid meeting someone's eyes while speaking	0	1	2	3	4
3.	I can only succeed in simple tasks	0	1	2	3	4
4.	I always double-check myself to ensure that I'm not acting inappropriately	0	1	2	3	4
5.	There can be nothing worse than humiliation	0	1	2	3	4
6.	I blush while speaking to someone	0	1	2	3	4
7.	I cannot prevent tremors while speaking to a significant other	0	1	2	3	4
8.	I cannot do anything while being watched	0	1	2	3	4
9.	I think I have no aspect to be liked	0	1	2	3	4
10.	I shouldn't make a mistake for the people to accept me	0	1	2	3	4
11.	If I make a mistake, my good relationships with people break down	0	1	2	3	4
12.	I have difficulty while speaking to someone of the opposite gender	0	1	2	3	4
13.	I care not to make mistake while speaking	0	1	2	3	4
14.	I am generally not satisfied with my physical appearance	0	1	2	3	4
15.	I care about behaving in a manner that the other would like	0	1	2	3	4
16.	I think everyone is looking at me while I am making something in a crowded environment	0	1	2	3	4
17.	I always fear being understood wrong	0	1	2	3	4
18.	Being refused means humiliation for me	0	1	2	3	4
19.	I postpone many of my behaviors with the concern of making mistake	0	1	2	3	4
20.	I fear being criticized by others	0	1	2	3	4
21.	I hesitate asking for a price at a large and luxurious store	0	1	2	3	4
22.	I have difficulty entering the classroom when I'm late	0	1	2	3	4
23.	I think I'm good for nothing	0	1	2	3	4
24.	I have difficulty finding things to say to people that I met recently	0	1	2	3	4
25.	I have difficulty speaking in the classroom	0	1	2	3	4
26.	In crowded environments, I prefer chatting with someone instead of mingling with the crowd	0	1	2	3	4
27.	I hesitate to ask the others about things that I don't understand	0	1	2	3	4
28.	I cannot speak before a crowd, even if it is regarding a subject that I know	0	1	2	3	4
29.	When I'm about to speak to someone, I wait for the other to begin speaking	0	1	2	3	4
30.	Being a member of a group or community has always been difficult for me	0	1	2	3	4

Perception of Control Scale (PCS)

Carefully read the imaginary stress statuses below and identify yourself with such a status. Consider how much you can control the stress caused by such a status. Try to determine your rating with a definition in the range of 1 and 7 with "1" being "I can never control" and "7" being "I can completely control".

1	**4**	**7**
I can never control	At medium level	I can completely control

1.	Stress you will experience regarding the death or loss of a significant person in your life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Stress you experience when getting prepared for an exam in which you have to succeed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Stress you experience in crowded environments and in required social relationships	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Stress arising while you're living apart from your house in a different environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Stress you experience when your economy is in a slump	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Stress you experience when the exams go bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Stress you experience when you're refused by another person on specific subjects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Stress you will experience when you will get prepared for the university exam again	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	Stress you experience when talking to people that you don't know or to people who are significant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Stress you experience regarding domestic problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Perception of Social Self-Efficacy Scale (PSSES)

Description: Carefully read each expression given below. Then decide with how much confidence you can complete each of the activities presented by each question. You can rate your responses by using the following rating.

1. I have no confidence
2. I have low confidence
3. I have slight confidence
4. I have plenty of confidence
5. I have complete confidence

e.g. 1. Initiating a conversation with someone that I don't know much about (such as I have slight confidence 1 2 3 4 5)

1.	Initiating a conversation with someone that I don't know much about	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Disclosing my thoughts while a subject that you are interested in is being discussed within a group	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Estimating what I will do while working with people at school, at the workplace, or in crowded environments	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Assisting someone that I recently got to know for her/him to feel good with a group of friends	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Being able to share with a group of friends an incident that I experienced	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Being able to get into a new and different social environment	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Volunteering for participation in an organization to be performed along with a group	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Participating in and asking a group that has made the decision for a social activity such as going to the cinema	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Being invited to a party organized by a significant and popular person	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Voluntarily assisting the management of a group or organization	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Being able to pursue a conversation after beginning it	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Taking part in group activities	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Being able to find friends for spending time with during the weekend	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Being able to open your feelings to others	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Being able to find someone to go to lunch	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Being able to ask someone for a date	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Being able to attend an event or meeting where you don't know anyone	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Being able to ask for help from someone when you need	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Being able to make friends from your past	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Being able to sit at the table of your friends having meal and participate in the conversation	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Being able to be included in a group in which everyone knew each other previously and being able to make friends	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Being able to ask someone, who had previously told you that s/he was busy, to go out to somewhere again	1	2	3	4	5

23.	Finding male or female friends for entertainment where your friends would attend	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Calling someone that you got to know a short while ago and wishing to know her or him more	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Requesting from a potential friend to have some drinks together	1	2	3	4	5

Implementation Schedule

In order to be able to ensure the continuity of the group, the actualization of required notifications and agreements on issues such as the following will be ensured:

(a) Participation contract
(b) Implementation calendar and continuity
(c) Description of the social and professional support system
(d) Definition of the returns of the group events
(e) Determination, planning, and implementation of attainable objectives
(f) Adhering to assignments.

Stages of Operation for Eliminating the Problem of Social Anxiety

Session 1

Objectives

- Introduction of the program and determination of the general objectives
- Encouragement regarding the program
- Appraisal of justifications for the solution regarding the content
- Definition of the psychological assistance concept
- Ensuring an environment of trust and relationship
- Strengthening the belief that the problem is being shared by other people and that it may be solved together

Operations

- Self-acquaintance of the consultant and meeting of the members
- Discussion of ethical rules and the responsibility of participation in the group
- Provision of information and examples regarding the assistance process
- Appraisal of the common aspects of the problem in terms of the experiences of the members and discussion of the partnership regarding collective solution
- Appraisal of aspects and support points which assist in being successful

Session 2

Objectives

- Giving information regarding the therapy process and psychological assistance
- Formation of the initial phase for the group
- Development of comfort regarding trust and participation

Operations

- Giving place to warm-up exercises with social content and small shares
- Ensuring awareness regarding personal problems and being able to comprehend the difficulty of social performance as shared knowledge
- Being able to urge upon our justifications for change and upon resources regarding solutions
- Maintaining the assistance operations for them to observe the benefits of working with groups and the logic of operations

Session 3

Objectives

- Definition of behavior formation process as per reality therapy and choice theory

- Making definitions regarding choice, behavior, and basic needs
- Associating purposefulness and strength of problem solving

Operations

- Making evaluations regarding the concepts presented by the use of the order of definition of choice theory
- Addressing as a whole concepts such as choosing, communication, the world of quality, and responsibility
- Encouragement for being able to use the contribution of change of behavior regarding decreasing negative emotions and development
- Determination of what was done to eliminate the relevant problem

Sessions 4 and 5

Objectives

- Assisting the group members in the determination of their needs
- Actualizing the definition of total behavior
- Defining the concept of success identity and trying to develop it
- Formulating social anxiety as per the choice theory

Operations

- Defining the basic life requirements
- Evaluating the skills regarding sociality and the development of social relationship and the personal and situational factors affecting the same
- Defining within the context of social anxiety the formulation of problems regarding notions, emotions, and actions
- Evaluating the questions "What am I doing?", "What are the other people doing?", and "What can I do better?"
- Giving place to events that may improve communication skills to eliminate the problem of social anxiety

Session 6

- Being able to make effective behavior planning and evaluation
- Revising and improving the objectives
- Assisting with the plans for self-follow-up and evaluation of the problem

Operations

- Preparing a "personal behavioral change program" that is usable and on which operations may be generated along with the group
- Discussing personal variables and strengths regarding the concept of internal control and ability
- Maintaining the group study on adjusting social expectations

Session 7

Objectives

- Evaluating the plan and change of behavior
- Evaluating the relationship between sociality, ascriptions and expectations regarding sociality, and personal problematic
- Focusing on the concepts of coping and ability to control and on alternative behaviors

Operations

- Sharing the social behaviors that are planned and that can be exhibited
- Evaluating the impracticable aspects of the plan and its aspects that are required to be changed
- Encouraging towards not giving up and carrying out studies to be able to see the causes of flaws. Determination and evaluation of conflicts of communication, our perception regarding other people, and our efforts to be empathetic

Sessions 8 and 9

Objectives

- Following the implementation process of the plan
- Addressing within the scope of choice theory the factors of vulnerability, perfectionism, communication stress, and interpersonal sensitivity that have negative effect on social anxiety
- Being able to develop active and actual efforts for the elimination of the problem of social anxiety

Operations

- Performing operations on the concepts, respectively, in a manner to improve the plans, change of behavior, and social problem-solving skills
- Determining and evaluating the communication conflicts, our perceptions of other people, and our efforts to be empathetic
- Defining effects regarding the concepts of self-efficacy, confidence, and interpersonal communication stress and evaluating the control skills
- Determining the negative notions that operate in the cognitive sense and urging upon struggling or being able to change
- Determining the trainings and determination for undertaking responsibility
- Sharing evaluations and experiences regarding self-help
- Defining the factors preventing social assertiveness and discussing the solutions
- Determining the negative notions operating in the cognitive sense and defining the determination of struggling
- Being able to use positive shares that increase motivation
- Discussing the records regarding self-follow-up
- Evaluating the behaviors preventing social comfort and discussing the solutions

Session 10

Objectives

- Evaluating the success of overcoming social anxiety
- Planning the finalization studies

Operations

- Evaluating the process
- Defining the self-help skills
- Evaluating the usability of choice theory and the concept of control for all the domains of life regarding the future
- Urging upon the purposes of living and expectations
- Carrying out finalization and follow-up work

The Digital Inequalities in The Digital Society

Nuriye ÇELİK[1]

Introduction

Digital inequality is the digital manifestation of social inequality. The history of mankind has been observed by various forms of social inequality. Inequality cannot be eliminated, but it can be minimized. Culture, gender, race, language, religion, and historical conditions can all contribute to social stratification that is embodied by social stratification. Therefore, some of the qualities that create social inequality may change over time. This situation can be explained by the variability of social structure and values. Digital inequality has a similar pattern to social inequality. Social inequality is constantly re-produced within its socio-economic conditions. Digital inequality, on the other hand, is an element that prevents entry into the digital space and stops contributing to the regulation and development of digital society. Education, cultural capital, political participation, and bureaucratic management are all hindered by digital inequality.

This study addresses digital inequality as a barrier to participation in the digital society. Digital inequality is the digitalized version of social inequality and has major conclusions on significant things such as education and political participation. The functioning of today's digital society will be possible by minimizing digital inequality. For this purpose, firstly, the concept of social inequality is discussed in the study. Then the concept of digital inequality was explained, and its place in the literature has been discussed and the distribution of studies in this field is presented. In this study, a descriptive analysis method based on literature is used. As a result of the study, it has been revealed that digital inequality has important consequences likely social inequality depending on the effect of digital space in users' daily life; therefore, it has been observed that studies should be carried out for digital inequality could be measured, examine, studied, and eventually minimalized. The study concluded with suggestions about understanding the working process of the digital society to reduce digital inequality, acquiring digital tools at the basic level with the provision of justice in income distribution, and productive use of these tools.

Methodology

In this study, the descriptive literature review method was used. Because "A literature review may be the best methodological tool to provide answers" and a "literature review provides the basis for building a new conceptual mode" especially for a new concept or study field such as digital inequality (Snyder, 2019). Digital inequality has been examined and explained through the literature. Thus, it is aimed to give an idea to other studies by revealing the deficiency in the literature.

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Social Inequality and Its Digital Transformation

Social inequality occurs when the distribution of resources in social life is unequal. From health to education, political participation to family life, and gender to child poverty, social inequality has a wide range of reproduction. Studies that consider the historical process (Price & Feinman, 1995; Grusky, 2019) have shown that forms of inequality are seen at every stage of human society. It is well known that social inequality and mobility are interconnected, and an inequitable education system contributes to social inactivity (Boudon, 1974). The social environment of individuals is also effective in their education period and decision-making processes; thus, unequal conditions constantly reproduce themselves (DiMaggio & Strange, 2012). So much so that even in managing bureaucratic processes, class distinctions and unequal positions bring new inequalities. For example, middle-class young adults often manage to get their needs met by the institution when faced with a problem, but working-class and poor young adults are more frustrated because they know less about bureaucracies (Lareau, 2015). In this way, social inequality can be explained by the sociological relationship a person has with their environment. The most visible form of social inequality at the social level is injustice in income distribution. According to the Turkish Statistical Institute (TURKSTAT), "the share of the highest quintile was 46.7% of the total income" in Turkey. Also, according to the Turkish Statistical Institute, because the Gini Index has been around 0.40 in the last decades, Turkey has high-income inequality (Kayıkçı, 2019). If we look at the situation in the world for example, "in the US, <1% of the population is living below the international poverty line ($1.90 per day)" and "as of 2020, the World Bank estimates that 703--729 million people live below the international poverty line" (Hazell & Holmes, 2021). Social inequality is an important problem in societies, and its version in digitalized society has turned into digital inequality. Digital inequality is a socioeconomic problem that the digital society must address. Understanding the digital society is crucial to minimizing digital inequality in today's digital world where every moment of daily life is transferred to the digital realm.

The digital society does not have a clear definition. "There are various definitions of it, from ideas about it as 'a new slave-owning society with people-controlling machines', to its definition as an 'electronic society' where a person masters the forces of advanced technologies and successfully uses artificial intelligence" (Stozhko et al, 2019).

> *"Digital sociology is not only about sociologists researching and theorising about how other people use digital technologies or focusing on the digital data produced via this use. Digital sociology has much broader implications than simply studying digital technologies, raising questions about the practice of sociology and social research itself. It also includes research on how sociologists themselves are using social and other digital media as part of their work" (Lupton, 2014).*

Digital inequality and social inequality are similar concepts in terms of their causes and consequences. Digital inequality has consequences on the inclusion process in a digital society. There is rapid interaction and communication in the digital social field. This technological transformation in society attracts the attention of sociology, and digital society is becoming an important sociological field of study (Redshaw, 2020). In addition, the consequences of digital inequality, which prevent participation in the digitalized society, are sociologically important. Therefore, it becomes important to analyze digital inequality sociologically and to minimize it by revealing its results.

The Definition of Digital Inequality

"The term digital inequality can be defined as the discrepancies in knowledge and skill of using information and communications technology (ICT) among individuals with socioeconomic backgrounds, IT (information technology) experiences, different demographics, and the like" (Islam & Inan, 2021). According to the literature review on digital inequality, this concept was first examined in communication sciences and then in sociology. However, it was also seen in the literature review (Figure 1) that it would be beneficial to increase the studies in this field.

Figure 1. *Literature on digital inequality*



In a literature study on digital inequality (Özsoy, 2020), three levels in this area were revealed: In first-level digital inequality studies, having internet access was considered advantageous. The second generation of digital inequality focuses on the skill of using digital tools and measures these advantages empirically. Measurable and evidence-based data, such as how it is distributed in different strata of society, constitute third-level digital divide studies. It is possible to see this distribution in the field of education. The educational opportunities provided by the digital field seem to be sufficient only to have basic devices such as computers and the internet. However, those who have these digital tools also need digital skills to use them, and not every digital tool contributes positively to the education process. Digital tools should be used in a way that creates equal opportunities, and this way should teach the users. Digital inequality results in the inability to access and benefit from digital tools and is affected by social inequality. Studies (Krištofić, 2007) have shown that internet users have a higher education and economic level than those who do not. Therefore, it is the social class that is deprived of the benefits of the digital space, which is also affected by social inequality. Studies conducted in China, Croatia, and South Africa (Krištofić, 2007; Liu, 2017; Oyedemi & Choung, 2020) have shown that digital inequality leads to the spiral of unemployment and deepens social inequality. For example, young people need digital skills to find a job, but they do not have the digital tools to acquire these skills. Similarly, they cannot access the content in the digital space to increase their level of education because they do not have access to digital tools. Therefore, there is a spiral between digital inequality and social inequality that increases the intensity of each other. According to another study that examined digital inequality in Ukrainian society (Sichkarenko et al, 2021), pointed out that the level of digital differentiation in the country should be constantly monitored by revealing the interactions between digital inequality and the level of socioeconomic development in the society. In a study investigating the factors creating digital inequality in Bangladesh (Islam & Inan, 2021), educational, infrastructural, social, and economic factors were highlighted. According to the field research data on Türkiye (Öztürk,

2005), it has been observed that as the household income level increases the use of computers, mobile phones, and the internet increases, but the rate of access to these digital tools has decreased dramatically in families with low-income levels. While significant progress has been made in solving the problem of access to digital tools in Turkey over time, it is seen that the access gap is still a problem, especially between urban and rural areas, and between men and women (Özsoy, 2020). Information technologies data collected by TURKSTAT in Turkey constitute a source for digital inequality studies (Tayanç, 2021). There are important studies examining the consequences of digital inequality in the field of education, especially during the pandemic period (Watts, 2020; Beaunoyer et al, 2020; Coleman, 2021; Azubuike et al, 2021). According to these studies, the number of studies that draw attention to digital inequality in the literature is insufficient, and periods such as the pandemic deepen digital inequality. Similarly, there are important studies examining the effects of digital inequality on access to political participation and bureaucratic processes (Morris & Morris, 2013; Robinson et al., 2015; Büchi & Vogler, 2017). According to these studies, analysing marginal political discourses requires effectiveness in the use of digital tools. Results found in a study (Morris & Morris, 2013) conflict with a "digital reproduction of inequality" perspective and claim that the Internet can help serve as an equalizing agent for citizen involvement in the political process, rather than serve as a source of greater inequality. While interpreting the results of this study conducted in America, it is necessary not to analyse it independently of the political and economic conditions of the relevant society and the period. "There are significant differences between developed and developing countries in terms of accessing and using information and communication technologies" (Acılar, 2011). Therefore, digital inequality requires analysis from a sociological perspective.

Conclusion

As a result of individuals not having access to digital tools, digital inequality leads to other inequalities. In addition, the digital sphere is where many processes of the digital society occur. When individuals do not have access to this digital sphere, they stay out of all kinds of digital life. For example, the majority of governments have transferred their roles and duties to the digital space. A lot of bureaucratic processes can be done online. On the other hand, new media provide an extraordinary public opinion and affect it in every way. In the digital sphere, there is an inevitable powerful virtual public space, and it is required some tools for getting involved. Education, which is the only way to overcome social inequality, is possible by reaching universal knowledge in the digital field. As a result, minimizing digital inequality is both necessary to increase political participation and to take advantage of its educational opportunities, as well as to create economic development that will influence national development.

As a result of the study, the following recommendations are offered: Multi-layered planning should be done to solve digital inequality (Beaunoyer et al., 2020). Strategies should be determined at the government, educational institutions, local administrations, and individual levels, and long-term solutions should be created. At the individual level, the government should ensure that access to at least basic digital tools is provided. Free internet access can be provided and areas, like a library, can be created with access to computers. Especially in low-income regions, basic access facilities should be created by the government. In addition, since there are layers of digital inequality, it should be aimed to improve the usage process after basic access is achieved. Considering the second and third stages of digital inequality, the most important step to take is to increase digital literacy. At this stage, support should be obtained

from educational institutions such as universities. After providing access to information, users should be taught how to check the truth of information, and which resources they need. Information irregularities can lead to both deepening of inequality and manipulation. Therefore, every individual in the digital society must learn to use digital tools correctly and effectively. Especially, ensuring participation in the political arena necessitates teaching important concepts that affect public opinion such as manipulation, disinformation, and echo chamber. Finally, the issue of digital inequality is not only the subject of communication sciences or information technologies but also sociology. It has been seen that an important sociological literature needs to be developed in this area.

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Health Perception and Medication Use in Individuals with Intellectual Disabilities Residing in Care Centers: The Impact of Gender and Intelligence Level

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INTRODUCTION

Health perception refers to an individual's subjective assessment and interpretation of their own health status, encompassing physical, mental, and social well-being. It involves an individual's awareness, beliefs, and attitudes towards their overall health, including the presence or absence of symptoms, the ability to perform daily activities, and the perception of their overall quality of life (Goldberg, Guéguen, Schmaus, Nakache, & Goldberg, 2001).

Health perception and medication use are vital aspects of healthcare management for individuals with intellectual disabilities residing in care centers. Understanding the factors that influence health perception and medication use in this population is crucial for improving their overall well-being and ensuring appropriate healthcare interventions (Munro & Lewin, 2007). This study aims to explore the impact of gender and intelligence level on health perception and medication use among individuals with intellectual disabilities in care centers.

It plays a pivotal role in shaping individuals' health-related behaviors, including adherence to medication regimens, engagement in preventive measures, and healthcare-seeking behaviors (Jimmy & Jose, 2011). In individuals with intellectual disabilities, accurate health perception is particularly important as it can influence their ability to communicate symptoms, make informed decisions, and actively participate in their healthcare.

Intellectual disabilities are neurodevelopmental disorders characterized by limitations in intellectual functioning and adaptive behaviors. Individuals with intellectual disabilities often face unique challenges in accessing and utilizing healthcare services, which can impact their health outcomes. Moreover, research has shown that gender differences may exist in health perceptions and medication use patterns across various populations (Verbrugge, 1985). However, limited research has examined the specific impact of gender and intelligence level on health perception and medication use among individuals with intellectual disabilities residing in care centers.

This study aims to address this research gap by investigating the relationship between gender, intelligence level, health perception, and medication use in individuals with intellectual disabilities in care centers. By exploring these factors, we can gain insights into the unique healthcare needs and experiences of this population, and identify potential areas for intervention and support (de Vries McClintock, et al., 2016).

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The findings of this study can have implications for healthcare providers, policymakers, and caregivers involved in the care of individuals with intellectual disabilities. Understanding the impact of gender and intelligence level on health perception and medication use can inform the development of tailored interventions and strategies to enhance healthcare outcomes and improve the overall quality of life for individuals with intellectual disabilities (Louch, et al., 2021).

METHOD

This cross-sectional study was conducted in a private care center in Manisa, Turkey which provides services to individuals with intellectual disabilities aged 19 and above. A total of 46 individuals residing in the care center participated in the study. Data collection was performed through face-to-face interviews between these individuals and the psychologist of the institution, during which data collection forms were completed. A demographic questionnaire was utilized to determine the socio-demographic characteristics, along with a single-item health perception scale. The question "How do you evaluate your health?" was used, and the responses were assessed as "poor," "fair," and "good." Data were analyzed using IBM SPSS 26.0 software, and non-parametric tests were used. For the analysis of descriptive information, numbers, percentages, and means were used.

Due to the non-normal distribution of the data, non-parametric tests were preferred. To evaluate the relationships between the features of individuals with disabilities and health perception, the Kruskal-Wallis H and Chi-square test analysis were applied. Significant differences between variables were interpreted at the 0.05 level of significance. Informed consent was obtained from both the legal guardians and the individuals with disabilities to participate in the research. The research has been conducted with the knowledge of the relevant authorities.

RESULTS

The sociodemographic and other features of the participants in Table 1 are provided. Among the participants, 50% were female, with an average age of 45.8 ± 12.5 (ranging from 23 to 70). Mild mental retardation was observed in 6.5% of the participants, while 52.2% had moderate mental retardation, and 41.3% had severe mental retardation. The causes of intellectual disability were 84.8% postnatal.

While 13% of the participants had their expenses covered by their families or legal guardians, 87% had their expenses paid by the government due to their low economic status. 17.4% were smoking. On average, participants used 5.5 ± 3.1 medications (ranging from 1 to 14). The participants' duration of stay in the care center was 48.2 ± 30.1 months (ranging from 23 to 70).

As for self-reported health, 10.9% of the individuals reported poor health, 63% reported moderate health, and 26.1% reported good health.

Table 1 – Features of the Participants

F	N	%
Gender		
Female	23	50%
Male	23	50%
Age	45.8 ± 12.5 (23-70)	

Mental Status		
Mild	3	6.5%
Moderate	24	52.2%
Severe	19	41.3%
Cause of Disability		
Prenatal	7	15.2%
Postnatal	39	84.8%
Fee Status		
Paid	6	13%
Free	40	87%
Smoking		
Yes	8	17.4%
No	38	82.6%
Medications	5.5 ± 3.1 (1-14)	
Residence Time (month)	48.2 ± 30.1 (2-96)	
Health Status		
Poor	5	10.9%
Moderate	29	63%
Good	12	26.1%

The relationship between the participants' features and health perceptions is demonstrated in Table 2. According to this table; 4.4% of females reported poor health, 47.8% reported moderate health, and 47.8% reported good health; 17.4% of males reported poor health, 78.3% reported moderate health, 4.3% reported good health. A positive relationship has been detected between gender and health perception ($\chi 2 = 11.8$; $p < 0.05$).

All individuals with mild mental retardation reported moderate health, whereas 4.2% of those with moderate mental retardation reported poor health, 50% reported moderate health, and 45.8% reported good health. Finally, 21.1% of those with severe mental retardation reported poor health, 73.7% reported moderate health, and 5.3% reported good health. A positive relationship has been detected between mental status and health perception ($\chi 2 = 12.3$; $p < 0.05$).

There were no significant relationships observed with other independent variables.

Table 2 – Health Perception of the Participants

F	**Health Status**			**P**	**X/H**
Gender	Poor	Moderate	Good		
Female	4.4%	47.8%	47.8%	***p=0.003***	X=11.8
Male	17.4%	78.3%	4.3%		
Age				p=0.06	H=5.5
Mental Status					
Mild	-	100%	-	***p=0.02***	X=12.3
Moderate	4.2%	50%	45.8%		
Severe	21.1%	73.7%	5.3%		

Cause of Disability					
Prenatal	-	100%	-	p=0.09	X=4.8
Postnatal	12.8%	56.4%	30.8%		
Fee Status					
Paid	-	100%	-	p=0.132	X=4.1
Free	12.5%	57.5%	30.0%		
Smoking					
Yes	-	87.5%	12.5%	p=0.265	X=2.7
No	13.2%	57.9%	28.9%		
Medications				p=0.284	H=2.5
Residence Time (month)				p=0.59	H=1.1

DISCUSSION

The present study examined the relationship between participant features and health perceptions among individuals with intellectual disabilities. The findings from this study provide valuable insights into various aspects of the participant population.

The study sample consisted of individuals with diverse characteristics. Half of the participants were female, with an average age of 45.8 ± 12.5 years. The age range of participants varied from 23 to 70 years. These findings indicate the inclusion of a broad age range, which contributes to the representativeness of the study sample.

Regarding the severity of intellectual disability, the results showed that 6.5% of the participants had mild mental retardation, while the majority of participants had moderate (52.2%) or severe (41.3%) intellectual disability. This distribution reflects the heterogeneity in cognitive abilities among the participant population and highlights the need for tailored interventions and support services based on the specific needs of individuals with different levels of intellectual disability.

The average number of medications used by the participants was 5.5 ± 3.1, ranging from 1 to 14. This finding indicates the presence of various health conditions among the participants, which require ongoing medical management. The high number of medications (polypharmacy) emphasizes the importance of comprehensive healthcare and medication management for individuals with intellectual disabilities. Polypharmacy refers to the concurrent use of multiple medications, typically involving five or more drugs. Several studies have examined the prevalence of polypharmacy in individuals with intellectual disabilities and have reported similar findings. For example, a study conducted by Koritsas and Iacono (2016) found that older Australians with intellectual disabilities had a mean medication count of 5.4 ± 3.3, indicating a substantial burden of polypharmacy in this population. Another study by Einfeld, Piccinin, Mackinnon, Hofer, and Taffe (2013) reported an average medication count of 6.6 ± 4.1 among adults with intellectual disabilities living in the community. The average number of medications used by participants in these studies indicates a high prevalence of polypharmacy in individuals with intellectual disabilities. This underscores the need for comprehensive healthcare and medication management, considering the presence of various health conditions requiring ongoing medical management. By adopting patient-centered approaches and implementing strategies such as medication reviews and deprescribing, healthcare professionals can enhance

the quality of care and minimize the potential risks associated with polypharmacy in this population.

Regarding self-reported health, the participants reported varying levels of perceived health status. 10.9% of the individuals rated their health as poor, 63% as moderate, and 26.1% as good. These findings suggest that the majority of participants had a moderate perception of their health, while a smaller proportion perceived their health as poor or good. These self-reported health assessments provide valuable insights into the subjective well-being of individuals with intellectual disabilities. A study conducted by Havercamp, Scandlin, and Roth (2004) explored self-reported health among adults with intellectual disabilities and found that the majority of participants rated their health as fair or good. Similarly, a study by Krahn, Hammond, and Turner (2006) examined self-reported health among adults with intellectual disabilities and reported that the majority of participants rated their health as fair or better. The varying levels of perceived health status reported by individuals with intellectual disabilities can be influenced by several factors. Firstly, individuals with intellectual disabilities often have complex health needs and may experience a higher prevalence of physical and mental health conditions compared to the general population (Tuffrey-Wijne, et al., 2013). These health conditions can impact their overall well-being and contribute to their subjective perception of health. Secondly, the ability to accurately assess and report health status can be influenced by cognitive limitations and communication difficulties commonly associated with intellectual disabilities (Sloper, Greco, Beecham, Webb, & Beresford, 2006). Individuals with intellectual disabilities may face challenges in understanding and expressing their health concerns, which can impact their self-assessment of health.

Understanding the self-perceived health status of individuals with intellectual disabilities is important for healthcare professionals and service providers to tailor appropriate interventions and support. It allows for a more holistic approach to care that considers the individual's subjective experience of health and well-being. By considering self-reported health assessments, healthcare providers can better address the unique needs and priorities of individuals with intellectual disabilities.

Gender differences in health perception were observed among the participants. Males had a higher percentage of reporting poor health (17.4%) compared to females (4.4%). Conversely, a higher proportion of females reported good health (47.8%) compared to males (4.3%). These results indicate a significant association between gender and health perception among individuals with intellectual disabilities. Research on gender differences in health perception among individuals with intellectual disabilities has provided similar findings. For instance, a study by Gulley and Hughes (2005) examined self-rated health among individuals with developmental disabilities, including intellectual disabilities, and found that females were more likely to rate their health as excellent or very good compared to males. Similarly, a study by Havercamp, Scandlin, and Roth (2004) reported that females with intellectual disabilities were more likely to rate their health as excellent, very good, or good compared to males. The observed gender differences in health perception among individuals with intellectual disabilities can be influenced by various factors. Firstly, differences in the prevalence and severity of health conditions may contribute to variations in health perception. It is possible that males with intellectual disabilities in this study experienced a higher burden of health issues or more severe conditions, leading to a higher proportion reporting poor health. Conversely, females may have had a different health profile characterized by a higher proportion of individuals reporting good health. Secondly, sociocultural factors and gender norms can influence individuals' self-perception of health. Socialization processes and societal

expectations may shape how individuals, including those with intellectual disabilities, perceive and express their health status (Beresford, Mukadam, & Mayhew, 2005). Gender roles and stereotypes can influence individuals' interpretations and evaluations of their well-being, including their health perception.

Understanding the gender differences in health perception among individuals with intellectual disabilities is important for healthcare providers and researchers. It highlights the need for gender-sensitive approaches in healthcare planning and interventions. Healthcare professionals should be attentive to the specific health concerns and needs of males and females with intellectual disabilities, considering the potential variations in health perception and the factors that may influence it.

Furthermore, a significant relationship was found between the severity of intellectual disability and health perception. All individuals with mild mental retardation reported moderate health, while those with moderate mental retardation had a distribution of poor, moderate, and good health perceptions. Among those with severe mental retardation, a higher percentage reported poor health (21.1%) compared to moderate (73.7%) or good health (5.3%). These findings highlight the impact of cognitive abilities on health perception among individuals with intellectual disabilities.

Notably, no significant relationships were observed between health perception and other independent variables assessed in this study. This suggests that factors such as age, medication usage, and socio-demographic characteristics may not have a substantial influence on health perception among individuals with intellectual disabilities in this particular sample.

In summary, the findings of this study provide insights into the relationship between participant characteristics and health perceptions among individuals with intellectual disabilities. The results highlight the importance of considering factors such as gender and severity of intellectual disability when assessing health perceptions in this population. These findings contribute to a better understanding of the subjective well-being and health experiences of individuals with intellectual disabilities. Further research is needed to explore additional factors that may influence health perceptions in this population and to develop targeted interventions aimed at improving overall health and well-being.

CONCLUSION

This study provides valuable insights into the health perception and needs of individuals with intellectual disabilities residing in a care center in Manisa, Turkey. The findings highlight the importance of understanding the health status and subjective well-being of this population to improve the quality of health and social services provided.

The study sample consisted of 46 individuals with intellectual disabilities, with a relatively equal gender distribution. The majority of participants had moderate or severe intellectual disabilities. The average number of medications used by the participants was 5.5, indicating a high prevalence of multiple health conditions requiring ongoing medical management.

Regarding health perception, the participants reported varying levels of perceived health status. The majority rated their health as moderate, while a smaller proportion perceived their health as poor or good. Gender differences were observed, with males reporting a higher percentage of poor health and females reporting a higher proportion of good health. These gender differences in health perception suggest the influence of sociocultural factors and highlight the need for gender-sensitive healthcare approaches.

Additionally, the level of intellectual disability was found to be associated with health perception. Individuals with mild intellectual disability reported moderate health, while those with moderate or severe intellectual disabilities had a wider range of health perceptions, including poor, moderate, and good health.

These findings emphasize the importance of comprehensive healthcare and medication management for individuals with intellectual disabilities. Healthcare providers and service providers should consider the unique health needs and subjective well-being of individuals with intellectual disabilities when planning interventions and delivering services. The results of this study can inform the development of tailored healthcare programs and support systems to enhance the overall health and well-being of individuals with intellectual disabilities in care centers.

It is important to acknowledge some limitations of this study. The small sample size and the single-site setting limit the generalizability of the findings to other populations and contexts. The study's cross-sectional design provides a snapshot of health perception and does not capture the dynamics and changes in health over time. Future research with larger sample sizes and longitudinal designs is needed to further explore the health perception and needs of individuals with intellectual disabilities in different settings.

In conclusion, this study contributes to the understanding of health perception among individuals with intellectual disabilities in a care center. The findings highlight the need for comprehensive healthcare and tailored interventions to address the varying health needs and subjective well-being of this population. By considering their unique perspectives and experiences, healthcare providers can promote the overall health and well-being of individuals with intellectual disabilities and enhance their quality of life.

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Promotıng Inquıry-Based Learnıng Of Theory Of Knowledge (Tok) Across Subject Areas In The Internatıonal Baccalaureate Dıploma Programmeme

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Introduction

One of the international education organizations, the International Baccalaureate (IB), also aims to develop inquiring, knowledgeable and caring young people who are internationally-minded (IB, 2008, p. 3). Through its programmes (Primary Years Programme, Middle Years Programme and Diploma Programme) and the IB learner profile, the IB promotes critical thinking and inquiry skills. The Primary Years Programme (PYP) was introduced in 1997 for students aged 3-12 to prepare them to become active, caring, inquiring, lifelong learners who demonstrate respect for themselves and others and have the capacity to participate in the world around them (IB, 2008, p. 8). The Middle Years Programme (MYP) was introduced in 1994 for students aged 11-16 to encourage them to make practical connections between their studies and the real world, and the Diploma Programme (DP) was established in 1968 for students aged 16 to 19 to provide students with a balanced education, to facilitate geographic and cultural mobility and to promote international understanding (IB, n.d).

Theory of Knowledge (TOK), one of the core components in the IB Diploma Programme, is an interdisciplinary course which provides coherence by exploring the nature of knowledge across all disciplines and encourage an appreciation of other cultures. As explained in the TOK Guide (2020), the course is at the heart of the Diploma Programme (DP) in that it promotes international-mindedness through emphasis on intercultural understanding and respect. The TOK course aims to promote critical thinking, the investigation of the nature and problem of knowledge in the following Areas of Knowledge (AOKs): history, mathematics, the natural sciences, the human sciences, the arts as well as through links to the themes regarding knowledge: technology, language, indigenous societies, politics and religion.

The TOK course attaches great importance to curiosity, thoughtful inquiry, mutual respect, openness and training in analytical and critical thought. Students in the TOK course are expected to make links between the production of knowledge in different subject areas to reflect critically on the construction of knowledge with different cultural points of view, as well as analyze their own beliefs and assumptions in a critical way. In order to accomplish these aims in the TOK course, all DP teachers need to make salient connections and develop a better understanding of how they know what they think they know in their subject areas.

Literature Review

It is in our nature to think and inquire. However, our thinking might occasionally be "biased, distorted, partial, uninformed or down-right prejudiced" (Paul & Elder, 2008). Our life experiences can be enriched for a more peaceful world through inquiry and critical thinking skills. Critical thinking is a mode of thinking in which the thinker improves thinking through skillfully taking charge of the structures in thinking and imposing intellectual standards on them. (Paul and Elder, 2008). Critical thinking skills involve recognizing and assessing assumptions; gathering relevant information; resolving complex problems related with inequalities, bias, and prejudices; thinking in an open-minded way to evaluate assumptions,

biases and implications and coming up with well-reasoned conclusions and solutions on the complex issues (Lai, 2011; Paul and Elder, 2008). These critical thinking skills can be encouraged through different educational programmes, such as explicit instruction or general programmes, immersion programmes, mixed programmes, and individual teaching methods or techniques (Radulovic and Milan, 2017).

Various studies have been conducted on inquiry-based teaching in the IB educational contexts at different grade levels such as in the implementation of inquiry-based instruction in teaching practices in the PYP (Coopersmith, 2014; Haddock, 2014; Hamm, Cullen, Ciaravino, 2013); the analysis of inquiry based learning in the MYP (Green, 2012; Lenihan, 2013; Tims, 2014) and the challenges for effective implementation of inquiry in the DP (Taylor, 2014). In their book chapter, Chichekian and Shore (2014) also provide a synopsis of research done on the topic of inquiry-based instruction in the PYP, MYP, and DP worldwide. Their research revealed that more attention is given to planning inquiry-based learning than to the implementation of inquiry-based learning.

The literature on the DP TOK course, mainly focuses on the implementation, impact, perceived benefits, and outcomes of the TOK course. As of now, an empirical study has yet to be conducted in any school context on the strategies and challenges of how teachers can integrate aspects of the TOK course within their subject areas. Prior studies on the impact and perceived outcomes of the TOK course revealed that DP students developed better critical thinking skills (Cole, et al., 2014; Bergeron and Rogers, 2016; Lee, 2013; Hughes, 2014; Sagun, Ateşkan, Onur, 2016). Congruently, teachers reported that teaching the TOK course helped students to develop an awareness of how knowledge is constructed and make connections across their other academic disciplines, in order to critically evaluate knowledge and reflect on their personal assumptions (Bergeron and Rogers, 2016). This change in attitude can be best seen in the TOK course itself, as TOK is thought to be an influential component in a DP student's life (Wilkinson and Hayden, 2010). In terms of the implementation of the TOK course, the research suggests that the TOK online discussion forum increased students' participation and collaboration and further enhanced their searching and writing skills (Bardai and Teipar, 2013). Furthermore, an effective implementation of the TOK course, for example, making connections between religion and TOK, are complementary with each other in their contribution to the personal growth of students (Smith, 2013).

Issues around TOK

The inherent challenges of the implementing the TOK course were identified to include student ambivalence about the value of the TOK course for real-world applications, the lack of integration at the school level (Cole, et al., 2014), deficient reasoning and failing to think critically (Lai, 2011), as well as assessment, timing and administrative issues, such as scheduling and class size (Bergeron and Rogers, 2016). Furthermore, although the TOK course stands out as an interdisciplinary course on its own, salient TOK links are often under-explored to a major extent in other DP courses. Specifically, one study showed that although most teachers claimed that they applied the elements of the TOK course in their subject areas, their students reported they were unable to see the links their teachers made between the TOK course and other DP subjects in other disciplines (Harris, 2012).

Since TOK course needs to be collaboratively planned and reflected by teachers to include in each subject area (IB, 2014, p. 24), the authors recommend that action research study is conducted at IB schools to explore the barriers to and provide strategies for a better integration of TOK across DP subjects. Upon ascertaining the extent of integration of thoughtful inquiry, analytical and critical thinking at schools, practitioners and educators may identify the challenges of and develop strategies for all DP teachers across all subject areas to foster inquiry and critical thinking skills. Such studies will also provide other practitioners and educators with

insightful schoolwide approaches for the integration of inquiry, critical thinking skills and student agency into subject areas.

Recommended Methodology for Research in TOK

Research Design

The research study can utilize an action research design with a mixed methods approach to improve the phenomenon under consideration through an educational intervention at the school. The researchers can collect observations on their school practices extensively, apply an educational intervention to deal with the problem(s) identified and help the DP teachers to take necessary actions for further improvement on their practice about the implementation of TOK across subjects.

Research Questions

Practitioners or researchers may use the following research questions for such an investigation:

a) To what extent does the school integrate the TOK across DP subjects? What are the DP teachers' current perceived challenges and strategies for implementing TOK across subjects at the school?
b) How can the school improve its current practice of integrating TOK across DP subjects more effectively?
c) To what extent do the educational intervention actions help the school integrate TOK across DP subjects?

Participants

The participants of such research may represent a group of teachers who teach Group 1 (Languages), Group 2 (Foreign Languages), Group 3 (Individuals and Societies), Group 4 (Sciences), Group 5 (Mathematics), Group 6 (Visual Arts) and Core Components, namely, Theory of Knowledge (TOK), Extended Essay (EE) and Creativity, Activity and Service (CAS) coordinators/supervisors.

Instrumentation

The research may utilize various instruments to collect both quantitative and qualitative data for investigating the above-mentioned research questions. The research may use the following instrumentation to collect data for the identification of research problem, action and intervention, the identification of the effectiveness of the intervention and the triangulation of the results and findings from the research.

Pre-intervention Stage: Pre-survey

Initially, researchers may use a pre-survey to identify to what extent TOK is integrated into the other DP subjects. The pre-survey included the following items (no reverse coded items) for which participants rated out of 5 against their level of agreements (from strongly disagree, 1, to strongly agree, 5):

1. To what extent do you think the TOK course is a philosophy course?
2. To what extent do you think TOK fits into your subject area?
3. To what extent do you think subject teachers are responsible for incorporating the TOK inquiry style in their classes?
4. To what extent do you think you successfully integrate the TOK mindset in your planning, designing and implementation of your subject?
5. How important is it to embrace the TOK inquiry style to promote critical thinking in your subject?

6. Do you think you know how to formulate a good knowledge question based on the real-life situations from your subject area?
7. To what extent do you feel comfortable to prepare a lesson plan that incorporates the TOK style inquiry?
8. To what extent do you feel comfortable teaching a lesson that incorporates the TOK inquiry style?
9. To what extent do you know about the topics related to an Area of Knowledge (AOK) as discussed in TOK classes?
10. To what extent do you use the guiding knowledge questions from your IBDP subject course guide in your classes?
11. To what extent do you integrate key TOK concepts (i.e., justification, assumption, values, reliability) during your class discussions?
12. To what extent do your class discussions address the following optional themes: language, politics, technology, religion and indigenous societies?
13. To what extent do you link the following key TOK concepts to your subject area?
14. How often in your classes do you ask: "How do you know what you know?"
15. To what extent do you address the connection between personal and shared knowledge in your classes?
16. How often do you ask knowledge questions about real-life situations in your classes?
17. How often do you examine the nature and/or the problem of knowledge within your subject area?
18. How often do you encourage students to generate inquiry-based knowledge questions in your classes?
19. How often in subject area discussions do your students recognize TOK connections?
20. To what extent would PD (either in-house or consultant-based) help you to incorporate TOK in your subject area?

Pre-intervention Stage: Focus Group

For the triangulation purpose and to further seek for evidence on to what extent TOK is integrated into the other subject areas, researchers may also hold a focus group interview with the subject teachers as well as the core component coordinators/supervisors. The following focus group questions may be used in this interview:

1) How do you think TOK fits into your subject area?
2) Why is it important to integrate the TOK style inquiry in your subject area?
3) How and when do teachers explore the key TOK concepts (certainty, justifications, beliefs, truth, etc.) in your subject area?
4) How confident do you think teachers are for promoting TOK inquiry in your subject area?
    a) (Those who claim they do not) Why do you think teachers do not feel comfortable in promoting the TOK inquiry in your subject area?
    b) (Those who claim they do) How do teachers successfully incorporate TOK style inquiry in your subject area?
5) Do you think teachers generate knowledge questions linked to the real-life situations in your subject area?
6) How would a PD on TOK across subjects help you for planning and implementing classes which promote the TOK inquiry in your subject area?
7) How else do you think teachers can improve themselves professionally to integrate the TOK into your subject area?

Intervention Stage: Professional Development Sessions

After identifying the results of the pre-survey, researchers may arrange a series of educational intervention as a means of actions to improve the current practices at the school. The initial intervention may be a professional development session on the TOK across subject areas by an experienced workshop leader who may deliver an intensive in-house workshop for the DP subject teachers. Furthermore, the TOK teachers at the school may also volunteer to work with individual departments (such as Language and Literature, Foreign Languages, Sciences, Mathematics, Social Studies) to further help them about the integration of the TOK across subjects.

Post-Intervention Stage: Post-survey

After the intervention method, researchers may use a post-survey to identify what extent the educational interventions help DP teachers to incorporate TOK into the other DP subjects more effectively. The post-survey may include the same items from the survey (no reverse coded items) for which participants can rate out of 5 against their level of agreements (from strongly disagree, 1, to strongly agree, 5).

Post-Intervention Stage: Focus Group

The researchers may hold a focus group interview with the subject teachers as well as the core component coordinators to explore the patterns identified in the post-survey and seek for further qualitative about the effectiveness of the implemented intervention actions. The following focus group questions may be used in this interview:

1) Why do you think you are expected to integrate TOK inquiry across DP subjects?
2) How confident do you think you are now for promoting inquiry in your subject area after the professional development sessions on the TOK across subjects?
3) How did the series of professional development sessions on TOK across subjects help you for planning and implementing classes which promote the TOK inquiry in your subject area?
4) How could the professional development sessions have been better to help you successfully integrate TOK across subjects?
5) How else do you think you can improve yourself professionally to integrate the TOK into your subject area more effectively?

Data Collection and Analysis

The quantitative and qualitative data may be collected through pre-survey and post survey as well as focus group interviews with the key practitioners at the schools. Participants may be invited to the research via an invitation email with a link to the survey. After the initial descriptive analysis of the pre-survey, researchers may conduct a face-to-face focus group interview, with the subject teachers or core component coordinators representing different subjects in the DP to seek for reasons for the patterns identified in the pre-survey. After the implementation of the professional development workshop on TOK across subjects as an educational intervention to take actions based on the needs for TOK integration across subjects, the post-survey may be sent to the same research participants online again via another invitation email. After the analysis of the pre-survey and post-survey, researchers may conduct a focus group interview, with the subject teachers as well as the other core components in the DP to seek for reasons for the patterns identified in the post-survey.

The data collected from the pre-survey and post-survey may be analyzed quantitatively through inferential statistics using the paired sample *t* test to measure levels of improvement on the practices of TOK integration across subjects in the IBDP. The data collected from the pre-survey and post focus group interviews may be recorded with the consent of the participants and analyzed qualitatively through coding and thematic approach.

Conclusion

The TOK course, which was designed to promote critical thinking skills in the DP, needs to be collaboratively planned and reflected by teachers to include in each subject area (IB, 2020, p. 24). Thus, DP teachers need further support and help with regard to how to integrate TOK across subjects. Through embracing the above-mentioned action research model, the practitioners can help schools strengthen their practices in promoting TOK across subject areas through a reflective research exercise. This is important not only because the IB's standards and practices require teachers to promote critical thinking in their subject areas but also because the twenty-first century requires different ways of thinking to address the challenges of the uncertain world (Kuhlthau, 2010). Critical thinking and inquiry are essential skills in educational settings to provide students with the necessary competencies for meeting the challenges of the changing and globalizing world.

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One Of The Problem Areas Of Internal Audıt: Organızatıonal Hypocrısy

Kenan ORÇANLI[1]

Introduction

According to Brunson, the three-stage decision-making process of organizations (1. Talk 2. Decide and 3. Take Action) may not always follow this order, and even what is decided and acted upon may be the opposite of each other. This is organizational hypocrisy (Brunsson, 2007, 116). The organizational hypocrisy approach can change the traditional decision-making process. This hypocrisy can contribute to the survival of organizations and balance policy when exposed to conflicting demands of stakeholders. For example, while a mining company expresses that it is sensitive about protecting nature, it may carry out cyanide exploration activities in an untouched region.

Internal auditors are actors in organizations who distinguish between good and bad, legal and unlawful, have an ethical stance and adopt a moral will. Gramling et al. (2004) states that internal auditors, as "pioneers of corporate governance", work towards disseminating a sense of morality within the scope of displaying ethical behaviors in organizations.

Everett and Tremblay have conducted various studies on how internal auditors act and what reactions they give in uncertain and conflicting moral situations. In a study are said by Everett and Tremblay (2014) that, "Internal auditors are people who work in a political situation between top management on one side and other stakeholders on the other".

Organizational hypocrisy is at the forefront of political organizations. Organizational hypocrisy is a concept for the survival of the organization in moral contradictions or in the satisfaction of conflicting stakeholder demands. Thus, the position of internal auditors can be examined within the framework of preventing organizational hypocrisy or the silence of internal auditors against such situations from time to time.

A virtuous person's thoughts and actions are the same. Virtue requires not to be treated differently from what is thought. However, Brunsson, who investigated how his organizations use the concept of organizational hypocrisy while gaining social legitimacy, stated that the organization may act hypocritically while trying to manage conflicting stakeholder demands (Brunsson, 2007, 117).

Organizational hypocrisy explains the incompatibility of thoughts and actions in satisfying the demands of stakeholders. Internal auditors are the pioneers of corporate governance and work to establish ethical culture and moral thoughts and actions in the organization. However, in some cases, internal auditors may also exhibit hypocritical behavior. The organizational hypocrisy approach provides internal auditors with a moral cover against

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ambiguous situations that may arise in organizations, and can act as a tool to ensure compliance with the law on the one hand and to explain how internal auditors, as management's consultants, can balance conflicting stakeholder demands.

Although organizational hypocrisy is a subject that has been emphasized in the international literature (Alicke et al., 2013: 673; Brunsson, 1986:165, 1993:489, 2002, 2007:116; Cho et al. 2015:78; Fassin and Buelens, 2011:425; Huzzard and Östergren, 2002:48; Krasner, 1999; Lipson, 2006; Phillippe & Koehler, 2005:13; Larsson, 2014:271) there is no study in the literature on examining internal audit from the perspective of the problems experienced. It is thought that Brunsson's work can provide a basis for explaining the situations that internal audit may face in the process of balancing different stakeholder demands and maintaining the existence of organizations.

In the first part of the article, Brunson's theory of organizational hypocrisy will be briefly explained, and in the second part, comments will be made on the role of internal audit in this theory.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Organizational Hyporacy Theory

Organizations depend on their environment for their survival and external support. There are many variables that organizations need to manage regarding their mission and vision in the environment in which they operate. For example, organizations expect high profits, meet the expectations of investors, satisfy public authorities while simultaneously protecting the interests of stakeholders, creditors, the natural environment and those affected. Stakeholders demand transparency in organizational structure and processes. To maintain social existence, it is necessary to balance conflicting demands.

Brunson's model of organizational hypocrisy offers two means of gaining external support and maintaining the organization's existence. These; It is the strategy of 1. reflecting inconsistencies 2. reflecting organizational actions (Brunsson, 2007, 117). Inconsistencies reflect the difference between the organization's actions and how it presents itself in the environment. The use of the strategy of hypocrisy to balance conflicting interests, norms and values among various stakeholder groups can be seen within political organizations and these organizations are characterized by blending a wide variety of ideologies among stakeholders.

According to Brunson (2007), one way of reflecting inconsistencies is to create and maintain a confrontational structure. In this way, organizations create separate organizational functions and departments with goals that are inconsistent with the core goals of the organization. These sub-departments are designed to assist organizations in providing external support. Members of these groups see themselves as representatives of the external environment rather than members of their organizations, and as members of these subgroups, they criticize organizational processes and offer alternative approaches.

Organizational theory is based on the assumption that organizational actions are the direct product of the decisions or ideas of their leaders and members. Although organizations are made up of individual actors, communication between many groups is required to coordinate action within the organization. Because there is a need for coordination between these groups with different roles. This is an indication of the difficulty in the assumption that ideas are directly

reflected in action (Kreiner, 1992: 37). Brunson (2007) states that ideas should not only be considered but also spoken during the selection process. Managers usually think of making decisions with the common ideas of the employees, and this leads to a desired result. However, these ideas often differ significantly among members and are not easily translated into action. In other words, what is spoken may not always turn into action, and what is done may not always be spoken. As a result, managers are often forced to make decisions that do not satisfy all members. In fact, organizations "talk one way, decide the other way, and turn them into action in the third way" (Brunsson, 2007, 118).

The hypocrisy in political organizations becomes apparent with the differentiation of the three components of organizational processes. These are (1) speech, (2) decision, (3) action. According to Brunson (2007), while action takes place in the present, speech and decision are related to the future.

Organizational hypocrisy, behavior that is inconsistent with legitimate values and expectations (Phillippe & Koehler, 2005:14); the inconsistency between the theory and practice of the organization (Argyris & Schon, 1974); core beliefs, values, and principles that conflict with action (Kouzes & Pozner, 1993); inconsistency in speech, decisions, and actions (Brunsson, 1986:167); "adopting a single-norm system, but living with a multi-norm system" (Huzzard & Ostergren, 2002:51); "insincerity and inconsistency of the administrators", "behaviors contrary to values or "discipline in the organization and chaos prevailing" (Fernando and Gross, 2006); It defines it in different ways such as "a firm claims that something does not exist" (Wagner et al. 2009: 79). Psychologically, the perception of hypocrisy tends to arise when there is "a distance between claims and actuals" (Shklar, 1984: 62).

In particular, organizational hypocrisy is actions contrary to plans; It refers to situations of inconsistency or disjunction, such as making decisions contrary to policies that are usually enacted in written documents, including plans and budgets, and taking actions contrary to what is formally agreed by organizational actors (Femandez and Robson, 1999: 389).

Organizations and managers are often expected to "enforce what they say in their speeches," meaning they are asked to put what they preach into action. As Weick (1995) noted, the "act as you speak" approach is a barrier to hypocrisy. In fact, hypocrisy closes the gap between the images and daily practices of organizations, which reduces their credibility (Christensen et al., 2013:374).

Organizational hypocrisy arises from the differences between discourses and behaviors and stems from the pressures on organizations in institutional environments. In some cases, hypocrisy can be thought of as an organizational necessity, not a mistake that should be avoided at all costs ((Christensen et al., 2013: 380)

Organizational hypocrisy is mainly associated with organizations (Brunsson, 2002). Because organizations try to rationalize their actions and decisions due to their social responsibilities (Meyer & Jepperson, 2000:100). In fact, hypocrisy is a natural consequence of the interaction between different organizations and the interests that the organization reflects. Inconsistencies in opinions, decisions, and actions may arise as a result of organizational differentiation and independence. Different groups may take different positions in organizations at different times, the conditions in the external environment may change in different situations,

and therefore inconsistency, especially hypocrisy, may occur in organizations (Kılıçoğlu, 2017: 465).

Consistency in organizational processes is very important for organizational members and organizational image. Many studies have revealed that organizational hypocrisy negatively affects corporate reputation. (Coombs, 2007: 164). Organizational hypocrisy reflects the ethical judgments of the public about the behavior of institutions.

Organizations and managers are often expected to keep their promises. Because keeping promises functions as a sensitive buffer against hypocrisy (Weick, 1995). Inconsistencies between their speech and actions become inevitable in organizational life, as some organizations play with words and act insincerely. As a matter of fact, hypocritical behaviors in organizations fill the gap between their image and daily practices, while destroying their credibility (Christensen et al., 2013: 388). However, when hypocrisy is considered from a different perspective, although it is seen as an undesirable situation in organizations, it can be especially necessary for political organizations and even help their existence.

How can an organization deal with hypocrisy and maintain its legitimate standing within the organization or within society? The answer lies in the way organizations respond to conflicting stakeholder demands. It can be said that different stakeholder demands politicize the organization (Brunsson, 1986:168). Seeing an organization as a political phenomenon reveals that there is no longer a single way for that organization to exist in society. Rather, as a political entity, the organization may develop multiple alternatives to address specific stakeholder management needs.

If responsibilities and processes are handled independently in the face of stakeholder pressures, their inconsistent actions are less likely to be questioned. For example, an organization does not actually change its employment practices, but may ostensibly establish an employment office as a positive action to reduce stakeholder pressures (Lipson, 2006). Thus, some hypocritical action to pacify different stakeholder demands is a key strategy for senior management to streamline conversations, decisions and actions in a way that constitutes a legitimate solution.

Internal Audit In Organizational Hyporacy Theory

The internal audit function has evolved over the years. Over time, professional societies such as the internal audit institute were established and these organizations encouraged businesses to act as a consultant to senior management within the scope of the strategic use of the internal audit function. In an article published by the internal audit institute in 2011, the principles of assurance, independence and objectivity were emphasized within the aim of internal audit to add value to the governance, risk management and internal control processes of the organization (IIA 2011).

The internal audit function provides services to various stakeholders in the organization with the mission of ensuring the development of the organization's risk management, internal control and governance processes. In other words, internal audit performs the duties of providing assurance and consulting. Internal auditors advise management to manage risk, strengthen governance, and achieve business objectives. One of the purposes that the internal audit function serves in the organization is the monitoring of compliance with the legislation.

Especially in terms of compliance, internal auditors are considered as monitors in the organization and they are considered as a necessary and value-adding element of internal control. As internal audit is professionalized, the value-adding functions of internal auditors will increase. Spira and Page say that the wider the perspective on internal control in organizations, the more effective internal audit will be in organizations. (Spira and Page 2003: 640).

Evaluating the compliance of organizations with the regulations determined within the scope of internal control and undertaking the role of insurance in the protection of their assets is one of the main duties of internal audit units. In this process, the internal audit function, which is a sub-unit of the organizations, should not care about the wealth of the stakeholders or the increasing profitability of the organization, but on the contrary, the managers of especially profit-oriented enterprises see the internal audit function as a tool to help manage the demands of internal and external stakeholders and expect them to serve this mission (Everett and Tremblay 2014: 188).

Internal audit is in a position that serves not only the administration but also other stakeholders who need information, and the quality of its work is guaranteed by determined standards. In order to keep the quality of audit work under control, there is a need for some standards that determine the principles and rules to be followed. The qualification standards set by the International Institute of Internal Auditors are ethical principles regarding the professional responsibilities of the internal auditor. Qualification standards regulate the ethical aspect of the profession. The internal auditor should conduct the audit activity according to established standards. An internal auditor, who acts diligently and meticulously, plans the audit activity properly, collects and examines sufficient evidence, prepares clean and neat working papers, reaches an honest judgment about the financial statements and explains this judgment meticulously in the audit report he will prepare.

Internal auditors are required to comply with a number of ethical principles and values, such as impartiality, honesty, transparency, accountability, and observing the public interest, which they must adhere to while performing audit services. Internal auditors should show the sensitivity they show to ethical rules during the internal auditing activity, as well as placing them within the organization. (Karagiorgos, et al., 2010:19). Internal auditors should make the necessary effort to establish and adopt ethical values in the organization. Internal audit activities should ensure the establishment and development of ethical values required within the organization. As a result, internal auditors act as both the enforcer and enforcer of ethical rules. (TİDE-Deloitte, 2008: 249-253).

Internal auditors should seek to understand the organization's problems and seek potential improvement avenues from a business perspective. However, in some cases, the principle of impartiality of internal auditors cannot be applied as written in the texts and it is not possible to seek them under all circumstances. This is hypocrisy. This has been proven by some interviews. In interviews with managers and internal auditors, managers stated that internal audit has a role in monitoring compliance with the rules. In the0se interviews, the managers said, “I am not satisfied with internal audit because internal audit does not benefit profitability.” Internal auditors also said in their interviews; “As an internal auditor, I feel like no one wants to hear the truth, they just want to highlight what they want to hear. “They said. (Nickell and Roberts. 2014: 217).

An important conflict between the objectives of internal audit and organizational objectives is evident. The internal audit function is an auditing and consulting activity that provides independent and impartial reasonable assurance. However, the internal audit function as a part of the control environment of the enterprise does not fully meet the definition of independence mentioned by the American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA 2011). Internal auditors sometimes encounter conflicting ideas about the progress of their work. On the one hand, external stakeholders' desire to provide accurate information in a timely manner and their demands for compliance with standards, ethical rules and risk management, on the other hand, emphasis on adding value to the organization under the management's desire for profitability or ignoring problems. Which should be met? This situation undoubtedly affects the performance of internal auditing and can silence internal auditors. However, this situation undoubtedly has benefits for internal auditors.

According to Everett and Tremblay (2014), the broader and more centralized responsibilities of internal auditors enable them to become more deeply embedded in organizational policies. These new responsibilities result in the internal audit function becoming more involved in the organization's hypocrisy. Hypocrisy can provide a solution to the internal audit function and reduce conflicts and tensions inside and outside the organization. The hypocritical act is beneficial for internal auditors because it consolidates the auditors' position in the organization and balances management's profitability and other managerial aspirations while communicating stakeholders' views to senior management. Faced with the conflicting demands of powerful organizational actors, the Internal audit function can use the organizational hypocrisy approach as a method to maintain its social legitimacy.

When an internal audit process is examined as an example within the framework of Brunson's inconsistency of discourse, decision and action, that is, organizational hypocrisy; Findings with high criticality level can be determined as a result of the examination of the system to be audited during the preliminary study phase and the writing of the risk, control and tests (discourse) and the execution of the tests written during the fieldwork phase (decision) processes. During the reporting phase of these findings (action), internal auditors may be confronted with suggestions from senior managers that “these findings should not be included in the report”. Internal auditors, who should be the defenders of ethical culture in their organizations, may remain silent by rationalizing this situation in order to reduce conflicts and tensions or maintain their social legitimacy in the face of these suggestions, and may even adopt an immoral will. This is the organizational hypocrisy experienced by internal auditors.

Internal auditors, who are one of the moral actors of the organization, can reduce the contradictions between an organization's discourse, decisions and actions by highlighting ethical roles, or on the contrary, they can remain silent in some cases. Silence is the fact that people who have the capacity to change and improve any situation as a behavior at the individual level do not hide and share their behavioral, cognitive and emotional real and sincere statements about the development of organizational conditions (Pinder and Harlos, 2001: 334). Silence can be conceptually perceived as a passive behavior. However, silence does not imply a completely passive behavior. (Scott, 1993: 3). Silence can also occur intentionally, actively and consciously (Pinder and Harlos, 2001: 334).

The attitude of the internal audit, which is an in-house unit, in some cases is a method of silence aimed at maintaining its social legitimacy. Internal auditors may remain silent because

they do not want to be known as a complainer or to disrupt relations with management. This behavior, which is exhibited in the form of internal auditors not expressing their thoughts, ideas, concerns and suggestions about the jobs they are responsible for or other activities of the organization, can often be experienced in organizations (Vakola and Bouradas, 2005: 440, Milliken et al. 2003: 1460, Morrison and Milliken, 2000:706). : 708). In some cases, internal auditors, who should be both the enforcer and enforcer of ethical rules, may ignore them and even become advocates of unethical discourses and situations. The principles of impartiality and independence can only remain on paper.

Conclusions and Discussions

Brunson's model of organizational hypocrisy helps us understand how the organization's need for legitimacy and the conflicting demands of stakeholders can shape the internal audit function. Organizational hypocrisy relaxes subgroups in the organization and thus allows these subgroups to better cope with the moral aspects of certain roles. While internal auditors, who are ethical advocates, should be the biggest obstacle to the organizational hypocrisy model used to rationalize the organization's need for legitimacy or the conflicting demands of stakeholders, they may have to resort to hypocrisy, which will offer a solution to manage the demands of senior managers to show what they should be different or not at all.

Internal auditors may systematically reflect conflicting norms, creating inconsistencies between speech, decisions, and actions. The internal auditor may speak to one set of norms, make decisions according to another, and act on the third. Internal auditors, whose responsibilities conflict with the wishes of senior managers, may be hypocritical to manage inconsistent demands.

As part of the management team, internal audit can be effective to the extent that it independently evaluates the effectiveness and efficiency of management. However, in some cases, the interventions made by the senior management cannot resist these demands, cannot include the issues that should be stated in the report, and there may even be situations where it paints a rosy picture as if there were no problems. This is a major impediment to the effectiveness of my internal audit and is an indication that it is dependent in its actions as opposed to its independent discourse. When internal auditors encounter such situations, they can rationalize their failure to fulfill their responsibilities by assigning responsibility to senior management. Internal auditors, who are responsible for ensuring the internalization of ethical culture within the organization, may show opposite attitudes.

However, this does not benefit the organization in the long run. The biggest obstacle to the organizational hypocrisy model used to rationalize the organization's need for legitimacy or the conflicting demands of stakeholders should be internal auditors, who are ethical advocates. When senior managers have to resort to hypocrisy to manage inconsistent demands, internal auditors must systematically reflect norms that prevent inconsistencies between speech, decisions, and actions, and set an example for employees in internalizing ethical values.

Establishing a working environment in which a moral climate exists will improve the organizational integrity of the institution and will also have an important place in the elimination of organizational hypocrisy. Internal auditors are the pioneers of corporate governance and should work to establish ethical culture, moral thoughts and actions in the organization. Internal auditors should assume the role of ethical leadership in order not to

exhibit hypocritical behavior as consultants to managements in organizations, not to make moral cover up against ambiguous situations and to ensure compliance with the law.

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A Brief Identification of Reading Comprehension Strategies[1]

Emre EKİNCİ[2]

Introduction

Reading is a receptive skill that necessitates the resolution and comprehension of written material. Language learners may develop various strategies so as to increase their reading proficiency. Learning these reading comprehension strategies is essential in today's educational context for the acquisition of a foreign language. The goal of reading comprehension strategies is to help students resolve and comprehend written materials. To this end, students may be able to pick up a variety of techniques that help them understand what they read. These strategies contribute to the improvement of the learners' reading comprehension. There are numerous comprehension practices that can be utilized in order to enhance the quality and grasp of reading in a foreign language. As suggested by Ekinci and Ekinci (2022), inference-making, questioning, and prediction are among the most popular reading comprehension strategies employed by foreign language students. The following chapters of this study will shed light on the details of these strategies.

Inference Making

It is not easy to understand the reading materials provided in a foreign language. These materials include some information for the readers about how to make use of the knowledge and experience to have a good comprehension of the text. The reader is primarily expected to draw conclusions from the long and complicated passages. A good comprehension of the text relies mainly on the reader's ability to draw inferences (Bransford & McCarrell, 1974). These inferences are generally automatically completed. The process of interpretation allows the reader to infer meaning from the text by drawing on existing knowledge of the subject matter. While making inferences to maintain understanding throughout a text, the learners must either draw on existing knowledge or create information while reading that is not initially presented in the text (Elbro & Buch-Iversen, 2013). Therefore, the readers need to be careful about many dimensions during the making inference process.

Some studies showed evidence that making inferences was valuable for improving reading comprehension (Kendeou, van den Broek, White, & Lynch, 2007;). Results of these studies revealed that the capability to make inferences helps students improve their reading comprehension and learning motivation. Other experimental studies (Oakhill & Cain, 2007) have investigated the most likely causal links between inference-making ability and reading comprehension. These studies employed a treatment period and explicitly aimed at encouraging students to focus on written materials. Formation of inferences was not explicitly taught but – as a component of a more detailed training program. Then, inference-making was harnessed in harmony with imaging (Moore & Kirby, 1988), comprehension monitoring (Yuill & Oakhill, 1988), and question generation and prediction (McGee & Johnson, 2003). With this treatment, students were able to learn different reading techniques to help their understanding of reading, such as connecting inferences, making claims, and using prior knowledge.

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Questioning

Questions have been for years a hallmark of reading comprehension instruction. They show up on most organized and implicit tests of understanding. "Questioning while reading is vital to establishing strong comprehension," claims Tankersley (2003, p. 93). Qualified readers criticize the text's arguments, content, author, events described, and other themes and ideas. To check their comprehension and process the information they are reading, students must be instructed on how to ask questions. Textbooks contain many questions, and teachers' manuals have several pre-reading and post-reading questions that can be used to evaluate students' reading options. (Johnson & Pearson 1974 p. 154). Questions are commonly utilized to enhance comprehension to determine what students have understood from reading in workbooks and content-area texts. According to Raphael and Gavelek (1984), the primary method of assessing the willingness of students to comprehend reading is by using question-answering tasks regarding short lines on standardized tests; so, questions could be regarded as an incentive for comprehension as well as a means of checking for understanding. The literature contains a considerable amount of research about the positive effects of questioning on learning to understand. Winne (1979) states that good questions between the teacher and students promote learning in an effective way. In addition, as suggested by Ekinci and Ekinci (2020), using teacher-generated questions can help students understand what they are reading, as these questions provide a better resolution of the reading materials and encourage students' curiosity in language classrooms.

Prediction

Prediction is another essential strategy that can enhance the reading comprehension of language learners. It is one of the most essential strategies in reading. According to Smith (1994), prediction is the previous removal of unreasonable possibilities. Predicting, including the use of pictures, is a strategy that has a solid potential to help students achieve reading. Previous experiences we have about locations and circumstances help us to foresee when we learn and thus appreciate and embrace what we read. As stated by Anderson (2008), in order to make students participate and become engaged in reading exercises, it is necessary to teach them prediction strategies because reading while providing predictions generates innovative and essential readership for students. Thanks to prediction, the students are able to activate their background information and find connections between their existing and new knowledge. As stated by Wulandari (2017), the prediction strategy would enable readers to improve their capacity to understand the text. The researcher also added that teachers ought to be motivating students to predict and interpret what the content is about. It is clear that students can discover the main idea, draw conclusions from a text, identify the related word, and recognize the supporting arguments by using the prediction strategy.

Conclusion

In this study, the researcher investigated some of the most commonly used reading comprehension strategies. These strategies were proven to assist students in text analysis, comprehension, explanation, and expression of their own opinions regarding written materials. As identified by Ekinci and Ekinci (2021), accurate comprehension of reading materials is an ability that foreign language students need to possess in order to master a foreign language and succeed in academic studies. For this reason, it is highly important for foreign language learners to adopt some of these comprehension strategies so as to understand the reading texts provided in the coursebooks and other language learning materials.

As it is clear from the study, one of the main goals of reading comprehension strategies is to help students develop their reading abilities and comprehension of written texts. In this respect, the significance of reading comprehension strategies such as inference-making,

questioning and prediction cannot be underestimated. As it is unearthed by this research, these strategies have significant contributions to students' reading comprehension, resolution and ability to analyze written materials.

There are some other studies in the literature that have similar emphasis and outcomes to this current research. The studies that focus on reading comprehension strategies, such as the ones conducted by Moghadam, Zainal and Ghaderpour (2012) and Gustanti and Ayu (2021), exhibited that the adoption of reading comprehension strategies provides many benefits for language learners. It is suggested in these studies that reading comprehension strategies help students improve their understanding and enable them to increase their course success.

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Motivation Types as Language Learning Incentives

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Introduction

The role of motivation in education cannot be underestimated. It is a key component in the process of acquiring a foreign language. As suggested by Ekinci and Ekinci (2021), motivation is a crucial factor in the language learning environment and greatly influences success in foreign language classrooms. Al-Otaibi (2004) articulated that motivated learners can learn a foreign language more effectively and make sacrifices in order to achieve their goals in learning L2. Soureshjani & Naseri (2011) stated that creating a meaningful teaching and learning environment depends on the activation of different motivation types, such as instrumental, integrative, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in language classrooms. The following chapters of this study will shed light on the function and impact of these motivation types on the language learning process and language learners.

Instrumental Motivation

EFL Students who are motivated by the possibility of passing an exam, obtaining a better job, or passing a college entrance test are motivated instrumentally. Students that are motivated in this way are likely to learn and do things to achieve goals that will improve their lives (Brown, 2007). That is to say; students are motivated to learn a language since doing so will increase their access to educational and employment options that will be very beneficial to them in the future. According to Aleidine and Theresa (2015), learning a language—especially a foreign language—for its external benefits, such as the opportunity for a good job, is instrumental motivation.

In countries where English is utilized as a foreign language, several studies have examined the function and impact of instrumental motivation in the English learning process of English as a foreign language (EFL) students. According to research on students enrolled in petroleum institutions, students were more driven by the instrumental motivation to learn English due to the demands of their studies and jobs, according to Al-Tamimi (2009). To pass the English course examination and obtain a decent job, EFL students are very motivated to learn English.

According to Shinta (2012), a different study conducted in the Philippines and China found that students in both countries show strong motivation to learn English. The majority of students in Manila, Philippines, study English to prepare themselves for decent jobs. Besides, students are encouraged to learn English in China simply so they can receive a degree in English lessons. In short, it may be articulated that instrumental motivation has a crucial influence on how EFL students learn English.

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Integrative Motivation

Integrative motivation is a common habit of a language learner who values the community that speaks the target language and studies the language in order to become a member of that community. If a student is encouraged to learn, eager to participate in the other language group and has a positive perspective on learning, then that student may be integratively motivated (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). Students that are integratively motivated should have the desire to learn the language (Gardner, 1985). Integrativeness reflects a positive perception of L2 and its culture to the point where learners might want to integrate into L2 culture and connect with L2 speakers (Dornyei, 2006). Integratively motivated learners are motivated to learn a language because they desire to interact with speakers of that language. Students engage in language learning activities just out of interest (Tileston, 2010). They are also curious about the culture surrounding that language.

Foreign language learners often have a powerful integrative motivation for language learning, and integratively motivated language learners may have significant people in their lives, such as a boyfriend or girlfriend or family members who speak the language. Positive attitudes toward the target language group and a willingness to communicate with group members are characteristics of integrative motivation (Qashoa, 2006). The evolution that comes from inside is another definition of integral motivation.

Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation is the desire to carry out an action because doing so is delightful and rewarding (Ekinci & Ekinci, 2020). According to Ryan and Deci (1985), intrinsic motivation is based on natural desires for competence and autonomy. They claim that when given the option of choosing an activity, people would look for engaging circumstances in which they can effectively manage the difficulties the activity presents. Ryan and Deci (2000) define intrinsic motivation as the innate urge to seek out novelty and challenges and to explore the positive potential of human nature more than any other phenomenon. It is evident that their definition of intrinsic motivation heavily relies on inherent tendencies. On the other hand, Ryan, Kuhl and Deci (1997) asserted that despite the fact that humans are incredibly gifted with intrinsic motivations, supportive situations are necessary in order to maintain and improve this inclination because they can easily disrupt it under a variety of non-supportive circumstances. Their idea of intrinsic motivation thus focuses on the circumstances that elicit and sustain rather than prevent and decrease this innate tendency rather than what causes intrinsic motivation.

In terms of language learning, EFL students who possess intrinsic motivation tend to develop an internal desire and confidence to learn the target foreign language. Intrinsically driven learners prefer to do something for their own satisfaction. For instance, a student who is bored writes an article out of interest and for enjoyment because it makes him feel better, reduces tension, or inspires him to make the most of his free time is intrinsically driven (Ekinci & Ekinci, 2017). Due to the internal stimulation, students who are intrinsically motivated are readier to learn than other students. As a result, these learners show higher academic achievement and perceive themselves as more competent.

Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation stands in contrast to intrinsic motivation since it directs learning in L2 toward a pragmatic goal, such as taking pleasure in a reward or avoiding punishment. Extrinsic motivation does not always show an absence of determination in the actions carried out, according to Noels et al. (2000). Extrinsically motivated behavior can actually vary quite a bit in terms of the level of self-determination. Thus, self-determination plays a vital role in determining someone's level of extrinsic motivation.

Several types of external motivation were identified by Ryan and Deci (2000). External regulation, introjection, identification, and integrated regulation are the different types of external motivation in education. When the person's decisions are influenced by rewards from outside sources or tangible advantages, external regulation occurs (Ayub, 2010). Introjected regulation is the second type of external motivation. Because of the pressure to complete a task, the person carries out the tasks. Because the individual is responding to pressure rather than working on their own decision, this is not a self-determined action. An illustration of the latter is the determination of an L2 student to avoid being publicly humiliated for not speaking the L2. The third type of external motivation, identified regulation, is characterized as being the most self-determined. In this situation, the person carries out tasks that they have chosen since they are valuable and significant to them personally. The "importance" that the person attributes to the tasks is the keyword. For instance, a person who is persuaded of the significance of L2 proficiency might put up with repetitive activities (Noels et al., 2000). Integrated regulation is the final extrinsic motivational type. With this type of motivation, the L2 learner now chooses to carry on with a particular activity in the target language since it plays a big part in who they are as a person.

Conclusion

It is evident from this study that motivation term is an essential element in language learning. Students with learning motivation are able to improve language recognition and self-confidence. In addition, they can use motivation as an incentive to achieve language learning goals. In addition, the researcher of this study identified four motivation types, namely instrumental, integrative, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Despite the existence of a distinctive source of the rationale behind these motivation types, all of them can provide considerable benefits for learners who want to learn a foreign language.

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Cryptocurrency and Decentralized Finance: Is this the Future of Money?

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Introduction

We are on the precipice of a new form of finance that will use a range of technologies to change the way we use and manage one of our most fundamental tools: money. If we can email virtually anybody in the world, why cannot we send them money just as easily, or offer them a loan? These questions are the foundations of Decentralized Finance's (DeFi) activities and objectives. In short, DeFi refers to an ecosystem of financial applications built on top of a blockchain. Its common goal is to develop and operate in a decentralized way, without intermediaries such as banks, payment service providers or investment funds by providing all types of financial services on top of a transparent and trustless blockchain network. Withdrawing cash from an ATM, applying for a mortgage by visiting a bank branch, or shopping in a department store are things of the past. Presently, for many, conducting financial transactions of any kind is a purely an online experience, escalated over the past two years by the COVID-19 pandemic. Increasingly, the future of money exists in the Ether, via phones and laptops. Cryptocurrencies and other faster, more powerful financial technologies are transforming our concept of money and challenging the financial institutions that currently manage it. The year 2021 was a transformative year for finance, and 2022 is shaping up to bring more change. This book discusses four categories that are diving into the future of money: blockchain, Cryptocureencies, DeFi and fintech innovations.

The Origins of Modern Decentrlized Finance

A Breif History of finance

While we may argue that today's financial system is inefficient, it is far superior to previous systems and we have completed our journey which called peer to peer trading, commonly known as barter which was the first type of market trade. Barter was extremely inefficient because supply and demand had to be perfectly matched between peers. And then, in communities, an informal credit system arose at the same period as a response to the inefficiencies of the barter system, in which individuals kept a mental account of "gifts." Then after, money was created as a means of trade and a store of value to address the matching problem in the barter system. The vairous types of money were not centralized in the beginning. In return for products, agents would accept anything from stones to shells. Eventually, specie money appeared, a sort of cash with a monetary worth that could be seen. We now have central banks that control non-collateralized (fiat) money. The essential architecture of financial organizations has not changed over time, even while the form of money changes.

The first modern coins appeared in Lydia approximately 600 BCE, which was a long time after coinage. These coins served as a unit of account, medium of exchange, and store of value, all of which are today considered conventional functions of money. Durability, mobility,

divisibility, homogeneity, restricted supply, acceptance, and stability were among the important attributes of money. In the 13th century, bank notes from China reached Europe (Bresson, 2006); (Millman, 2015); (Claus, 2022).

Moreover, Western Union pioneered non-physical money transmission in 1871. Credit cards were introduced in 1950 by Diners Card, ATMs were introduced in 1967 by Barclays Bank, telephone banking was introduced in 1983 by Bank of Scotland, and Internet banking was introduced in 1994 by Stanford Federal Credit Union. Further advancements include RFID payments with Mobil Speedpass in 1997, chip and pin credit cards in 2005, and Apple Pay in 2014. All of these improvements worth noting that the system constructed on the foundation of centralized finance. Indeed, nothing has changed in the financial sector in the last 150 years. While digitalization constituted a significant advancement, it did so in the context of a legacy system. The exorbitant expenses of the traditional system prompted other innovations, which we now refer to as Fintech (Levy, 2016); (Mallick, 2021).

Fintech

When expenses are high, inefficiencies will be exploited through innovation. However, a powerful layer of middle people may stifle innovation. The foreign currency (FX) market provided an early example of decentralized finance 20 years ago. Large firms employed their investment banks to manage their foreign exchange demands at the time. For example, a company situated in the United States would require €50 million by the end of September to pay for items acquired in Germany. The transaction would be quoted by their bank. Simultaneously, another bank client may need to sell €50 million by the end of September. A separate rate would be quoted by the bank. The spread is the profit made by the bank for acting as a middleman between two parties. This was a significant component of bank earnings, given the multi-trillion dollar FX market (Saliger, Popova, Kordovitch, & Popov, 2020).

A fintech company proposed the following concept in early 2001. Why not have an automated system connect buyers and sellers directly at an agreed-upon price with no spread, rather than individual firms querying several banks for the best rate? In fact, the bank might provide this service to its own clients for a little cost (compared to the spread). Furthermore, because some consumers deal with numerous banks, clients from all banks participating in the peer-to-peer network might be linked. You can guess the reaction. "Are you telling me that investing in an electronic system would consume our company and substantially remove a very important profit center?" the bank could ask. Even 20 years ago, banks knew that their most important clients were dissatisfied with the prevailing system: as globalization accelerated, these consumers were faced with extra forex transaction charges (Anyfantaki, 2016).

The development of dark pool stock trading was an even earlier example. The Securities and Exchange Commission of the United States established Rule 19c3 in 1979, allowing equities listed on one exchange, such as the New York Stock Exchange, to be traded off-exchange. Many significant institutions transferred their trading, particularly huge blocks, to these dark pools, where they traded peer-to-peer at far cheaper prices than they could on standard exchanges. The high transaction costs prompted several financial innovations. PayPal, for example, was created almost 20 years ago and was an early innovator in the payments market. Banks have also implemented their own payment systems. In 2017, for example, seven of the country's top banks introduced Zelle. One thing these cost-cutting fintech technologies have in common is that they all rely on the present financial infrastructure's centralized backbone (Larsson, Teigland, Siri, Puertas, & Bogusz, 2018).

Blockchain

Satoshi Nakamoto, the creator of the cryptocurrency Bitcoin, wrote a paper called "Bitcoin: A Peer-to-Peer Electronic Cash System" in 2008 (Nakamoto, 2008). The article

detailed a payment system in which people could send and receive money directly from one another. The technique demonstrated a method for making secure payments without the use of a third-party financial institution. Bitcoin is widely regarded as the world's first decentralized public ledger, and it has now garnered global recognition.

The blockchain technology is the fundamental technology underpinning Bitcoin's success. This technology has lately been a popular issue among experts, with some claiming it to be even more revolutionary than Bitcoin. Simply said, the blockchain, also known as distributed ledger technology (DLT), is a public, trustworthy, and shared ledger that is disseminated to all members of a community across a peer-to-peer network. People in this community may or may not know each other, but each member keeps his or her own copy of the information, and every update to the blockchain must be validated by all members (Nelaturu , Du, & Le, 2022). This eliminates the requirement for a third-party middleman. A blockchain is made up of a constantly expanding collection of documents called blocks, each of which contains a transaction (ECLAC, 2021). Cryptographic hashes and consensus techniques are used to safeguard blocks from manipulation. As a result, the blockchain may function as a transparent system of machines that creates and maintains the truth.

There are possibilities for Blockchain technology to be public (or permissionless) blockchains, private blockchains, and consortium blockchains. Bitcoin and other cryptocurrencies, such as Ethereum (Wood, 2016), are open to the whole public. Anyone may join a cryptocurrency network and help keep transactions secure. However, in many other blockchain-based applications (for example, those involving a company's private database), service providers may desire to restrict access to certain categories of people. Developers can assess if a public or private blockchain is suitable by answering the question "who is allowed to join the network, participate in the consensus mechanism, and maintain the distributed ledger." In contrast to a public blockchain platform, a private or consortium blockchain platform will allow enterprises to maintain control and anonymity while lowering prices and transaction speeds. (Hyperledger-fabric, 2015) and (Greenspan, 2015) are two popular examples. Clients are permitted to submit transactions, but only pre-approved participants are allowed to run the consensus algorithm and update the distributed ledger. Informal agreements, formal contracts, or secrecy agreements must regulate these players. A private or consortium blockchain network will have lower prices and faster speeds than a public blockchain platform.

Bitcoin and Cryptocurency

Since the early 1980s, there have been hundreds of unsuccessful digital money attempts. The renowned Satoshi Nakamoto Bitcoin (Nakamoto, 2008) white paper, published in 2008, altered the landscape. The paper describes a decentralized peer-to-peer system based on the blockchain idea. When (Haber & Stornetta, 1991) created blockchain in 1991, it was intended to be primarily used as a time-stamping system for keeping track of multiple versions of a document. Bitcoin's main innovation was combining the concept of blockchain (time stamping) with the Proof of Work consensus method (introduced by Back in 2002). The system created an immutable ledger, which solved a major issue with digital assets: the ability to manufacture exact duplicates and spend them numerous times. Blockchains enable the main characteristics desired in a store of wealth to be combined in a single asset for the first time. Blockchains provide cryptographic scarcity (Bitcoin has a fixed supply ceiling of 21 million units), censorship resistance, and user sovereignty (no one but the user may decide how money are spent), as well as mobility (can send any quantity anywhere for a low flat fee). Cryptocurrency is a remarkable invention because it combines all of these traits into a single system.

The value proposition of Bitcoin is critical to comprehend, and it can be placed into context by comparing it to the value propositions of other financial assets. Take the US dollar for example. Before the gold standard was abolished in 1971, it was backed by gold. The

demand for USD now comes from three sources: first, taxes. Second, purchases of US commodities denominated in USD; and third, debt repayment in USD. None of these three scenarios generate inherent value, but rather value dependent on the US economy's network. The price of the US dollar can be affected by the expansion or contraction of several components of the US economy. Furthermore, shocks to the USD supply affect the currency's price at a given level of demand. To achieve financial or political aims, the Fed can modify the supply of USD through monetary policy. Inflation erodes the value of the dollar, reducing its capacity to hold value over time. One would be concerned about "The Great Monetary Inflation," as Paul Tudor Jones called it, which would cause a flight to inflation-resistant assets. Gold has proven to be a great inflation hedge due to its relatively restricted quantity, tangible utility, and overall worldwide dependability. Because gold is such a volatile asset, its historical hedging ability can only be appreciated over exceptionally lengthy time periods (O'Connor & Lucey, 2012).

Many say that because bitcoin has no "tangible" value, it should be considered worthless. Continuing with the gold example, about two-thirds of gold is utilized for jewelry, with the remainder going into technological hardware. Gold has a monetary worth. While a fiat currency, the US dollar has value as "legal tender." However, there are several examples throughout history of currency that arose without any underlying value. The Iraqi Swiss dinar is a recent example. Iraq used this currency until the first Gulf War in 1990. The printing plates were made in Switzerland (thus the name), while the printing was done in the United Kingdom. Iraq was divided in 1991, with the Kurds in the north and Saddam Hussien in the south. Iraq was unable to import dinars due to restrictions and was forced to begin domestic manufacturing. The Iraqi Central Bank stated in May 1993 that residents had three weeks to swap their old 25 dinars for new ones (Hanke & Sekerke, Monetary Options for Postwar Iraq, 2003); (Hanke, 2006).

The ancient Swiss dinar was still in use in the north part of the country. The new dinar suffered from severe inflation in the south. The exchange rate eventually reached 300 new dinars for a single Iraqi Swiss dinar. The most important takeaway here is that the Iraqi Swiss dinar had no official backing, but it was acknowledged as currency. It possessed basic significance despite the lack of physical value. Importantly, both tangible and intangible wealth may be used to create value. Bitcoin's characteristics, notably its scarcity and self-sovereignty, make it a potential store of wealth and a hedge against political and economic instability at the hands of world governments. The value proposition only expands as the network grows, thanks to increasing trust and liquidity. Although Bitcoin was designed to be a peer-to-peer money, its deflationary qualities and flat fees prevent it from being used in tiny transactions. We propose that Bitcoin is the flagship of a new asset class known as cryptocurrencies, which may be used in a variety of ways depending on how their networks are built. Over extended time horizons, we anticipate Bitcoin will continue to expand as a significant store of wealth and possible inflation hedge (Hanke, 2006).

The first cryptocurrencies provided a viable alternative to a financial system dominated by governments and centralized organizations like central banks. They originated primarily as a result of a desire to replace inefficient, siloed banking systems with immutable, borderless, open-source algorithms. To provide multiple value propositions, the currencies may modify their characteristics like as inflation and consensus mechanisms via their underlying blockchain. In the sections following, we will go through DeFi, blockchain, and cryptocurrencies in further detail.

Etherium and DeFi

Ethereum (ETH) is the second most valuable cryptocurrency by market capitalization ($230 billion). In 2014, Vitalik Buterin proposed the concept, and Ethereum mined its first block in 2015. In some ways, Ethereum is a logical extension of Bitcoin's applications. Smart

contracts, which are code that exists on a blockchain and may govern assets and data as well as establish interactions between assets, data, and network members, are now possible. Ethereum is a smart contract platform because of its ability to support smart contracts (Makarov & Schoar, 2022); (Galindo & Ferraioli, 2022).

Decentralized applications, often known as dApps, were born on Ethereum and other smart contract platforms. These apps' backends are made up of interoperable, transparent smart contracts that will last as long as the blockchain on which they're running does. dApps allow peers to communicate directly, eliminating the requirement for a firm to operate as a clearinghouse for app interactions. Financial dApps were rapidly identified as the first killer dApps (Makarov & Schoar, 2022).

The push for financial dApps spawned a new movement known as decentralized finance, or DeFi. DeFi aims to create complex products with little friction and maximum value for consumers by combining open-source financial building components. Because providing services to a customer with $100 or $100 million in assets costs the same at an organizational level, DeFi proponents predict that all relevant financial infrastructure will be replaced by smart contracts that can deliver more value to a bigger group of customers. Anyone may utilize the contract and profit from DeFi's innovations by just paying the flat charge (Jensen, Wachter, & Ross, 2021).

DeFi is essentially a marketplace of financial dApps that do different financial "primitives" such as trade, lend, tokenize, and so on. These dApps take use of the network effects of merging and recombining DeFi goods, gaining market share from the traditional financial ecosystem. Our objective is to convey a picture of the future prospects that DeFi opens by providing an overview of the challenges that DeFi answers, describing the existing and quickly evolving DeFi ecosystem (Deshmukh, Warren, & Werbach, 2021).

The Emergence of Decentralized Finance

Intermediaries are frequently crucial in lowering transaction costs and broadening transaction options. Intermediaries frequently assist transacting parties in finding each other, establishing confidence, and settling transactions in economic transactions (Roth, 2015). Transacting parties may be unable to set up contacts, make contracts, or enforce commitments without the use of intermediaries. Nonetheless, intermediaries typically have significant authority over economic transactions, and they might use that power to further their own interests, creating worries about their monopolistic power (Srnicek , 2017); (Murray, Kuban, Josefy, & Ande, 2021); (Zuboff, 2019). How mankind society handles dominating intermediaries in commercial transactions is characterized by a conflict betwixt the necessity for efficient business deals and the fear of monopoly authority. This tightness is particularly acute in the financial system, where major financial organizations facilitate and manage monetary transactions. Financial institutions have played a censorious duty in mediating and arranging commercial transactions that would otherwise be impossible to conduct due to transaction costs for millennia (Benston & Smith, 1976). By linking market players and fostering confidence, financial institutions lower transaction costs (Shiller, 2012). Financial technology (FinTech) has started to fill a number of tasks formerly held by enormous financial institutions as we step towards the digital economy. Digital technology may cut transaction expenses, broaden commercial scope, and enable peer-to-peer transactions in some situations, sparking a modern motion of FinTech revolution (Chen, Wu, & Yang, 2019). FinTech has decreased the necessity for financial organizations, but it has not eliminated them. It frequently replaces one middleman (such as a bank) with another (e.g., a technology firm). On condition that decentralization and disintermediation continue to gain traction, block-chain based decentralized finance might be the next logical stage. Recent advancements in blockchain technology have paved the way for a new paradigm based on decentralization and

disintermediation. Through distributed trust and decentralized platforms, blockchain technology can remove the necessity for financial middlemen by facilitating peer-to-peer business deals. As a consequence, blockchain technology has the ability to importantly exalt the breadth and competency of peer-to-peer transactions, allowing formerly unviable business models to become practicable. It also can enhance financial sector services and help them to become more decentralized, inventive, interoperable, borderless, and transparent.

This new paradigm is not the same as the one based on transaction costs (TCE). First, TCE emphasizes opportunism, whereas this new paradigm is built on distributed trust (Seidel, 2018), a type of trust that "flows laterally across persons" without the requirement for pre-existing trusted connections (Botsman, 2017). Due to the fact that transactions recorded on a blockchain are reliable, legitimate, and unchanging, they have been certified by distributed consensus and are protected through strong cryptography blockchain technology may establish distributed trust (Narayanan, Bonneau, Felten, Miller, & Goldfeder, 2016). As a consequence, a blockchain may act as a single source of truth for all transactions and making peer-to-peer transactions more efficient. Second, TCE identifies the importance of hierarchy and intermediaries in lowering transaction expenses, but this modern paradigm emphasis on decentralization and disintermediation to lower transaction costs (Murray, Kuban, Josefy, & Ande, 2021). Via decentralisation and disintermediation Blockchain technology can lower the expenses of search, contracting, and enforcement while also extending dealings possibilities by linking peers directly to peers in novel methods (Cong & He, 2019).

Entrepreneurs and innovators have realized the prospects of developing an open financial system with low or no engagement from financial organizations, thanks to blockchain technology's distributed trust and decentralized platforms. They want to lower transaction costs, increase financial inclusion, enable open access, stimulate permission less innovation, and open up new business prospects by doing so (Financial Stabiility Board, 2019). Although this motion is still in its primitive phases, it demonstrates the potential of blockchain technology in producing a modern set of decentralized and disintermediated business models. If this movement gains traction, it has the potential to disrupt established sectors while also opening up new doors for entrepreneurship and innovation.

The Problems Decentrelized Finance Solves

Decentralization

Financial institutions are the primary mediators and controllers of financial transactions in a centralized financial system. Financial transactions may be carried out more effectively and evenly with the aid of intermediaries (Acha & Udofa, 2019). Financial institutions, on the other hand, can expand to dominate economic activity as crucial intermediates enabling financial transactions. When a centralized financial institution gains market domination, such as Bank of America, PayPal, or Square, it has the potential to generate excessive market dominance and profits. In a decentralized financial system, however, financial exchanges are enabled through decentralized peer-to-peer networks rather than centralized organizations. Networks that are decentralized can reduce transaction costs and produce network effects without paying monopolistic costs by minimizing the role of centralized organizations (Catalini & Gans, 2020). When a decentralized peer-to-peer reticulum becomes dominant, no single institution can amass enough monopolistic power to dominate the network and prevent others from joining, enabling everyone to profit from network influences to expand business deal possibilities (Huberman, Leshno, & Moallemi, 2019).

Innovativeness

Unrestricted and combinatorial creativity is encouraged by decentralized finance. Despite the possibility of free invention and experimentation on a centralized platform, platform possessors frequently manage access and have the ability to remove admission to exercise governance control (Rietveld , Schilling , & Bellavitis, 2022). As a consequence, when platform possessors make independent alterations, third-party developers frequently face the danger of losing access to their hosting platforms. Though most platform possessors are generous and flexible to third-party contributors, companies have made independent alterations that have harmed developers on occasion (Dixon, 2018). On the other side, a decentralized platform lacks a central authority and so permits open access and permissionless innovation, meaning that developers can freely create and test new apps without requesting permission. (Cerf, 2012); (Chesbrough & Alstyne, 2015). Decentralized platforms enable developers by ensuring admission to permissionless innovation, allowing them to expand decentralized finance in organic and unanticipated strategies.

Decentralized platforms are another tool that can support combinatorial innovation. New financial technologies may facilitate novel combinations and products as they emerge into the building blocks of a decentralized financial ecosystem (Brynjolfsson & McAfee, 2014). In the decentralized financial ecosystem, combinatorial innovation is made possible through open source and permissionless innovation. Decentralized financial systems and platforms, such as Bitcoin, Ethereum, and Libra, for example, frequently share their basic technology with the public under liberal open-source licensing, letting anybody to use them and create new applications on top of them. Conversely, centralized financial services and platforms frequently use obvious, copyrights, trademarks, and trade secrets to protect their intellectual property, preventing others from adopting important innovations. Combinatorial innovation has the ability to speed up financial innovation while also increasing market competitiveness, resulting in newer, better, and cheaper financial services.

Interoperability

Interoperability can be improved through decentralized financing. Traditional finance works in silos, which raises transaction costs. Because different financial organizations must keep their own books, its possible that two different financial services are incompatible. Consequently, transferring money and value between silos may be expensive and time-consuming. Decentralized finance, on the other hand, is based on public blockchains and open standards, allowing for more interoperability across services. Financial capital and worth may move effortlessly over multiple services and borders with high interoperability, possibly establishing an internet of value. Despite the high interoperability of projects created on the identical public blockchain, decentralized finance has yet to reach full interoperability because of the absence of compatibility among blockchains. To achieve full interoperability, entrepreneurs and innovators are looking at two approaches. The first alternative is to promote the development of a single dominating platform and urge all projects to use it. Ethereum is now the most popular decentralized finance platform, and all Ethereum-based platforms are highly interoperable. According to (Chen & Bellavitis , 2020), Ethereum is used in 87% of all publicly financed projects, both inside and outside of decentralized finance. In the future, establishing interoperability through the supermacy of a single platform may be disagreeable, as a single blockchain may unable to support platforms with a wide range of requirements. Increased interoperability between blockchains is a superior choice, allowing projects to be established on multiple blockchains while yet maintaining full compatibility. Many projects, including as Cosmos and Polkadot, are now striving to connect multiple blockchains in order to attain brimful interoperability.

Borderlessness

Since centralized finance is connected to certain physical places and fiat currencies, it cannot really be borderless. Consequently, transfer of money and value across international boundaries is frequently fraught with friction and delays. Decentralized finance, on the other hand, is naturally transnational and hence allows for borderless finance since it is not bound by geography or fiat currencies. It is not connected to certain geographic places and may be used by anybody throughout the world because it is based on borderless cryptocurrencies. Furthermore, it is independent of any central bank or government (Ammous, 2021). As a result of decentralized finance, transferring money across borders might become as simple as sending an email, erasing obstacles to international value exchanges.

Transparency

Decentralized finance can also improve financial system transparency. Because centralized financial organizations must safeguard their centralized ledgers by restricting access, full transparency is impossible. Decentralized finance, on the other hand, uses distributed consensus and radical transparency to safeguard its public ledgers. It keeps track of transactions on public ledgers that are freely accessible and verifiable. Decentralized finance produces distributed trust through public ledgers, allowing transacting parties to deal with each other without the need for pre-existing connections or a trusted middleman, greatly extending the number and breadth of possible business deals (Seidel, 2018). Furthermore, decentralized finance is frequently designed using open source code, allowing third parties to audit business logics and uncover any hidden risks or biases, ensuring and safeguarding dealing parties (Narayanan, Bonneau, Felten, Miller, & Goldfeder, 2016). Furthermore, open source code and transparent public ledgers assist maintain track of all previous transactions, which can assist "get to the bottom of any severe financial mishap" (Lo, 2012).

Limits of Decentralized Finance

Due to various confrontations such as hoax, volatility, accessibility, and regulatory uncertainty, decentralized finance has yet to reach its full potential. First, decentralized finance is susceptible to both fraud and the spread of unpracticed financial inventions. Decentralized finance must establish a healthy environment that supports accountable innovation in order to screen out fraudulent actors if it is to flourish. Second, decentralized finance is based on volatile cryptocurrencies, which hinders stability and acceptance. Stablecoins, nonetheless, whose value is frequently fixed to fiat currencies, are now solving this problem. Third, rather than market pull, decentralized finance tends to be driven by technology. Moreover, according to the Financial Times too many ventures began with the technology and worked from there to figure out how to earn money from it. As a result, many initiatives tend to prioritize technological advances over utility and usability. Decentralized finance must become more user-centric and offer genuine value for consumers in order to break into the mainstream market. Fourth, decentralized finance is subject to a great deal of regulatory uncertainty and scrutiny, which can discourage entrepreneurship and innovation. Facebook's entry into cryptocurrencies and decentralized banking, for example, has been faced with significant regulatory scrutiny, prompting several business partners to remove their assist. A robust legal framework enabling responsible innovation is required for decentralized finance to flourish in a positive way. Although there are numerous obstacles, however, many of them can be overcome via the advancement of blockchain technology and decentralized finance.

However, certain basic limitations may be more difficult to overcome, possibly limiting the scope of what blockchain-based decentralized finance may achieve. The nature and features of decentralized platforms and distributed trust are frequently cited as examples of these limitations. For starters, establishing distributed trust on decentralized networks may be

expensive. A decentralized network often provides accessible information to all participants openly, validates information through distributed consensus, and stores replicated information among peers to create distributed trust using blockchain technology (Cong & He, 2019). The expenses of preparing, processing, and storing data can skyrocket if dispersed trust is achieved (Kumar, Liu, & Shan, 2019). As a consequence, distributed trust is frequently associated with significant costs, which can limit its applicability.

Second, while openness is a key component of decentralized systems and distributed trust, excessive transparency can compromise privacy. Transaction records are frequently retained and available on public blockchains to create distributed trust, but they may be abused to compromise user privacy (Feng, He, Zeadally, Khan, & Kumar, 2019). Some public blockchains, like as Monero and Zcash, employ powerful encryption to mask user names and transaction data while preserving public records of all transactions to ensure user privacy. Even though this method may improve user secrecy, it diminishes transparency and raises information processing expenses because of higher computational overheads.

Third, even if the immutability of public ledgers and smart contracts fosters transparency and trust, it also makes things more rigid and inflexible (Murray, Kuban, Josefy , & Ande, 2019). Decentralized finance, which is based on blockchain technology and smart contracts, is prone to rigidity and inflexibility, which can stifle experimentation, learning, and discovery. Even though smart agreements and decentralized platforms may be modified by distributed accords, finding widespread support among key players to undertake large updates can be difficult. When there is no unanimity, development can be slowed.

Fourth, decentralized finance might be unreliable. It can be difficult to determine who should be held responsible for any transgressions in a decentralized financial ecosystem because central bodies are rarely involved. There may be no central party to turn to in tough and controversial situations. When difficulties emerge, no central party can take action to halt transactions, resolve issues, and return operations to normal (Palatnick, Treat, & Davies, 2019). Decentralized finance may be severely limited if there is insufficient accountability.

Fifth, on inputs that can be objectively documented and verified, decentralized systems are more likely to acquire distributed confidence. Many elements of organizations and lifestyles, however, cannot be impartially defined or publicly recorded on blockchains, and so may not be used as inputs in a distributed trust system. As a consequence, a distributed trust decentralized system can not fully utilize all accessible data, limiting its efficiency and potential utility.

Finally, rather than human judgements, decentralized finance operations tend to rely heavily on the rule of code. The use of the rule of law can be advantageous because it reduces subjectivity, uncertainty, and agency costs (Murray, Kuban, Josefy , & Ande, 2019). However, it might become a major restriction if it fails to exploit human tacit information and subjective judgment, possibly restricting the benefits of decentralized finance. These restrictions, if not solved, can limit the potential utility of blockchain-based decentralized finance.

The Future of Money

The Covid-19 epidemic not only hastened the migration to digital and contactless payments, but it has also resulted in a wider acceptance of physical cash alternatives like cryptocurrencies, which is set to continue. Even if the pandemic-related fears about the tactile nature of currency were to subside, many consumers and companies that switched to digital payments are unlikely to go back (Prasad, 2021). Though the future of money can take many forms, Prasad believes that the combination of bitcoin, stablecoins, central bank digital currencies (CBDCs), and other digital payment systems will lead to the death of physical cash. According to this, the era of cash is coming to an end, and the era of central bank digital currencies is just getting started.

A CBDC is a digital form of money issued by a central bank. Unlike bank and nonbank money now accessible, this would give consumers and businesses with a digital alternative to cash that are devoid of credit and liquidity risk. Multiple elements and functions would be found in a CBDC ecosystem. A core ledger, together with accompanying infrastructure and regulations, would serve as the foundation for a larger ecosystem of processing infrastructure, processing providers, and user services, all of which would be governed by business and technical standards. The central banks who contributed to this research expect ecosystem functions to be split evenly between the public and private sectors, resulting in the intended policy outcome. A central bank would have to analyze the reasons or intentions driving CBDC deployment in order to achieve that result. Regardless of the allocation of responsibility among the various players, the central bank would confront extra operational or supervision chores and obstacles under any CBDC system (BIS, 2021).

CBDC experiments have begun in China, Japan, Sweden, and Nigeria, while the Bank of England and the European Central Bank are planning their own. The Federal Reserve of the United States is still reticent to begin the process of creating a CBDC, although chair Jerome Powell has stated that the central bank is extensively investigating the prospect. The technology used by each CBDC is determined by the country's and central bank's choices. CBDCs may use distributed ledger technology, which is a sort of database that allows numerous copies of financial documents, such as transaction history, to be stored among various institutions. A central bank can oversee all of these institutions. A CBDC would be administered by a single organization, a central bank, as opposed to the blockchain that underpins popular decentralized cryptocurrencies like bitcoin. That is also why a CBDC is not a cryptocurrency (Boucher , Fisch , Levi, Nguyen, Maalouf , & Perry, 2022).

There are a number of possible benefits if the US Federal Reserve issues a CBDC. It would make a digital payment system and a gateway for basic banking services accessible to even the poorest and unbanked people. It might also stymie criminal operations like drug trafficking and money laundering that rely on anonymous cash transfers. However, there may be a price to pay. The loss of privacy is a major problem for a CBDC. Even if safeguards were in place to assure anonymity, no central bank would forego the auditability and traceability of transactions required to restrict the use of its digital currency to lawful reasons (Prasad, 2021); (Didenko & Buckley, 2021).

Conclusion

Blockchain technology has the potential to lower transaction costs, broaden transaction scope, and enable peer-to-peer transactions, ushering in a new era of decentralized business models. This new paradigm has emerged as a result of decentralized finance, which uses blockchain technology to establish an alternative financial system that is more decentralized, inventive, interoperable, borderless, and transparent. Despite the fact that various problems remain, entrepreneurs and inventors have been experimenting with decentralized business models that would not have been possible without blockchain technology. Decentralized business models, if successful, have the ability to transform established sectors and usher in a new era of entrepreneurship and innovation. Furthermore, they may push scholars to develop new theories to explain the advantages and drawbacks of decentralization.

Moreover, for the world to adapt to a global crypto takeover, it will take an enormous amount of effort. Perhaps, in the future, cryptocurrencies will be used for the purpose for which they were created: to pay for goods. But, before that can happen, the globe will have to undertake significant, far-reaching changes that will be difficult to achieve. According to Reiff, if the world completely accepts crypto as legal cash, all existing currencies would just die out with no way of recovering. In addition, new worldwide infrastructure will be required to support digital currencies over a larger area, and billions of individuals would lose money if they have

the majority of their assets in cash (Reiff, 2019). It will be a difficult transition. However, only time will tell whether this is the money of the future.

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The Changing Nature Of Political Parties And Party Competition In Turkey: A Historical Analysis

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Introduction

Political parties, in the broadest definition, are political organizations that aim to control government power through elections by organizing the masses. The distinctive characteristic of political parties is that they seek to acquire executive power through legitimate means, namely through national elections. In pursuit of this goal, political parties are organizations that engage in politics in order to defend the interests of their social base, based on shared principles. Therefore, the primary role of political parties in modern society is to represent the masses and make their demands heard (McKenzie, 1955; Downs, 1957; Wright, 1971; Sartori, 1976; Aldrich, 1995; Katz & Mair, 1993; Gunther et al., 2002; White, 2006; Scarrow et al., 2017).

Political parties have been one of the early subjects of study in modern political science. Moisei Ostrogorski, Robert Michels, and Max Weber are among the pioneers in this field. Since the 1950s, there has been an increase in studies on political parties, becoming a subfield within the discipline. The conceptual and empirical groundwork for the study of political parties was established by scholars such as Duverger (1963 [1955]), Ranney (1954), Neumann (1956), Eldersveld (1964), Sorauf (1964), La Palombara and Weiner (1966), Epstein (1980 [1967]), Lipset and Rokkan (1967), and Sartori (2005 [1976]). During the period from 1945 to 1998, over 11,500 books, articles, and monographs were published on Western European parties and party systems (Bartolini et al., 1998). Nevertheless, it is challenging to assert that the existing literature on Turkish political parties and party competition is comprehensive enough.

The history of the Republic of Turkey is, in a sense, the history of political parties. Throughout the 100-year history of the Republic, numerous parties advocating different political ideas have been established. Although party politics has a long tradition in Turkey, party (system) stability has been a controversial issue. On the one hand, the institutionalization level of political parties in Turkey is relatively high compared to many other young democracies (Özbudun, 2000: 73; Çarkoğlu & Kalaycıoğlu, 2007). On the other hand, Turkish democracy has not developed sufficiently due to factors such as military interventions (Hale, 1994), lack of intra-party democracy (Celep, 2021), political polarization (Aydın Düzgit, 2019), clientelist relationships between parties and their supporters (Yıldırım, 2020), and the personalization of politics (Selçuk, Hekimci, & Erpul, 2019).

This article offers a comprehensive evaluation of political party models and party systems, focusing on two primary objectives. Firstly, it critically reviews previous studies on party models and party systems. Secondly, it investigates the evolving dynamics of parties and party competition in Turkey. Although Tunaya (1952), Sayarı (1976), Özbudun (1979), Heper and Landau (1991), Kabasakal (1991), Sarıbay (2001), Özbudun (2011), and Sayarı (2012) have conducted very important studies, a systematic understanding of how to party system change is

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still lacking. Most studies examining Turkish political parties are descriptive and tend to examine parties individually rather than discussing them within a system.

This study discusses party models and party systems, adopting a historical approach to understand the changing nature of party competition in Turkey. Despite the relative institutionalization of political parties in Turkey, this study concludes that non-democratic interventions have negatively impacted party continuity and the overall stability of the party system. The article argues that a single-party government is possible in Turkey when a center-right party mobilizes Islamist, nationalist, and conservative voters, which typically occurs after significant political and economic crises. Additionally, the article suggests that strong party leadership, state financing, and the increasing role of professionals against party bureaucracies are important characteristics of political parties in Turkey. Therefore, this article claims that political parties in Turkey are a combination of a cartel party and an electoral professional party.

This article consists of four main sections. The first section examines party models that emerged in different stages of capitalist societies. The second section discusses party system typologies based on the works of Blondel and Sartori. The third and fourth sections apply the framework outlined in the previous sections to electoral competition and political parties in Turkey.

Political Party Models: From Civil Society to the State

Political parties are key actors in modern democracies. They offer voters a choice of candidates and policies and help organize and mobilize voters. However, the organizational structure of political parties has changed over time and different party models have emerged. *The cadre party* is a type of party that emerged during the early democratic era of the 19th century when parliaments were just developing and suffrage had not yet been extended to the general population. Because membership in cadre parties was limited to a privileged group, these types of parties are also referred to as elite parties. Coordination among members of the elite party is not very strong, because they lack nationwide organizations and mass support. The party economically relies not on its members but rather on donations from wealthy individuals outside the party.

The general headquarters of the cadre party is weak because it is made up of weak alliances among the parliamentarians. Local organizations are only active during election periods (Katz & Mair, 2002). Cadre party members generally do not engage in voter-focused activities because the party acts as a guardian rather than the voice of public will in parliament (Manin, 1997). Due to insufficient political participation, competition between parties is also very limited.

Since the cadre party is not centralized, the authority and control of the party's general headquarters over local organizations are weak. Local organizations are passive outside of election periods. Party members are already individuals of high status in society, so the party does not feel the need to directly engage with voters. Neumann's (1956) individual representation party is another expression of the cadre party. These types of parties were founded during a time when political participation had not yet spread to the masses. The membership system developed in connection with voting, while the organizational structure remained underdeveloped. The main goal of the local organizations was to elect representatives (Krouwel, 2006).

On the other hand, the expansion of the right to vote in the 20th century led to the democratization of politics. As a result, marginalized sectors of society have gained the power to determine who would govern, thereby shaking the foundations of political elitism. *Mass or social integration parties* emerged during this period, which had to create large-scale party networks and central bureaucracies to mobilize the growing number of voters. When casting a

vote for a candidate, the ideological stance of the candidate's party became more influential than personal familiarity with the candidate (Manin, 1997).

Mass parties are linked to the increasing importance of numbers or the masses in politics and the need for larger and more comprehensive organizations. Unlike cadre parties, mass parties have adopted a broadly participatory organizational structure. Various activities are carried out for party members in different areas, and the party's activities are financed by their dues. Therefore, central bureaucratic management has been established in these types of parties to ensure effective coordination (Katz & Mair, 2002).

All mass parties have a large and active membership, a centralized bureaucracy that is spread throughout the country, and intra-party democratic mechanisms (Duverger, 1963). These parties operate formal democratic processes. However, strict ideology, political indoctrination within the party, and the selection methods of party leaders hinder the development of intra-party democracy. Michels (1962), one of the pioneering party researchers, introduced the concept of the "iron law of oligarchy" to describe the tendency of mass parties and modern organizations to become oligarchic, using the Social Democratic Party of Germany as an example.

Mass parties, traditionally based on a specific social base, attempt to mobilize their members around an ideological program. *Weltanschauung* (Ideology) is one of the fundamental elements that distinguish mass parties from each other. Party organizations engage in activities in various areas, ranging from sports to education, within the framework of their ideological program. These activities allow the party to concretize its ideological position (Krouwel, 2006).

Mass parties adopt an approach that focuses on groups such as industrialists, craftsmen, farmers, civil servants, and workers, and establish organic relationships with trade unions and professional organizations. Since political representation is a reflection of the social structure, the fundamental goal of mass parties is to bring economic conflicts in civil society onto the political stage. As the social structure does not change easily, certain socio-economic groups have continued to vote for the same parties for several generations (Manin, 1997). Strong party loyalty has provided a relatively stable outcome in election results for a long period.

Since the late 1960s, the relationship between mass parties and their supporters has weakened, and electoral volatility has increased. Voting behavior has become a matter of political preference rather than a result of socio-economic and socio-cultural structure. Voter preferences now primarily reflect the political agenda and perception shaped by the media and the candidates during campaign periods rather than being a mere expression of economic and cultural status (Manin, 1997).

The decline in party loyalty is caused by structural factors. Elite and mass parties are opposite images of each other, with the former being the party of a privileged upper class while the latter is the party of marginalized sections of society. However, universal suffrage and the wealth provided by the welfare state have eroded the class conflict that forms the basis of mass and cadre parties (Katz & Mair, 2002). While the influence of trade unions on parties has diminished, the claim of parties to represent them has weakened (Allern & Verge, 2017). The homogeneous structure of party members has gradually been broken down, and membership has become a contract between supporters and the party, rather than a matter of social identity (Katz & Mair, 1995).

Otto Kirchheimer (1966) coined the term *catch-all party* to describe the changing structure of political parties. According to Kirchheimer, the relative improvement of middle-class living conditions and the blurring of class boundaries have reduced polarization and eroded the connection between mass parties and their traditional base. This development has forced mass parties to become election-oriented and pursue maximum votes through a moderate program. Kircheimer summarizes the key characteristics of this type of party as follows: a) weakening of

the party's ideological direction, b) strengthening of leadership within the party, c) decreasing role of party members, d) dissolution of the *classe gardée* and targeting of new voter groups, e) and increasing dependency on interest groups.

The emergence of catch-all parties is a response to the changes brought about by post-industrial societies. Increasing levels of education, urbanization, communication technologies, a more diverse working class, improving middle-class living standards, a growing consumer culture, and the rise of identity-based social movements are the key features of the changing social structure. As a result, in societies where people are differentiated by socioeconomic and sociocultural factors, mass parties have struggled to mobilize voters.

Another important development is related to the transformation of election campaigns, particularly through communication technologies, such as television. Mass broadcasting and communication experts have led to the development of candidate and agenda-oriented political communication. As Panebianco (1988) pointed out, television and experts have started to play a much more important role in developing the relationship between parties and voters, rather than party bureaucracy. Therefore, Panebianco updated Kirchheimer's catch-all party as an election machine by adding the 'professional' dimension. In the electoral professional party of Panebianco, the power center of the party has shifted towards voters. As the role of members within the party has diminished, the party has become financially dependent on interest groups and public resources. While the ideology emphasis of the catch-all party has decreased, its focus on issue-based political propaganda has increased, and its leadership has become more personalized with the weakening of institutionalization. The leader, who has gained independent power in campaign preparation, minister selection, and policy-making, has reduced his responsibility towards the party. The party still serves its central function in establishing communication networks, finding resources, and providing volunteer support, but its institutional structure is gradually eroding.

The electoral professional party, to increase its vote count, resorts to pragmatic and ad hoc strategies, blurring the ideological distinction between left and right. As polarization weakens, parties have stopped following a strict ideological program. With the blurring of ideological differences between parties, party competition has been replaced by leadership competition. Therefore, political communicators tend to focus on the leader rather than the party itself. As the role of bureaucracy within the party decreases, the role of the leader and their advisors increases. As Manin (1997) points out, developments in communication technology have eliminated the need for complex party organizations to convey messages, as communication professionals have taken over the work of party bureaucracies. Parties, guided by professionals who have replaced traditional party elites, adopt models that analyze voters in political markets similar to how consumers are analyzed in commercial markets (Bölükbaşı, 2019).

In the 1990s, relative political stability in Western democracies began to deteriorate. In many established democracies, voter turnout decreased, electoral volatility increased, and party membership declined (Dalton & Wattenberg, 2000; Van Biezen et al., 2012). The weakening of ideological emphasis, the development of similar policies by left and right parties, and the perception that all parties were the same reinforced voter attitudes (Linz, 2002). Political corruption, scandals, and fraud increased, and the boundaries between parties and the state became blurred. Governments began to use state resources to create advantages for their supporters, in other words, patronage became widespread. As a result, in most Western European democracies, a cohabitative relationship, borrowing from biology, has emerged between representatives and rulers. This process, in which "parties invaded the state", has been referred to as partitocracy (Blondel, 2002).

Table 1. Political Party Models

	Cadre Party	**Mass Party**	**Catch-All Party/Electoral Professional Party**	**Cartel Party**
Membership	Limited	Mass, voluntary, with defined responsibility	Neglected	The unclear distinction between members and supporters
Power center	Party center	Party committees	Parliamentary group	Government and parliamentary group
Financing	Personal wealth	Membership fees	Interest groups, state aid, and personal wealth	State aid
Voter base	Upper-middle class	Specific groups based on class or religion	Broad middle class beyond the core voter group	Consumer voters
Campaigning	Individual	Member-based, labor-intensive, face-to-face	Leader-centered, professional, capital-intensive	Professional and technology-based

The interlocking relationship between parties and the state is transforming the organizational structures and functions of parties. As seen in catch-all parties, the locus of power has shifted over time from party organizations to parliamentary groups and even the executive branch. The decline in party membership, dependence on public funding, weakening ties with traditional bases, and ideological dilution have led to a loss of the party's representational function, while the governing function has become prominent. Consequently, political parties have become a part of the state rather than civil society.

As shown in Table 1, the transformation in the organizational structures of political parties highlights the shift of classical party models from state-centric to civil society-centric. Each type of party corresponds to a different historical period. The relationship between historical periods and party models can be summarized as follows: cadre parties emerged during the early capitalist period with limited participation, mass parties arose during the developed capitalist period when political rights expanded to the masses, and finally, catch-all parties emerged during the late capitalist period when universal suffrage was undisputedly accepted. The first period began with the emergence of US parties in the 19th century and ended with the establishment of socialist parties in Western and Northern European countries. The second period spanned from the beginning of the 20th century to the 1950s, while the third period describes the time after the 1950s. In general, classical party models that explain the organizational structures of parties through the expansion of political rights and the development of capitalist society focus on the relationship between political parties and civil society. However, the representation crisis and the stateization of parties have brought the party-state relationship to the forefront of party model discussions.

The increasing (direct or indirect) public support for political parties throughout Europe has deeply affected the party-state relationship. Political parties that gain control over state resources can access the necessary resources to sustain their existence and prevent the emergence of new parties. This leads parties to cooperate more closely while reducing party competition. Through short-term coalitions, almost all parties in the parliament can benefit from the opportunities provided by the state. In some democracies like Ireland and the United Kingdom, even if they are not part of the executive branch, parties in parliament can enjoy

privileges such as the ability to influence the civil service, access to public financing, and access to the media. Political parties that are intertwined with the state are eroding the traditional mediating roles between civil society and the state (Katz & Mair, 1995:16).

Katz and Mair (1995) conceptualized these parties that have become partners with the state as *cartel parties*. A cartel party is a party of a period in which politics has become a field of expertise under the influence of professionals and technocrats, parties have lost their representation function, and electoral competition has turned into a collusive fight. The main reason for weak party competition is the common benefit provided by maintaining the collective organizational structure. As long as parties serve a common interest, they continue to collaborate for the continuity of the system. Cartel parties generally work with professional media experts since they prioritize non-partisan communication networks. Election campaigns are conducted centrally, professionally, and with capital intensity. Since parties are financed by the state, the need for members' financial support has disappeared.

Party Systems: Blondel and Sartori

The debates on party systems are linked to comparative political studies and have been on the agenda since the end of World War II. The initial systematic studies differentiated two-party systems from multi-party systems using the criterion of the number of parties (Duverger, 1963). In the following years, both the criteria used and the typologies of party systems have diversified. For example, criteria such as the competitiveness of opposition (Dahl, 1966), the relative size of parties (Blondel, 1968), the likelihood of single-party majorities, and distribution of minority party strengths (Rokkan, 1968), the ideological distance between parties (Sartori, 2005), and the structure of party competition (Mair, 2002) have been proposed to classify party systems. However, among these criteria, it should be emphasized that relative size and the criterion of counting have been widely applied with some revisions. Therefore, this article will discuss party system typologies in the context of Blondel's and Sartori's studies.

Blondel (1968) divided Western party systems into four different groups based on the average of the total vote percentages obtained by the parties in the first two places in the elections held between 1945 and 1966. According to Blondel, two-party systems are systems where the total vote percentage reaches 90%, and the difference in votes is very low. Systems in which the total vote percentage reaches 75-80% are three-party systems, or as Blondel (1968: 185) defined them, "two-and-a-half party systems", because these systems have two major parties and a minor party. Multi-party systems with a dominant party are systems in which two parties remain at around 60% of the total vote, but one of them reaches at least 40% of the vote. Blondel identified systems in which there are three or four parties with similar vote percentages that could form a coalition and in which there is no dominant party as genuinely multi-party systems.

Blondel's classification is based on a method that goes beyond simple counting and takes into account the relative size of parties, providing insights into the level of political fragmentation. Many researchers working on party systems, notably Siaroff (2000), have been influenced by Blondel's taxonomy based on quantitative criteria (Golosov, 2011). However, Blondel's method, which is based on party vote shares, ignores the disproportionality between vote distribution and seat allocation. For instance, high electoral thresholds or regional thresholds can significantly impact the distribution of seats and thus the structure of government. Additionally, Blondel's classification is insufficient in explaining dominant party systems. If a party consistently receives more than 40% of the votes and there is no turnover in power, to what extent can we speak of a multiparty system?

Therefore, Siaroff's classification (2000), which is inspired by Blondel's approach, takes into account both the relative sizes of parties in parliament and the models for forming a government. Siaroff (2000: 69) uses four quantitative criteria to classify European party

systems: 1) the number of parties with at least 3% of the total number of seats in parliament, 2) the total proportion of seats held by the two largest parties, 3) the proportion of seats held by the largest party compared to the second-largest party, and 4) the proportion of seats held by the second-largest party compared to the third-largest party. Based on these criteria, Siaroff developed a classification consisting of eight categories. In addition to two-party systems, he also analyzed moderate and extreme pluralistic systems in detail.

Siaroff's detailed study revisiting Blondel deserves praise. Despite its complexity, the diversity of categories is successful in distinguishing pluralistic systems (Wolinetz, 2006: 58). However, it cannot compete with Sartori's typology in the field of party studies. As shown in Table 2, Sartori's seven different party system categories cover almost all political party systems. Thus, despite the long time that has passed, no entirely new typologies have emerged since Sartori's work.

Blondel (1968) uses the criterion of relative party size, while Sartori (2005) employs the criterion of the number of parties. However, since not every party in a legislature has equal power, Sartori only counts the effective parties. A party is considered relevant if it can somehow affect party competition, alter the direction of competition, and potentially play a role in the formation or removal of a government (Sartori, 2005). In other words, according to Sartori, only parties with the potential for coalition or blackmail and the ability to change the direction of competition towards centripetal or centrifugal tendencies can influence the tactics of major parties. This potential is related to the level of polarization, as the ideological distance between parties determines alliances. Therefore, Sartori mainly focuses on the distribution of power among parties. Sartori not only combines the criterion of counting parties with the criterion of the ideological distance between parties but also develops highly inclusive categories.

Sartori initially divides party systems into two categories: competitive and non-competitive systems. The first group includes "single-party systems", where only one party is officially allowed, and "hegemonic party systems", where other parties are merely symbolic. Competitive systems, on the other hand, have five different types. "Limited pluralistic systems" are systems where the number of parties is generally between three and five, and none of these parties can obtain an absolute majority. The level of polarization between parties is low in this category, and Sartori also refers to it as moderate pluralism, as extremist anti-system parties are not present. In moderate pluralism, the ideological distance between parties is low, and competition occurs toward the center. In contrast, "polarized (extreme) pluralism" have at least five or six parties, including anti-system parties. In these types of systems, the ideological distance between parties is high, the level of compromise is low, and competition is centrifugal. Extreme pluralistic systems are highly fragmented and ideologically polarized. On the other hand, Sartori defines systems in which fragmentation reaches extreme levels and the significance of the number of parties diminishes as "atomized systems". Atomized systems are characterized by a multitude of political parties with high levels of ideological differences. In these types of systems, forming a coalition is difficult, and government stability is often weak. It is more challenging to achieve consensus among parties, which can result in lengthy and intricate decision-making processes.

Table 2. Party System Typologies: Blondel and Sartori

	Criteria	Party System	Characteristics
Blondel	the relative size of parties	two-party system	two parties receive 90% of the votes
		two-and-a-half party system	two parties receive 75-80% of the votes, with a smaller party as a partner in government
		multi-party system with a dominant party	two parties receive 60% of the votes, with one party having 40%
		genuine multi-party systems	a balanced distribution of seats, strong 3-4 parties, a coalition government
Sartori	the ideological distance between parties	one-party system	officially one party
		hegemonic-party system	multiparty system on paper
		predominant-party system	a multiparty system with the same party in power continuously
		two-party system	two major parties with alternation in power
		limited pluralism	3-5 parties, low polarization, centrist competition
		extreme pluralism	5-6 parties, high polarization, centrifugal competition
		atomized multiparty system	high fragmentation

The other two categories within competitive systems are "two-party systems" and "predominant-party systems". Two-party systems are those in which two major parties with similar power compete for the chance to govern, and where power can change hands. In other words, since there is a strong competition, one party cannot hold the power continuously. Predominant-party systems, on the other hand, are systems in which the same party has continuously managed to gain an absolute majority in the parliament. Unlike one-party systems, other parties having negligible effects are considered legal and legitimate. In other words, the predominant-party system is not a one-party system; it is a type of party pluralism where there is no change in power (Sartori, 2005). Therefore, the fundamental difference between two-party systems and predominant-party systems is the problem of power transition. In this regard, it is highly probable for two-party systems to evolve into predominant-party systems. However, a predominant-party system can also emerge from a highly fragmented system.

The power of a predominant party is hegemonic in nature. The predominant party dominates not only the electorate but also other parties, government formation, and the public policy agenda. (Gümüşçü, 2013). In this sense, the predominant party is generally the party that dominates politics beyond being a powerful party. The Liberal Democratic Party (*Jimintō*) in Japan is one of the best examples of a long-ruling political party worldwide. The Liberal Democrats held an uninterrupted majority in the parliament from 1955 to 1993. The Swedish

Social Democratic Party (*Sveriges Socialdemokratiska Arbetareparti*) also continuously held office from the 1930s until the late 1970s, with fluctuating vote percentages ranging between 53.8% and 41.1%. In Italy, the Christian Democratic Party (*Democrazia Cristiana*) managed to become the largest party in parliament for approximately 50 years following the end of World War II. In Turkey, the Justice and Development Party (AK Party) emerged as the first party in all six general elections between 2002 and 2018, obtaining an average of 44% of the vote and 56.9% of the seats in parliament. Although the AK Party lost its majority in the fourth election (June 2015), it returned to power in the snap election held in November of the same year. The party managed to maintain its majority in parliament thanks to alliances before the elections, despite obtaining only 49.2% of the seats in the June 2018 elections.

Political Parties and Elections in Turkey

Political parties have a long history in Turkey. During the democratization process in the early 20th century, political parties played a significant role. For the first time during the Second Constitutional Era, Ottoman society experienced competitive politics. From the establishment of the Republic until the beginning of the liberalization process after World War II, Turkey was under a single-party system under the leadership of the Republican People's Party (CHP), and there was no official opposition party. The CHP, which emerged as a continuation of the Anatolian and Rumelian Defense of Rights Society (*Anadolu ve Rumeli Müdafaa-i Hukuk Cemiyeti*) that played a significant role in the organization of the War of Independence, was founded on the principles of republicanism, nationalism, and populism. As the system was not competitive, the party was not organized as a competitive party and was not associated with any social group. Their leaders, including Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, were mainly from the cadres that led the National Struggle, and the party claimed to represent the general public, which was depicted as an "unprivileged, classless, and integrated whole" (CHP Bylaws, 1938). The CHP, which was led by the military-civil bureaucracy, the most educated section of society, was a typical elitist party during this period. In the 1920s, the party lacked a strong ideological program and grassroots organization. The parliamentary group was the party's main power center. However, from the mid-1930s onwards, the party strengthened its ideological program, developed its organizations, increased its internal education activities, and expanded its voter base by granting women the right to vote and run for office.

The single-party regime continued in Turkey until the end of World War II since the attempts of the 'second party' initiatives such as the *Terakkiperver Cumhuriyet Fırkası* in 1924 and the *Serbest Cumhuriyet Fırkası* in 1930 were suppressed shortly after their establishment. With the democratization process between 1945 and 1950, some changes were made in the Association Law, the Turkish Penal Code, and the Rules of Procedure of the Parliament, and the possibility of establishing political parties emerged. The end of the single-party era was marked by the establishment of the National Development Party (MKP) on July 18, 1945, which was allowed to be formed. Following the MKP, many parties entered into political life, and the multi-party era began in the Republic of Turkey (Tunaya, 1952; Özbudun, 1979; Koçak, 2010; Sayarı, 2012).

The Democratic Party (DP), which emerged as a faction within the Republican People's Party (CHP) in the mid-1940s, came to power in 1950 and managed to maintain a majority in parliament until it was closed down by the 1960 military coup. When viewed in terms of the social backgrounds of its members of parliament, DP had a smaller proportion of members from military-civil bureaucracy compared to CHP (Zürcher, 2017). Therefore, the competition between CHP and DP is also interpreted as a "struggle between the periphery and the center" that has been ongoing since the Ottoman period (Mardin, 1973).

The two-party parliamentary structure that emerged in the 1950s is a natural outcome of the electoral system. General elections were held until the 1940s according to a two-tiered and simple majority electoral system based on the *İntihab-i Mebusan Kanun-i Muvakkati* (Temporary Deputy Election Law) enacted during the First Constitutional Era. The electoral

system was transformed into a single-tiered list-based majority system with the *Milletvekilleri Seçimi Kanunu* (Law on the Election of Members of Parliament) numbered 4918, which was enacted just before the 1946 elections. Under this system, each province was declared as an electoral district, and political parties prepared their own candidate lists for each district. The political party that received an absolute majority of the votes in the elections won all the parliamentary seats in that district. This situation damages the principle of fair representation while favoring the over-representation of the first party. For example, although the average vote share of DP in the 1950s was 54%, their average seat share was over 80%. Although the total vote share of DP and CHP exceeded 90%, the influence of parties other than DP on legislation was minimal. Therefore, Sayarı (2002) positions the 1950s between a predominant party system and a two-party system.

The changes made in the electoral institutions after the 1960 military coup had a significant impact on the Turkish party system in subsequent years. The majority method was abandoned, and proportional representation was adopted. Since 1961, Turkey has been implementing the proportional representation system along with various derivatives of the *d'Hondt* method. Although this system results in relatively lower disproportionality, it still tends to favor large parties by giving them more seats than their vote shares, while small parties receive fewer seats than their vote shares.

After the military coup, in the early 1960s, there was intense competition among several parties to win the base of the Democratic Party (DP), which had been closed down. Eventually, the Justice Party (AP) succeeded in taking the place of the DP. The 1960s were a period when the predominant party system was likely to emerge (Ayan-Musil, 2015). However, in the 1970s, high fragmentation and volatility, along with ideological polarization, caused the party system to shift in a different direction (Özbudun, 2000). For example, the fragmentation level in parliament, which was 0.57 in 1969, rose to 0.70 in 1973. The emergence of right-wing parties such as the National Salvation Party (MSP) and the Nationalist Movement Party (MHP) was an important factor in high fragmentation. High fragmentation and ideological polarization contributed to the increase in political instability, which was one of the main reasons for the 1980 military coup. The military elites managed the country without any official political party until 1983 by closing down all existing political parties. This situation hindered the continuity of party organization, which is a typical element of party institutionalization.

Following the military coup in 1980, various political engineering methods were implemented, such as electoral thresholds at the regional and national levels, to transform the party system into a more manageable two or three-party system and to prevent extremist parties from entering parliament (Özbudun, 2000). The main purpose of the high election threshold was to prevent small parties representing religious, sectarian, and ethnic interests from entering parliament, but it had a negative impact on all small parties in general (Sayarı, 2012).

Despite the restrictions and political engineering implemented by the military regime in the early 1980s, the single-party rule of the Motherland Party (ANAP) was short-lived. In the 1990s, there was an increase in the number of political parties, electoral volatility, and political fragmentation. For instance, five out of six parties that participated in the 1991 general elections managed to pass the election threshold and gain seats in parliament. Moreover, while anti-system parties like the pro-Islamist Welfare Party (RP) and the pro-Kurdish People's Democracy Party (HADEP) gained strength, center parties weakened (Sayarı, 2002). However, since the dramatic shift in the 2002 elections, there have been sharp transformations, such as a decrease in electoral volatility and political fragmentation, an increase in the vote share of the largest party, and the emergence of a predominant party system.

In the 2000s, small parties in Turkey tried various strategies to overcome the high election threshold. For example, Kurdish nationalists managed to exceed the election threshold by nominating independent candidates in 2007 and 2011, as there is no national threshold for

independents (Sayarı, 2012: 187). However, the high election threshold continues to be a significant obstacle to fair representation. In 2017, Turkey switched from a parliamentary system to a Presidential Government System through a constitutional amendment referendum. While the two-round absolute majority system was adopted for the presidential election, the proportional representation system and the 10% election threshold were maintained for parliamentary elections. However, pre-election alliances have made it possible to bypass the election threshold.

Table 3. Key Data on General Elections in Turkey, 1950-2018

Election	The largest party	Vote (%)	Seat (%)	SR1:2	SBL	ENPP
May. 1950	DP	55.2	85.4	6.03	30.22	1.33
May. 1954	DP	58.4	93	16.23	34.58	1.15
Oct. 1957	DP	48.6	69.5	2.38	20.91	1.76
Oct. 1961	CHP	36.7	38.4	1.09	1.74	3.26
Oct. 1965	AP	52.9	53.3	1.79	0.43	2.62
Oct. 1969	AP	46.6	56.9	1.79	10.29	2.35
Oct. 1973	CHP	33.3	41.1	1.24	7.81	3.32
Jun. 1977	CHP	41.4	47.3	1.13	5.93	2.47
Nov. 1983	ANAP	45.1	52.9	1.80	7.78	2.52
Nov. 1987	ANAP	36.3	64.9	2.95	28.59	2.05
Oct. 1991	DYP	27.0	39.6	1.55	12.56	3.58
Aralık 1995	RP	21.4	28.7	1.20	7.35	4.40
Dec. 1999	DSP	22.2	24.7	1.05	2.54	4.87
Nov. 2002	AK Party	34.3	66	2.04	31.72	1.85
Jul. 2007	AK Party	46.6	62	3.04	15.42	2.26
Jun. 2011	AK Party	49.8	59.5	2.42	9.62	2.36
Jun. 2015	AK Party	40.9	46.9	1.95	6.04	3.13
Nov. 2015	AK Party	49.5	57.6	2.37	8.14	2.45

In the Turkish party system, significant differences that emerged between the 1990s and the post-2002 period should be emphasized. The first noticeable point is the decrease in the number of parties in parliament. The number of parties with at least 3% of the members of parliament was four in 1991, five in 1995 and 1999, two in 2002, three in 2007 and 2011, and four in 2015. This number reached five again only in 2018. The decrease in political fragmentation is also dramatic. The level of fragmentation based on the distribution of members of parliament decreased from 4.87 in 1999 to 1.85 in 2002. Although political fragmentation increased to 3.07 in 2018, it is still below the level of the 1990s. The second significant difference is the increase in the vote share of the first party. For example, the first party received a vote share of 27% in 1991, 21% in 1995, 22.2% in 1999, 34.3% in 2002, 46% in 2007, and 49.8% in 2011. The ratio of members of parliament between the largest party and the second party increased from 1.1 in 1999 to 2.4 in 2011. Despite the relative loss of power, the number of members of parliament of the AK Party is still twice that of the CHP in 2018. The third point that needs to be emphasized is that since 2002, political parties have had relatively more stable voter bases. There has been almost no change in party competition in the 2010s. Thus, the

competition between political parties became ineffective – at least until the 2019 local elections. Finally, unlike in the 1990s, single-party governments emerged in the post-2002 period. This has strengthened the durability and internal coherence of governments in decision-making processes.

Single-party governments emerged in Turkey not only in the period after 2002, but also in the 1950s, 1960s, and 1980s. To understand the common characteristics of these periods, a historical summary of the party system in Turkey is presented in Table 3, which provides data on general elections between 1950 and 2018, showing the vote and parliamentary seat percentages won by the largest parties. The table also provides data on the ratio of parliamentary seats between the first and second parties (SR1:2), the disproportionality between the vote and seat distributions of the first party (SBL), and the effective number of parliamentary parties (ENPP) or fragmentation level in the parliament, as developed by Laakso and Taagepera (1979). Through the table, the common characteristics of elections where a party obtains a parliamentary majority become measurable. Accordingly, the DP, AP, ANAP, and AK Party obtained an average of 46.7% of the votes and 62.9% of the parliamentary seats. The median SR1:2 value for these parties is 2.4, and the SBL value is 10.3. The average fragmentation level in elections where the single-party rule is observed is 2.2. These data indicate a high vote gap between the first and second parties (inevitably, a center-right party must be in the first place), the need for excess representation (requiring election thresholds), and low fragmentation levels (right-wing voters must be brought together).

Single-party governments in Turkey have generally been formed following major political and economic crises. DP came to power in the aftermath of World War II; following DP's tragic overthrow by a military coup, AP formed a single-party government; ANAP won a parliamentary majority following a prolonged period of political and economic instability that culminated in a military coup. Finally, a series of political and economic complications, such as the rise of the Kurdish political movement, intense migration to cities, the *Kulturkampf* between modernist republicans and pro-Islamists, RP's removal from power by non-political means, and the 2001 economic crisis, provided a suitable ground for the AK Party government (Bölükbaşı, 2021: 288). Among these parties, only the AK Party has been able to hold a parliamentary majority for more than three terms. DP's rule ended with a military coup, AP fell victim to centrifugal tendencies, and ANAP weakened in the 1990s due to competition within the center-right. However, AK Party managed to combine rapid economic growth with social policies, eliminating other center-right political parties as viable alternatives, and gaining dominance over military institutions, thereby becoming the longest-serving party in power in Turkish political history since 1950.

General Characteristics of Turkish Political Parties

In terms of political party types, which party models do the parties in Turkey fit into? The first point to emphasize is that it is not entirely possible to explain political parties in Turkey in terms of the economic structure of society. Political parties in Western Europe, especially mass parties, have strong class ties and sharp ideological distinctions between right and left. In Turkey, the distinction between the CHP and the DP after the transition to multi-party rule was hardly class-based. The competition between the two parties was mainly an internal struggle between groups within the ruling bloc. For example, the CHP is a typical cadre party with members from army commanders, bureaucrats, and local notables, aiming to build a modern nation through top-down economic and cultural reforms. The DP is also a cadre party. It was founded by former deputies who resigned from the CHP during the post-World War II political liberalization process, and the party elite was mostly composed of notables and landlords (Arslantaş & Arslantaş, 2021). As a result, political competition in the early republican period was mainly limited to competition between elites due to the lack of mass support (Sayarı, 2012). In other words, the competition between political parties was not a political reflection of the

economic conflict between social classes. Therefore, the divergence between political parties in Turkey has emerged over values shaped along the religious-secular lines rather than being of a class nature. Social stratification began to play a role in Turkish politics only in the 1970s as a result of rapid modernization (Çarkoğlu, 1998: 546).

The legal regulations on political parties in Turkey contribute to the institutionalization of parties as they encourage large-scale organization (Bölükbaşı, 2022). However, since they contain restrictive provisions, they make all political parties similar in terms of organization. In this respect, it does not seem possible to make a distinction based on organizational structure. The regulations on political parties in Turkey encourage parties to organize in a standardized, inclusive, and hierarchical structure. After 1960, legal amendments prohibited political parties from organizing at the local level (*ocak* and *bucak* organizations), and comprehensive regulations on political parties were introduced in 1965 with Law No. 648 on Political Parties (Sayarı, 2012). The 1980 military regime attempted to standardize political party organizations with the new Political Parties Law No. 2820. For instance, political parties are required to establish organizations in at least half of the provinces and at least one-third of the districts in these provinces to participate in elections. Thus, major parties in Turkey inevitably have a large-scale, nationwide organizational structure - although most of the local party organizations, which are insufficient in terms of human resources and financing, are only active during election periods. With the exception of the HDP, the political parties that currently have a parliamentary group are organized in almost all provinces. In short, the Political Parties Law contains detailed provisions regulating the structure of party organizations, internal party processes such as membership and financing, as well as the conditions under which political parties can be banned.

On the other hand, military interventions in 1960, 1971, 1980, and 1997, the 10% electoral threshold imposed after 1980, and party closures that have become commonplace have negatively affected the organizational continuity of political parties. For example, the Constitutional Court has closed down 25 political parties since 1960, on the grounds of violating the principle of "indivisible integrity of the state with its territory and nation" (Özbudun, 2011). The 1980 coup banned all political parties, and the Republican People's Party (CHP), which dates back to 1923, could only reopen in the 1990s. Similarly, the SP, which traces its history back to the National Outlook parties led by Erbakan in the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s, all of which were shut down by the Constitutional Court, was founded as a new party in the early 2000s. In addition to this situation that affects the organizational continuity of parties, a leader-centric approach further erodes their institutional structures. As the Political Parties Law has granted party leaders enormous power over central executive committees, leadership changes rarely occur within parties (Özbudun, 2000: 84). Consequently, political parties have developed around the continuity of leadership rather than organizational continuity.

It should be emphasized that political parties in Turkey are highly dependent on the strong will of their party leaders. Leaders are at the heart of party decision-making. Party leaders occupy a central position in the decision-making mechanism of most parties, and loyalty to the leader is often more important than loyalty to the party program or ideology, making it unlikely to achieve effective positions within the party against the will of the leader. The delegate structure is designed to ensure the power of the party leader, making leadership changes very difficult in parties. Due to the weakness of intra-party democracy, factions that emerge are often completely excluded from the party (Türsan, 1995: 183). Competition for leadership often leads to the formation of new parties in Turkish political history, which is full of examples of party divisions. Looking at more recent examples, Muharrem İnce left the CHP to form the Homeland Party due to leadership competition, while Meral Akşener left the MHP to form the Good Party. Therefore, while it may not be possible to describe Turkey's parties as completely personalized "charismatic parties" (Panebianco, 1988: 143), it would be accurate to say that parties and leaders are identified with each other. The Political Parties Law and party bylaws ensure the

power of party leaders. The law gives great authority to party central committees against local organizations and completely leaves the candidate selection method to parties, reinforcing the power of party leaders. Particularly since the 1990s, the role of delegates has diminished in many parties' candidate selection processes, and the role of the leader has increased. Moreover, the personal charisma of the leader plays an important role in influencing the voting preferences of voters, and the personalization of politics as a general trend increases the leader's influence. Since the leader is often seen as embodying the party's legal personality, voters tend to establish a connection with the leaders rather than the parties. For this reason, many of the parties in Turkey find it difficult to maintain voter support after the departure of a strong leader. Parties such as the ANAP, the DP/DYP, and the DSP, which have left their mark on Turkish political history, have now turned into *tabela partileri* (parties on paper).

Another characteristic of political parties in Turkey is that, with the exception of a few parties, they lack broad membership participation. In fact, compared to Europe (Van Biezen, Mair & Poguntke, 2012), political party membership in Turkey is quite high. Approximately one-quarter of the electorate in Turkey has a party membership, but this figure is primarily boosted by the ruling parties. Since it requires almost no duties and responsibilities, membership does not cost anything, and even being a member of the ruling parties can be beneficial in terms of social capital. Party members have certain roles in grassroots organizations, but are not active in the party itself. Party membership is mainly used as a means of personal benefit. In short, the high membership/voter ratio is due to the "clientelist nature of Turkish political parties" (Özbudun, 2006: 553). For example, ANAP, which held a majority in parliament between 1983 and 1991, had six million party members in 2002 but could only secure the votes of 1.6 million voters. Similarly, the AK Party, which currently has over 11 million members, has a membership/voter ratio of over 50%. However, apart from the CHP, which has over a million members, and the Iyi Party, which has more than half a million members, other parties have only a few hundred thousand members at most. Therefore, when the high membership numbers of the ruling parties arising from nepotism are excluded, political party membership drops considerably. Moreover, due to the low membership, the share of membership fees in party revenues is also limited. For this reason, parties initially rely on the personal wealth of the leader and later on state aid rather than membership fees.

Finally, many party activities, from policy development to political communication, have become increasingly professionalized. With the increasing complexity of politics and the development of propaganda techniques, experts have been taking on a much more active role in both intra-party decision-making mechanisms and party-voter relations. Non-partisan communication networks are increasingly being used in campaigns and party bureaucrats were replaced by research, communication, and marketing experts. The 2000s witnessed a significant transformation in the professionalization of politics in Turkey, as political parties began to adopt modern campaign techniques and strategies to reach out to voters. For example, the AK Party played a key role in this process by introducing new approaches such as the regular use of focus groups and opinion polls to shape policies that appealed to voters. Additionally, the party invested heavily in its communication and media operations, hiring professional consultants and experts to coordinate campaign efforts. In short, political communication in Turkey has become increasingly sophisticated, with parties investing in more sophisticated campaign strategies and employing consultants, data analysts, and social media experts to help them communicate their message to voters.

Conclusion

This paper examines political parties and party competition in Turkey from a historical perspective, in the context of debates on party models and party systems. The study defines political parties in Turkey as a combination of cartel parties and electoral professional parties,

due to their low membership numbers, leader-centered organizational structure, dependence on state aid, and professionalization of party activities.

In terms of party systems, this article argues that the party system in Turkey was shaped by the competition between the two major parties in the 1950s, and since the 1970s, it has generally exhibited the feature of a two-and-a-half party system due to the fragmentation of the center-right. Moreover, drawing on the experiences of the DP, the AP, the ANAP, and the AK Party, this study emphasizes that the party system in Turkey has come closer to a predominant party system under certain necessary conditions. This situation depends on a center-right party's ability to mobilize Islamist, nationalist, and conservative voters and usually emerges in Turkey after major political and economic crises.

Despite its limitations, this study makes a significant contribution to the field of political parties through its examination of party models and party system debates in the case of Turkey. It is suggested that future studies on this subject should investigate political parties and party competition in Turkey in comparison with emerging democracies.

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Ai And Management Information Systems

Cevher ÖZDEN[1]

Introduction

Management information systems (MIS) are a critical part of modern business operations. These systems help companies manage and organize data, make informed decisions, and optimize their operations. In this article, we will explore the importance of management information systems in business and how they can help companies succeed.

What are Management Information Systems?

Management information systems (MIS) are a set of technologies, tools, and processes that help businesses collect, process, store, and analyze data. These systems provide real-time information to managers and decision-makers, allowing them to make informed decisions about their business operations.

MIS systems can be used for a variety of tasks, such as tracking sales and inventory levels, analyzing customer behavior, managing financial information, and forecasting future trends. MIS systems are critical to the success of any business, regardless of its size or industry.

Why are Management Information Systems Important?

Management information systems are essential to the success of businesses for several reasons. First, they provide real-time data and information to decision-makers, enabling them to make informed decisions about their operations. This allows businesses to be more agile and respond quickly to changes in the market.

Second, management information systems help businesses organize and manage their data. This is particularly important in industries where businesses have to manage large amounts of data, such as healthcare, finance, and e-commerce. MIS systems allow businesses to organize data efficiently and securely, ensuring that they can access it when they need it.

Third, management information systems help businesses optimize their operations. MIS systems can be used to identify areas where businesses can improve their operations, such as reducing costs, increasing productivity, and improving customer satisfaction. This allows businesses to operate more efficiently, reducing waste and increasing profitability.

Examples of Management Information Systems

There are several types of management information systems that businesses can use, depending on their needs and operations. Here are a few examples:

Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) systems: ERP systems are used to manage business operations such as finance, human resources, and supply chain management. These systems

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allow businesses to integrate data and processes across multiple departments, providing real-time data and insights to decision-makers.

Customer Relationship Management (CRM) systems: CRM systems are used to manage customer interactions and relationships. These systems allow businesses to track customer behavior, preferences, and buying habits, enabling them to provide personalized services and marketing campaigns.

Business Intelligence (BI) systems: BI systems are used to analyze and visualize data, enabling businesses to identify trends and patterns in their operations. This allows businesses to make informed decisions about their operations and improve their performance.

Supply Chain Management (SCM) systems: SCM systems are used to manage the supply chain, from procurement to delivery. These systems allow businesses to optimize their operations, reducing costs and improving efficiency.

Management information systems are critical to the success of businesses in today's competitive market. These systems help businesses collect, process, and analyze data, enabling them to make informed decisions about their operations. Management information systems also help businesses optimize their operations, reducing costs and improving efficiency. With the right management information systems in place, businesses can operate more effectively, respond quickly to changes in the market, and ultimately succeed in their operations.

What is Artificial Intelligence?

Artificial intelligence (AI) is a rapidly growing field of technology that is changing the way we live and work. AI systems are designed to perform tasks that typically require human intelligence, such as perception, reasoning, learning, and decision-making. In this article, we will explore what artificial intelligence is, how it works, and some of its applications and potential impacts.

Artificial intelligence refers to the ability of machines to simulate human intelligence. AI systems are designed to learn from data and make decisions based on that data, without the need for explicit programming. This makes them incredibly flexible and adaptable to a wide range of tasks.

How Does Artificial Intelligence Work?

Artificial intelligence systems are typically based on machine learning algorithms. These algorithms are designed to learn from data and make predictions or decisions based on that data. There are several types of machine learning algorithms, including supervised learning, unsupervised learning, and reinforcement learning.

Supervised learning algorithms are trained on labeled data, meaning that the data has already been categorized or labeled. The algorithm learns to recognize patterns in the data and make predictions based on those patterns. Unsupervised learning algorithms are trained on unlabeled data, meaning that the data has not been categorized or labeled. The algorithm learns to recognize patterns in the data and group similar data points together. Reinforcement learning algorithms are trained through trial and error, meaning that the algorithm learns by receiving feedback on its actions.

Applications of Artificial Intelligence

Artificial intelligence has a wide range of applications in various industries, including healthcare, finance, transportation, and entertainment. Here are a few examples:

Healthcare: AI systems can be used to diagnose diseases, develop treatment plans, and assist with surgeries. They can also be used to monitor patients and provide personalized care.

Finance: AI systems can be used to detect fraud, analyze financial data, and make investment decisions. They can also be used to develop personalized financial advice for customers.

Transportation: AI systems can be used to optimize transportation routes, improve safety, and assist with navigation. They can also be used to develop autonomous vehicles.

Entertainment: AI systems can be used to develop personalized content recommendations, assist with video game development, and create realistic virtual environments.

Potential Impacts of Artificial Intelligence

While artificial intelligence has the potential to revolutionize various industries, it also raises some concerns. One concern is the potential impact on employment. As AI systems become more advanced, they may be able to perform tasks that were previously performed by humans. This could lead to job displacement and unemployment.

Another concern is the potential for AI systems to make biased decisions. AI systems learn from data, and if the data is biased, the AI system may make biased decisions. This could lead to unfair treatment of certain groups.

The Importance of AI in Management Information Systems

In today's competitive business environment, companies need to make data-driven decisions to be successful. These decisions are critical to the success and sustainability of the business. At this point, management information systems (MIS) and artificial intelligence (AI) technologies play an important role in companies' data collection, analysis, and decision-making processes. In this article, we will focus on the importance and impact of artificial intelligence on management information systems.

Artificial Intelligence and Organizations

Artificial Intelligence (AI) is changing the way companies and organizations work in several ways. Here are some of the most significant impacts:

Automation: AI can automate repetitive and routine tasks, such as data entry and processing, customer service, and inventory management. This can save organizations significant time and resources and free up employees to focus on higher-value tasks.

Improved decision-making: AI can analyze large datasets and provide insights and recommendations that can help organizations make better-informed decisions. This can lead to improved operational efficiency, increased revenue, and better customer experiences.

Personalization: AI can analyze customer data and provide personalized recommendations and experiences. This can help organizations improve customer satisfaction and loyalty, as well as increase sales and revenue.

Predictive analytics: AI can be used to predict future trends and behaviors based on historical data. This can help organizations develop strategies that are more likely to succeed and improve their bottom line.

Enhanced cybersecurity: AI can be used to detect and respond to cybersecurity threats in real-time. This can help organizations prevent data breaches and other security incidents.

Workforce transformation: AI is changing the skills and capabilities that organizations require from their employees. As AI is increasingly used for automation, decision-making, and data analysis, employees will need to develop new skills in areas such as data science, machine learning, and natural language processing.

Ethical considerations: As AI becomes more pervasive in organizations, there are ethical considerations around data privacy, bias, and fairness. Organizations need to ensure that they are collecting and using data ethically and transparently, and that they are addressing potential biases in AI algorithms.

Overall, AI is transforming the way companies and organizations work, and is likely to continue to do so in the coming years. Organizations that are able to effectively leverage AI for automation, decision-making, and data analysis will have a significant competitive advantage in their respective industries.

Artificial Intelligence and Management Information Systems

Management information systems are a set of technologies and processes used to manage companies' data collection, storage, processing, and communication operations. These systems are designed to support companies' decision-making processes. Management information systems collect, analyze, and process companies' internal and external data so that businesses can make better decisions.

Artificial intelligence technologies are bringing a new dimension to management information systems. Artificial intelligence is a technology that allows a computer to think in a way similar to humans. Artificial intelligence helps businesses identify and analyze patterns in large data sets. This enables businesses to make more accurate decisions and achieve better results.

Effects of Artificial Intelligence and Management Information Systems

Artificial intelligence has a significant impact on management information systems. It reduces the workload in companies' data collection, analysis, and decision-making processes, enabling them to obtain faster results. Artificial intelligence helps businesses make more accurate and precise decisions. Artificial intelligence technology allows businesses to use it in different areas across various industries.

By using artificial intelligence technology, businesses can analyze customer behavior to better understand their needs and provide better services. Artificial intelligence enables businesses to better manage their marketing campaigns. Companies can use artificial intelligence to personalize their campaigns based on customer preferences, demographics, and past behaviors.

Artificial intelligence also plays a crucial role in fraud detection and prevention. By using artificial intelligence, businesses can detect fraudulent transactions in real-time, reducing the risk of financial loss.

Another area where artificial intelligence has a significant impact is in supply chain management. Companies can use artificial intelligence to optimize their supply chain operations by predicting demand, analyzing inventory levels, and optimizing logistics operations. This enables businesses to improve their delivery times, reduce costs, and increase customer satisfaction.

Conclusion

Artificial intelligence is a rapidly growing field of technology with a wide range of applications and potential impacts. AI systems are designed to simulate human intelligence and can be used in various industries, including healthcare, finance, transportation, and entertainment. While AI has the potential to revolutionize these industries, it also raises concerns about employment and bias. It is important to continue to explore the potential benefits and risks of artificial intelligence and work to ensure that AI systems are developed and used in a responsible and ethical manner.

Artificial intelligence is revolutionizing the way companies operate, particularly in the area of management information systems. By using artificial intelligence, businesses can obtain faster and more accurate results, enabling them to make better decisions. Artificial intelligence also has a significant impact on fraud detection and prevention, marketing, and supply chain management. As businesses continue to adopt artificial intelligence technologies, we can expect to see more significant changes in the way businesses operate and compete.

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Narrative Analysis of Daesh's Publications[1]

Oktay KİRAZOLUĞU[2]

Introduction

Every organization has an expansion and a decline period during its lifecycle. Daesh used to display almost all aspects of a state as a terror organization. Nowadays, the news does not cover Daesh's activities. However, almost a decade ago, we can trace the efficiency of Daesh's media capability to its online publications. Until the capture of Mosul in 2014, Daesh had not been widely covered by the news media as deserved. Although it has traces of information on the international sections of the news mediums in West media, it needed to attract mainstream attention adequately. The research about Daesh has slowly augmented within international relations or terrorism studies. The main research areas in the studies are the reasons that created Daesh, its organization, its methods, and its lure for people with effective recruitment methods. Apart from its political and military organization, Daesh improved its media organization and assets comprehensively during this period. The organization utilized and improved its online media apparatuses to influence its target audience. The consistency of its narratives is of utmost importance in these media apparatuses to affect the group members and its followers, to quickly recruit members in its ranks, and to gain an advantage over the other competing actors in the region. As an organization, Daesh improved the "terror as a means of communication," which is a decent sample for finding possible answers to this challenging area. Daesh has an active communication strategy constructed on different narratives. These narratives are the key elements of its lure and success. Thus, Daesh's narrative should be clarified and analyzed practically to have a counter-argument to struggle with it.

Literature Review

According to Huntington (1993: 11-42), the source of problems in the new world will not be primarily ideological and economic struggle. Instead, it will be the great divisions among civilizations. As a result of this assumption, the dominant source of the problem will be culture. The real struggle of global politics will occur between nations and groups belonging to different civilizations. The materialist structure of modernism and the presence of consumption fueled by global markets facilitate the production of radical and militant ideas in this expanding system by excluding those who cannot consume. The changes in opinions have led to a more ambiguous position on terrorism and terrorists. Termed 'terrorists' by some actors can be called 'freedom fighters' or 'mujahedeen' by others. According to Douglas Kellner (2006), The 9/11 attacks in the US dramatized the relationship between media spectacles of terror and the strategy of Islamic Jihadism that employs violent media events to promote its agenda. Kellner (2003: 100) argues that when fewer media corporations regulate the broadcasting and print media, the Internet might be the best source of alternative information for a wealth of opinion and debate. He recommended that multilateralism is the suitable global response to problems of terrorism and that global institutions should deal with such problems.

The West, which shelters modern and global values, has caused two reactions: "unconditional approval" and "radical denial." Radical denial broadens its opposition area through the revolt given shape under socialist, nationalist, and religious ideologies (Aydınalp,

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2011). Lewis (1990) contributed to taking root of the prejudice by almost seeing Islam as identical to radicalism by fixing his analysis on the two classic Islamic concepts of "darü'l-Islam" and "darü'l-harp," which is an old strain of conflict. Radical Islamists comprehend it as a religious obligation to resort to political power to put into practice their ideological systems and impose them on all of society. These are the calls of the traditional Salafi movement to a form of pure and credulous Islam.

They also regard this as a religious duty to struggle against other groups with a new comprehension, forming their ideological basis (Zeidan, 2003). The discourse of Islamist radicalism constitutes a form of Islamic society reflecting the environmental conditions of the 7th-century Arabic peninsula. For this reason, radical Islamists see all kinds of governments as illegitimate, and it has become a religious order for them to struggle with the notion of jihad (Diamond, 2003: 285). Accordingly, militant Islamic movements that establish an Islamic state represent "darü'l-Islam," Contrary to this, they believe the rest of the world represents "darü'l-harp," which justifies all the offenses against this legitimate target (Bennett, 2004: 38).

Esposito (2003, p. xii) asserted that the followers of Vahhabi-Salafi, whose roots extended to Ibn Teymiye, have been fed up with radical Islam. From this point, they have seen themselves as Islam's sole and absolute pioneers who struggle to form a universal society under the Caliphate's religious rules and genuine leadership. Radical Islamist militants have put terrorism based on religion and used Islam for unholy purposes by seeing suicidal bombers as a legitimate attack instrument and equating the meaning of martyr in rhetoric in the struggle to take over authority. Terror acts under the name of Islam or radical Islamist recourse to armed struggle and perceived as a mutual threat to humanity have specifically drawn attention from the phenomenon of local radical Islamist terror for the last 30 years to the phenomenon of global Islamist terror by which it is produced. Mark Jurgensmeyer (2000) explains radicalistic movements and religious fanatics according to his exchange of views among the radical acting representations of Jewish, Christian, Islamic, Buddhist, and Hindu religions. He asserted that religion-rooted terrorism had become a global phenomenon for four reasons. Firstly, the global power centers are attacked. The numbers and ethnicities of the victims are beyond national borders. The groups undertaking the attacks have international relationships and connections, from America to France, and Sudan to Pakistan. The attacks are becoming the agenda of the whole world through global broadcasting organs.

The conflict ultimately points to a worldview and feeds on a sense of belonging to an identity. People who are conscious of who they are, what they are suffering for, who is insulted by whom, and what purpose they serve to create a group of identities that will flag their struggle. Immaterial purposes lead this group. It is a universe, history, and the last which builds the hope of victory, which makes the war under fundamentalism more reasonable than the hopes of peace. In this sense, religion is the engine of religious violence by providing a worldview, motivation, organization, and legitimization. However, the relationship between religion and violence can be understood in a political, social, and ideological context. Religion does not lead to direct violence, and religious violence is shaped by factors other than religion (Juergensmeyer, 2000).

In religion-induced terrorism, the world is considered the "cosmic war" field," where the "lethal values" between good and evil are defended. Fundamentalism is the ideology of those who feel that ordinary choices are not enough and who feel responsible for doing something else, including violence against "evil" forces. The struggle for religiously motivated terrorism, which survives with a symbolism based on religious references, is with the devil and will continue to struggle until it destroys it (Aydınalp, 2011: 165). According to Euben (1999: 20), radicalism, by its interpretation of the West in the framework of modernity, is produced by its measures of truth, modernity perceptions, political fears, and cultural discontent. The efforts on radicalism as a sensation of ‘the other’ that the oriental point of view brings about, being

concrete by manipulating or even inclusion, apart from the expression in an intention to form the discourse, transform into a power exercise.

Umberto Eco, Jean Baudrillard, and Marshall McLuhan posited a close instrumental relationship between the mass media and terrorism (Biernatzki, 2002). Another scholar in this field, Birgitte L. Nacos, admitted that "getting the attention of the mass media, the public, and decision-makers is the raison d'etre behind modern terrorism's increasingly shocking violence." (Nacos, 1994). Furthermore, from the point of Walter Laqueur, "the media are the terrorist's best friends, . . . the terrorists' act by itself is nothing, publicity is all" (Farnen, 1990: 105). For Nacos, terrorists have three common objectives: to "pursue attention by increasing fear and anxiety among their target audiences" and so to "exhibit the weakness of a targeted government, to strive for recognition of their demands, their complaints . . ." and to accomplish "a degree of decency and legitimacy in their target societies." She also reminded us that the media are central to accomplishing these objectives. She also admits, "the free press 'is the primary conduit connecting terrorists, the public and governments'" and emphasizes that "violent incidents can advance the terrorists' goals only if these kinds of incidents are widely reported" (Nacos, 1994: 10-75). These expressions have a great deal of theoretical linkage between terror and the media.

According to Schmid and de Graaf (1982: 175), "the basic premise is that insurgent terrorism can be better understood if it is viewed in the first instance as communication rather than as mere violence"; hence "that this type of terrorism has to be explained with the prevailing information order and the news values that are paramount within this order." It has also been indicated that, whereas " the free flow of information" looks like a norm that cannot be disputed, in reality, it gave freedom of communication mainly to those who controlled the media, which we call the owners of the dominant paradigm. In other words, freedom of the press is restricted to those who possess it. Meanwhile, that control was placed in the West, primarily under private supervision in the US, and the international media originated to be dominated by Western benefits and perspectives. The current news values in media exclude the interests of people in third-world nations. The severe prerequisites of those nations are usually neglected in the Western media, provoking a violent response that will entice the attention of those media (Biernatzki, 2002: 9).

Relatively uncommon for terrorist organizations, Daesh is present in cyberspace, which has too many privileges and empty threats. Some of its video footage was broadcast in mainstream media for propaganda. It has trapped the imagination of many disobedient young Muslims worldwide, attracted by its violent messages and attractive slogans. Daesh also has success with instant conversions to Islam among mainly marginalized non-Muslim youths in Western countries. Besides, people have to suffer its strict rules in Syria and Iraq. The media campaign of Daesh is very professional by any criteria. It attracted young Muslims and some recent converts to Islam by its side with the help of high-quality visual shots and well-crafted ideological statements. (Schmid, 2015: 1).

Daesh has a narrative depending on some central themes. These are mainly a history of lost glory, injustice, humiliation, failed governance, and an ongoing civil war, leading to Muslims' promise to purify Islam, conquer enemies, and the organization's brutal and opportunistic rise. Besides, it can recruit from locals and enthusiasts around the world. The main reason for this magnetism is the narrative affluence depending on its propaganda. Moreover, the group has used its robust media capabilities to magnify its battlefield accomplishments (Cosgrove, al-Chalabi & Lee, 2014).

It has been asserted that Daesh's media frames its combat in its magazines in epochal terminology. It has been stressed that Western Powers drew borders in the Middle East after the First World War, and there should be an attack on the national partitions, their executors, and their modern Arab leaders. For them, it is a share-and-conquer strategy planned to prevent

Muslims from uniting under the term "Khilafah." In this term, we can assert that since Daesh has its media, it can control the framing with its expressions which we can see in its communication strategy (Shane & Hubbard, 2014).

Daesh has a refined and operational communication strategy that uses online media apparatuses to broadcast its propaganda. It has inhabited social media platforms to amplify violent extremist messages and lure a global network of supporters. It recruits young men and women internationally through internet sites, online magazines, and social media tools. Current government-supported counter-narrative efforts need to be more robust in subduing extremist ideology from its dissemination. Accordingly, the restriction and exclusion of extremist content is impractical. There is a growing need to address the backgrounds of radicalization caused by the ideologic charm, and it is vital to find positive alternatives for the extremist narratives to struggle with them Liang (2015: 1).

Pellerin (2016) highlighted six themes of communication of the terror group. These are recruitment, direct call to jihad, religion, honoring dead fighters, communication to Muslims, and defamation (in-out grouping). It has been asserted that Daesh has a multi-layered and active communication strategy that sets out many different narratives. Winter conducted research (2015: 6) to shed light on the philosophy behind Daesh's media strategy. The analysis was based on an online document about 'media jihad,' which was published by Daesh. The study discovered how the organization frames its information warfare and induces activists to propagandize on its behalf. The document has examined Daesh's formal and informal media activists and how they offer their audience a carefully constructed cocktail of religious, ideological, and emotional prizes which form a powerful and captivating belief system. According to the study, Daesh's marketing strategy is the positive narrative, counter Speech, and media arms as the central messaging apparatuses. As a result, religious, ideological, and emotional capabilities allowed Daesh to take place in the collective perception.

Gambhir (2015) focused on the contents of the first issue of Dabıq in detail, explaining the significance of this strategic messaging approach by Daesh in conjunction with the announcement of the Caliphate. It has a target audience of potential fighters, future residents, and enemies. The magazine is not simply propaganda; instead, it is an expression of its vision. It invests significant resources to explain why it is religiously justified and superior to rival organizations. This wartime effort is a vital part of convincing followers of the ultimate solidity and victory of Daesh. As it forms and publishes religious, military, and political arguments, artifacts like Dabıq provide invaluable insight into the internal interactions of its efforts. The division and evolution of Dabıq's article topics over time may allow analysts to track it is changing priorities, while a study of its changing justifications of authority could aid in forming a counterstrategy to undermine the organization. Most significantly, the magazine indicates how Daesh will shape its global strategy. As Daesh grows in power and consolidates territorial control, getting ahead of the organization's intentions using tools like Dabıq will be vital.

One of Daesh's achievements is that it is part of the news cycle. Most any public act of violence is met with speculation about whether or not it is an act of terror. Much of this is because Daesh tells "us" what we already know or want to hear. A quick survey through Dabıq or Rumiyah shows a "clash of civilizations" narrative in which Daesh embraces the violent, vengeful adversary that seeks to seize "Western" culture. Daesh uses this modifier as often and problematically as any news report or academic article (Semati and Szpunar, 2018: 6).

According to a study by Gates and Podder (2015: 109), Daesh has developed an effective virtual propaganda apparatus. Daesh's media division, Al Hayat, has issued videos presenting different aspects of the group. Most propaganda products are about them providing governance, justice, and new construction. The theme of legitimacy is significant. This propaganda shares several vital attributes. First, it tends to use video rather than text, takes full advantage of the linguistic skills of members, and uses the advantages of popular music, which

seems to be compatible with youth culture in Western countries. In addition to this, the importance of the ideological call to action cannot be underestimated. It highlights the misconduct of the enemy and the good deeds of Daesh. Besides, it stresses the shortages and immoralities of the negative side and the merits and rewards of the positive side. Self-declaration of the Caliphate might have increased recruitment by making the organization seem resilient and sustainable. A significant workforce sustains the vast global social media presence of the group. Linguistic and technical skills are evident. There is a considerable effort in recruiting soldiers, while there is enormous exertion on enlisting talented or expert users on social media to continue the recruitment wheels. The managers in the backward are often wives and young female supporters. The profile of foreign fighters is diverse, ranging from ignorant apprentices who view joining as a rite of passage to conformist militants looking for martyrdom.

In the study made by Zelin (2015: 85), one week of official media releases of Daesh has been sought quantitatively and qualitatively. Due to the scope of the official media releases, this provides a snapshot to understand better the different styles and messaging streams it releases weekly. The study shows that the group produces much more material on a broader range of topics than what gets reported in the mainstream media. Execution videos make up just a fraction of the overall output and are dwarfed by the number of productions on military affairs, governance, preaching, moral policing, and other themes. The analysis also shows that Daesh relies heavily on visual as opposed to text-based propaganda and that most of its military activities occur in Iraq, not Syria.

Vergani and Bliuc (2015: 7) investigated the evolution of Daesh by analyzing the text in Dabıq Magazine. Specifically, a computerized text analysis program, Linguistic Inquiry, and Word Count, is used to investigate the evolution of the language of the first eleven issues of Dabıq. The analysis showed that affiliation seems to be an increasingly crucial psychological motive for the group. Daesh has been increasingly using emotions, an essential mobilizing factor in collective action literature. Daesh's language presents an increasing concern with females. Daesh has been increasingly using internet jargon, which shows how the group tries to adapt to the internet environment and connect with young individuals' identities.

A detailed report made by Winter (2015: 6-7) sheds light on the strategic motivations and implications of Daesh's media operation. By analyzing the organization's propaganda output in one year, following its declaration of Caliphate in June 2014, the brand has been dismantled into its constituent narratives and the various target audiences into their multiple parts. The report clarifies the propaganda machine and cuts through much of the unhelpful rhetoric surrounding it. Applying Jacques Ellul's theoretical context to Daesh's official messaging demonstrates that, with all its complexity and gloss, the organization's propaganda is not singularly responsible for radicalizing individuals, carrying out attacks at home, or joining the jihadist grounds abroad. According to the report, Daesh's propaganda has generated a comprehensive brand offering an alternative lifestyle. Similar to mass movements, it lures the minds of its potential recruits by offering an instant change and a capacity to transform their future in the long term. This brand is composed of six united narratives – brutality, mercy, victimhood, war, belonging, and utopianism. According to the author, people are not radicalized by propaganda, nor does it recruit them. There must always be an external human influencer to spark and sustain the radicalization process. This influencer could be a friend, family member, or stranger. Whatever the case, exposure to Daesh's propaganda alone is not why someone becomes a supporter. What propaganda does is catalyze the individual's radicalization and distillate their already-held sympathies?

All of the mentioned aspects lead us to the problem of "the effectiveness of Daesh's narrative," which can be assessed by the recruitment numbers between 2014-2015 and decreasing by 2016. However, as an under-examined topic, “Daesh’s narrative" is a crucial aspect to be analyzed to find a counter-argument in tackling this terrorist organization.

Research Model

Daesh has several online publications between 2014 and 2017. Besides, the group actively uses social media on purpose. Since our main aim is to find out its narrative in a systematic way through an organized source, it must be a periodic and consistent publication. Within these research materials, two of the online magazines of Daesh fit in terms of continuity and effectiveness for this study. Therefore, the research sample comprises 15 episodes of Dabıq Magazine between 2014 and 2016 and seven episodes of Rumiyah, which can be obtained out of ten between 2016 and 2017. Dabıq and Rumiyah Magazines are analyzed with quantitative and qualitative analysis methods. The first is to find out the coverage of the topics in the magazines, and the second is to find out the coverage of the main events in the magazines. Word clouding of the "Atlas.ti" program is used to determine the themes and their frequency. Dabıq and Rumiyah Magazines were downloaded from the internet site of the Clarion Project (Clarion, 2018). The other internet sites of Daesh confirm the originality of the magazines.

Besides, the factors of the narrative paradigm are searched in the articles to find out the correlation between the narratives and their effectiveness. The narrative paradigm is a communication theory concept adopted from storytelling. The most eloquent communication is in the form of storytelling. People's past experiences influence our need for communication and feed our behavior. Thus, the narrative paradigm is beneficial in analyzing the nature of human communication (Fisher, 1989). A narrative is a verbal and nonverbal interpretation set logically to generate meaning. It works on two principles which are coherence and fidelity. Any content while communicating is effective only if it makes sense to the listener, and coherence is the degree of sense-making of a narrative. Three factors influence the effectiveness of delivering a story; the structure of the narrative, the resemblance between stories, and the credibility of characters. The second principle, "fidelity," defines the reliability or credibility of the narrated story. The persuasion of the listener significantly forms it. A set of values is followed to accept the reliability of the story. The fidelity is reached by asking a series of questions that have bonded to each other. Are the events described factual? Have the facts been distorted while narrating? Are the reasoning patterns followed while narrating? How is the listener's decision-making affected by the argument in the story? How is the importance of the story narrated? (Communication Theory, 2019).

Analysis Findings

Theme Analysis

Daesh's leading propaganda magazine is named Dabıq. The magazine is versatile, glossy, attractively shaped, and printed in numerous languages. Its primary purpose is to entice new recruitment for the group from all around the world. Thus, it is very critical to understand their underlying ideology to have a defense apparatus against this extremist group (Clarion, 2018). The magazine contains current events and articles with photographic reports. The magazine represents Daesh as they see themselves. The group especially emphasizes triumphs that desire the romantic image of the renewal of a historical Islamic empire. It also created an image of a new caliphate constructed on a holy war. Dabıq is a place in Syria that is supposed to be the scene for one of the final battles according to three religious myths about Armageddon. Daesh's intention in selecting the name for the magazine has a more critical purpose.

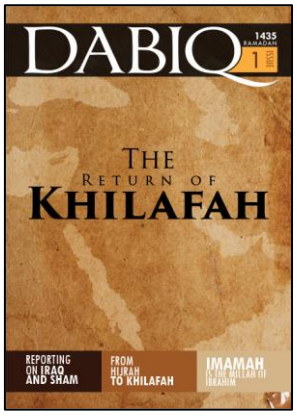


Figure 1 - Cover page of Dabıq/1

Rumiyah magazine is a shorter version of Dabıq which focuses on the same political and theological standpoint as Dabıq. It narratively rejects all the opposition to the group by religious reasoning. The first issue intends to justify publishing a new magazine without mentioning Dabıq's disappearance from the field as a magazine. The title refers to Rome, which Daesh wishes to conquer, both as a political goal and as a symbolic one. From the point of Daesh, Western civilization is a continuation of the ancient Roman Empire. The magazine has shorter articles and narratives within the same patterns and structures. Besides, it has different narratives as guidelines to members on devising simple terror attacks without having support from inside or other group members. These technical narratives should be the trademark for this magazine till the last issues.



Figure 33 - Cover page of Rumiyah/1

The main themes used in the magazines are analyzed by their frequency and issue to find an indication of the narrator's intention. The initial issues concentrate on the declaration's importance and the Caliphate's meaning. Mainly the victories of Daesh have been favored and boasted of convincing more Muslims to join the group with a general description of its ideology. The concept of "Imamah" and the connection between "Hijrah and Khilafah" has been explained. The main themes "Khilafah, Imamah, Jihad, Hijrah, Ummah, Leadership" are explained and used for an organizational structure.

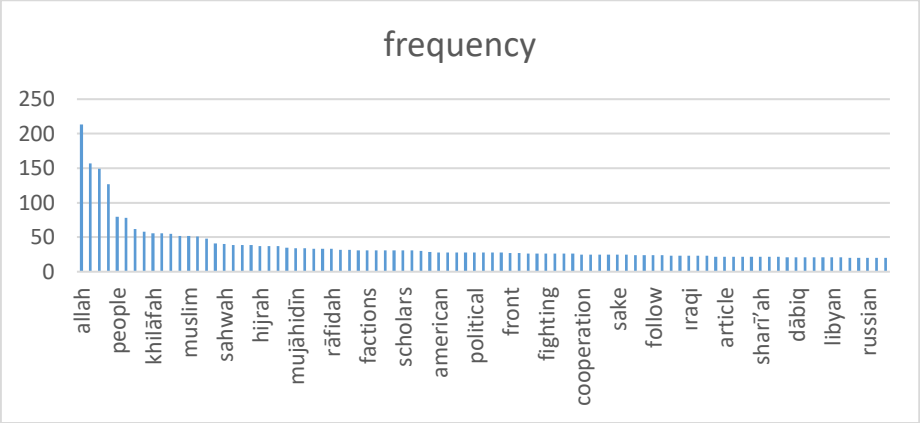


Figure 2 - The frequency of the themes in the Dabıq Magazine (Kirazolugu, 2020)

Dabıq is a metaphor for the expected end of the world according to a hadith. It is an analogy for the narrator to use too many "dabıq" and "punishment" themes to emphasize the context. The words "kufr" and "scholars" are also used to emphasize binary themes in the context of justifying their ideology and falsifying the thoughts of the so-called Islamic scholars. The group narrated messages on religious legitimacy, superiority, the inevitability of the victory, obligation, and duty to emigrate and support it with potential foreign human resources. Therefore, "Hijrah" has the utmost importance for the recruitment policy of Daesh since the human resources rely heavily on attracting men and women outside the region.

As an antagonism, "hypocrisy," the opposite of "sincerity," is used in the magazine widely. Although the "enemy" is identified with the term "America," "crusader / Romans" is a more specific term for its purpose of acknowledging the opposite side. Metaphorically, it is meant to be a struggle by Daesh with the Crusaders regarding religion. Internal jihadi disputes are handled with opposing themes. Al Qaeda is a tandhim (organization) instead of Daesh, a dawla (state) in its terms. The narrator emphasized "tandhim" to load an opposite meaning on it to oust other terror groups.

The narrator reiterates the ideological division of the world into two camps between Islam and the others by citing its assertion to references. Themes of "Islam, kuffar, sword, crusader, worlds" have opposite and supportive meanings about the mentioned camps. In particular contradictory used themes, "Muslim, Islam, brother, us, mujahid" and "crusader, kuffar, evil, hypocrites," support the so-called contrary camp discourse. The verbs "jihad, fight, follow, kill" of solid and violent meanings may have imminent or supportive effects on the reader beyond his mental structure.

Especially "Nusayri, rafidah, safari, Mahwah" themes are widely used in Shia Islamism and its interpretation. The narration usually continues to reject all kinds of differentiation from their understanding of Islam. These themes (rafidah, rafidi) are derogatory terms for Shia, while "Dajjal" is an antichrist figure in Muslim eschatology. Themes "jihad, Khilafah, bayah" are expressed as opposed to the themes "crusader, factions, PKK, Kurdish, taught," in which we can observe the antagonism used widely to emphasize and elevate the aim of narration. The term "Shariah" is widely used by the narrator to adopt its legal system asserted by the group leader by which the system should be clarified to the followers in a written way.

Binary opposing themes recurred as "us / west," "mujahidin/crusaders," "Khilafah / allies," "leadership / tawaghit," "shariah/rules," Islam / religion," "much / apostate." In the issues that set forth arguments on other religions, the themes represented in opposing pairs are "Christianity / Jews / Islam" and "Jesus / Mohammed." These binary opposing themes are widely used in all the issues of Dabıq. These opposing themes clarify the polarities of the sentences.

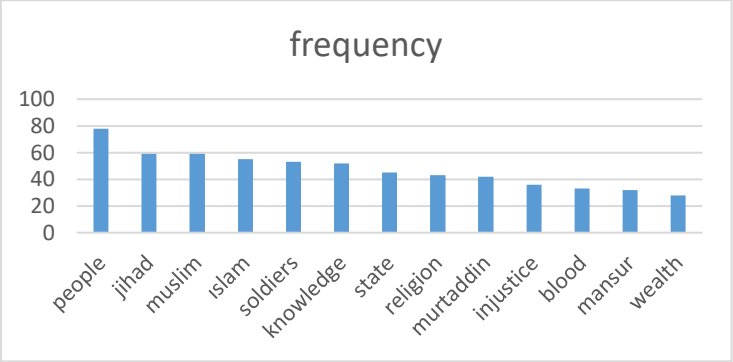


Figure 3 - The frequency of the themes in the Rumiyah (Kirazolugu, 2020)

Rumiyah magazine, a shorter version of Dabıq, focuses on putting forward the group's political and theological stance, explaining why opposition to the group is irreligious and rejoicing about terrorist attacks. The title refers to Rome, which Daesh wishes to conquer, both as a political goal and as a symbolic one since they interpret Western civilization as an extension of the Roman Empire. Similar themes are also used in the Rumiyah, which has a simple structure compared to Dabıq. It mainly concentrates on the lone wolf attacks in which the organization is in a territorial and an influence decline phase.

Content Analysis

Within the Dabıq magazine, fourteen sections have been analyzed with quantitative analysis methodology. Quantitative analysis of the magazine is mainly related to the numbers and percentages regarding the topics covered in it. Dabıq magazine has a minimum of 26 and a maximum of 82 pages in its published issues, depending on the coverage. Compared with the timeline of the main events, the amount of coverage has risen regarding the quantity of the events.

Table 1 - The percentage of topics covered by Dabıq (Kirazolugu, 2020)

Foreword, Contents, Intro	Statement Speech	Article	Feature	Report	News from the other side	Special Coverage	Interview	History	Advert, Message, Publicity	Biography	Articles from/for Women	Pictures, Photos Per Page
7,0%	1,5%	20,9%	22,5%	15,5%	4,4%	5,7%	6,5%	3,4%	7,1%	1,9%	3,7%	1,2

Peculiar to this magazine, the contents, and the structure has been changing from the first till the last issue. The first page, contents, and foreword coverage have a decreasing tendency until the 10th issue, then a rising inclination towards the final issues. The statement or Speech part is reserved for the group leader's or spokesperson's speeches or other high-rank official statements. Since there are spared parts for articles (20,9%) in the magazine, ideological instruments are used plentifully to support the arguments. Features are mostly (22,5%) used in this magazine; therefore, we can assume that particular importance has been given to this kind of narration. Reports are used as news items to acknowledge the members of the group. The percentage of news drops from 30,8% to 7,3%, indicating the decreasing events of Daesh through the last issues. News from the other side is stated initially as "in the words of the enemy," which aims to narrate the news of the enemy, magnify its presence on the ground and legitimize the specific occasion. Interviews with the group members and officials took place with the 6th issue, which comprised 6,5% of the magazine. The history part of the magazine consists of (3,4%) information about the background of historical events in the context of the covered topic. Every issue in Dabıq includes advert, message, and publicity parts, which comprise 7,1% of the total coverage. The magazine's advertisement section specifically details Daesh's other media items. This part gives propaganda messages to the targeted audience, meticulously designed with polished pictures and narratives. The biography part (1,9%) is

dedicated to the deceased members of the group, especially to the ones that held suicide attacks in which the virtues of this personnel are glorified. The magazine has a reserved part for informing and training the group's female members. The topics of these articles range from serving their family to sacrificing their selves for the group. Pictures and photos are widely used in Dabıq, which is 1,2 picture or photos per page. They assist the narration of the magazine; much of it is about brutality, severity, demolition, or war activities. Others are about activities, Islamic motifs, victory scenes or defeat visuals, and pictures of the enemy leaders. Some of the same photos are used more than once, which may be thought to be more effective than the others. As a characteristic of the magazine, visuality is the leading supporter of the narration.

Table 2 - The percentage of the topics covered by Rumiyah (Kirazolugu, 2020)

Foreword Contents Intro	Exclusive Statement Speech	Article	Feature	Report	Terror Tactics	Numbers	Interview	History	The advert, Message, Publicity, Info	Biography	Articles from/for Women	Pictures, Photos Per Page
7,1%	7,7%	32,9%	11,9%	9,4%	4,5%	4,8%	7,1%	1,3%	3,2%	2,9%	5,8%	0,8

Like Dabıq, Rumiyah's coverage of events has risen in parallel to the abundance of the events. Page numbers are augmented in the mentioned episodes. The contents and the structure are generally stable, and the coverage of the parts is evenly distributed in nearly every issue. The exclusive statement or speech part is reserved for the group leader's or spokesperson's speeches. The coverage is mainly reserved for the articles (32,9%) in which the ideological issues are mentioned. The feature part in Rumiyah has less coverage in comparison to Dabıq. Reports in Rumiyah are used as a news item to acknowledge the group members, and the percentage drops from 21% to 6%, signaling a decrease in events. There is a new section in Rumiyah apart from Dabıq, which covers terror tactics (4,5%) of the group dealing with how to devise a bomb, to become a suicide bomber, or simply to use a knife practically to kill the enemies. There is a straightforward simplification of the action to shadow the apparent request for self-sacrifice. Besides, a new part is formed to give factual information, "numbers" (4,8%), which is constantly covered in all episodes.

Since the given numbers cannot be confirmed or calculated, it should be assumed that there is an overstatement regarding the numbers. Interviews (7,1%) are made with Daesh's leaders, governors, or official spokespersons to convey ideological messages or orders to the group members. The history part in Rumiyah is less in percentage (1,3%) than Dabıq (3,4%), which covers historical events and occasions of specific events connecting them to today's events to justify, naturalize, or bracing the events of Daesh. Advert, message, publicity, and info part in Rumiyah consist of 3,6% of the total coverage, which is nearly half of Dabıq's. Daesh utilizes every communication channel to reach the targeted audience, so magazines are valuable channels for advertising other material. As for the numbers, it can be assumed that these materials are covered in Rumiyah in a decreasing trend. The biography part is covered in Rumiyah, similar to the Dabıq's narrative, which is 3,2% of the total coverage. Articles from or for women were started in Dabıq and continued in Rumiyah.

The coverage ratios are the same in Dabıq and Rumiyah by 5,8%. Visuals and motifs used in this part mainly have a clear notion parallel with the articles' narration. There is a purpose for normalizing the systematical characterization of females as a lower class relative to males through ideological training and disinformation by citing the selected Islamic historical information detached from their context. Some pictures and photos are used more than once in Rumiyah also, 0,8 picture per page, which is less than Dabıq, which assist the narration of the magazine. Visuality is the leading supporter of the narration in Rumiyah. Compared with Dabıq as a whole, Rumiyah is somewhat less professional and has shallow comments as a propaganda apparatus which can be deduced from the quantity of coverage or the topics covered compared to Dabıq. Although some parts (terror tactics, numbers) are newly formed in Rumiyah, the

quality and the quantity of the narration are reduced, as expected from the destined decline of the group.

Compared with Dabıq, Rumiyah is relatively less professional and has shallow comments as a propaganda apparatus. It can be seen in the quantity of coverage or the topics covered compared to Dabıq. Although some parts (terror tactics, numbers) are newly formed in Rumiyah, the narration's quality and quantity are reduced as expected from the course or the group's future. As the narrators of Dabıq were deceased in operations, the recovery of media personnel would have been difficult for the group. Thus, the main events related to Daesh are searched and compared with the content of the magazines with a qualitative analysis to find a correlation between the events and the covered topics.

Table 3 - Correlation of the main events and incidents with the topics covered by the Magazines (Kirazolugu, 2020)

Main Events Related to Daesh	Magazines	Incident Numbers Related to Daesh in GTD	Coverage of Events in the Magazine
81 Events starting from the declaration of Caliphate till the end of the publishment of magazines	Dabıq (July 2014 – July 2016) Rumiyah (September 2016 – December 2017)	3.528	59 events

The information about the main events related to Daesh is gathered from New York Times newspaper website through its search engine (NYT, 2019). Eighty-one events are considered necessary regarding their importance and the coverage by the newspaper, which are in the publishing period of the Dabıq and Rumiyah. Incidents related to the terror activities of Daesh are downloaded from the Global Terrorism Database, which coincides with the related issue of the magazine. Each magazine has been searched to determine whether the specific episode covers the main events.

When the main events and their coverages by the magazines are compared, among the 81 events, 59 events are covered in the issues. The covered events mainly deal in favor of Daesh. When the contents of the 22 events, which are not covered in the magazines, are analyzed, it can be assumed that the success stories against Daesh are not dealt with, and this phenomenon is in parallel with the framing theory. According to framing theory, the way information is presented can have a significant impact on how people perceive and interpret it. Daesh does not cover the success stories of the so-called enemy, which is also an aspect of propaganda theory. By understanding the mechanisms of propaganda, people can become more critical consumers of information and resist the influence of those in power. In propaganda, the positive aspects are emphasized and fortified, yet negative issues are understated or vaguely described in the context. Here, there is no coverage of the negative aspects of the group. It can be assumed that the facts are nullified by not covering the event so that the isolated group members can be illusioned in a pseudo environment. Nevertheless, if the group members can reach other news media, how are they supposed to be delusional? The mental structures of the discourses of terrorists may be a determiner of this conditioning.

Since 2014 and 2015 were Daesh's founding and expansion periods, the events and incidents accumulated during the meantime. The type of events ranges from bombings, assaults, attacks, suicide attacks to beheadings. The number of suicidal attacks, especially lone wolf attacks, increased in 2017. We can presume that a slowing trend of attacks during the researched timeline can be observed, but a growing trend of lone wolf attacks during this time is evident in this sample. The magazines mainly cover these types of attacks in a heroic and epical style. Besides, they ignore the coalition force's accomplishments by excluding the events in the coverage of the magazines.

The attacks carried out by the group in Western, and Middle Eastern countries include assassination, suicide, armed attacks, and bombings. It aims to exploit sensitivities that can trigger ideological, religious, ethnic, and sectarian conflicts and increase reactions to the governments. Mainly the attacks carried out in Türkiye, Ankara, and Suruç are critical samples for these sensitivities. Türkiye is a crucial determiner in the region in terms of its heritage from the past and the fact that her turning into a regional power that some may be concerned about these changes. There are attempts to undermine state sovereignty by giving the impression and message of its weakness and the vulnerability of ordinary people to the effects of terror groups' actions. It is primarily a psychological force multiplier for the main political agenda of terror groups. Some countries are more exposed to the attacks of Daesh when compared to others. It is more evident when the core countries regarding the primary source of Daesh are searched in terms of casualties resulting from the attacks between 2014 and 2017, that is, 31.210 casualties in Iraq and 7.258 casualties in Syria, far exceeding the fatalities in the other countries. The neighboring countries to the conflicting area, Muslim majority countries, European countries which have a considerable Muslim minority, countries which have political and military interest in the conflicted zone, Daesh's effect and interest in the area, the political conjecture and similar related considerations determine the size and effect of the attacks. The casualty numbers can be seen in Figure-4. The coverage of the magazines of the related attacks is in line with the desired effect of these attacks, which may show the political use of communication in terms of terror purposes.

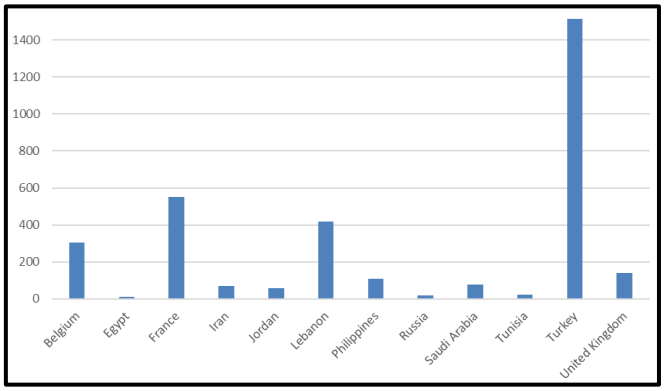


Figure 4 - Casualty (fatality / injured) numbers caused by Daesh attacks between July 2014 and Dec 2017 by the Countries (Iraq and Syria excluded) (Start, 2019).

The casualties (killed/wounded) caused by the terror attacks perpetrated by Daesh can be seen in Figure-5. It shows the intensity between 2014 and 2017. Significantly, the casualties resulting from these attacks are a propensity of decline through the year 2017 which are in line with the power status of the group and the coverage of magazines. The organization wants to enlarge its domain from Iraq and Syria to the world scale with its terror actions. These actions it has been a part of news coverage and framed according to their actions by the news media of the West medium. As a part of the symbiosis, Daesh chooses its actions in such a way as to have the maximum effect and cause outrage in the public arena. The news media covered this news widely in the frame of news-making rules. However, the magazines of Daesh are not limited to these rules, and the events show the coverages are not within the limits of ethical rules but ideologically inclined.

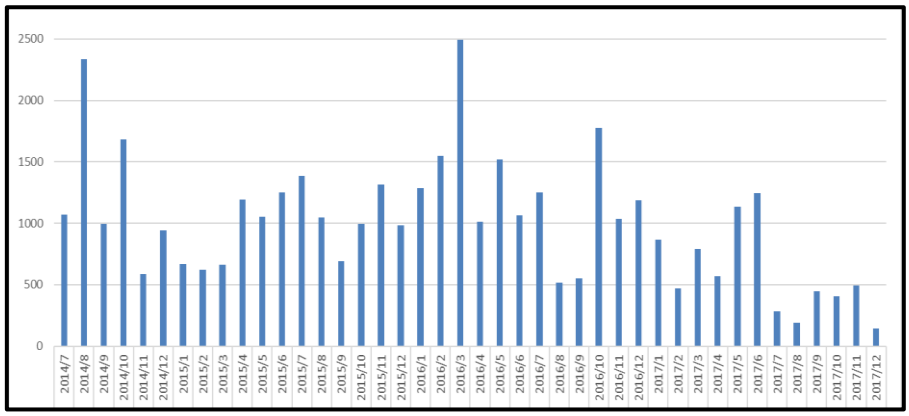


Figure 5 - Casualty (fatality / injured) numbers caused by Daesh attacks worldwide between July 2014 and Dec 2017 by the months (Start, 2019).

The actions of Daesh cause all Muslims living in those countries to be seen as a potential risk group. As a matter of fact, after these events and actions, Islamophobia is getting more substantial and more widespread in the West. Daesh did great harm to Islam and Muslims with its brutal actions. Nevertheless, Islam will be processed in the memories of the affected people with violence if preemptive measures are not taken immediately.

Liability on the narrative paradigm

The narrative paradigm works on two principles; coherence and fidelity (Fisher, 1989). Coherence is the degree of sense-making of a narrative which three factors can evaluate; the structure of the narrative, the resemblance between stories, and the credibility of characters. The narrative structures in the magazines mostly have a deductive methodology which combines all the information categorically. Messages to group members and the enemy are formed separately to be understood clearly and then merged for the intended storyline. There is a connection between the themes and stories in the narratives, mainly attributed to historical religious events. The arguments reinforce the recent events even if there is no connection with the historical event. The main characters of the storyline are the group members of Daesh or the so-called enemy. Themes are supported by the ideal group members, reinforcing the credibility of the specific event. The narrator especially relates the characters with the historical counterparts in the themes, which gives them extra credibility. Besides, if the enemy is the main character, the narrator finds a counter-argument to understate or marginalize him. Most of the storylines on itemizing resemble each other in a historical context. Fidelity defines the credibility of the story narrated and designed the persuasion of the listener. The importance of the stories is narrated in the entry part of the articles. Some of the events described are credible, but most could be more sensible since the bases of the events are fictitious. The believers of the religion are defined according to the subjective facts of Daesh. The facts are being distorted while defining the others as enemies and describing the events in a shady way. The reasoning patterns relate to the religious themes in the narration. Nomination criteria for the group members and rewards for their sacrifices do not relate to facts but to the references. The arguments used in the stories give a compelling message to the group members.

Nevertheless, it may not affect the enemy in the same pattern. Since the mental structures of the audience do not have the same patterns, the effects of these narratives may not be the same. Because of this reason, Daesh has different storylines in the narratives to overcome the problem of appealing to different audiences. These narratives may not change the mental structure of the audience but support their arguments and reinforce them as a permanent ideology. In sum, the narratives mainly comply with the principles of the narrative paradigm with minor exceptions.

Conclusion

Daesh re-constructs its main narratives on main religious themes (Manhaj, Jihad, Tawhid, Jama'ah, Hijrah, Imamah, Ummah, Khalifah). Themes have strong references. Nevertheless, they are isolated from their context. Although the reference legitimates the narrative, the context shows the background and the intention. Themes are linked to form a cause-and-result cycle. The narrative has particular specifications: Fictitious descriptions, ideological separations, binary opposing themes, absence of gray zone, celestial expressions, brutal imagery in visuals, the vengeance of humiliation, motivation of group members, and use of inner group jargon. The narratives support and promote each other. Besides, it can be assumed as an inference that the narratives in the magazines mainly comply with the principles of the narrative paradigm. The believers are defined according to the subjective facts of Daesh. The facts are distorted while defining the others as enemies and describing the events in a shady way. The narratives may not change the mental structure of the audience but support their arguments and reinforce them as a permanent ideology. As a consequence, Daesh did great harm to Islam with its brutal actions. And Islamophobia is getting more widespread in the West.

Dabıq and Rumiyah, as propagative materials, show the importance of their effectiveness in appealing to group members through theoretical and practical means. The number of recruitments from foreign countries shows the magazine's value, although it lost qualified personnel on the field. The communicative side of the group gained importance as an essential aspect of the struggle for the executors. Perhaps the most crucial inference, as some would say, is that Daesh has made a horrific abuse of religion to legitimize its actions. The actual meanings of verses, hadiths, and religious concepts were exploited. It is essential to analyze the conditions that led to Daesh's formation and the conflicting aspects of Islam's general provisions to counter the ideology of Daesh. This analysis will help develop a shared narrative against radical religious identities that fuel Daesh's ideology. It would be wise for Islamic countries to take the lead in devising this narrative instead of relying on institutions funded by Western nations.

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Global Leadership Challenges

Bülent DEMİR[1]

1.Introduction

Leadership is functional and necessary for a variety of reasons. In an administrative position, leadership is needed to round organizational systems. At the strategic position, leadership is required to ensure the coordinated functioning of the association as it interacts with a dynamic external terrain. (Katz and Kahn, 1978).. According to Bass (2008), establishing and recognizing group goals and values, recognizing and integrating various individual styles and personalities in a group, maximizing the use of group members' abilities, and helping resolve problems and conflicts in a group (Bass, 2008). Thus, from a functional perspective, a leader is a "doer" who does or does what the group cannot adequately handle (McGrath, 1962).

Leaders who are successful in cross-cultural settings often display certain qualities, which can be drawn from research studying predictors of expatriate success as well as observations made during multicultural training programs (Lobel, 1990). In today globally integrated economy, effective global leadership is crucial for corporate success. Most leaders deal with the realities of the world economy on a daily basis. The development of a global perspective, a self-authored identity, and an adaptive worldview are requirements for leaders. Given the difficulty of these developmental activities, it is also recommended that people build psychological capital to aid in the process of developing their global leadership. (Story, 2011). If the key historical occurrences and technological advancements of the previous century were ignored, the major issues of global leadership in the early twenty-first century would be mistaken. One must consider the numerous ethnic and regional disputes that led to two world wars and the atrocities related to them. On a more upbeat note, there are several examples of scientific and technological advancements. (Ajarimah, 2001). Furthermore, little research has focused on developing global leaders (Smith & Peterson, 2002).

According to Black and Mendelhall (2007), Leadership is very important to the success of an organization in this globalized economy. Most managers deal with the realities of the global economy every day. Despite this, most managers are not educated, trained or prepared to deal with the complexities of this environment. (Story, 2011). Global management involves a holistic structure that facilitates thinking about the characteristics of organizations and the people they make up. Therefore, it is generally accepted that global leaders need to work with people from other cultural backgrounds. In addition to understanding differences in how work is done, global leaders must also be aware of differences in other people's cultures, motivational beliefs, and underlying behavioral systems. Finally, global leaders must be able to work with people by understanding the personal and external challenges they face, including managing conflict and working together towards shared goals. (Marange and Sampayo, 2015).

2.Global Leadership

Systems that a leader can create will enable their followers to execute at a superior level. Giving followers honest and useful feedback on their performance in a timely manner is

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essential to the implementation of such a system of performance improvement (Ajarimah, 2001). That is, the organization must adjust to its environment; for this to happen, its leaders must keep an eye on both the internal and external environments, develop a strategy based on the opportunities presented by the environment and the strengths and weaknesses of the organization, and then monitor results to ensure that its strategic goals are met (Antonakis et al., 2010). Hence, leadership is essential to direct and guide organizational and human resources toward the strategic objectives of the company and guarantee that organizational activities are aligned with the external environment (Zaccaro, 2001).

If we look at the definition of global leadership, there is no accepted definition and no mature and tested theory of the structure of global leadership (Osland, 2008). According to Adler (2001), it is the process of influencing the thinking, attitudes and behaviors of a global community to work together to achieve shared visions and goals (Osland et al., 2006). Additionally, there is an expanded definition that employs Kotter's (1990) distinction between managers and leaders: "A person who brings significant positive benefits to an organization by building community, building trust, and engaging organizational structures and processes with multiple stakeholders. changing personal contexts, multiple sources of external authority, and multiple cultures in terms of time, geography, and cultural complexity" (Osland et al., 2007: 2).

As defined by the world leader Suutari (2002); "Clearly, the literature uses this concept in a very different sense, although the focus should be on managers with global integration responsibilities in global organizations" (Suutari, 2002: 233).

Global Leadership encompasses a comprehensive structure that articulates thinking about the characteristics of organizations and the people they make up. Therefore, it is often assumed that global leaders need to work with people from other cultural backgrounds. In addition to understanding differences in how work is done, global leaders should also be aware of differences in culture, motivational beliefs, and other people's underlying behavioral systems. Ultimately, global leaders must be able to work with people while understanding personal and external challenges, including conflict management, while working toward shared goals (Maranga and Sampayo, 2015).

Organizations are increasingly using cross-cultural experiences in leadership development to prepare global leaders for the challenges and opportunities associated with global work. While there is a wealth of research advocating the use of cross-cultural experiences to develop leadership, current research generally agrees that all people benefit equally from these experiences. Given the very high costs of developing global managers, it is important to understand who benefits most from cross-cultural leadership development experiences (Caliguiri and Tarique, 2009).

World leaders have a responsibility to define ethical behavior and laws that respect all stakeholders. From a contractual point of view, company rights go beyond national laws. From a pluralistic perspective, moral absolutes must be considered in relationships with others; independent of national standards and often superior to current standards (Morrison, 2001).

Leaders who are employing cognitive control in order to manage their emotions would acknowledge anger or agitation caused by an employee's mistake but would remain focused on the task at hand. This would be powered by empathy, which is the ability to understand and share another per-son's feelings (Bonau, 2017). Similarly Goleman's (2013) description; there are three types of understanding owned by good guidance: intelligent empathy, affecting understanding, and understanding concern. As an outgrowth of self-knowledge, intelligent understanding lets commanders explain themselves to remainder of something in a significant tone. Emotional empathy relates less to intelligent processes but moderately to the skill to sense the despairs of others instantly. This would contain knowledge of means of how the emotions of the remainder of something impact one's own impressions, in addition to open-mindedness

to signs of emotions of the remainder of something. The understanding concern before has connection with understanding the needs of others that stand from their emotional state. Therefore a ruler hopeful necessary to balance the needs of possible choice with their own private distress. All the various facets of concentrating on remainder of some-thing demand social responsiveness and an understanding of in what way or manner individual relations are jolted by one's own practice. A focused manager connects all these three various facets of putting on yourself, on remainder of something, and on the wider experience in their own attention. Following the standard of exciting guidance, a devote effort to something those the one should understand and on the fuller circumstances at which point the view stands appear expected necessary to forge a dream that can encourage others. Heated knowledge is certain to gain a necessary understanding of the impact the fantasy has on possible choice. (Goleman, 2013; Howell and Shamir, 2005).

3.Global Leadership Challenges

3.1.Developing Global Leadership Effectiveness and Some Approaches.

Globalization has apparently beaten many institutions and commanders inside ruling class by way of the breakneck pace and lack of preparation many officers have had on handling and understanding the miscellaneous societies across the earth. Many institutions give more opportunity and possessions providing agents preparation on new supplies and spreadsheet than expanding administrative and guidance abilities. This happens generally still the debate that visionary guidance is what is wanted to compete, flourish, and touch evolve as an arranging in our all-encompassing realm. Another reason grant permission happen the evidence that as far as very currently, all-encompassing trade was deliberate the range of any abundant trades and as a moonlighting for an outnumbered group possible choice that competed situated on sides. (Prewitt, Weil & McClure, 2011).

According to the integrated solution approach, Weiss and Molinaro (2006), discussed leadership development, which consists of eight steps. The approach shows a clever, cooperative, and tenable way for arrangings to build the leadership competency wanted to remain in a cutthroat surroundings. It is calculated cause it ensures that all growth alternatives are attracted on share the arranging gain a back-and-forth competition. This in-volves devising a inclusive strategy for guidance growth and achieving the approach efficiently. The approach is cooperative within it strives to select and implement incident options in a smooth class that adjoins worth to each one. Finally, the joined-resolution approach to leadership happening is sustainable cause it takes a unending view. It takes the view that head-send incident is an repetitive process that needs constant consideration, focus, and possessions.

The eight steps in the integrated-solution approach to leadership development are:

1. Develop a inclusive procedure for joined guidance happening,
2. Connect guidance happening to the organization's referring to practices or policies that do not negatively affect the environment challenges,
3. Use the guidance lie to set the circumstances for growth,
4. Balance all-encompassing undertaking-off-course needs accompanying local individual needs,
5. Employ resulting design and exercise,
6. Ensure that incident alternatives fit the sophistication,
7. Focus on fault-finding importance of the guidance lifecycle,
8. Apply a blended methodology (Weiss and Molinaro, 2006).

Thomas and Cheese (2005) projected the happening-loca-ted approach to guidance incident. This approach shows a inclusive habit that knits together on-the-task happening, history experience, and specific ability incident. The aim of happening-located guidance growth search out adorn workers to steadily tap into their happenings for intuitiveness into ability to lead, ability to evolve as a manager, and ability to evolve as an productive chief. This approach is responsible to the enlightening needs and event of society by any me-ans stages of their courses. It is still conscious to the changeful needs of arrangings operating in complex and changeable atmospheres. Experience-located guidance incident exists of three important processes, that is to say fitting, evolving, and maintaining guidance abilities. These processes together produce abilities wanted by heads by any means levels, in addition to a con-cept of guidance practice that boosts lasting education. Experience-located guidance incident aims to furnish operators to meld together the entirety of their happenings for intuitiveness into ability expected a good manager. It links the guidance incident exercises an institution earlier has working (to a degree hall preparation, amount centers, course happening, sequence preparation, and performance administration) accompanying palpable work tasks and creative uses of facts and communication electronics.

Another approach is formal mentoring. Mentoring is a developing relationship between a more experienced or skilled mentor and a less experienced or skilled protege´, whereby both mentor and protege´ benefit from the relationship (Chao et al., 1992; Day and Allen, 2004). Formal mentoring is a leadership development initiative, which includes learning goal orientation, mentoring functions, and leadership competencies (Kim, 2007). Formal mentoring programs are beneficial in two ways:

1. They are very flexible by allowing for one-on-one mentoring, peer mentoring, or mentoring in groups, depending on the availability of mentors and the specific needs of potential leaders (McCauley and Douglas, 2004).
2. The team-based work in formal mentoring requires an immediate response from the leaders in setting direction, and leaders' commitment to teamwork.

The guidance biological clock approach was considered by Block and Manning (2007). This approach extreme-lights the center fundamentals wanted to build an persuasive guidance happening arrangement and resides of six steps. The first step starts accompanying a process for the identification of guidance needs. Second, instruction content and knowledge processes are created to address identified information and ability break. The triennial step is operation education, by which convenience are forged for date, all the while that new abilities and information maybe trained in evident work backgrounds. Fourth, institution supports (to a degree advising) must too be fix to guarantee that the cultivating manager is taking continuous counseling and feature feed-back. Fifth, skilled concede possibility be acknowledgment plannings to accept the cultivating officer's assurance and offering to the institution. Lastly, it should to enact recurrence processes in consideration of guarantee that the head's growth course is significant in addition to joined accompanying the calculated aims of the institution. When these six parts are joined inside an arrangement, they show best practices in guidance incident and present image of a guide for understanding guidance superiority. (Conger, 1993; Fulmer, 1997; Cacioppe, 1998).

According to Vardiman et al. (2006) and Bodinson (2005), the major goal of all leadership development programs is to increase leadership effectiveness in guiding organizations through periods of uncertainty and change. Leadership effectiveness refers to a leader's success in

influencing followers toward achieving organizational objectives (Vardiman et al., 2006; Bodinson, 2005).

Effective guidance is frequently regarded as the bedrock for administrative accomplishment and progress. The deficiency of direct guidance has had a significant affect the talent of arrangements to im-plement and experience calculated change actions. Thus, it is main that institutions pay distinctive consideration to the incident of future rulers so that endure unending persuasive guidance practices and extreme administrative efficiency. (Amagoh, 2009). According to Reinertsen et al., (2005) plan that guidance abilities concede possibility involve specific components as conceiving the future, confirming aims, ideas, reviving support for the view, preparation for allure exercise, and dawdling the plans working. Degeling and Carr (2004) increase that director evolvement is buxom on a company of intelligent, socio-sensitive, and concerned with manner of behaving abilities. These abilities, support-ed by officer attributes in the way that self-knowledge, exposure, trust, artistry, and realistic, friendly, and general agility, determine the base for guidance.

Leader influence can too be judged by remark to devotee stances, presence, delight, and fans' agreement of the ruler. Svensson and Wood (2005) imply that administrative successes maybe made clear apiece advice that skilled is a direct connection and equating accompanying the influence of administrative guidance. This clarification is established the possibility guidance model, that sees guidance influence as vital and constant in character. This energy and progression believe two dependent limits, that is to say circumstantial accuracy and convenient accuracy. Contextual accuracy refers to the guidance's dependent understanding in a worldwide view, while opportunity accuracy refers to the guidance's appropriate understanding of trade and social surroundings at a average particular stage. The possibility model grant permission be secondhand as a foundation to test and judge guidance influence over period. It concedes possibility likewise be used to label specific occurrences that have surpassed to successful and/or failing administrative successes.

Chen and Silverthorne (2005) suggest a circumstantial approach to guidance effectiveness, that admits managers to use the style of guidance that best counterparts the skill, skill, and willingness of servants. The circumstantial approach supposes that a good couple betwixt leadership style and subordinate eagerness leads to a bigger level of subordinate delight and efficiency. As the level of devotee eagerness increases, effective chief presence will include less makeup (task adjustment) and less socio-emotional support (connection-send introduction). At the lower levels of skill, the head needs to specify direction. However, accompanying taller levels of eagerness, members enhance responsible for task course (Hersey et al., 1996).

Global Leaders Develop spoken ideas abilities. Global rulers further need cross-enlightening negotiation abilities to assert worldwide competitiveness. They need to be expected capable to question and exchange ideas efficiently cause different celebrities and traits can surely cause misunderstandings. Words and color must be secondhand cautiously so that give the idea correctly while asserting a good friendship. Thus, worldwide directors are urged to endure preparation in social friendships and group ideas ability (Okoro, 2012). Develop nonverbal ideas abilities. Actions talk more blaring than conversation. Global managers must keep in mind their nonverbal style and see satisfactory acts, in addition to limited demeanor, indifferent civilizations. For example, when a Japanese financier gives a aptitude, it usually wealth a talent to welcome or for recognition alternatively a bribe; likewise, retracing a aptitude is thought-out civilized (Lussier, 2005).

Global or Local Organizations perceive the significance of cross-enlightening guidance incident happenings and more use ruling class to equip things for the challenges and event associated accompanying worldwide guidance actions. Also, they more and more use cross-educational guidance to cultivate happenings to draw up worldwide heads for the challenges and space guide worldwide work. However, in spite of the excess of research pressing for the

use of cross-enlightening guidance development happenings, the current research has mainly pretended that all benefits evenly from these occurrences. Given the remarkably extreme costs of expanding all-encompassing managers, it is main to believe the one will benefit ultimate from cross-enlightening guidance incident knowledge. (Caliguiri & Tarique, 2009).

In the case of the incident of worldwide guidance abilities, the more convenient for business high land area officers to communicate with accompanying population from various sophistications, the more likely they will have definite attitudes toward the public from various educations and label, gain and administer different with regard to the welfare of mankind-appropriate trade practices. Taking together that diversified cross-educational occurrences will increase things' cross-educational abilities (that is, shortened ethnocentrism, raised educational flexibility, and better tolerance of uncertainty) and, in proper sequence, these abilities will better their profit in all-encompassing guidance activities (Caliguiri & Tarique, 2012).

Kedia and Mukherji (1999), established that managers, in consideration of enhance all-encompassing, need to change their example and psychology to consider everywhere, that is more intricate. Murtha at al., (1998), operationalized a worldwide psychology in conditions of managers' intelligent process of worldwide planning and arrangement. (Story, 2011). Effective all-encompassing officers likely to have insane models that offer genuine habits of considering and management complex issues in guidance practice. Leaders need expected receptive, contemplate everywhere, and act expeditiously to claim their competitiveness in international arrangements and all-encompassing markets. Additionally, managers manage further undertake life-changing education in guidance happening that focuses on not only precariously indicating on individual demeanor and powers but further persuasive-ly designing wealth of understanding and acting upon the surroundings (Johnson, 2008).

Chen and Silverthorne (2005) suggest a specific approach to guidance influence, that al-holler managers to use the style of guidance that best equals the eagerness, talent, and readiness of underlings. The specific approach supposes that a good competition middle from two points guidance style and subordinate skill leads to a bigger level of subordinate vindication and act. As the level of follower skill increases, persuasive ruler performance will include less construction (task introduction) and less socio-psychological support (connection introduction). At the lower levels of skill, the ruler needs to specify route. It is main that all workers be outfitted accompanying guidance abilities (McCauley & Douglas, 2004) cause guidance functions and processes are detracting in background management, designing joining, and maintenance assurance camp of society (Johnson, 2000). According to Morrison and others. (2003), the distillate of guidance as a rule has happened the skill to first comprehend the believes and ideas of guidance and therefore administer bureaucracy in corporal sketches. (Amagoh, 2009).

3.2.Inspring Others and Developing Employees

According to Bonau (2016), administration wholes and forms of order and newsgathering are created to run movements capably. This understanding, still, omits the need to join lures in consideration of help implement a view. Leaders endure a necessity to correspond and accompany their crews to en-certain that their families include and recognize the view. Joining the public would happen enablement that arranging nation keep never obtain, that allows a better reaction to speedy changes. This somewhat authorization is not just main for commanders but at each level of the arrangement, as understanding and following a clear apparition further spurs the assurance of lower-level operators in communicable resolutions. The sense of purpose that suggests the apparition will again guide and direct supporters in uncertain positions (Bonau, 2016).

The significance of self-assurance, self-knowledge, and understanding would support achieving a vi-sion as the chief really trusts on account of purpose and can then guide people

as political whole they lead (Goleman and others., 2013; Howell & Shamir, 2005). People one feel stimulated about the future and the allure of possibilities surpass the anticipations of possible choice and their own sense of what they can obtain friendly intelligence linked accompanying impassioned knowledge, produce joint mercy, care, hope, and concept (Boyatzis and others., 2013).

For being a persuasive and exciting leader, the passion of clients needs expected training, and emotional infection is working to do business adherents' conditions. Many of the supposed "game changers" in drink manufacturing, services camcorders, or clothing retailers are frequented or used by travelers for their inclusion of the frontline stick in amount or aid incident and novelty, which confirmed considerable happiness. By forming a joint fantasy and an surroundings at which point stick appendages feel stimulated to share their plans, these associations governed to influence the computerized data in system of their whole institution alternatively restricting it to the top conclusion-creators (Bonau, 2016).

Inspirational commanders have an affect the conduct of their members by instigating bureaucracy on an sentimental level (Murnieks and others., 2016). According to Ashkanasy and Humphrey (2011) visualize the function of moving infection on guidance in two types: by means of what managers control the aura of their groups, and by virtue of what moving acumen influences guidance action. They decide that commanders influence and survive the impressions and desires of their admirers, utilizing poignant infection because the rulers' emotions contaminate their clients, that would raise their act as the adherents' atmosphere is lift-ed. By utilizing their passionate relation, managers commit move accompanying their backers to more fruitful moving states (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011).

Teamwork demands equal connections and cohesiveness. Some rank-intentional appendages grant permission balk to assist or share news accompanying remainder of something to assert their effective position in the crew. This not only hurts group cohesiveness but more delays task accomplishment. Also, camp competition can make an impact receive the praise and acknowledgment of the superior. On the something completely unlike, overdone group cohesiveness concede possibility surely influence 'group thinking', cause few appendages concede possibility balk to voice their differences and not risk their position in the crew (Aycan, 2002).

On the other hand, Bennett (1993) projected a model that characterizes the incident of intercultural sense varying from ethnocentric to ethno-relative happening of enlightening distinctness. According to Hammer, Bennett, and Wiseman (2003), intercultural subtlety refers to the talent to identify and happening appropriate enlightening distinctness. Hammer and others. established that the better the intercultural sensitivity, the better the potential for exerting intercultural ability. Intercultural ability was named as the strength to remember and act in globally appropriate habits, that is the strength to act suitably in a type of educational backgrounds. This resources that things the one are globally competent not only believe cross-educational dissimilarities, but too enlightening shadings that are frequently hard to recognize. These abilities appear specifically principal for worldwide managers. Bennett's model is enlightening in type, that way that preparation freedom for all-encompassing rulers maybe grown. Bennett labeled six stages that folk move through in their procurement of intercultural ability. Bennett's model is akin to Kegan's (1982) model, as it again adopts a constructivist approach in what way happening is a function of in what way or manner individual create aim of occurrences. In other words, the magnitude at which point educational dissimilarities will be knowing is a function of in what way or manner complicatedness maybe explained. Each stage in this place position construction produce new and more difficult issues expected cleared up in intercultural encounters. The model characterizes three stages that are formed a concept as ethnocentric (individual's own sophistication is knowledgeable as main to existence), and three

stages that are formed a concept as ethno-relative (individual‘s own sophistication is knowledgeable in the framework of possible choice).

The starting point (Denial) is from things experience their own sophistication as the only real individual. Thus, skilled is a dismissal that educational dissimilarities even endure. When things in the denial step happening educational dissimilarities, they associate this accompanying a classification in the way that ‘’offshore’’ or ‘’settler’’ (Hammer and others., 2003). People accompanying a dismissal view are not curiously indifferent breedings, and if unprotected they grant permission to act in an antagonistic habit to remove the dissimilarities (Bennett, 1993). Thus, rulers at this stage maybe very persuasive in superior a group from a similar educational education, but when unprotected to another ethnic group they cannot explain in a speech the educational variances and will try entirety to ‘’fix the question.

The second stage (Defense*)* is from things experience their own breeding as the only sensible individual. Thus, while they do not **renounce** that distinctness survive, things at this stage are more endangered by distinctness than things in the dismissal condition. In this stage, the realm is arranged into ‘’us’’ against ‘’ruling class,’’ place individual breeding is seen expected better than another (Bennett, 1993). A variant form of explanation is a about-face, place an selected idea is knowing as superior to the sophistication the one evolved up in. Thus, about-face still holds a justification viewpoint by upholding the difference middle ‘’us’’ and ‘’ruling class’’. Thus, directors at this stage feel endangered by things from various cultural qualifications and conceivably will disaffect those things or that particular group. At this stage, bias is more inclined happen and skilled is potential for conducts that are very with regard to the welfare of mankind inappropriate

The after second stage (Minimization) is from things experience their own idea as entire. Thus, the warning guide dismissal and explanation are neutralized by jutting this distinctness into bold classifications. Cultural distinctness grant permission is astonish apiece plan that nation has the alike needs. This likeness concedes the possibility to be knowledgeable as provided that skilled is cross-educational applicability of sure ideas (i.e., trade averages, place good trade bear be superior trade all-place) (Bennett, 1993). Thus, rulers at this stage will seemingly treat things the unchanging, regardless of their educational distinctness (treat things as you would like expected acted). However, this form of situation is established the ruler's own educational bias-es, that grant permission cause questions inform and sustaining connections. These first three stages are held of ethnocentric views.

The one of four equal parts stage (Acceptance) is from things that occurrence their own sophistication as just individual of many. People at this moment perspective are fit experience possible choice as various from ruling class-beings. Thus, things are not masters in individual or more ideas; preferably, they are skillful at labeling in what way or manner educational distinctness run in a roomy range of human interplays. It is main to indicate that agreement does not mean arrangement as few educational distinctness can be deduced otherwise (Bennett, 1993). For example, a with regard to the welfare of mankind impressionable life take care of trust that female ritual performed for change of status is vicious and concede possibility not be accomplished, even though that it is with regard to the welfare of mankind located. Thus, managers at this stage can understand the practices of remainder of something and form intention of reason conflict concede possibility be occurrence accompanying things of various educational groups. While occupied overseas, heads can label educational patterns that create bureaucracy comprehend the knowledge all at once.

The having five of something stage (Adaptation) is from things that occurrence another breeding and from this happening are intelligent to function inappropriate habits on account of idea. People at this stage can undertake understanding and they are smart to express their alternative educational occurrences accompanying with regard to the welfare of mankind appropriate impressions and demeanor. If this process enhances established, it can enhance the

support of biculturality or multiculturality (Bennett, 1993). Thus, managers at this moment viewpoint can enhance surely flexible and maybe mannerly, and awake the breeding of the host country, and can lead various groups efficiently.

The sixth stage (Integration) is from things that happening their beings as extended to contain the activity completely of worldviews. Individuals at this stage are handling issues had connection with their own ‘’educational marginality’’, as they explain their correspondence at the borders of two or more civilizations and principal to nobody. Bennett (1993) projected that skilled are two forms concerning this marginality: encased marginality, place the break-up from breeding is knowing as indifference, and constructive marginality, place evolutions completely of breedings are essential and definite parts of one‘s similarity. Thus, rulers at this stage concede possibility have enhance disordered about their own educational similarity because they can adjust and learn many civilizations. It is main to mention that unification is not certainly better than correspondence in positions urgent intercultural ability, it just describe various traits (Hammer et al., 2003). These last three stages are held of ethno-relative views.

Leaders that are necessary to introduce this globalized realm are direct only if they are worthy understanding enlightening dissimilarities and functioning in habits that are appropriate in each knowledgeable culture. An persuasive worldwide officer must be with regard to the welfare of mankind knowledgeable and compliant. This method needs to be expected restricted in what way or manner various breedings run and attain administrative aims (Fulkerson, 1999). This wealth that when cultivating worldwide heads, it should for things to evolve an adjustment position, or that things accompanying an agreement perspective bear perform into worldwide directors. This may be approved by first utilizing the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (Hammer et al., 2003), hat measures what a person‘s viewpoint is concerning their intercultural awareness. For example, if an individual is at the dismissal/armament stage, skilled are many more challenges the one will need to overcome and many issues will need expected proposed before they are nearly gaining an ethno-relative view of the experience. On the other hand, if an individual has an agreement viewpoint, it is less challengingly to make one's home an enlightening familiarization position. Thus, the workforce keeps using the Intercultural Development Inventory as a finish accompanying to train and cultivate things to enhance persuasive all-encompassing managers. (Lokkesmoe, 2008) by first admitting by what method they view the planet in agreements of educational distinctness and therefore crafty individual programs that will help bureaucracy shift from individual stage to another.

3.3.Leading A Team and Guiding Change

Most guests enhance more all-encompassing and more and more use socially acceptable in essence crews, representatives the one have the intelligent inclination and knowledge to consider and act ‘everywhere’ are more and more in demand. The challenge for managers search out correctly label these globally disposed things to symbolize all-encompassing group commanders. Global group rulers need to seize educational ability and knowledge as we have considered former, but specific ability is plainly not sufficient if they search out be visualized as profitable apiece arrangements that engage the ruling class. Other determinants, to a degree worldwide trade savvy, definitely influence this gain as some the larger whole. d knowledge to remember and act ‘everywhere’ are more in demand. The challenge for managers search out correctly recognize these globally disposed individuals to be a part of all-encompassing group directors. A manager’s enlightening wit donates to group appendages' perceptions of the efficiency of the ruler and the group place crews are from extreme social and different cultures in a society. As this arrangement is conventional for all-encompassing crews these findings are of interest to analyze either they again are appropriate to worldwide crews that act in a in essence circumstances (Zander et al., 2012).

What guidance styles are high-quality for superior a crew and directing change? If we analyze the characteristics of exciting leaders, genuineness has arose expected a recurring idea

with the different views on this particular idea of guidance hypothesis (Higgs and Dulewicz, 2016). Accordance to Avolio and Wernsing (2008) they decided the significance of genuine guidance is that more real chiefs commit help benevolence to a more definite growth, as inauthentic director-transport hopeful at the root of many current crises. Seidman (2013) refers to a shift in practice to accept the need for trust and genuineness, as by means of what we agree hopeful more influential than agreement we do. While Banks et al., (2016) decide that real heads are not certainly exciting, officers would not within financial means really stimulate believers outside being valid to their principles and aims.

Ibarra (2015) resolved redistribute the duty genuineness plays in guidance and the challenges that it influences. She disputes that a lure directors ability fight with being genuine hopeful that in current periods, changing courses and aims demands heads to have a bendable understanding of themselves alternatively a strict self-idea. A simple understanding of genuineness would really hamper impact and course progress, when in fact impression fake can literally imply development an effect at which point she refers to the genuineness contradiction. For example, a commander the one precariously talks welcome mind in an attempt expected authentic would divide people as political whole about him and unfavorably impact their connection accompanying bureaucracy. Likewise, it would help the self-esteem of her stick better when the recently advanced head of the area express self-assurance and anxiousness for the position, a suggestion of correction being more real by show that she is anxious and pretended. Woods (2007) likewise famous that it hopefully challenging for today's heads expected genuine on account of the style towards a committee-activity idea, though persons are hopeful smart expected righteous, and moral and organize significant guidance further in troublesome income.

Yamamoto et al., (2014) want rulers to view poignant engrossment and assurance to connection-ships as owned by real guidance, their judgments lead bureaucracy in the end that How to enhance an exciting officer emotion's partnership accompanying guidance is complicated. Finding the right balance middle nearness and distance, approachability, and expert is the challenge of being real. Ac-weave to the notes of Gardiner et al., (2014), genuine guidance practice is explained established three beginnings: extent and moral purpose, elasticity as being certain regardless of adversity, and connectivity accompanying a sense of owned by a better society. Ibarra (2015) desires a equalized habit to genuineness, three steps: to "gain various part models", to "bother earning better", and not to "charge your news". Mastering this challenge of appearance the right level of genuineness is an main step toward being exciting as a director.

Inspirational leader motivates their followers by creating and presenting an appealing vision, using emotional arguments, and demonstrating enthusiasm and optimism, which leads to personal identification with the leader (Kark et al., 2003). While transformational leadership aims at transforming followers to be self-motivated and selfless, it can also nurture the autocratic behavior of leaders and blind trust from followers. This is illustrated drastically by the "great man theory", or the "Hitler problem" –the challenge of how to identify and deal with unethical leaders acting under the pretext of transformational leadership, so-called pseudo-transformational leaders (Northouse, 2013). Followers can become weakened and dependent on their leader and his guidance. As they sense the leader as exceptional and extraordinary, their self-esteem and motivation hinge on the leader's approval and recognition (Yukl, 2010).

Kark et al. (2003) indicated transformational leadership in particular to be positively related to personal identification with the leader. The positive effects of transformational leadership on outcomes such as employee motivation, satisfaction, and performance (Judge and Piccolo, 2004). On the other hand, skilled is no notable link betwixt transformative guidance and efficiency maybe about homogenous groups. Also establish skilled was even a negative effect on depiction for extreme levels (Kearney and Gebert, 2009).

Given that exciting guidance stresses the exciting inspiration facet of transformational guidance, the results imply that private labeling hopeful forceful in exciting leaders also. Personal labeling accompanying the manager will visualize fans impersonate the commander's conduct, implement her requests, and try to see (Yukl, 2010). This includes the risk that the manager uses her/welcome influence and stimulus to devotees for extracting commitment to herself/himself and her/welcome own character alternatively to administrative benefits all at once. In recent times, the very promoted collapse of institutions like Enron, Worldcom, and Lehman Brothers live well the risks of faulty guidance widely obvious. A director-main focus and understanding of guidance have adherent reliance in an appropriate that limits artistry and change (Higgs and Dulewicz, 2016). It is therefore in the interest of the organization to avoid personality cults in their approach to leadership and to consider the role of followers and subordinates in leadership processes (Howell and Shamir, 2005).

Servant leadership, which has been around since 1970 (Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006), has recently started to attract more attention and has been found to explain variance in team performance (Schau-Broeck et al., 2011). Both transformational and servant leadership are people-oriented leadership styles emphasizing the importance of valuing people, listening, mentoring, and empowering followers. The primary difference between the two is that servant leadership focuses on the follower and the understanding of the role of the leader as being of service to the follower (Stone et al.,2004). Whereas trans-fundamental guidance focuses on the institution, specifically on construction member obligation toward administrative aims. Given this distinction, ultimate main question is either the more bury-private character of attendant guidance maybe as profitable in in essence multicultural groups as it is in collocated international crews (Greenleaf, 1977), Follower dependence and empowerment, however, have been found to be independent of each other, not opposite to each other, suggesting that a leadership style can lead to both dependence and empowerment in followers (Kark et al., 2003). Additionally, backers' principles and need for guidance have existed erect to have an affect by what method the leader's exciting abilities influence their presence, accompanying assistants the one exhibit a powerful need for guidance to see their rulers as more rousing (De Vries et al., 2002). Transformational and exciting guidance in addition to the less examined helper guidance, all regarded as exciting, bright, and upholding types of guidance were raise to have helpful belongings in two together all-encompassing in essence groups and in open to all races collocated groups (Zander et al., 2012).

The people-familiarize guidance styles in all-encompassing groups echo a approximate move away the more 'established' guidance busy accompanying order bestowing, control, and different act borderlines 'tween those the one lead and those the one are surpassed. This is likely a answer to existing changes something done principles and beliefs, place a morals and dependability to a distinct corporation is being dislodged by a need for individual knowledge to attain through a assortment of employers and a excess of work arrangements. To hire ability and abilities, and not mislay aware workforce, managers enhance able in and practice society-familiarize facets of guidance. This society-familiarize guidance flow is, still, not only compelled by individual work choices but too by severe labor advertise real worlds, place contest and financial agitation have experienced to rearrangement, sourcing, reducing, agreement composition, and added administrative changes accompanying widespread associations for people as political whole the one introduce these arrangements (Zander et al., 2012).

A couple of in essence group guidance research poignantly questions either skilled is alternatively to favorably lead geographically delivered in essence groups. On the other hand, few have further establish that authorizing was prioritized by group managers, not the crew appendages. This is not unexpected possibly, as the cross-enlightening guidance history expresses by means of what guidance styles, actions and originals, and worker predilections for guidance practices change significantly across nations and ideas (House et al., 2004; Smith,

Peterson, and Schwartz, 2002; Zander, 1997). And Watson, Johnson, and Zgourides (2002) found that for ethnically diverse teams interpersonal leadership activities were more important than for non-diverse teams, where task leadership was critical. Team members' evaluations of team leader effectiveness are, however, not solely dependent on what leadership style is used.

The all-encompassing crew director endure stimulate and stimulate, coach and mentor, and take a individual interest in group appendages, that was considered as essential by group appendages in the studies we inspected. These abilities are by all means priceless to some group head, the one wishes to undertake crowd-familiarize leadership styles, but in a in essence and cross-enlightening framework, they need expected accompanying cross-educational knowledge, emphasize as fault-finding (Zander et al., 2012).

When we examine worldwide crew difference, direct groups are those that have a forceful crew civilization (a sense of purpose and aims) and joint beliefs. At the beginning of the group, doctrine acknowledging contributions and interests of many cultures be necessary to otherwise influence crew functioning, still, over occasion, the connection betwixt person who travels by sea-city and act enhances curved (Earley and Mosakowski, 2000). Watson et al. (2002). argue that cultural diversity is not as important as other factors. For example, Davis and Bryant (2003), suggest that where organizational culture is particularly strong a strong organizational culture trumps any national cultural differences, and global team members leave their ''cultural identity at the door'.

Global leaders, the one illustrate biculturalism in addition to those, the one seize educational intelligence or a all-encompassing psychology, can move luxuriously middle from two points various civilizations and explain intercultural understanding and private fondness and possibly most adapted to the task of chief profitable all-encompassing crews. Empirical research dossier is up until now completely thin emphasizing the need for future research that questions the character of the connection middle from two points biculturalism, educational perception, and worldwide psychology, the relative impact of biculturalism, educational wit, and worldwide psychology on worldwide crew efficiency, and approaches for persuasive bicultural, educational brilliance and worldwide psychology guidance of all-encompassing groups. Under aforementioned a view, research into by means of what directors can draw out high-quality kinds of various group appendages hopeful somewhat educational from hypothetical and useful outlooks (Zander et al., 2012).

3.4.Managing Internal Stakeholders and Politics

In a global stakeholder society, ''where companies are expected to be accountable not only to shareholders for financial performance but to stakeholders for their wider economic, environmental and societal impacts'' (Wade, 2006), commercial viability and long-term business success depend on the ability of a firm and their leadership to act responsibly with respect to all stakeholders in business, society and the environment (Freeman, 1984, 2005; Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Wheeler and Sillanpaa, 1997; Svendsen, 1998; Phillips, 2003, Maak and Pless, 2006). An important part of the effort to create sustainable business success is the leadership responsibility to (re)build public trust (DiPiazza and Eccles, 2002), to regain the license to operate from society, and to earn and sustain an impeccable reputation as a ''great company'' (Collins, 2001) and corporate citizen, which can only be achieved by walking the talk, managing with integrity, making ''profits with principles'' (Roddick, 1991), delivering on the ''triple-bottom-line'' (Elkington, 1998) and ''creating value for stakeholders'' (Freeman, 2004).

Employees, in a colleague association, guidance endure reach further established director–follower ideas. Here, the commander enhances a director and a person who produces crops of friendships accompanying various shareholder groups. In the following, you will find an ideal survey of few guidance accountabilities concerning few key collaborators. Responsible heads prepare society and lead crews, frequently across trades, nations, and/or breedings to attain conduct aims that are arisen the clever objectives of the firm. They still coach and strengthen

laborers to reach these aims in an righteous, courteous, and ‘‘relationally inventive’’ habit (Pless and Maak, 2005). They create incentives to encourage respectful collaboration inside and outside the organization and foster responsiveness to stakeholders and advocate ethical behavior (Freeman, 2004).

Clients and customers, responsible managers confirm that the fruit and aids meet the needs of their consumers and customers, that they are cautious and not hurtful, what palpable and potential risks are honestly and obviously corresponded. A director further takes deterrent steps in consideration of guarantee clients' welfare and the security of clients had preference and keep under no (trade) rotation- stances be endangered (Maak and Pless, 2006).

Business partners, responsible chiefs guarantee that moral, incidental, and labor principles are too esteemed and used by their trade companions. Furthermore, they confirm that killing allies themselves are discussed deferentially and somewhat (e.g. no preferential treatment) by the company's employees and managers. Ultimately, it is at the discretion of leadership with whom to do business (Roddick, 1991).

The social and natural environment, in a ‘‘stakeholder corporation’’ (Wheeler and Sillanpa, 1997), commanders need expected alert the realm at which point they keep. They determine the impact of trade decisions on the friendly and nature. They join partners in an alive talk, involve various voices, take their interests and needs dangerously, and evaluate ruling class in a all-encompassing criticism process. They still confirm that result processes are as environmentally intimate as attainable by utilizing ‘‘green’’ electronics and inexhaustible possessions, reusing material, by conditional strength, etc. Furthermore, they support offerings to institution. Apart from inactive conduct like generosity and allied bestowing, they strengthen alive date for the welfare of (for instance by starting organizations and providing volunteering hope for all operators). They too coach and train their folk in tenable happening (Wade, 2006) and help them develop a broader understanding of the responsibilities of business in society, and support them in growing competencies in building sustainable stakeholder relations.

Shareholders, responsible managers safeguard shareholders' property capital and guarantee an able return. They respect their rights and again guarantee consistent ideas and understandable newsgathering on the financial, friendly, and environmental conduct of the partnership. They are steady and do not compromise individual efficiency objective for another, even when set under time pressure. Furthermore, they show due intensity concerning their own and so forth' clique information and proactively halt some moral misconduct (for instance trading of stocks by a company insider). They more act responsibly and reasonably concerning their own repayment whole. In fact, they need expected smart to balance temporary profit and return anticipations and the unending sustainability of implausible story. Ultimately, they believe the interests of shareholders all at once set of conceivably valid interests with possible choice (Maak and Pless, 2006).

The governmental ability of a worldwide chief in utilizing governmental influence is main by way of the prevalent competition that takes place with the battling interests of powerful players in the main office and something added (Harvey et al., 2000). The most detracting districts of interest that can set off hidden conflict and association construction contain 1) strategic administration staffing; 2) administrative course maneuverability, and 3) administrative rectification. First, the HQ coalitions changed on the footing, for instance, of functions, community, and head count of-ten spar over the rules and resolution tests for worldwide administration transfers. The triumphant HQ association before needs the agreement of the allied HR to have the worldwide administration transfer scheme devised because their interests are included in the fault-finding excerpt tests. Second, competing interests exercise influence over facts and resolution tests had a connection with acting judgment structures in external something added. The effect of these processes forms the conduct judgment framework inside that allied and secondary HR functions communicate to survive the intention attributed to the judged act of each

individual helpful. Third, the within labor advertise for international responsibilities and progress space towards the ‘extreme potentials’ circle is exposed to governmental influence.

The interests of the HQ coalitions can enhance powerful and are apt to reserve the current situation through representative control of the allied HR resolution tests. These tests repeatedly favor friendly duplication through the endlessness of exile practice on account of the ‘enlightening fit’. The rationale concede possibility be affiliated with ethnocentrism that cornerways supports the existent allied HR tactics that favor the domestic administrator, in addition to the rather restricted views of allied HR administration. The alternative between managers maybe moving likely the material circumstances at which point managers find bureaucracy-beings all along overseas responsibilities. The better the enlightening/friendly distance middle from two points the civil and administrative sophistications the more troublesome adaptation to the ‘aim’ of friendly and governmental ideas. The individual distinctnesses maybe diminished to some extent by pre-hide contestants on their ‘governmental IQs’ and the planed distance 'tween two together governmental and administrative educations (Harvey and Novicevic, 2004).

The governmental influence outlook positing the benefit of achieving governmental abilities for global chief-transport growth all the while worldwide responsibilities is as well the realistic calculated perspective (Ferris and Judge, 1991). This distinction brings to light the subjective perceptions of the politics of managers as one of the key elements in determining their effectiveness during complex global assignments (Richardson, 1995; Vigoda, 2000; Suutari, 2002). A accompanying set of conduct that need expected started by worldwide rulers includes the construction of political capital. The idea of governmental capital has connection with the competency of all-encompassing officers to cultivate governmental abilities all the while their worldwide tasks. The ranges of individual governmental capital involve: 1) Reputational capital (managers that are famous in the worldwide network as bearing the governmental ability for ‘appropriating belongings approved’ likely to happen); and 2) Representative capital (Lopez, 2002). Political capital is not the same as the ‘social grease’ attributed to social capital but is a capacity that rests within leaders to remove obstacles to cooperation due to their political goodwill as perceived by others.

Political capital is as fault-finding to chiefs in worldwide arrangements cause it can humble the level of conflict and flawed results between unfamiliar something added. With an able level of governmental capital, possible choice (peers, servants, and even principal) in the worldwide network arrangement will likely to accede to the commander the one has manifested governmental ability. They will authorize governmental capital and infrequently challenge/her prestige to show different interests in the all-encompassing arranging (Harvey and Novicevic, 2004).

Social capital is typically reflected in ‘the standing’ one has in an organization and the concurrent ability to draw on the standing to influence the actions of others in the organization’ (Friedman and Krackhardt, 1997: 319). Social capital, two together in the command post and local markets (within and extrinsic friendly capital), enhances the ‘public grease’ of social connections that specifies news and helpful support to help guarantee the happiness of all-encompassing heads (Brass, 1994). Understanding the incident and leveraging of public capital has enhance an field of big interest between public chemists (Leana and Van Buren, 1999). Social capital has existed usual in commerce to gain a better understanding of equality and government, financial incident, composite operation, service gain, manufacturing networks, in addition to a off-course number of different issues (Baker, 1990; Bolino et al., 2002; Dess and Shaw, 2001; Fukuyama, 1995; Leana and Van Buren, 1999; Park and Luo, 2001; Putnam, 1993; Seibert et al., 2001; Useem and Karabel, 1986; Walker et al., 1997). The prominence on administration policies proposed at promoting the growth of public capital has as a elementary principle that construction public capital admits an institution to improve partnership and arrangement over opportunity, accordingly growing the adeptness and influence of an arrangement.

The public capital of all-encompassing rulers helps blend the main office of the worldwide arrangement to the profusion of standards owned by offshore something added. Leaders must accomplish the part of being culturally active confine spanners inside nerve center in addition to inside external something added. Without this support from the elements, these horizon spanners commit endure opposition to their administrative freedom on account of a doubt in their capability, faithfulness, and assurance to the allied aims and tactics. Boundary-traversing managers need to have the nerve center friendly capital and the secondary to support external actions and gain the trust of two together local rulers and top administration of the worldwide organization (Harvey and Novicevic, 2004).

Social capital and governmental capital are two obvious elements of the four-component capital traffic-unit of the mathematical system of worldwide chiefs. The four parts of capital that worldwide heads need to cultivate as a notebook and build/improve all the while worldwide appointments are;

1. Human capital– the abilities and abilities that heads need to have established expert and antecedent capacity in their arrangement;
2. Enlightening capital–acceptance and friendly extent on account of bearing implied information of in what way or manner the institution keep;
3. Public capital– the standing and agreeing skill to effect standing to achieve tasks in an organization;
4. Government capital is the skill to use capacity or expertise and gain the support of constituents in a culturally productive habit.

Each component/type of capital has worth in the all-encompassing network arrangement. The significance of the capital folder changes in accordance with the framework of the resolutions that need expected fashioned (then, active worldwide heads need to acquire the governmental ability of aware by what method to use their individual capital flat case for transporting papers efficiently. It is likewise main to note that the four capital parts are not only specific but likewise pertain. Hence, the lack of individual component/type of capital can unfavorably impact the influence of the manager to use the cooperation of capital parts in welcome/her collection of conduct (Ferris et al., 1996).

An supplementary educational influence that can impact the construction of capital all the while alien tasks is the administrative sophistication of two together the home and the host institutions. The home-country organizational education determines the supervisor accompanying welcome/her standpoint concerning by means of what friendly and governmental capital is buxom and secondhand in an administrative scene, inasmuch as the host-country arranging enacts the operating limits of the worth and construction of capital all the while the external task, and the better the distinctness middle from two points the home/host country arrangements educations the better the questions for the person who gains. These distinctness in administrative civilization will have preeminent supporter affect expatriate managers on account of their ignorance and intuitions concerning in consideration of educational dissimilarities concerning public and governmental capital. Therefore, it is essential that the enlightening affect assignees is captured into report superior to the removal and is recorded because the officer has a endowment or elementary understanding of the educational influence on the build-up of capital (Harvey and Novicevic, 2004).

4.Conclusion

The act of a all-encompassing officer has the complicatedness, individual namely absolutely various from the complicatedness confronted by household and even local rulers. To be an direct all-encompassing officer and to lead open to all races crews accompanying enlightening data, you must able to have or do use among myriad challenges. Our research and happening show that the leap from being a profitable administrator in your home country to a

all-encompassing commander is a large individual. Previously profitable planning and chosen habits of managers concede the possibility of not translating well in an all-encompassing scene. The rules of date assumed by individual groups or civilizations concede possibility does not pertain to another, and chief detached and in essence crews maybe disputing. This devises a limited of diversified complicatedness.

Business is changeful faster than always before – at aforementioned a pace and on a worldwide scale that many associations fight with by what method to acknowledge. A important concern for most arrangements is their trained workers and by means of what they accomplish this pace and scale of change and the complicatedness that it leads. The existence of new-era managers is more challenging than always. Externally, they face a complex and globalized atmosphere. They concede the possibility accomplish the commandments of the administration, maintain in front of contestants, and sur-pass the beliefs of added colleagues. And inside this all-encompassing atmosphere, skilled are many educational concerns rulers must guide along route, often over water expected persuasive. They must work across enlightening bounds and alongside remainder of something the one, now and then, are very different from bureaucracy and have various habits of snatching work finished.

A good place to start is for regulations to better by virtue of what they label and purchase extreme potentials and future rulers; expected logical, clear, and purify and show their purpose, responsibility, and brand in their local, ethnic, and all-encompassing markets. Besides the extreme potential and future heads, organizations must purchase their middle and senior directors on by virtue of what to survive diversified geographies, breedings, and guidance styles, while compare their firm’s calculated and trade goals. The challenge of cultivating the appropriate abilities - to a degree period administration, prioritization, clever thinking, administrative, and mount to speed accompanying the task - expected more persuasive working. Another challenge is inspiring or instigating possible choices to they are gratified accompanying their tasks and instigated to work brisker. Developing possible choice, particularly through advising, instructing, group-construction, group happening, group administration, directing, assembling, understanding, and superior change, containing lightening the im-agreement of change, defeating opposition to it, and handling representatives' responses to change. Managing within collaborators and campaigning: The challenge of directing connections, campaigning, and countenances, in the way that acquire administrative support and directing up and the act of procuring buy-in from different areas, groups, or things.

Organizations endure in a VUCA experience (changeable, changeable, complex, and cryptic). Their rulers need expected versed at directing, marshaling, chief, and handling change. Incorporating change administration and improving resource concede possibility bother the prominence of guidance evolvement drives. Many times population are distressed accompanying change. Leaders can model a beneficial response by converting their own thinking and by being clearer to new plans. It is still fault-finding to take advantage of passionate responses to change. Human understanding and fervor are joined wholes. When persuasive public that change is wanted and good, it's incompetent to use realistic debates. Leaders further need expected alert laborers' affections and show understanding. Nobody can calculate possible choice what the future will be, but you certainly can communicate possible choice about the and what you are do to reach the requested afterlife. If you decrease vagueness, control over the position increases, permissive nation to enhance full of enthusiasm change powers.

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Micheal Hardt and Antonio Negri's Political Thought in Current Debates on Global Politics

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Introduction

'Empire is materializing before our very eyes' Michael Hardt's and Antonio Negri's intellectual best seller book 'Empire' is starting with this sentence. It is very interesting in the neo-liberal globalized era that a book written purely with a radical leftist jargon achieved a big attention among social scientists not only limited to the critical political terrain. The impact of the book can be pursued by its novelty of political concepts. The authors attempted to inject post structuralist concepts into the modernist-traditional Marxist paradigm. As Cynthia Weber (2005, 128) points out the authors also enrich their new political concept with traditional International relations concepts of world order, sovereignty and political subjectivity. Hence, the authors' concept of Empire combines three approaches of traditional IR theory, Postmodernism and Marxism.

While making of his radical theory Karl Marx was influenced by German philosophy, British political Economy and French politics. The authors of Empire however, influenced by French philosophy, American political Economy and Italian Politics. Furthermore, Hardt and Negri are under the influence of Poststructuralist Philosophers such as, Foucault, Deleuze and Guattari. The authors' main concept Empire as a new world order not only limited with one book. The different dimensions and also some of revisions of their concepts can be pursued with another two separated books, namely *Multitude: War and democracy in the age of empire* (2004) and recently *Commonwealth* (2009) and *Assembly* (2017). Therefore, Hardt and Negri's arguments should be sought within this *Empire quadriology.* Although the new political theory of Hardt and Negri is examined in 4 books, Empire and Multitude books form the basis of the political theories of the thinkers. Antonio Negri is an important philosopher from the Italian Autonomous Movement. Michael Hardt, on the other hand, is a political theory thinker and literary scholar who spread Negri's works to the English-speaking world (Aykutalp&Çelik, 2018, p. 405). The Autonomist Movement consider social change not as a result of hierarchically organized political organizations from above, but as the creation of a political movement in which different social subjects such as workers, women, students are organized from below (Castells, 2015; Aykutalp&Çelik, 2018 p. 405). In this study, I will examine the emergence and insight of Hardt and Negri's concepts of Empire and Multitude in the first part. I will analyze the difference of the concept of the multitude from the previous subjectivities and how it is a democratic subjectivity according to Hardt and Negri. In the second part of the study, after explaining how Empire is a new form of sovereignty, I will evaluate the criticisms made against Hardt and Negri in the context of the imperialism debates. In this context, I will analyze whether nation-state sovereignty is weakening as Hardt and Negri have suggested.

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The Rise of New Subjectivities in the Global World Order: Empire and Multitude

After the collapse of the Socialist bloc at the end of 1980s globalization process accelerated and we began to witness the widespread hegemony of globalization of economic and cultural exchanges. The productions of money, technology, people and goods have been moving with increasing easies across national boundaries (Heywood, 2011, p. 9). Hardt and Negri (2000, p. 11) claim that the sovereignty of the nation states is extremely declining in the era of globalization which is an irresistible and irreversible process.

The decline of nation state sovereignty must not mean the decline of sovereignty in itself. According to the authors "Sovereignty has taken a new form, composed of a series of national and supranational organisms united under a single logic of rule. *This new global form of sovereignty is what they call Empire*" (Hardt&Negri, 2000, p. 12).[2] To clarify the concept in details, Empire should not be reduced to the USA or other nation states since Empire is a *decentered* and *deterritorializing* apparatus of rule (Ibid.). A postmodern kind of world order is emerging, so the modernist dimensions of concepts such as *imperialism* is over. No nation state can shape the world order just like in the modern era (Ibid, p. 15). The imperialist dichotomy of *inside-outside* is over because empire subsumes every place. In other words, the divisions of imperialist age such as first, second and third merged with each other in the global era. Therefore, third world can be seen in the first and the first can be seen in the third. Needless to say, that the second world has already disappeared (Ibid, p. 254).

One of the important dimensions of the concept Empire is that the Empire imposes the hegemony to the all strata of the societies via biopolitical control mechanisms. For Negri, in the age of Empire exploitation exceeds the terrain of disciplinary society and exploitation penetrates into the entirety of life. Indeed, the exploitation of entirety of life is interconnected with the transition of mode of production in the postmodern era. In contrast to the industrial labor, immaterial labor enhanced to the dominant position in the postmodern era. In other words, empire exploits different types of living labor inside all the places of social life via biopolitical way (Ibid., pp. 23-27).

> When we say biopolitical, we mean that the entirety of life is subsumed by capital, that the value creation of capital comes through the whole of society being set to work, and that therefore all social and life relations are drawn into the relationship of production (Negri, 2008, p. 9).

At this point, it can be remembered that the Wachowski brothers' movie Matrix. Just like the famous motto of the movie, 'The Matrix has you everywhere', the Empire has us everywhere as well. Therefore, what can be said as other definition is that *Empire is a network of power that operates via biopolitical way and pull the entire society in itself*.

Hardt and Negri created a new concept of proletariat to understand the exploitation of society in Empire. This new class is different from nation, people or masses. They call it as *Multitude*. The authors replaced Marxist concepts of *bourgeois and proletariat* with *Empire and Multitude*. For Hardt and Negri Multitude is the revolutionary subject against the Empire. Hardt and Negri claim that the industrial working class has been vanishing as a result of the newly emerged post-fordist relations of production and information technologies. Four significant dimensions reveal the structure of post-fordist mode of production. Basically, the post-fordist mode of production is immaterial, intellectual, relational and linguistic (Ibid., 177). Therefore the Multitude differentiated from the former class concept on the base of creativity potential which is immanent in itself.

> Labor was presenting itself increasingly as a capacity which was linguistic, intellectual, affective, and relational. The mass subjectivities set to labor

[2] Italics is mine.

> presented itself as an ensemble of singularities immersed in social and productive cooperation. This was the birth of Multitude (Ibid.).

Consistently with the network structure of Empire, Multitude operates as a network as well, and Multitude is flexible, democratic and simultaneous and non-hierarchical. For the authors, the pressure of labor, indeed transformed the mode of production and hegemonic relationship of labor throughout the history (Hardt&Negri, 2003: 43-85). In this sense, more advanced concepts have achieved such as, Empire and Multitude. In comparison to the older insurrections Multitude has much more democratic, effective and creative potentials for uprisings. In this context, to analyze the revolutionary subjectivity, the evolution of the insurrections provides concrete examples.

Former Insurrections and Multitude

With regard to the insurrections at the beginning of the 20th century, from Russian Civil War to Chinese Revolution, anti-fascist resistances and colonial uprisings of Africa, all of them, organized under a central army structure, namely People's Army. Whatever it is under the commands of a vanguard party or national elite, the people's army is effective to capture the power (Hardt&Negri, 2004, p. 73). However, the military structure of the People's Army can be internalized by cadres of the vanguard party or other anti-colonial national elites. Therefore, the democratic process of the insurrections can be paralyzed due to the strictly hierarchical and centralized form of the party model. The collapse of the Soviet Union and democracy problem of real socialism can be sought within this context as well. Second important transformation of insurrections is the Guerilla Warfare. After the 1960s, particularly witnessed in Cuban revolution, the guerrilla strategy composed relatively autonomous structure different from the centralized model of the popular army (Ibid., p. 74).

> Conventional orthodoxy had been that military leaders should be subordinated to party control: General Giap to Ho Chi Minh, Zhu De to Mao Zedong during the Long March, Trotsky to Lenin during the Bolshevik revolution. By contrast, Fidel Castro and the Cuban guerilla forces were subordinated to no political leaders and formed a party themselves only after the military victory (Ibid.).

In contrast to the central vertical command structure of people's army small guerilla *focos* could act relatively independently and horizontal. However, the polycentric structure of guerrilla model has some limits. For Hardt and Negri, the guerilla *foco* is the embryonic type of vanguard party. Hence, the polycentric and plural structure tends to be reduced to the central unity in the practical life (Hardt&Negri, 2004, p. 75). With regard to the revolution via guerilla warfare, it can be witnessed that the democratic structure of guerrilla movement before revolution transforms easily to the vertical state structure of the post-revolutionary governments. Most of the groups that compose the guerrilla movement before revolution could be excluded after revolution.

> In the Nicaraguan case, after the Sandinista victory many women combatants complained that they were not able to maintain leadership positions in the post-revolutionary power structure. An impressive number of women did hold important positions in the victorious Sandinista government, but not really as many as in the Sandinista guerrilla forces. This is one symptom of the process of de-democratization of the guerilla movements (Ibid., 76).

For Hardt and Negri, the disciplinary organization model of both People's army and Cuban guerilla began to be transformed at the beginning of the 1970s, coherently with the transformation from fordist to post-fordist mode of production. Although some organizations like Khmer Rouge in Cambodia, the Mujahidin in Afghanistan, Hamas in Philistine, the FARC and the ELN in Colombia implemented the outdated model of disciplinary type. On the other

hand, primarily network dominated structures began to emerge such as Intifada in Philistine, anti-Apartheid movement in South Africa and Autonomia movement in Italy (Ibid., 2004, pp. 83-84). These movements had a great tendency to create network structure, but still the centralized and hierarchical notions penetrated the newly emerged networks.

> The stone throwing and direct conflict with Israeli police and authorities that initiated the first Intifada spread quickly through much of Gaza and the West Bank. On the other hand, the revolt is organized externally by the various established Palestinian political organizations, most of which were in exile at the beginning of first Intifada and controlled by men and older generation. Throughout its different phases, the Intifada seems to have been defined by different proportions of these two organizational forms, one internal and the other external, one horizontal, autonomous, and distributed and the other vertical and centralized. The intifada thus an ambivalent organization that points backward toward older centralized forms and forward to new distributed forms of organization (Ibid., p. 84).

During the 1990s a different form of guerilla movement appeared in Chiapas province of Mexico. Zapatista National Liberation Army (EZLN) attempted to link the local struggles with global struggles. Therefore, "Zapatistas are the hinge between the old guerilla model and the new model of biopolitical network structures" (Hardt&Negri, 2004, p. 85). Zapatistas seems reluctant to take over the power to impose their ideology from top to bottom. Therefore, they use the strategy of 'changing the world without taking power' via creating autonomous spaces and implementing their way of life throughout in this autonomous areas (Holloway, 2005). Zapatistas highlights communication, horizontal ties and they used ironic type of rhetoric to enhance their political power. Leadership positions are rotated in order to restrict the hierarchical tendencies. That's why, the primary spokesman Marcos has rank the subcomandante title to reveal his relative subordination (Hardt&Negri, 2004, p. 85).

For Hardt and Negri after the demonstrations of Seattle (1999) everything utterly began to change. Different kind of groups from Environmentalists, Trade Unionists, Anarchists, Socialists, Gay and Lesbians, Church Groups, simply unconnected and even very different types of groups gathered to protest inequalities of the ongoing globalization process. The new global network movements from Seattle to Genoa and World Social Forums took a significant initiative to oppose Iraq and Afghanistan wars. These newly emerged global social movements cannot be categorized under simply liberal or Marxist categories since they have a much more complicated formation (Weber, 2005, p. 124). The global social movements are one of the concrete face of the Multitude. As Weber states: "The Multitude is a postmodern agent-ontology similar to Empire, it is not territorially (or even merely class) based; in contrast, it is fragmented, fluid and foundationless. Similar to Empire it can be composed of seemingly disjoined elements"(Ibid., 131).

In the era of Empire with the usage of information technologies and immaterial labor, the ontology of the exploited subject began to compose much more democratic elements. Multitude has not horizontally connected with each of its parts. Therefore, in every temporality and spatiality, the Multitude can attack to the vertical center of Empire. As it was mentioned previously, Multitude is creatively, productive, singularities that Negri make an analogy with swarm of bees. Like a swarm of bees, a community of bees that spread out then somehow comes together again.

Hardt and Negri offer three basic demands to enhance the liberation of the Multitude against the Empire. These are demand for *global citizenship*, *equal wage for all* and *the right to reapropriation* respectively. Needless to say, the right to reappropriation is the most radical and complicated demand among them. The authors' reappropriation concept is a bit different from the traditional socialist-communist demands that aims to achieve free access for the

machines and control of materials for the sake of the new Proletariat. Hardt and Negri claim that the traditional demand took a new guise since the Multitude not only uses machines and but also becomes mechanic in itself, as the means of production increasingly integrated into minds and bodies of the Multitude. Hence, for the authors reapproitation means having free access to control over knowledge, communication, affects"(Hardt&Negri, 2000, pp. 406-407).

Empire as the New Form of Global Sovereignty

Taking into account of imperialism and sovereignty issues the authors start their analyses with the imperialism theory of Rosa Luxemburg who simply claims that Capitalism can only exist with the conjunction of non-capitalist systems. Furthermore, imperialism in this sense impedes the development of non-capitalist economies or 'outside' (Brewer, 1990, pp. 58-59). In other words, capitalism always needs outside in order to survive. However, Luxemburg's arguments, which are also shared by the dependency school in this context, are challenged in terms of lack of proper explanation to understand the development of outside particularly after the Second World War.

Hardt and Negri assert that the standpoint and strategy of Luxemburg, which Lenin also noticed, is not tenable since the structural transformation imposed by imperialist politics has a tendency to eliminate outside in both of dominant and subordinate countries (Hardt&Negri, 2000, p. 233).

The authors also share the arguments of Kautsky whom Lenin strictly criticizes in his work *Imperialism the highest degree of Capitalism*. Lenin harshly opposes Kaustky's ultra-imperialism concept that highlights the trend of consent and cooperation among imperialist powers which lead to a global peace, so the imperialism concept is radically converted. In contrast to this basic argument of Kautsky, Lenin emphasizes the notion of conflict that would stimulate wars among imperialist powers.

Hardt and Negri interestingly claim that Kautsky and Lenin share the same analytical structure, but the different political concepts in terms of imperialism theories. Therefore, they want to legitimize the imperialism conception of Kautsky that they seem strongly influenced by.

> What objected to so strongly be the fact that Kautsky used this vision of a peaceful future to negate the dynamics of the present reality; Lenin thus denounced his profoundly reactionary desire to blunt the contradictions of the present situation. Rather than waiting for some peaceful ultra-imperialism to arrive in the future, revolutionaries should act now on the contradictions posed by capital's present imperialist organization (Ibid.).

Hardt's and Negri's another striking argument with regard to imperialism is the historically progressive notion of the Empire. The authors implies that after the Bolshevik revolution Lenin's World Communism dream failed and the other alternative Empire emerged (Hardt&Negri, 2000, p. 234). As for the authors, Empire era has more libertarian potentials than the era of imperialism just like the Marxist analyzes of the progressive dimensions of Capitalism comparatively with the pre-capitalist mode of productions (Ibid., p. 43). Hence, taking into account the destructive expectations of Empire's structural formation, the authors claim that "Empire is good in itself, however, does not mean that it is good for itself" (Ibid.).

> We claim that Empire is better in the same way that Marx insists that capitalism is better than the forms of society and modes of production that came before it. Marx's view is grounded on a healthy and lucid disgust for the parochial and rigid hierarchies that preceded capitalist society as well as on recognition that the potential for liberation is increased in the new situation. In the same way today we

> can see that Empire does away with the cruel regimes of modern power and also increases the potential for liberation.

There are some criticisms against Hardt and Negri in this context. Although Hardt and Negri emphasize the disappearance of imperialism we witnessed the explicit imperialist interventions of NATO America as well as Russia. The invasion of Iraq and Afghanistan, NATO bombardment of Belgrade had vividly imperialist ties in favor of the US interests. What is clear that concerning Iraq invasion there was no compromise and cooperation among the most industrialized countries. For instance Germany and France harshly criticized the Iraq intervention of the US. Another important sign about the lack of compromise among Empire components was the war of Georgia and Russia as well as Russia's invasion of Ukraine in 2022. The tension based on Taiwan is also deteriorating the US and Chinese relations. These conflicts revealed that there is not a compromise achieved between the bourgeois of the US and Europe versus Russia and China. Still another significant sign is the hegemony struggle between Russia and China on the former Soviet territories. A lot of debates are being discussed in academy with regard to the new great game revival in Central Asia (Roy, 2000).

Some of the aforementioned examples try to prove that geo political rivalry among big powers did not diminish. On the contrary, ironically it increased after the publication of the book Empire. Nevertheless, Kiely (2010) claims that the older imperialist concept that emphasizes the inter-imperialist rivalry of the big powers cannot explain the new world order either. The attempts of implementing Lenin's concepts to the globalized world by Alex Callinicos and John Bellamy Foster cannot explain the rising cooperation tendencies among developed countries. Even after the Russia-Ukraine war it is still difficult to anticipate a new world war among imperialist powers at least for the near future. If we go into particulars, despite the fact that Iraq intervention seems to control oil resources in the Middle East against China's penetration to the oil regions, the invasion does not create enormous conflicts between China and the US (Harvey, 2003).

Concerning Panitch's highlighting of the role of the US imperialism that is allegedly institutionalized in the underdeveloped world seems not convincing since the US hegemony completely challenged after the indecisive victory of Iraq invasion and current global financial crisis (Panitch&Gidden, 2003, pp. 46-81). In this sense, main argument of this paper concerning imperialism theories is differentiated

Ray Kiely (2010) claims that after the neoliberal reforms had started in during 1980s, the industrialization began to rise in the developing and underdeveloped world. However, the value adds or creation of this industrialization does not affect the positions of these countries. Moreover, export values of these countries from industrial products have decreased comparatively with the pre-reform period. Kiely also underlines that even the most innovative products of periphery countries depend on labor intensive components of the advanced technology embedded products. As Kiely states:

> By the end of the 1990s, the fifteen fastest growing exports from developed countries were all in the top of 20 most dynamic global exports, while only eight of the top twenty exports from developing countries were in the top 20 list of most dynamic global exports and in the most cases (with partial exception of east Asia), these were concentrated in the labor intensive, assembly stages of production. Perhaps most tellingly, since the reform period started in the 1980s, while developed countries" share of manufacturing exports fell (from 82.3 per cent in 1980 to 70.9 per cent by 1997), its share of manufacturing value added actually increased over the same period, form 64.5 per cent to 73.3 per cent. Over the same period, Latin America's share of world manufacturing exports increased form 1.5 per cent to 3.5 per cent, but its share of manufacturing value added fell from 7.1 per cent to 6.7 per cent. Another statistics show that "For developing countries as

> a whole, manufacturing outputs contribution to GDP has barely changed since 1960: it stood at 21.5 per cent in 1960, and increased to just 22.7 per cent in 2000." And still another reveals " by the end of the 1990s, developing countries as a whole accounted for only 10 per cent of total world exports of goods with a high Research and Development, technological complexity and-or scale component (Kiely, 2010, p. 178).

As a result of these statistics, it is not easy to say the disappearance of the difference between first and third world as Hardt and Negri highlighted. The uneven developmental structure of capitalism still is continuing. The neoliberal policies pave the way of domestic discontent in the Western countries. Lots of people suffer from unemployment, poverty, lack of humanitarian living standards and live in the slums or inappropriate peripheral locations alongside the skyscrapers and expensive buildings of metropolitan cities of Paris, New York, Rome etc. On the other hand, the destruction of neoliberal policies is more severe in the Global South or Global Periphery. As Gamble points out that the core countries can implement neoliberal prescriptions comfortably into the peripheral countries (Gamble, 2006, pp. 20-35). For example, the United States while supporting her agriculture, forces Latin America into free trade. Similarly, according to data of the Economist Journal, even the public expenditures of metropolitan states grew rather than decrease. Hence the neoliberal motto of big government is over seems not affect the metropolitan countries. As Boron (2005, p. 78) states: "Despite the neoliberal reforms initiated after the proclaimed new goals of fiscal austerity and public expenditure reduction between 1980 and 1996, public expenditure in the selected countries grew from 43.3 per cent of the GDP to 47.1 per cent, while in countries such as Sweden this figures passes the 50 percent threshold."

Nation-state Sovereignty in the Age of Empire

Hardt and Negri seem to have been influenced by the political concepts of Polybius who is recognized as the first important political thinker of Roman Empire. (Ağaoğulları&Köker, 1998, p. 28). Polybius emphasizes the hybrid character of Roman constitution. Polybius prefers mixed constitution model that is the combination of Monarchy, Aristocracy and Democracy. According to him if the administration merely depends on Monarch it can be deterioriated easily and can be transformed into tyranny. The similar deteriorations result with the transformation from Aristocracy to Oligarchy and from Democracy to Dictatorship of Majority as well. Therefore, mixed constitution model of Polybius constructs balance among these government types. Indeed, in the time when Polybius was living this type of mixed constitution was carrying out in Rome. Consuls, senates and the right of the people were the concretion of the above mentioned government types respectively (Ibid., p. 31).

Hardt and Negri use the same mixed type of structure to explain the sovereignty of Empire. Indeed, they use the term hybrid constitution to differentiate the new imperial constitution from modernist terminology because their new world order model has no Rome. For them the hybrid imperial governmental network, nevertheless, have similarities with the model of Polybius. The USA represents the Monarchy, transnational corporations and nation states represent Aristocracy, and Multitude represents democracy as it was mentioned in this paper (Hardt&Negri, 2000, p. 316).

The concept of empire of the authors that was debated previously seems failed after the US interventions of Iraq and Afghanistan. In this context, Hardt and Negri attempted to reply the critics in their latest books in terms of the particularity of the second Bush regime. Generally, the authors briefly claim that the US as a monarch captured the power of emerging empire temporarily. Therefore, most of the critics focused on this temporary situation that in other words, made a coup d'état to the Empire network. Finally, the coup has finished with the American economic crisis and the replacement of Bush with Obama. Hence, the tendency, the

Empire, which was deviated for a limited period of time, finally returned back. As the authors states:

> The attempt to create a unipolar order centered on the United States was really a coup d'état within the global system, that is, a dramatic subordination of all the "aristocratic" powers of the emerging imperial order, such as the other dominant nation-states and the supranational institutions, in order to elevate the "monarchical" power of the United States (Hardt&Negri, 2019, p. 315).

Another point in this context is that the authors assert the end of the US hegemony. The US hegemony not only militarily but also economically seriously immersed in to the irreversible crisis that leads the world order into the interregnum. What is striking is that the crisis of the US hegemony demonstrates not only death of US hegemonic project but also more importantly the death of unilateralism. Hardt and Negri states "We are living today in a period of transition, an interregnum in which the old imperialism is dead and the new Empire is still emerging" (Hardt&Negri, 2009, 219).

Despite the fact that Hardt and Negri attempted to answer the criticisms in their recent work, nevertheless; they continue insisting on their concept of Empire and imperial sovereignty. Hence, I think that the concept Empire structurally debatable in terms of sovereignty and nation state issues. As a counter argument, for example, Ellen Wood (2003a, pp. 61-83; 2003b) argues that the uneven development of capitalism needs states as non-economic actors of the system. States are the veins of the global capital flow. Capitalism emerged with states and seems to sustain with the states as well.

The retreat of the state from social responsibilities in the neoliberal era is not the retreat of nation-states. Military and security expenditures of the states have been growing with the rise of globalization. Therefore, a new synchronization of state with global capital should be made to comprehend the new trend of the capitalism ,and this synchronization should not equalize or even decrease the nation-state sovereignty under the supra-national institutions and transnational corporations. This synchronization problematic seems one of the main deficits of the empire concept. As Wood highlights:

> The essence of globalization is not the declining capacity but the unique ability of nation-states to organize the world for global capital. This reality, and global capital's inescapable need for territorial states to make possible its natigation ?? of the world economy, is lost in the argument of Empire (Wood, 2003, pp. 61-83).

The role of nation state sovereignty can be seen concerning transnational corporations as well. As Boron (2005, p. 46) emphasizes 96 percent of 200 multinational corporations have their headquarters in only eight countries and 85 percent of their technological developments occurs in these eight most dynamic economies. When transnational corporations get into trouble nation-states reach their help, and simply even transnationalism of transnational corporations seem equivocal.

Briefly, nation-states seem the indispensable form of the globalization and unequal development of capitalism continues far from on the base of a global state. As Wood points out:

> The political form of globalization is not a global state but a global system of multiple states, and the new imperialism takes its specific shape from the complex and contradictory relationship between capital's expansive economic power and the more limited reach of the extra-economic force that sustains it.

Conclusion

Hardt and Negri's concepts of Empire and Multitude have made important contributions to the debates on sovereignty and revolutionary subjectivity in the current social sciences

literature, far beyond traditional conceptions of liberalism and Marxism. Hardt and Negri, who say that sovereignty has reached a new capitalist network logic that transcends nation-states with the concept of empire, argues that the traditional subjectivity of the proletariat has come to an end in their discussion of subjectivity. According to Hardt and Negri, who introduced the concept of the Multitude, in the global age where the immaterial form of domination is the dominant mode of production, Capitalism biopolitically exploits and commodifies life itself. Stating that this biopolitical power is progressive, Hardt and Negri expect the Empire to turn into democratic subjectivity as a result of the interventions of the Multitude. The argument of the political philosophers that imperialism has been overcome has created significant debates. Hardt and Negri's ideas in the context of imperialism and nation-state sovereignty seem to be highly compatible with Liberal theories of International Relations. In this context, I attempted to present the criticisms of Hardt and Negri's thoughts to the reader in this study. Hardt and Negri's theories have received significant criticism after Realist international relations theories have regained their prestige in the last decade. Russia- Ukraine War and the polarization of Russia-Chin against America, Europe and Japan in the international order shows that conflict and incompatibility between capitals have gained importance again today, rather than reconciliation between capitals. However, the transformation of public protests into widespread protests in our age in the context of the Multitude is valuable in the context of the philosophers' thought that the proletariat-centered Orthodox Marxist thought has lost its validity.

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Postcolonıal Novels Through The Lens Of Afrıcanness: Culture Phenomenon[1]

Özge ALTUNLU[2]

Introduction

The cultural multiplicity and differences in cultures have kept the ongoing interest in literary areas as well as various disciplines. The studies related to cultural change feeding off such various disciplines as history, sociology, and anthropology have been carried out thanks to manifold articles and dissertations by this time. On the basis of the point that "research on cultural change has a history dating back to the 1970s" (Veroff, Douvan, & Kulka, 1981, as cited in Varnum & Grossmann, 2017), scholars and theorists have put forward the challenges and process of the cultural change for decades. Witnessing all kinds of components of culture as language, religion, and social norms-values in literary works, provides the fundamental points concerning cultural incompatibility, and/or cultural change. Besides previous examinations and their contributions in this sense, in this study, certain concerns related to cultural change are tried to be identified in each novel. By doing so, it might provide a broad angle for a true understanding of various types and levels of cultural change. The aim of this study is to improve cultural studies by exemplifying cultural issues with one more novel through the lens of cultural change.

Kroeber and Kluckhohn, in their work *Culture: A Critical Review of Concepts and Definitions* (1952), share with the reader over forty pages on the definition and historical background of the concept of 'culture.' And wherefore this concept is a prerequisite for the understanding and comprehension of 'cultural change.' The leading light has been shed on the concept by anthropologists and social scientists over decades. The origin of the concept of culture, which has a long history, is based on the Latin word. As a concept, culture, which was used in the German Language dictionary in 1793, started to be used in many languages as Spanish and English, as well. On the other, for the aim of understanding and perceiving the conditions of an individual having a certain place in society, one needs to know about culture.

Literature has seen cultural issues as an expanding and diversified area. Significantly, postcolonial British novels have led to particularising instances of cultural change. In this qualitative study, we consider the relationship between the fictitious world and the culture, drawing on cultural change as a literary analysis. Nations and territories are two significant items in this context. We use seven novels – *Things Fall Apart, No Longer At Ease, Arrow of God, Petals of Blood, Life and Times of Michael K, Desertion,* and *Homegoing* – as exploratory studies and centre on the cultural change in each case. This convergence of fictional reflection of the cultural change provides the readers to engage with the cultural experience of the characters and their surroundings in the aforementioned novels.

[1] Preliminary findings of this study have already been presented at Selcuk 8th International Conference on Social Sciences on May 20, 2023. This study is an extension of that paper.

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Postcolonial Literature: An Overview

Postcolonial literature appeared as a kind of explosion of new writing in English (Ashcroft, Griffiths, & Tiffin, 2007). Following the 1970s, a significant change should be mentioned from the centre to the periphery, namely the Eurocentric perspective to the perspective of once/still colonised, dominated, and manipulated. It is certainly the case that "the literatures of African countries, Australia, Bangladesh, Canada, Caribbean countries, India, Malaysia, Malta, New Zealand, Pakistan, Singapore, South Pacific Island countries, and Sri Lanka are all post-colonial literatures" (Ashcroft & Tiffin, 2004, p. 2). There is an irrefutable fact that no writer acts independently of the social and cultural life of the society in which he is in the process of writing. The author is influenced by this life and reflects this influence on the works s/he produces. The postcolonial authors carry traces of racism, slavery, colonisation, humiliation, dehumanisation, and discrimination in their works. It is because, just like other people, writers are influenced by the events that take place around them. That is why a literary work presents common sections from many aspects of life.

The trilogy – *Things Fall Apart*, *No Longer at Ease*, *Arrow of God* – of Chinua Achebe (1930-2013) as the father of modern African literature might be considered a significant contribution to a true understanding of the African culture. In his first novel, *Things Fall Apart* (1995), he introduces the Africans' national, traditional, and social values thanks to the protagonist Okonkwo. Additionally, Ghanaian American novelist of *Homegoing* (2016) Yaa Gyasi (born in 1989) is also representative of African culture by providing broad angles from precolonial, colonial, and post-colonial periods in Africa and America. The writer pens the novel with fourteen characters to show the African's life which is ornamented with cultural and social details. As understood from the instances in the novels, it is a little difficult to think of literature independent of social life, a social life independent of literature at this point. In this context, literature is largely used to read and witness the social and cultural aspects of society.

A literary work is evaluated in the light of the period in which it was produced. Just as when reading *Beowulf*, one tries to perceive it from the perspective of Old English, when reading a contemporary novel, it is necessary to evaluate it on the contemporary ground where the current period is reflected. For example, Kenyan writer Ngũgĩ wa Thiong'o (born in 1938), in his novel *Petals of Blood* (1991), shows the transformation of the unwary village to the New Ilmorog town to infer the current cultural change among the members of the Americans. It shows how the white effectively penetrates almost every item of the African culture. They put the traces of their culture even in the environment with its buildings and streets. Relevant to the aforementioned cases, it is the cultural change of inanimate things apart from animate ones. That is cultural exploitation because it does not go beyond the benefits of the white in the novel. Therefore, importantly, the main characters of the novel search for their provenance and hope to find belongingness to Africanism. In summary, a literary work is a guide that sheds light on the culture and civilisation of the period in which it was written. That is why they are the authors who reveal the text by feeding on these two facts themselves.

Is the Cultural Change Ineluctable for the Africans Under Eurocentric Hegemony?

The existence of culture has been mentioned since the existence of humanity. A cultural entity continues to develop over time, changing and adding something to or taking something from another culture. Technological developments, the rapid spread of knowledge, migration and education can be cited as factors in the formation and development of this entire process. The concept of culture, which has a Latin origin, is explained in the Online Etymology Dictionary as follows: "from Latin cultura 'a cultivating, agriculture,' figuratively 'care, culture, an honoring,' from past participle stem of colere 'to tend, guard; to till cultivate" (2001). The definition of the concept might not be placed on a fixed ground. It is because both the concept of culture is dynamic and the scope of the concept is widespread. On Merriam

Webster Online Dictionary, the concept of culture is used in return: "the customary beliefs, social forms, and material traits of a racial, religious, or social group, also: the characteristic features of everyday existence (such as diversions or a way of life) shared by people in a place or time" (1828). As is known, there are many definitions and evaluations related to the concept. For this reason, it is worth giving place to Williams' definition, which gives the most general and most summary one to the question of 'What is culture?'. In short, culture is "a whole way of life, material, intellectual and spiritual" (1959, p. 14). Although there is a proliferation in the definition of the concept, the definition by Williams above is generally accepted.

Culture can be considered a product of all kinds of interactions in a society. Human interaction with other people and the environment also gives birth to civilisation. The individual, in particular, and society, in general, are shaped by these two phenomena: culture and civilisation. On the other, the concepts of culture and civilisation are usually concerned as synonymous words that can be used interchangeably despite being both similar to and different from each other. One very widespread and important piece of information is that there are many tangible and intangible cultural values. Societies have such intangible-cultural values as beliefs, languages and traditions, as well as such tangible-cultural values as objects and works of art that society produces and consumes at the same time. If the transmission of culture among the generations is inevitable, another thing not being ignored is the truth that there should be mentioned multiple kinds of transmission of culture. Language is one of the aforementioned materials. That is why, language is a quite significant tool for the formation and spread of culture.

When the usage of the language as a concept is taken into account, two significant contributors to the cultural and postcolonial studies come to the minds: Chinua Achebe and Ngũgĩ wa Thiong'o. The case where Achebe and Thiong'o differ in the choice of language is the best known. Whilst Thiong'o starts to write in his native language Gikuyu although he writes in English at first, Achebe decides to use the coloniser-white man's language in his conveyance of thought and feeling in order that he reaches a huge number of people in his works. Thiong'o remarks that language is "a spiritual subjugation" (1981, p. 9). It is because language is a pivotal control mechanism over the cultural values of black African people bringing the direction of minds and changing the culture. It might be considered as a sort of weapon against Africanism. So much so that language is influenced by culture; culture is influenced by language, as well, and this cycle always maintains its vitality.

To put the issue bluntly, a sender-receiver-message trilogy is needed for communication to take place. This communication is incomplete and imperfect for black African people. Neutered and imperfect communication is the most striking method used by white against black to undermine their Africanness and manipulate them more easily. To exemplify, In *Homegoing*, Tim Tom's daughter Pinky does not speak but she remarks on her traumas and catastrophes with her body's reaction: a hiccup (Gyasi, 2016). It has been observed for centuries that a monologue-style communication, in which only the white man's voice is heard, is imposed as a direction and dictation on blacks to convert the natives' culture. The white language is a means of humiliation and discrimination against the black person who is the addressee of one-way communication. Understanding the message requires either speaking a common language or using nonverbal communication tools that can give common messages, such as body language. However, the opposite state is the case with black African people. They are allowed neither to use their language nor to interact with their race. This also leads to the removal of black African people from themselves and their culture. Considering this, the influence of language on culture has been underlined insistently in postcolonial British novels. It reminds us of the importance of the determinant of language in the construction of a new culture or the continuation of a substantial culture in a community.

The white exploitation of black African people and the transportation of black African people to the white homeland for the slave trade brought about the interaction of both cultures. The components of cultural interaction have come together with black African people and white cultures; therefore, such colonising coexistence has provided the interaction of cultures with each other. Although the dominant influencing side in this interaction is white culture, the fact that white is also influenced by black African people cannot be ignored. Black African people confront cultural incompatibility in the face of contrasting values belonging to whites and blacks. Taken together incompatibility and difference, black African people are experiencing a kind of shock in a cultural sense. The addressee of the most severe of this shock is the case of black African people who were forcibly brought to America as slaves. Purportedly, the first generation was more successful in protecting Africanism by way of a kind of resistance against cultural exploitation and deracination. On the one hand, the first generation of colonialism, which encountered the colonial powers in Africa, and the first generation of the slave trade, which was taken to America as a slave, on the other, constantly longed for Africa because they were cut off from their own culture. This feeling of longing is kept alive by a perpetual act of remembering. These remembered values are also of vital importance for the permanence and continuation of cultural values. Ma Aku, in *Homegoing*, will be sufficiently aware of this importance that she is characterised as a sort of mediator. She usually reminds the memoirs of Asante slaves and American slaves. Alternatively, or perhaps in addition, she always shares tales and traditional dynamics from Asanteland and tries to keep them in the Twi language (Gyasi, 2016). From a purely literary standpoint, the first generation might be evaluated as hypersensitive to preserving Africanism among generations. Not only the generations of slavery in America, but also the generations of exploitation in Africa have learned the cultural values that have been corrupted and uprooted by hearing from the first generations like fairy tales, on the one hand, and they have been systematically exposed to new cultural values, on the other. Subsequent generations experience a cultural change more visibly, as they strive to live and maintain their self-values to the extent described by the first generations. However, when it comes to the protection and maintenance of Africanism, the latter might be received to be obscure and weaker.

Arrow of God (Achebe, 1989) is a novel in which the readers witness rich details concerning African culture and the relationship among the people of the nation by reflecting Igbo discourse with its poems, proverbs, songs, and tales. In addition to language, another touchstone in the formation and effect upon the culture is the belief system. The impact of belief systems on culture is highlighted in *Homegoing* by Yaa Gyasi. To exemplify, In *Homegoing*, James Collins satires the natives' beliefs on account of being far away from the white religion and he humiliates Vadoo and black magic which are the great parts of African culture. What is more, the presence of missionaries in *Things Fall Apart* (Achebe, 1995) might be interpreted as the settlement of Christianity and the dismantlement of the pagan religion of the villagers; therefore, it reminds the cultural change as a result of religious erosion by the white man. The presence of missionary Mr Brown and Reverend James' arrival after the death of the previous missionary, in *Homegoing*, underscore the role of religious phenomenon in the light of shaping and converting the Africans to whiteness in every sense of culture. Social values should be verbalised in this context. Social values, which give the individual and society the standards of such significant concepts as good-bad and right-wrong, are also some of the basic points of shaping culture. *No Longer at Ease* (Achebe, 1994) might be considered as the reflection of African social values in terms of good-evil and moral-immoral binary oppositions. For example, Obi Okonkwo's rejection of bribes at the very beginning of the novel as a sign of moral man turns upside down through the end of the novel. Moreover, his choice of partly Igbo and partly English while making a speech for his villagers might mirror the state that a black African person is inclined to take part on the side of white by being far away from Africanism at the same time.

Culture, as the main determining factor in the formation of an individual and society, differs from society to society and from nation to nation. Frantz Fanon points out the core of differences in South Africa with his explanation of the cultural togetherness: "What is South Africa? A boiler into which thirteen million blacks are clubbed and penned in by two and a half million whites" (1952, p. 64). It might be inferred from the citation that the aggregation of these differences causes some conflicts. As a corollary of these conflicts, the individual might evaluate cultural change as a solution. Given this, a change imposed on a person or preferred by a person produces a difference in the existing one, and what emerges from this difference is a state of not being the same as before the change. The change that a person experiences in one way or another also brings alienation. Alienation comes to the forefront mostly at the cultural level in negro identity and postcolonial British novels provide tangible evidence of this level. A Tanzanian novelist Abdulrazak Gurnah (born in 1948), shares the instances of cultural change in his novel *Desertion* (2005). He reflects Rashid's inner world which is full of a crisis of belongingness because of being treated as alien as a result of the cultural difference. Drawing on the alienation and multiplicity of cultures, Rashid decides to behave like an Italian because every culture except white culture will be otherised and humiliated by the white. Hence he travels from one culture to another with the hope of finding a certain place in the white culture. Unable to alleviate such challenges, the alienated person experiences a crisis of belongingness in an individual, social, spatial and cultural sense. The individual who is trapped in questions about belongingness is in the grip of an individual and social crisis due to the influence of reasons such as fear of exclusion and humiliation.

From the moment an individual is born, s/he is raised first in a cultural environment that includes her/his family and then his environment. In this environment, the individual is both the subject and the object of cultural transfers from birth to death. Due to the influence of social events and/or phenomena, an individual might move away from the existing cultural environment, be exposed to new cultural values, or tend to them. To demonstrate, In *Petals of Blood* (Thiong'o, 1991), African characters rename themselves in accordance with such new English names as Murira (Abdulla), Joe in football matches (Chui), and priest Jernod Brown (Kamau). It has also been observed that some black African people who are exposed to cultural differences prefer to alienate themselves from culture or their Africanism, in general, to get rid of or stay away from the otherisation and alienation brought about by differences. Thus, a native becomes alienated both from her/himself and/or her/his race. Now, in this form, cultural change is inevitable for the individual.

A black African person might want to get out of the world of negative adjectives that the white man has set up for them, and might want to move to the white world – the centre of all affirmations. Hence s/he first moves away from her/his cultural values. Now, s/he should despise her/his own culture and admire all the values of the West, just like the white man does. In this context, black-white and old-new conflicts are frequently encountered in postcolonial British novels. With the arrival of the white man in the colonies, the cultural values of the Africans disappear over time. As the interaction of Africans brought to America by the slave trade with white culture increases the natives' interaction with his/her own culture decreases at that rate. This also might make some of the natives feel the cultural change. For the black identity, which is the humiliation of the world in which white is glorified, all things beyond white have been destroyed. Hence there must be believing in the white religion, speaking the white language, dressing like white and acting like white. The fact that Oduche, in *Arrow of God*, knows better the white men's religion and speaks well their language does not work in essence (Achebe, 1989). It is not efficient to cope with the humiliation and discrimination of the white; however, it is efficient to trivialise Africanism. In short, the fact that an African black person shows him/herself as white is evidence that can be interpreted as the fading of Africanism and the clarification of whiteness.

A black African person might think that s/he can exist in a white world as s/he moves away from Africanism and becomes so white. However, the moment s/he realises that the white will not take her/him among them despite everything, s/he will have remembered the existence of Africanism at least a little, so s/he wants to return to her/his origin and goes on a quest to remember her/his forgotten roots again. This quest is essential for the resurrection of the African culture. However, this time, s/he will realise that there is no essence left to return to. It is because the black African person who is a stranger to the new place is a stranger to her/his roots, as well. S/he will no longer be able to literally belong to Africanism or whiteness. The cultural change that has led to an identity crisis will offer nothing but a grey ambivalence in culture – a mixture of black and white – for the black African person.

For a black African person who wants to adopt the white culture, it will not be enough for him to give up being a part of the culture he grew up in. In the *Life and Times of Michael K* (1983), J. M. Coetzee (born in 1940), the writer of South African literature, maps out the otherisation of Michael K forced and portrayed by the white just because of being different from the white ideals and having a different culture. Michael K, who is an addressee of the separative gaze of people, also introduces himself as the deficit, indefinite, and dark in the novel. It should also humiliate Africanism by belittling it, just as the colonialist white does. Although belittling and humiliating those of the native race does not make complete whitening possible, it brings the truth to attention about the black African person starting whitening. It is because this is an indication that s/he is starting to change his thinking now. Africanism is such a ground that what is encountered is unity vs. separation is their binary opposition. In this sense, African culture might be evaluated as the fusion of a nation that is both on the side of and against Africanism in postcolonial British novels.

Conclusion

This study is a kind of platform for the examination of the cultural change to make clearer and more comprehensible thanks to the instances from seven novels concerning postcolonial British novels titled *Things Fall Apart*, *No Longer At Ease*, *Arrow of God*, *Petals of Blood*, *Life and Times of Michael K*, *Desertion*, and *Homegoing*.

In the first part of the study, a general overview with the title of postcolonial literature is tried to be provided. Postcolonial literature and its scope are introduced and explained briefly with several examples. The next part of the study is about cultural change and its reflection on the aforementioned seven novels. Its etymology is tried to be shared and significant theorists like Achebe and Thiong'o are mentioned by underscoring the pivotal points in relation to the cultural change. Thanks to manifold novels that included rich details with cultural issues, we found that culture and cultural change have great significance to know and understanding an individual and his/her surrounding in a specific society. In addition to what we tried to contribute in this study, mentioned novels might be analysed from many perspectives through the lens of culture and cultural change as the effects of cultural change on the individual's psychology, the possibility of cultural change among men and women.

Coming to the corollary of the study, it should be noted the following. Culture is an instrument of life-long learning, which is passed on to new generations over the years. Culture might be considered on this ground as a dynamic phenomenon which both adds something to itself and loses something from itself in the process of transmission. That is the reflection of the cultural change in which whilst someone is the subject, another is the object.

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Internet Addiction and Work Stress

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Introduction

The development of technology has led people to experience changes and transformations in the various conditions of life, work, family, and social relations in their life adventure. Information and communication technologies are at the forefront of these technologies. The conveniences that information and communication technologies bring to human life in many ways are an undeniable reality. In addition to the conveniences, man, who is a social being, also has a dark side that causes him to experience psychological problems due to some limitations in his social life. This dark side manifests itself in addiction. This dark side effects human health both psychologically and physiologically (Czerwinski et al., 2000; Duke & Montag, 2017; Young et al., 1999; Young et al., 2004; Young et al., 1998). Many reasons are cited that drive people into Internet addiction. One of these reasons is coping; the internet is often used by internet addicts as a way to put off dealing with issues they don't want to deal with. Problems are momentarily relieved, diverted, and reduced via the Internet. However, he becomes more reliant as a result. Addiction can cause declines on the psychological, social, and professional levels as it progresses. For instance, research demonstrates that general internet and smartphone addiction can cause stress, reduced psychosocial functioning, lack of interest, and social detachment (Zhao, 2023; Blackwell et al., 2017, Carbonell & Panova, 2017).

Addiction

According to Turkish Language Society (TDK), the root of the word addiction in Turkish derives from the word bond. In English, it derives from the verb addictus and a noun of Latin origin, addicere. It means the giving up of freedom and submission (Joyce McDougall, 1991). The definition of addiction differs depending on many different views and aspects. Dependence: It is a chronic brain disease that affects the person psychologically, socially and physically, and despite these effects, people continue to use it and can progress with relapses (American Psychiatric Association DSM-V, 2013). Early theories of addiction assumed that a person initially consumes a substance because of its ability to produce a pleasurable effect (i.e., a reward) and that addiction develops as a function of this repeated reward seeking (Wise & Bozarth).

The concept of addiction; Substance and non-substance addictions are divided into physical and behavioral addictions. Physical dependence, inability to resist a physical craving for chemicals such as cannabis, cocaine, cigarettes, alcohol. Behavioral addiction, on the other hand, can be defined as a situation that causes stress, discomfort and distress in the event that the individual enjoys the activity to which he or she is addicted. Technological addictions in the subcategory of behavioral addictions, on the other hand, have been examined in the

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literature with many different names and different types of addiction such as internet addiction, smartphone addiction and game addiction, screen addiction, social media addiction (Daysal et al., 2020).

In most cases, addiction refers to the abuse of psychoactive substances that affect neuronal function by altering the chemical balance in the brain (Eden, 2014). Use of these addictive substances can alter behavior, consciousness, and mood. Non-drug addictions, including sex, gambling, and other behaviors, are also defined as behavioral addictions. The concept of overindulging in highly palatable foods is even discussed as an addiction (DiLeone et al., 2012).

Behavioral addiction is most evident in the fact that, although the person knows that the behavior to which he is addicted is harmful to himself and to others, he cannot resist the attraction of the behavior. The constant repetition of the addictive behavior disrupts the flow of the individual's life. From this point of view, drug use has the same consequences as addictions such as alcohol (Potenza et al., 2010). Behavioral disorders and substance abuse share similar psychological abnormalities. These abnormalities, such as work stress, depression, and anxiety, negatively impact individuals' lives (Chen et al., 2014).

Behavioral and substance abuse is more common in individuals in the early stages (adolescence and young adulthood) than in adults. Feelings of tension and arousal generally occur prior to performing the addictive act, while feelings of immediate pleasure, satisfaction, or relaxation occur after performing the addictive behavior (Chambers & Potenza, 2003). As with substance dependence, continuity of behavior leads to financial and family problems. To finance the substance and behavioral addiction, they may commit illegal acts such as writing blank checks, stealing, or embezzling (Ledgerwood et al., 2007).

Stress

Although the concept of stress is intuitively understood today, a precise definition is difficult to generalize. Stress is our body's reaction to all kinds of disappointments and threats that fill our modern lives (Selye, 1976). Stress, according to Cüceloğlu (1994), is a person's attempt to flourish beyond what is possible given human nature. This is because of aspects of the physical and social environment that are incompatible (Cüceloğlu 1994)

Selye's first impression of the concept of stress was that stress is a negative, negative undesired state. But later he introduced the concept of positive stress (eustress). Selye expressed it as a type of stress that motivates and satisfies individuals during actions such as singing or giving a speech in front of a crowd. Selye stated that the body gives similar specific responses in both stress situations (Selye, 1956). Selye noted that the body exhibits a three-stage response, the "general adaptation syndrome," depending on the level of stress. Selye (1956) referred to the organism's response to stress as the "general adaptation syndrome." In the first phase, physical symptoms are observed that are due to the stress load and hormonal changes in the biological structure of the individual (e.g., increased blood sugar levels, muscle tension, increased respiration, etc.). In the second phase, defense mechanisms come into play and try to defend against the possible situation. In the third phase, attempts are made to repair possible conditions and return to the initial state. If the individual manages to cope with the possible stressful situation, the signs caused by the stress disappear (Selye, 1956).

There are debates about whether stress is determined by objective life events or by subjective evaluations of these events. Lazarus states that stress is caused by environmental interaction as a result of cognitive evaluations. The environment forces or exceeds human resources. In this case, the well-being of the person is endangered, and stress occurs. In this process, it is said that mental and physical resources should be evaluated and stress response factors that define complex patterns in the mind and body should be taken into consideration in

order to cope with the stressful situation by passing a cognitive filter about the existence of an internal and external factor that caused the emergence of the process, whether this factor is dangerous or harmful to human beings (Lazarus, 1993). Stress is so widespread that it has become a way of life. Some stressful situations are normal and, in some cases, even beneficial for the individual. For example, it can motivate us to complete a task on time. However, when stress increases in intensity or lasts too long, it can affect our health, mood, relationships, and quality of life (Lin et al., 2016).

A number of clinical studies and surveys have provided ample evidence that stress triggers addiction and increases the risk of relapse (Sinha, 2007). In addition, psychological research has long supported the need for stress management in recovery from behavioral addiction (Monti, 2002). Given studies showing stress as a cause of some psychological problems, there is evidence that stress causes some neurochemical changes in the brain (e.g., decreased activity of serotonergic neurons) in mood and depressive disorders (Delbende et al., 1992). There is strong evidence that the intensity of the stressor and its controllability are important factors influencing the effects of stress on individuals. For instance, it has been proposed that the incapacity to manage the stressor has a role in the emergence of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). This raises questions about the controllability of stressors, personal responses, and the impact of stress on cognitive and behavioral performance. However, some questions about the nature of these effects have been answered. First, there is promising evidence about what level of stress can improve cognitive function. For example, there is evidence that moderately severe stress improves an individual's working memory performance (Hiroto et al., 1975). In the world of work, individuals are exposed to stress in their daily life cycle. Workplace stress is the situation an individual experiences when the demands of the workplace exceed his or her capabilities. In the work environment, individuals are exposed to many stressors. The complexity of work, work tasks and requirements, organizational culture, social structure in the workplace, lack of job descriptions and training, physical safety and comfort in the work environment, and lack of economic satisfaction cause individuals to experience stress (Lepore, 1997).

Technostress

Technostress is commonly described as a modern adjustment disorder that affects mental health. It may manifest as an inability to cope with information and communication Technologies (ICT) or over identification with computer technology (Ayyagari et al., 2011). Technostress occurs when an individual negatively evaluates their experience of performing tasks using information and communication technologies at work and differs from general studies of work stress (Moore, 2000). Technostress, according to Salanova et al. (2013), is a harmful psychological state associated with current or impending technology use. Two phenomena are included in this broad concept: Technology addiction and compulsion (Salanova et al. 2013)

Studies on compulsive use and work addiction associated with excessive time consumption form the basis for studies on techno-addiction. When ICTs are not used, anxiety is accompanied by an irrepressible "must do" pressure. Four interrelated concepts-fear, exhaustion, skepticism, and inadequacy-contribute to reinforcing the techno compulsion and making it snowball. Users view technology with a detached and apathetic attitude because they are tired or frustrated.

Researchers have argued that technology is not the culprit at this point; computers and technological innovations are a tool for workers to achieve results, and their stress appears to be a natural response. They explained that it is not the technology but the management of change that is the prerequisite for coping with technostress (Ahmad et al., 2009). It is true that technostress is a problem. However, reducing it only to a behavioral disorder or clinical

condition continues to ignore the underlying technological causes and controls. For this reason, technostress can be expressed as a person's inability to adapt to a new pattern device, technology, or computer system (Davis-Milis, 1998:10).

Internet and Internet Addiction

Current literature on Internet addiction and its components (social media, gaming, etc.) examines how Internet addiction as a behavioral addiction can impact a variety of areas, both professionally and personally. Studies on how Internet addiction affects business and whether it is a source of stress in the workplace; There is ample evidence that individuals cause stress and stressful situations in both their personal lives and in the workplace. This situation is referred to in the literature as a behavioral disorder that is not only a psychological factor for the individual, but also causes a deterioration in physiological health (Beard, 2002; Czerwinski et al., 2000; Duke & Montag, 2017; Young et al., 1999; Young et al., 2004; Young et al., 1998).

With the incredible development of technology in our recent history, it has taken its place in people's lives. Information and communication technologies and the Internet are perhaps the most important of these technologies. After the Internet was invented as a communication technology for military purposes, it began to enter the service of all humanity and spanned the whole world like a spider web. (According to the Digital 2022: Global Outlook Report, mobile phone users reach 67.1% of the world's population at 5.31 billion in early 2022, while global internet users reach 4.95 billion in early 2022, representing 62.5% of the world's population. With 4.71 billion social media users, it also accounts for 59.3 % of the world's population.). This technology, which is not limited to communication, has gained incredible appeal by incorporating many attractive aspects such as commerce, shopping, sex and entertainment.

As a behavioral addiction, Goldberg (1996) introduced the term "Internet addiction" into the literature (Goldberg, 1996). Alternative terms such as "technology addiction," "Internet addiction," "compulsive Internet use," "smartphone addiction," "pathological Internet use," and "problematic Internet use" are also frequently used in the literature. (Duke & Montag, 2017; Liu & Potenza, 2007). The internet is cited as the main reason for addiction to smart device technologies. Without internet access, device-based information and communication technology applications and systems (for example, online games, social media, etc.) become worthless (Duke & Montag, 2017). As people become more dependent on this medium to satisfy their information and entertainment needs (e.g. online gambling, social media, sexuality), the problem of impulse control contributes to an increase in "pathological internet use" (PIU) or "internet addiction" (Young et al., 1998).

Internet addiction has been researched for over 20 years, and much progress has been made in understanding addiction. Although there is no consensus on the basic outcomes for the symptoms of Internet addiction, individuals experience withdrawal symptoms when they do not have access to the Internet: Sleep disturbances, skipping meals, conflicts with family members, loss of job or career. In the physiological direction, research findings include problems such as pain and numbness in the wrists, dryness in the eyes, redness, burning, pain in the back and neck, significant weight gain or weight loss (Beard, 2002; Griffiths & Stress, 2002; Kardefelt, 2014; Mustafa et al., 2020; Potenza et al., 2010; Turel et al., 2008).

The negative effects of internet addiction on individuals have been classified by Sally (2006) into three different categories, namely behavioral, physical and psychological, and social. Behavioral effects; the continuous increase of time spent on the internet and the fact that the internet is seen as an escape from other problems and the use of the internet is hidden from the social environment for a long time. Physical and psychological complaints; In addition to withdrawal syndrome, cardiovascular stress, increased blood pressure, memory difficulties, headaches, visual disturbances, attention deficits, abdominal and muscle pain, lethargy, weakness, insomnia, panic, irritability, and anger. Social influences; low productivity as a result

of giving up work or leisure activities due to internet use, increased tension and competition at work (Sally, 2006).

As an explanation for the uncontrolled and harmful use of Internet addiction, it has been equated with gambling addiction and defined as a control disorder due to the similarity of many of its consequences. The distinction between normal Internet use and addiction has been established by researchers with specific diagnoses and criteria. In addition, online sexuality, internet gambling, chat rooms, online games, and instant messaging have been researched as subtypes of internet addiction (Young, 2009).

Young 1998, highlighting the concept of Internet addiction at the end of the century, stated that Internet addiction is comparable to labor pains in pregnant women, and pointed out Internet addiction and expressed that concern about this problem is increasing (Young et al., 2004). Internet addiction is a public health problem associated with obsessive-compulsive disorder (constant movements or rituals to get rid of obsessive thoughts). Like drug addiction and similar addictions, Internet addiction affects health, but it also affects behavior and social relationships, leading to psychological disorders in those who suffer from it (Lozano-Blasco et al., 2022). The main symptoms of internet addiction in individuals; also shows symptoms such as excessive alcohol consumption, attention deficit and hyperactivity, depression and anxiety (Ho et al., 2014).

Various studies have linked internet addiction with depressive symptoms and social withdrawal. In particular, mood, anxiety, impulse control and substance use disorders are common psychiatric comorbidities (also known as comorbidity, co-morbidity or co-morbidity, one or more disorders or diseases in medicine that occur simultaneously with the underlying disease or condition) (Shaw & Black, 2008).

Under the influence of some psychological factors, individuals stay online longer and are more prone to addiction. Then, obsessive thoughts about online materials occur, and he starts to consider the Internet as a friend, which leads him to start his problematic behavior along with addiction. (Yellowlees & Marks, 2007).

In a number of studies, the problem of impulse has been linked to Internet addiction (a disorder in which the person is unable to control their emotions as they talk about harming themselves and those around them). These individuals also enjoy the behaviors they engage in. Individuals with impulse problems are often unable to control harmful impulses such as problematic sex drive, gambling, arson, (Beard et al., 2001; Griffiths, 2000; Yellowlees & Marks, 2007; Young, 2009).

According to (Young et al., 1999), Internet addiction is a broad term that encompasses many behavioral problems, and he has divided addiction into five subcategories.

1-Cybersexual addiction: it usually occurs in individuals who view, download, and trade pornographic images online.

2-Cyber relationship addiction: it occurs in individuals who are overly involved in online relationships or commit virtual adultery. Online relationships become more important than real relationships, which can lead to marital incompatibility and family instability.

3-Network constraints: Online gambling involves a variety of activities, such as stock trading or shopping. It can have a detrimental effect on personal and professional performance and lead to large financial losses.

4-Information overload: this is an addictive behavior involving constant web surfing and database searching. Sufferers spend a disproportionate amount of time searching, gathering, and organizing information.

5-Computer addiction: The condition of playing application software (e.g., games, etc.) on the computer at the cost of severely interfering with work performance or family obligations (Young et al., 1999).

The Internet is cited as the main reason for addiction to some smart device technologies, and it is discussed that smart device technologies become worthless without Internet access (Duke & Montag, 2017).

Technology addiction or Internet addiction exhibits symptoms of behavioral addiction. These symptoms are grouped under six headings (Brown, 1997),

1.Clarity: it dominates a person's intellectual and behavioral actions.

2.Relaxation: performing the addictive behavior provides a sense of excitement or relaxation.

3. Tolerance; the activity must be performed to a greater extent to achieve a positive mood.

4. Withdrawal; not performing the addictive behavior results in negative feeling states.

5. Repetition and recovery; the attempt to let go of the addictive behavior fails.

6. Conflict; conflicts occur at work, in the family, and in social relationships.

Literature on Internet Addiction

Internet addiction has been studied using many variables such as age, gender, socioeconomic status, family structure, education, and mental structure, and many different results have been obtained (Ha et al., 2007; Hur, 2006; Pace et al., 2014). In the studies conducted, significant results were obtained for Internet addiction at an early age depending on age. Higher scores for Internet addiction were found in younger age groups (Bakken et al., 2009; Hur, 2006; Kaltiala-Heino et al., 2004; Pace et al., 2014) linked the findings that the internet negatively changes individuals' lives to temperament and family emotional involvement, due to lack of control and perceptions low family emotional involvement. They concluded that when emotional ties in the family are strong, internet addiction decreases, while weak emotional ties increase addiction. In studies of internet addiction by gender, men had higher scores and meaningless outcomes than women (Khan et al., 2017). There is also evidence that men are particularly prone to overuse of games and other demanding websites (Morahan-Martin & Schumacher, 2000).

Lonely individuals studying in subject areas where internet use is compulsory reported spending more time online, seeking more emotional support and personal connections to use the internet, and reported more satisfying online friendships. They also indicated that internet use isolates individuals from the real world, robbing them of their sense of belonging and connection to the real world, and that they spend their time online investing in artificial and weak online relationships, often at the expense of real-life relationships. In other words, it refers to a vicious circle in which it isolates internet users and lonely individuals increase internet use (Morahan-Martin & Schumacher, 2003)

Stanton's study, which examined Internet addiction in relation to gender, age or a number of important work environment variables, concluded that there was no strong association between frequent Internet use in the workplace and the types of pathology attributed to Internet addicts. Even if there is a link, it may be irrelevant and potentially counterproductive for employees who closely identify with the company's values and whose career goals are aligned with the company's goals, she noted. However, it is possible that employees who lack organizational commitment may have fewer social relationships with their colleagues and supervisors, may be dissatisfied with their work, and therefore reduce organizational

effectiveness by perhaps not contributing to the productivity of their organization (Stanton, 2002).

According to Miller's Law, the maximum amount of information that the human brain can remember in a short time is seven (Meier, 1963). Given this limitation, people in the digital age suffer from what Wurman calls "information anxiety." Wurman points out that typical symptoms of information overload include mental and emotional fatigue, as well as feelings of stress, anxiety, and helplessness (Richard, 2001). Stress in the workplace is an important issue that must be overcome in order to make progress. With each passing day, challenges and changes increase for people in many different areas. Due to these changes, the number of diseases is increasing, new problems are emerging, so we are dealing with work stress, which is called the "disease of the century". As a measure to minimize stress, delegating tasks, sharing the load with colleagues, taking time off with family and loved ones, and reducing overtime are among the top strategies to manage stress (Panigrahi, 2016).

Studies that have examined job satisfaction and internet use in the workplace have found varying results depending on the perceived sense of fairness in the workplace (Garrett & Danziger, 2008). However, when workers perceive some kind of injustice, such as perceptions of overwork and low wages, they believe that the way to compensate for this is to use the Internet (Lim et al., 2002). Chen et al. (2008); concluded that people who feel they have no control over a situation at work may drift into internet addiction (Chen et al. 2008). Regarding the use of technology at work, workers spent at least one hour in a working day on nonwork-related activities, especially using the internet for personal reasons (Vitak et al., 2011). The use of online social networks for personal purposes during working hours has been found to have a negative impact on work performance (Andreassen et al., 2014). Chen et al. (2014) found that high external locus of control and the belief that one has no control over a situation is a positive predictor of internet addiction and thus of internet abuse in the workplace. In the workplace, internet use that has nothing to do with work, an unconscious decision against internal (stress or anxiety) or external (games, gambling) stimuli can trigger internet addiction (Chen et al.,2014)

Social media and similar Internet applications, together with its hedonic appeal, the ability to connect with friends and family, and the use of systems in both professional and personal settings, are influencing workers' concentration in the workplace. A typical worker spends about 28% of his or her day interrupting work at least six to eight times a day (Spira & Feintuch, 2005). Studies have shown that workers interrupt about 40% of their work time instead of focusing on their tasks. When they return to the main task from the interruption, it can take up to 25 minutes to return to the original cognitive state (Czerwinski et al., 2000).

Internet Addiction and Work Stress

Majid et al. (2020), collected data from 378 healthcare professionals in a study of nurses to determine the impact of internet addiction on distraction and stress factors. According to the research findings, social networking addiction was found to cause envy, social anxiety, and stress among nurses and further increased distraction at work (Majid et al. 2020).

Van Deursen et al. (2015), conducted a study to examine the role of habitual and addictive smartphone use and emotional intelligence, social stress, self-regulation, gender, and age. As part of the research, an online survey was conducted with 386 participants. According to the research results, it was found that there was a strong correlation between process-related smartphone use and both developing smartphone behavior and addictive smartphone behavior. In addition, no effect of emotional intelligence was found on habitual or addictive smartphone behavior; a positive effect was found between social stress and addictive smartphone behavior (Van Deursen et al. 2015).

Masood et al. (2020), conducted a study to determine the possible negative effects of social media websites, which are becoming increasingly popular among college students, on college students. The purpose of the study was to determine how excessive social media use affects students' cognitive distraction and ultimately academic performance, according to the procedural stress and stressor constraint models. The study was conducted on 505 graduate and undergraduate students with heavy social media use. According to the research findings, heavy use of social media websites was found to cause cognitive distraction in college students, thus affecting academic performance (Masood et al. 2020).

Lavoie and Pychyl (2001), designed a study to investigate the extent to which time spent on the Internet is related to self-reports of procrastination behavior. According to this study, an online data collection method was chosen with a sample group of 308 participants from different regions of North America. In general, the data collected were in the form of a questionnaire that included demographic data, attitudes toward the Internet, time spent online (at home, work, and school), procrastination, and measures of positive and negative emotions. From the research results, 50.7% of participants frequently procrastinated while using the Internet in their daily work, and participants spent 47% of their online time lingering. A positive relationship was found between procrastinating on the Internet, perceiving the Internet as entertainment, and relieving stress as a tool (Lavoie & Pychyl, 2005).

In their study of 1002 adolescents, Akar (2017) looked at the motives of internet use and discovered that they primarily utilize it for socializing and information gathering. Interpersonal issues, stress, neurotic personality traits, masculinity, high socioeconomic status, length of internet use, and worse academic achievement were all found to be positively correlated with internet addiction (Akar, 2017).

In their study, Tarafdar et al. (2020), examined the conditions under which excessive social media use causes stressors, as well as the relationship between the same social media use and addiction. The study also attempts to explain the stressors caused by social media use by combining the concept of feature-rich information technology (IT) with the theory of technological frameworks and distraction as coping behaviours. In their study examining the relationships between stressors resulting from social media use, two coping behaviours and media addiction, they found a relationship between a coping behaviour and the concept of psychological distraction in response to stress caused by social network use, and between technostress and technology addiction (Tarafdar et al, 2020).

In their study, Odacı and Çikrıkci (2017), looked at the differences in problematic internet use among university students based on levels of stress, anxiety, and depression. They found that problematic internet use increased alarmingly and was considered to be a significant factor adversely affecting people's lives. In this context, they conducted a study with 543 university students. The study found that the level of sadness, anxiety, and stress in advanced adolescents influenced how problematically they used the Internet. Accordingly, as the depression, anxiety and stress levels of advanced adolescents increase, so do the average scores of problematic internet use. Therefore, it can be concluded that depression, anxiety and stress are among the psychological structures that lead individuals to use the internet excessively (Odacı & Çikrıkci, 2017).

Bilge et al. (2020), looked into the associations between social media reliance and symptoms of depression, anxiety, and stress as well as the predictive power of these variables. In this case, information was gathered from a total of 281 people, 208 females and 73 men, who were enrolled in a state university's Vocational School of Health Services. Anxiety, stress, and regular social media use were revealed to be key factors in explaining social media addiction scores, and it was discovered that social media addiction and the variables of depression, anxiety, and stress were connected (Bilge et al. 2020). The effects of personal social media use on levels of technostress and job satisfaction were examined by Brooks et al. (2017), He

concluded that increased social media use leads to high technostress, low satisfaction, and poor performance (Brooks et al. 2017).

Conclusion

Internet addiction continues to be a controversial topic, as it is an addiction that negatively affects the individual in many ways. The results to date are comparable to those of drug abuse. The American Psychological Association cites one of the benefits of group therapy as creating a support system of people struggling with similar problems. Patients' problems can be put into perspective when they hear about the experiences of other group members. In addition, group therapy can create a safe atmosphere in which the sensitive issue of internet use can be openly discussed. Group therapy has the advantage of offering the opportunity to learn from others and thereby improve coping skills, as people have different ways of dealing with the world and their lives. These advantages explain why group therapy models are often used in psychological treatment for Internet addiction and related problems (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Through such treatments, the sufferer can be reintegrated into social life and lead a normal life at work and with the family (Li, & Chung,2006).

The primary use of the internet was for social purposes, which is the cause of the most serious internet addiction. On the other hand, people who use the Internet primarily for social purposes have more serious problems related to Internet addiction, such as compulsive use, withdrawal, tolerance, time management problems, and interpersonal and health problems. However, as technology evolves so rapidly and we become more and more dependent on it, it seems that the concept of internet addiction will continue to be part of our lives.

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The Effects of Demographic Factors on Employee Well-Being: A 3-Period Longitudinal Research During The Pandemic

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Introduction

The Coronavirus epidemic that emerged in Wuhan, China in December 2019, has a high spread rate and has affected the whole world in a short time. Although it emerged as a health crisis, it has not only affected the present-day with its global socio-economic impacts but also the scenarios related to the post-COVID-19 period have begun to be discussed (Van Bavel, 2020; Nicola et. al., 2020). Social isolation has been one of the primary strategies implemented by governments to reduce the spread of the epidemic and prevent deaths. The sealing of international borders by countries has brought travel restrictions; quarantine practices and social distance within the country. Recently experienced "new normal" period has rapidly transformed business conditions into an information and communication technologies-based form (Yap, 2020). Sector employees, whose job characteristics are suitable for remote working, have switched to remote working processes under these circumstances.

Remote working is defined in the related literature as carrying out an employee's professional duties away from the boundaries of the business and without personal contact with their colleagues, using only information and communication technologies with coordination between the employee and the employer within the scope of flexible working practices (ILO, 2017). When the literature on remote working is analyzed, issues such as work-life boundaries, autonomy, productivity, and social roles appear. Job autonomy, which enables the employees to have flexibility, has become one of the most important means of contributing to the well-being of the employees (Waizenegger, McKenna, Cai & Bendz, 2020; Molino et al, 2020).

The rate of remote working has increased with the pandemic but, the social isolation and loneliness brought by the pandemic period (Lades, Laffan, Daly & Delaney, L.,2020; Wang, Liu, Qian, & Parker, 2021) has negatively affected the psychological well-being (Opatha, 2020; Tuzovic & Kabadayi, 2020; Altena et al, 2020) and the productivity of the employees (Bao, Li, Xia, Zhu et al., 2021). Those who experience these negations suggest the loss of family-business distinction and role conflict as the reason (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The main purpose of the research carried out during the pandemic is to question how the well-being status and perception of the white-collar employees who work for one of the leading holdings of Turkey differ longitudinally depending on demographic features during the COVID-19 period. The employee data gathered through surveys applied on the employees three times with three-month intervals during nine months shall contribute to the study field in terms of comparing the results of Turkey as well as the studies of other countries.

Theoretical Background

The Well-being of the Employees and the Effects of the Pandemic

The origins of the concept of well-being go back to clinical, existential, humanistic, and social psychology. In general, the state of well-being is defined as the comfort, happiness, mental and physical health, social life, self-actualization, and life quality of a person as a whole (Agarval, 2020). This state of well-being is often called "Happiness" in daily life and is defined as a psychological function and experience (Ryan and Deci, 2001, 142), or the positive general condition that life coincides with the expectations of the individual (Veenhoven, 2000).

Although no universally accepted definition or a kind of conceptualization exist, the state of well-being is basically analyzed under four groups which are psychological well-being; social well-being; physical well-being, and financial well-being (Tuzovic & Kabadayi, 2021). Each of these mentioned well-being states is quite important. However, this study focuses on the psychological and social well-being of the employees (Lades et al., 2020). Psychological well-being is the state of feeling well as a result of positive emotional states that can be observed in one's individual and social life. Thus, an individual feels himself/herself happy, capable, supported, and contented with life (Winefield, Gill, Taylor & Pilkington, 2012; Turashvili & Japaridze, 2012). Social well-being, on the other hand, forms an important dimension of one's health with its physical and mental aspects. Social well-being is related to being cooperative and supportive in social relationships; being capable of managing conflicts and having strong social relationships with one's social environment (Salehi, Marzban, Sourosh, Sharif, Nejabat & Imanieh, 2016). Both blue-collar and white-collar employees have been challenged not only psychologically but also socially under remote working conditions during the social isolation period due to COVID-19 (Patil & Gopalakrishnan, 2020; Wang et al., 2021). Social bonds of those who started working from home have deteriorated; the employees have been isolated from their business environments and most of the employees have had difficulties in meeting both the professional requirements and family needs besides one's own needs due to the extinction of the boundaries between one's family life and business life (Kniffin et al, 2020; Alfawaz et al., 2020). The emotional well-being of the employees has been observed to differ depending on the level of support they acquire or on how much time they spare for themselves (Lades et al., 2020).

Covid 19 Period and Working from Home

Flexible working model, which is given different names such as remote working or working from home, is defined as a working regulation that enables the employees to work away from the main office and makes communication with one's colleagues only possible through technological means. Professional tasks are fulfilled through the same technological means as well (Wang, Liu, Qian & Parker, 2021). When the COVID-19 pandemic began to affect the world, most businesses started to implement flexible working methods in order to minimize office work in uncertain and crisis environments. Whereas some sectors already implemented this flexible method before the pandemic, not that intensely though, for some sectors the process has become an important and challenging one to be overcome by using information and communication technologies (Atiku, Jeremiah & Boateng, 2020; Hayes, Priestley, Iishmakhametov & Ray, 2020; Bartik et al, 2020; Wang et al, 2021). The "new normal" has begun to be globally adapted with the COVID-19 pandemic (Patil & Gopalakrishnan, 2020; Wang et al, 2021).

With this "new normal" order introduced by the COVID-19 pandemic, the reactions of the countries have been different from one another. It has been observed that higher development levels bring out higher rates of remote working (Felstead, Henseke, 2017). However, technological infrastructure; cultural differences; administrative perceptions, and the

characteristics of the job significantly affect different practices among the countries (Irawanto, 2020). The researches indicate that in developed countries such as the UK and Sweden the rate of remote working is above 40% while it is below 25 % in developing countries such as Turkey and Mexico (Wong, Cheung, Chen, 2021).

According to the results of some studies, remote working practices appears to prevent the idle time spent in traffic by the employees; to enable the employees to spare more time personally and to extend the time spent by the employees with their children, and consequently, their performance appears to be enhanced due to the decreasing stress and anxiety levels (Mahesh et al, 2020), which affects employee satisfaction level positively (Molino, Ingusci, Signore, Manuti, et al, 2020). However, according to some other researches, physical distance from the office and the restricting effect of social isolation on social interaction, affect the well-being state of the employees negatively (Wang et al., 2021; Kniffin et al., 2020; Patil & Gopalakrishnan, 2020; Lades et al, 2020; Kniffin et al, 2020). The pandemic period has caused the relationship between the employees and the administrators to deteriorate and has brought out less sufficient outputs when compared with office work. The aforementioned different results are caused by the different conditions that employees are exposed to and different job characteristics (Mahesh & Kumar, 2020). Therefore, analyzing the effect of demographic variables of the employees on their well-being under remote working conditions and supporting the recent studies with Turkey findings have been considered to be important.

Demographic Features that Affect Employee Behaviors during Working from Home Period

Quite significant changes have been observed in the lives of the working class since the beginning of the pandemic and the home-office concept has changed and gained different dimensions. Although some researches indicate this period to have positive outcomes (Gigi & Pavithra, 2020), a significant number of researches indicate that the employees suffer psychologically and are negatively affected in terms of productivity (Bao et al., 2021). The period has brought some problems such as loss of the borders between one's job and family; role conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985); employee stress (Opatha, 2020) the deterioration in one's physical and mental health (Tuzovic & Kabadayi, 2020); sleep problems (Altena et al, 2020), burnout feeling (Mashlach & Jackson, 1985) and the decrease in professional satisfaction (Green, Tappin & Bentley, 2020; Prasad et al., 2020; Fajar et al., 2020). In short, the psychological and social well-being of the employees is in danger.

With the increase in the rate of working from home during the pandemic period, it is understood that demographic features affect employee attitudes and behaviors. Particularly the variables such as gender (Edgar & Geare, 2004; Konrad, & Hartmann, 2001; Novitasari, Sasono & Asbari, 2020; Kimhi, Marciano, Eshel & Adini, 2020; Manzo & Minelvo, 2020), age (Kimhi, Marciano, Eshel & Adini, 2020), education level (Lippens, Moens, Sterkens, Weytjens & Baert, 2021), marital status (Möhring, Naumann, Reifenscheid, Wenz, Rettig e al., 2021), the number of children (Novitasari, Sasono & Asbari, 2020), the number of the dependent elderly persons (Craig & Chuchill, 2021) affect the emotional well-being of the employees. The perception that housework and child care are mainly women's tasks to be fulfilled, increases the workload of women under working from home conditions imposed by the pandemic. Overlapping of work and family zones under remote working conditions consumes the energy and individual resources of women which are to enable them to meet both professional and family demands as well. Besides these responsibilities, the presence of the dependent elderly fuels the job-family conflict (Chung et al., 2020). All these studies carried out during COVID-19 confirm Pfeffer's (1985) opinion on the significance of demography as a variable in administrative researches (Pfeffer, 1985).

Formation of Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

Employees use their personal resources such as energy and motivation much more (Joshi & Sharma, 2020) considering individual characteristics, conditions, and intense professional demands brought by working from home. They might possibly feel lonely due to the lack of both social interaction and support from their supervisors (Charoensukmongkol & Phungsoonthorn, 2020). Based on the job demands-resources (JD-R) model by Bakker and Demerouti (2007) it is projected that the well-being levels of the employees shall be negatively affected as a result of diminishing resources and COVID period conditions that increase domestic and professional demands concurrently.

Those who work within the borders of their home away from the offices might feel their resources diminish gradually due to the lack of support and other social benefits provided by their institutions. They start to feel emotionally exhausted (Demerouti et al., 2001). In addition to extra stress caused particularly by social isolation, the demographic features of the employees may become a significant factor that affects their welfare (Kimhi et al., 2020; Craig & Churchil, 2020). For instance, Molino et al. (2020) state that although the distracting factors at the workplace such as colleague demands and interruptions are removed, an employee's feeling himself/herself overburdened because of distracting demographic factors under remote working conditions is quite often (Möhring et al., 2021). Since the studies on this field still reveal different results, the effects of working from home on well-being shall possibly differ depending on time and demographic variables. When time is considered particularly, employees feel their resources diminish much more as time flows and therefore, their well-being may be significantly and negatively affected. Based on this, the following hypothesis has been formed.

H1: A significant difference exists among the well-being levels of the employees in March, April, and June during the pandemic period.

It has been confirmed that the stress levels of employees of different generations also differ during the pandemic period (Dychtwald, 2020). Generation X, who takes over the care of the elderly and children, has more responsibilities but is less stressful than the Y generation in this period. It is understood that they are more capable of handling these negative situations when compared with generation Y (Justo-Alonso et al., 2020). According to the writers a significant difference exists between the groups under the age of 45 and over 45 in Italian and Spanish samples. However, results differ in the far Eastern studies. No difference has been detected among the age groups in terms of stress level and well-being probably due to cultural differences, and the period has been reported to pass with a mild stress level (Zhang & Ma, 2020; Wang et al., 2020). Based on this, the following hypothesis has been formed.

H2: Employee well-being levels differ during the pandemic depending on age groups.

Family status of the employees such as living alone; living with others; having small children has affected their well-being during the working from the home period during COVID-19 pandemic (Kniffin et al, 2020). Particularly employees with children have experienced some significant difficulties but single employees and employees without children have experienced other different difficulties nonetheless. The feeling of loneliness and negative mood, related to lack of purpose during the social isolation period brought by changing working conditions has affected the well-being levels of the employees (Carnevale and Hatak, 2020). Other studies carried out during this period indicate that due to similar reasons, the lack of belonging and loss of the meaning of purpose among child-free (Miller, 2020) and single (Smith, 2020, Agarwal, 2021; Möhring et al., 2021) employees, particularly, affect the level of well-being and psychological health negatively and significantly.

H3: Employee well-being levels differ during the pandemic depending on marital status.

Unlike single or childless employees, married employees with children face different problems during this period. Parent employees who find the distinction between family and business more unclear as a result of the closure of schools, childcare services, and the lockdown of the elderly, face more demands at home (Carnevale & Hatak, 2020). The study carried out in Italy and Spain reveals that women have been burdened with most of the extra housework due to the COVID-19 crisis (Del Boca et al., 2020; Farré, Fawaz, González & Graves, 2020). The outputs of a study in England that focuses on parent-employee well-being during the COVID-19 pandemic using longitudinal data indicate that women have been burdened with a more parental role such as child care and housework when compared to men. The well-being levels of those with children have decreased when compared to the pre-pandemic period (Möhring et al., 2021; Cheng, Mendolia, Paloyo, Savage & Tani, 2021). Based on this, the following hypothesis has been formed.

H4: Employee well-being levels differ during the pandemic depending on having children.

Similar to the previous pandemic outputs, individuals experience different kinds of fear during the pandemic and anxiety. The uncertainty with misleading unreliable information fuels COVID-19 fear as well. People may feel anxious, depressed, disappointed, and labeled. These uncertain situations may lead some people to commit suicide (Mahmud et al., 2020). When the studies of the pandemic period are examined, the results reveal that the employees experience different types of fears. Most common fears are as follows: (1) the fear of being infected with coronavirus (Briguglio, Giorgino, Dell'Osso, Cesari & et al, 2020). (2) The fear of being quarantined due to contact with a colleague or someone else who has been diagnosed to be infected with the coronavirus. (3) The fear of being labeled by society and friends due to being infected with COVID (Ramaci, Barattucci, Ledda & Rapisarda, 2020). (4) The fear of infecting loved ones. (5) The fear of going to work because of all these fears (Opatha,2020). Besides, the researches carried out during the COVID-19 pandemic period indicate that the elderly face a higher risk of death from coronavirus. Therefore, priorities in precautions depending on age have been determined both in the social environment and business life (Rudolph & Zacher, 2020). The studies on the elderly cared in elderly care homes have revealed the vulnerability of the elderly to this virus (Garnier-Crussard et al., 2020; Roland & Markus, 2020). Parallel to this, employees who take care of sick family members or the elderly at home also worry about keeping them healthy. Based on this, the following hypothesis has been formed.

H5: Employee well-being levels differ during the pandemic depending on the risk status of the employee's family.

Method

Sample of the Research

The target population of the study consists of the employees of a corporate business operating in Istanbul. The sample is composed of the subjects picked among the employees of this business. The sample includes nearly five thousand employees. The sample size is calculated to be 357 people out of the main population, taking into account a 5% margin of error within 95% reliability limits (Sekaran, 1992). In this context, a total of 1000 employees were surveyed online during the pandemic period in April, June, and September 2020.

Periodically, 441, 648, and 885 pieces of data were collected from online surveys, and a longitudinal analysis was carried out.

The Scales of the Research

In this study, which aims to determine both the business life perceptions of the employees during the pandemic and their perceptions reflected to the business life from the environment with their decisive effects on employee behaviors and attitudes, the questions about business life during the pandemic period are used. Descriptive questions related to the pandemic period are produced according to the needs of the institution by the institution personnel and have been subjected to academic evaluation. However, within the scope of the study, the longitudinal results of the findings were prioritized rather than the scales, and this was considered as an important limitation of the study in the context of the characteristics of the period. The demographic features of the participants are given in Table 1.

Table-1 *Demographic Features of the Survey Participants*

Variables	Groups	Frequencies	Percentage (%)
Period	April	441	22,3
	June 2020	648	32,8
	September	885	44,8
Age	Below 25	35	1,8
	25-29	277	14
	30-34	575	29,1
	35-44	803	40,7
	45-54	265	13,4
	55 and	12	0,6
	Prefer not	7	0,4
Marital Status	Married	1423	72,1
	Single	551	27,9
Children	Yes	1186	60,1
	No	788	39,9
Individual risk status	Yes	280	14,2
	No	1694	85,8
Risk status in the family	Yes	528	26,7
	No	1446	73,3

Findings

The findings of the study were evaluated in depth. In the first stage, the way of working of the employees in three different periods was evaluated. Findings are given in Table 2. When the Table is analyzed, it is observed that the way of working during April is mostly flexible working whereas it normalizes in September and turns to be mostly full-time office working (75.7%).

Table-2 *Findings related to the way of working during the pandemic*

Variables	Groups	Frequencies	Percentage (%)
April 2020	On administrative leave	38	8,6
	Flexible working	204	46,3
	Full-time office	71	16,1
	Full time remote	128	29
June 2020	On administrative leave	51	7,9
	Flexible working	228	35,2
	Full-time office	182	28,1
	Full time remote	187	28,9
September 2020	On administrative leave	19	2,1
	Flexible working	142	16
	Full-time office	670	75,7
	Full time remote	54	6,1

Table 3 indicates the answers given in three-period intervals to the question of how the employees feel themselves. A rise in the well-being levels of the employees is observed when April is compared to September.

Table-3 *Well-being status during the pandemic*

Variables	Groups	Frequencies	Percentage
April 2020	Very poor	33	7,5
	Poor	82	18,6
	Fair	155	35,1
	Good	127	28,8
	Very good	44	10
June 2020	Very poor	13	2
	Poor	65	10
	Fair	232	35,8
	Good	219	33,8
	Very good	119	18,4
September 2020	Very poor	32	3,6
	Poor	99	11,2
	Fair	291	32,9
	Good	307	34,7
	Very good	156	17,6

Table 4 indicates the quarterly analysis on the way of working evaluations made by employees. When the Table is analyzed, it is observed that the employees' acclaim towards remote working becomes indecisive as time passes.

Table-4 *Findings related to the evaluation of remote working during the pandemic*

Variables	Groups	Frequencies	Percentage
April 2020	Far worse than working at the office	30	6,8
	Worse than working at the office	74	16,8
	No difference	107	24,3
	Better than working at the office	72	16,3
	Far better than working at the office	49	11,1
	No comment	109	24,7
June 2020	Far worse than working at the office	99	15,3
	Worse than working at the office	30	4,6
	No difference	134	20,7
	Better than working at the office	89	13,7
	Far better than working at the office	63	9,7
	No comment	233	36
September 2020	Far worse than working at the office	30	3,4
	Worse than working at the office	7	0,8
	No difference	48	5,4
	Better than working at the office	62	7
	Far better than working at the office	49	5,5
	No comment	689	77,9

The interrelation of the Variables

Pearson correlations were calculated to determine the interrelation of the variables. As a result of the analyses, a significant relationship between remote working and the well-being of the employees was not found in terms of demographic variables (r=0.03; p>.05).

Differences in Demographic Groups

The question of whether the dependent variable happiness in the research differs or not depending on marital status; the number of children; risk status of the family and team management status was tested using the "t-test". The question of whether it differs or not depending on the working periods; age groups or the way of working was also tested through the “ANOVA analysis”.

According to the t-test results that indicate the relationship among happiness, marital status, and risk status (Table 5), it has been determined that well-being levels differ depending on the number of children and risk status which means that those having children and not bearing any risks have been determined to be happier.

Table-5 *t-test findings*

Variable	Group	N	Avg.	SD	Sig
The state of well-being	Married	1423	3,45	1,042	,79
	Single	551	3,44	0,994	
	With children	1186	3,5	1,038	,007
	Without children	788	3,37	1,01	
	Risky	280	3,32	1,056	,02
	Riskless	1694	3,47	1,023	
	Risk in family	528	3,17	1,017	0,000
	No risk in family	1446	3,55	1,013	

* $p<.05$

The question of whether employee happiness differs or not depending on pandemic periods, age groups, the way of working, and the evaluations on remote working were tested through "ANOVA analysis" (Table 6).

As it is seen in Table 6, employee well-being levels differ depending on pandemic periods (F=24,9, p≤0,001). Turkey test findings of Post Hoc tests indicate that April, June, and September have differences but a significant difference exists between June and September.

Table-6 *ANOVA test findings*

Variable	Group	N	Avg.	SD	F
Well-being	1.April 2020	441	3,15	1,073	24,9***
	2.June 2020	648	3,56	0,967	
	3.September 2020	885	3,52	1,022	

****p*<.001.

As it can be seen in Table 7, employee well-being levels differ depending on age groups (F=4,44; p≤0,001). Turkey test findings of Post Hoc tests indicate that the age groups 2, 3, and 5 have significant differences.

Table-7 *ANOVA test findings*

Variable	Group	N	Avg.	SD	F
Well-being	1.Below 25	35	3,69	0,796	4,44**
	2.25-29	277	3,32	1,011	
	3.30-34	575	3,34	1,017	
	4.35-44	803	3,49	1,037	
	5.45-54	265	3,66	1,036	
	6. 55 and above	12	3,67	0,778	
	No comment	7	3,14	1,215	

***p*<.01, * *p*<.05

As it can be seen in Table 8, employee well-being levels differ depending on the way of working (F=4,5; p≤0,001). Turkey test findings of Post Hoc tests indicate that the groups 2-4; 3-4 and 4-6 have significant differences.

Table-8 *ANOVA test findings*

Variable	Group	N	Avg.	SD	F
Well-being	1. Far worse than working at the office	67	3,46	1,223	4,5***
	2. Worse than working at the office	203	3,47	0,88	
	3. No difference	289	3,47	0,989	
	4. Better than working at the office	223	3,18	0,884	
	5. Far better than working at the office	161	3,32	1,217	
	6. No comment	1031	3,52	1,041	

**p<.01, * p<.05

Discussion and Conclusions

The challenges brought by COVID-19 have not only introduced fighting against the disease but also have forced the firms to rapidly transform into remote working for providing the continuance of the services during the lockdown. Sometimes, the well-being of the employees who are to fulfill their tasks efficiently has either been ignored or not been regarded among the priorities while working in a target-oriented point of view under remote working conditions since the sustainability of the services is of great importance for the firms. As for the academic point of view, the well-being of the employees in different countries has been questioned (Agarval, P, 2020; Alfawaz, 2020; Briguglio et al., 2020; Carnevale & Hatak, 2020; Lades, 2020). The effects of the pandemic period on employees have been found to differ in these studies. Some studies underline the facts such as the decrease in time spent in traffic; the decrease in stress and anxiety levels and the increase in performance (Mahesh et al, 2020), and suggest employee satisfaction (Molino, Ingusci, Signore, Manuti, et al, 2020). Contrarily some other studies reveal that social isolation affects the well-being of employees negatively (Wang et al., 2021; Kniffin et al., 2020; Patil & Gopalakrishnan, 2020; Lades et al, 2020; Kniffin et al, 2020). Primarily cultural differences; administrative perceptions and the characteristics of the job are the significant factors causing the mentioned difference among the countries (Irawanto, 2020; Zhang & Ma, 2020; Wang et al., 2020).

The results of the longitudinal study carried out among the employees of a holding operating in the private sector in Turkey confirm cultural differences. Turkey sample has shown that remote working conditions have different effects on the well-being of the employees. For instance, it has been observed that employees with children have higher levels of well-being than those without children. These results also support previous researches. Although being parents brings extra burden due to changing needs, it adds meaning and a sense of belonging to their lives. The studies by Carnevale and Hatak (2020) and Miller (2020) indicate that lack of belonging and loss of the meaning of purpose affect both well-being level and psychological health significantly and negatively. Although similar findings for single employees exist

(Smith, 2020, Agarwal, 2021; Möhring et al., 2021) a significant difference between married and single employees cannot be mentioned in this study. According to the research results, the average of the Y and X generations are close to being well, but a significant difference has been found between their well-being levels, nevertheless. The results support the studies by Dychtwald (2020) and Justo-Alonso et al. (2020). However, no difference depending on generations in well-being level is stated in the far eastern studies possibly due to cultural differences (Zhang & Ma, 2020; Wang et al., 2020).

Suggestions for HR Professionals

Under social isolation and remote working conditions, it is an important resource for an administrator to show emotional support and empathy. Regarding the research findings, the fact that employees without children feel unhappy when compared to those with children during the pandemic draws importance on the support of the administrators. In this respect, it is important to approach employees without prejudice or labels. For instance, thinking that single or childless employees are more comfortable in their lives compared to married ones and not providing support shall be a mistake. Moreover, moral and material support provided to employees might probably have a positive effect on their well-being. Both providing technological resources and supplying appropriate devices for remote working for the sake of a more comfortable working environment shall create a more productive and healthy working environment for the employees. When the human resources professionals approach the employees considering these criteria, the level of contentment from remote working and the quality of the work done shall increase. Financial aids for kindergarten for families with children shall also lead to an increase in the level of belonging and commitment. It is clear that particularly elderly and children care has an important place during the pandemic. Considering the fact that the issue affects the well-being states of employees with children, it is obviously necessary to be focused on. Therefore, here, it is possible to suggest that families should be supported in this direction. Financial support of employees in difficult times brought by the pandemic has also become a great necessity. In this respect, the interest-free financing loan opportunities to be offered to the employees; a structured payment plan spread over the medium term shall back up the employees financially.

Restrictions

The research has restrictions in terms of its structure and application. It consists of the evaluation of single holding employees on specific geography when the country where it has been carried out is considered. The results do not indicate an overall projection since, only the perceptions and evaluations of the employees have been studied during the analyses.

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Do Employment and Democracy Foster the GDP? A Panel ARDL Approach for Developing Countries

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Introduction

The interaction between economics and political processes has been discussed for many years by both economists and politicians. In particular, in the 18th century and later, it became almost impossible to distinguish between economics and political sciences. On the other hand, economists who adopted the Marxist school expressed the economy as a political system and emphasized how the internal dynamics in the economic process pose political forces. Marx and Engel argued that the economic order in a society is an extension of the existing ideology in that society. In this case, the decisions on the economic policies to be implemented by the policymakers result in political decisions that are effective in determining the economic roadmap, in line with the ideologies in the economic doctrines. This situation can be expressed as the phenomenon that makes economics political and reconciles economy and politics. In this direction, it can be said that politics and economics are inseparable parts of a whole (Caporaso and Levine, 2005).

In conjunction with Neoclassical thought gaining weight in economic science, using the mathematical models in the solution of economic problems, caused the political essence of economics to change. In particular, the reduction of economics to the maximization problem, which deals with the relationship between scarce resources and alternative uses, has led to a sharp distinction between political and economic processes. With the decontamination of the effect of political processes on economic decisions, economics began to be handled with quantitative methods independent of ideology, and the political economy turned into non-political economics (Telatar, 2004, as cited in Erdogan, 2020). However, the effect of political processes on economic outputs started to be considered again hence the 1970s. From this period onwards, politics and economics should not be considered as separate processes but instead of that political processes should be evaluated with an economic perspective began to dominate the political economy view which can also be expressed as the paradigm of the economic approach in politics (Caporaso and Levine, 2005).

The number of academic studies to explain the relationship between economic growth and democracy increased in conjunction with widespread the paradigm of the economic approach in politics, becoming measurable through some methods of concepts such as

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democracy that cannot be directly observed, and the developments in empirical analysis (Arslan and Dogan, 2004). In this context, the prevailing opinion is that the variables such as capital and labor, which are effective on the growth of the country's economies, can be not only economic but also non-economic variables that such as democracy but effective on growth, and that democracy can be used as an indicator covering various aspects of countries such as economic, political and cultural aspects has begun to dominate (Nairobi et al., 2021).

Political scientists, who have considered the relationship between democracy and economic growth, which has been of interest to social scientists since the 19th century, have argued that the social transformation to be experienced as a result of capitalist developments will bring democracy to societies where the transformation is experienced. In the years following World War II, the prevalent understanding that democracy was a result of economic growth was considered a secondary problem compared to economic development according to political scientists and economists. Lipset, who claimed that democracy can only be possible after a certain economic development in the study in 1959, stated that economically poor countries can be governed by dictatorship and oligarchy, not democracy (Rueschemeyer et.al., 1992).

In the 1960s and 1970s, while the primary priority for third-world countries was growth and development, the secondary priority for these countries was democracy. These countries logically defended the view that democracy would follow economic growth. In the 1980s, opinions began to prevail in the West that the basic condition for development was democracy, which is expressed as the institutions of the free market economy, with the effect of liberalism. In this direction, a new debate has emerged about whether democracy is the cause of economic development and whether it is a factor that facilitates economic development (Adejumobi, 2000). Since the 1990s, there has been a significant increase in the number of academic studies to explain the relationship between economic growth and democracy.

In the economic growth-democracy relationship, Muller argued that capitalist economic growth affects democratization in two ways: a direct positive effect and an indirect negative effect. Muller stated that economic growth will positively affect the working class and middle class in the cities and lead to a positive effect. On the other hand, Muller stated that income inequality that may arise as a result of economic growth may adversely affect democratization due to reasons such as polarization between classes and radicalization of the working class (Muller, 1995). Kuznet, on the other hand, approached this negative situation with a different hypothesis (Kuznet hypothesis) and argued that inequality will increase first in the growth process, and then inequality will begin to decrease after per capita income reaches a certain level.

Three approaches were developed to explain the relationship between democracy and economic growth, namely conflict, compatibility, and skepticism (Sirowy and Inkeles, 1990). On the basis of the conflict approach, which is known as the Lipset Hypothesis, the idea is that the basic condition for an effectively functioning democracy is economic growth. This approach argues that the cost of democracy may be high in less-developed countries, and therefore, democratization without economic development may delay economic growth. However, within the framework of this approach, it is stated that democracy would encourage individualization,

individually increased consumption would have a reducing effect on savings, and would prevent investments and capital accumulation. Therefore, the conflict approach asserts that the investments necessary for economic growth can only be realized if there is a strong authority, and argues that democracy will negatively affect economic growth (Sirowy and Inkeles, 1990).

In the compatibility approach, it is argued that democracy encourages economic activities and is a complement to the economic growth process. In this context, it is asserted that considering economic growth and democracy as opposite processes would legitimize oppressive practices in authoritarian regimes. In the studies conducted in line with this view, it has been argued that property rights with democratization would be secured, competition would be under fair conditions, individual initiatives would be paved, and all these would support economic growth (Sirowy and Inkeles, 1990).

In the skeptical approach, it is argued that there is no systematic relationship between democracy and economic growth, but that the economic growth process can take place in an environment where both democratic and authoritarian institutions exist (Sirowy and Inkeles, 1990). As can be understood from all these approaches and the studies discussed the relationship between democracy and economic growth in the literature, it can be said that there is no consensus on the direction and through which channels this relationship will take place. In some studies in the literature, it is stated that besides the economic structure, geographical, demographic, cultural, and social developments have an effect on the determination of the development level of the countries. The existence of democracy is also an effective factor at this level of development while some studies assert that democracy affects economic growth negatively.

In terms of the level of economic development, there are significant differences between countries, and according to these differences classified as less-developed, developing, and developed countries. These economic development differences between countries can be explained by the Solow model. According to the Solow model, the factors that determine the output per worker, which is stable, are the investment rate of inputs such as physical capital and human capital, the labor force growth rate, and the productivity of these inputs. Based on this model, the question of why some countries invest or develop more or less than other countries have emerged as a matter of debate. Some theorists attribute the reason for this to the infrastructure and institutions of the economy and emphasize the institutional factors that traditional economics does not take into account. It is stated that the country, which has an infrastructure that encourages production and investment, will have a successful and efficient economy (Baris and Erdogmus, 2018). It is stated that the institutions of a country are one of the factors that determine the economic performance of that country and one of the most important elements of the institutional infrastructure is democracy.

On the other hand, there can be significant differences in the growth performance and income levels of countries such as South and North Korea, where both the geographical location and cultural structure are the same, and the levels of capital and technological development are close to each other. In some of the studies in the literature, these differences are explained by the importance of institutions in countries, and the effect of institutions on economic growth is pointed out. The effect of institutions is to engage in economic activities, make investments,

and encourage economic growth by leading to technological developments and innovations (Pamuk, 2010). In addition, the existence of institutions leads to the emergence of incentive mechanisms that are effective in the establishment of the institutional infrastructure, activating incentive mechanisms such as protection of property rights, reduction of transaction costs, regulation of commodity-labor markets, regulation of financial markets, and creation of competitive market conditions.

This study aims to examine the impact of employment, trade openness, inflation, energy productivity, and electoral democracy index on the GDP of 25 developing countries with the data collected from the Varieties of Democracy (V-Dem) database between the period 1998-2021.

Literature

The democratic system that exists in a country and is implemented in the political and economic institutions of that country can be effective in the economic growth of the country. The fact that a variable such as democracy, which covers various aspects of countries such as economic, political, and cultural aspects, is effective on economic growth, has caused the democracy-economic growth relationship to be discussed in many studies in the literature. However, there is no consensus on the economic consequences of this relationship in the literature. While some studies in the literature argue that democracy has a positive effect on economic growth, others state that democratization leads to a decline in economic growth.

Doucouliagos and Ulubasoglu (2008) applied a meta-regression analysis to the 470 population estimations obtained from 81 studies related to democracy and economic growth association. They found several results about the relationship between democracy and growth in the consequences of the analysis. Firstly, when they considered all the evidence, they couldn't find any evidence that democracy damaged to growth. They brought together all the existing published evidence and concluded that democracy doesn't have a direct effect on growth. On the other side, they stated that it also has significant and robust indirect effects on economic growth. The findings support the notion that democracies have better rates of human capital accumulation, lower rates of inflation, less political instability, and greater levels of economic freedom. Their findings also suggest that there are region and country specific effects of democracy and growth. Their evidence indicate that the growth effect of democracy has a greater positive impact on growth in Latin America than it does in Asia.

Masaki and Walle (2014) argue that distinguishing between the impacts of democratic consolidation and regime changes on economic growth is inadequate in the existing literature. They examined 43 Sub-Saharan African countries in the period of 1982-2012 considering the latest political and economic data. Their evidence showed that democracy has a positive effect on economic growth and stated that for those African nations that have maintained democracy for a longer length of time, this "democratic advantage" is more prominent.

Rachdi and Saidi (2015) aimed to empirically explore the effect of democracy on economic growth for 17 countries in the MENA in the period of 1983-2012. They used fixed and random effects and generalized method of moments system approaches to reveal the relationship between democracy and economic growth. According to their findings, democracy

negatively affects economic growth, and the four metrics of democracy are statistically significant. They also found the same result within the GMM system.

Heshmati and Kim (2017) revealed the relation between democracy and economic growth estimating the production function of a country by using dynamic and static panel data analysis. They considered 144 countries' panel data in the period from 1980-2014. According to their results, democracy robustly positively affects economic growth. Their constructed dynamic model results also support that democracy positively affects economic growth.

Acemoglu et al. (2019) revealed findings that democracy affects the GDP per capita positively in the long run. They used a dynamic (linear) panel model for GDP and revealed fundamental results. They also offered a new democracy indicator that integrates earlier measurements in order to decrease measurement error. Their fundamental results indicated that democratizations raise GDP per capita by about a percentage of 20 in the long run. They acquired similar effects by using the strategy of propensity score reweighting and the strategy of instrumental variables based on regional waves of democratization. Moreover, they stated that the effects appear to be similar in different development levels and directed by higher investments in education, capital, and health.

Colagrossi et al. (2019) using a meta-analytical framework examined 188 studies (2047 models) spanning 36 years of field research. They also made a comparison of the relationship between democracy and economic growth with the relationship between human capital and economic growth in a subsample of 111 studies (875 models). Their results show that democracy directly and positively effect the economic growth beyond of publication bias, though less potent (be about one-third) than human capital.

Nairobi et al. (2021) investigated the effect of democracy quality at a level of provinces in Indonesia by using panel data analysis. According to their results, democracy significantly affects economic growth and the quality of democracy show a tendency to increase economic growth in the long run in Indonesia. They also state that, if the other variables they used in the analysis such as foreign investment and labor occur they can statistically increase economic growth and employment in Indonesia. Moreover, they indicated that convergence growth, which indicates that certain underdeveloped or impoverished provinces can catch up to more developed provinces, characterizes Indonesia's economic growth, which is already in good shape.

Das and Siddharth (2021) examined the connection between economic growth and democracy in South Asia from 1990 to 2018 by using panel data analysis. Based on their results, democracy positively and significantly affects economic growth in the region.

Methodology

The dataset in this study consists of both multiple years and countries so panel data estimators are preferred which would produce more robust results. A panel estimation uses both time and cross-sectional dimensions which increases variability and the number of observations. Moreover, panel estimation decreases the noise compared to the time series analysis leading to a more reliable result.

A panel autoregressive distributed lag model (ARDL) is preferred in this study. A time series version of ARDL is proposed by Pesaran & Smith (1995) and Pesaran et al (2001) and this approach is adopted in the panel framework by Pesaran (2006). The ARDL approach differs from classical time series analysis as it allows for the estimation of both long-term and short-term causal relationships in a single model, eliminating the need to estimate separate models for each type of relationship which can be useful when analyzing cointegrated time series data (Pesaran et al., 2001). Also, ARDL methods can handle situations where the variables of interest are non-stationary, which can be a problem for other types of econometric models (Pesaran et al., 2001; Pesaran & Smith, 1995). Moreover, they can be used to estimate cointegration relationships among variables and test for the presence of cointegration (Pesaran, 2021). ARDL methods also can handle the deterministic and stochastic trends in the data (Pesaran et al., 1999). ARDL is also a relatively simple and straightforward method, which makes it easy to implement and interpret the results (Pesaran, 1997).

Unit root tests

After selecting the relevant independent variables', the next step of analysis is to test the variables level of integration. This is crucial for conducting Autoregressive Distributed Lag Model (ARDL) as this method requires variables to be stationary either at I(0) or I(1). The ARDL fails to provide robust results in cases where variables integrated at I(2) exist in the model. Im, Pesaran, and Shin (IPS) panel unit root test (Im et al., 2003) and Fisher ADF unit root test (Choi, 2001) are employed to eliminate variables.

The baseline equation for the panel unit root tests is given as an Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) regression and can be described as:

$$\Delta y_{it} = \phi_i y_{i,t-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{p} \varphi_j \Delta y_{i,t-j} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (1)$$

where $\phi_i = \rho_i - 1$. In IPS test, the null hypothesis is defined as $H_0: \phi_i = 0$ $(\rho_i = 1)$ and the alternative hypothesis is defined as $H_1: \phi_i < 0$ $(\rho_i < 1)$. Here, rejecting the null hypothesis indicates the variable is stationary. The IPS test fits a regression for each panel denoted with ϕ_i and takes average t statistics which is different than some other popular panel unit root tests such as Levin–Lin–Chu test (Levin et al., 2002).

Fisher type test combines all the p values gathered from a unit-root test on each panel's series separately to determine whether the panel series contains a unit root or not. Four different methods are used in Fisher type panel unit root test namely, inverse-χ^2, inverse-normal, inverse-logit, and modified inverse-χ^2. The Fisher type panel unit root test tests $H_0: All\ panels\ contain\ unit\ root$ against $H_1: At\ least\ one\ panel\ is\ stationary$.

Panel cointegration tests

After determining the variables integrated at I(0) or I(1) Pedroni (1999, 2004), and Kao (1999), panel cointegration tests are conducted to determine the long-run relationship between GDP and independent variables. All of the tests are based on the panel data model for I(1) dependent variable and the null hypothesis assumes no cointegration where alternative hypothesis assumes cointegration for the model:

$$y_{it} = x'_{it}\beta_i + z'_{it}\tau_i + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (2)$$

Here, it is assumed that for each panel i, the independent variables x_{it} is I(1) and each independent variable is unrelated with each other. The Kao test assumes a common $\beta_i = \beta$ where Pedroni test allows for panel specific β_i's.

Panel Autoregressive Distributed Lag Model (ARDL)

The final part of the analysis is to perform the ARDL model. The ARDL model checks whether there is a short term and long-term relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Consider the multiple linear regression model between the GDP and independent variables where logarithmic transformation is applied.

$$\begin{aligned} ln\, y_{it} = \alpha + \alpha_1 lnEmployment_{it} + lnTrade\ Openness_{it} + lnInflation_{it} \\ + lnEnergy\ Productivity_{it} + lnElectoral\ Democracy\ Index_{it} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Equation (3) transforms into equation (4) in a panel ARDL approach with parameters $(p, q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4, q_5)$ where p is the lags of the dependent variable and q_i is the lags of independent variables.

$$\begin{aligned} ln\, y_{it} = \alpha_i + \sum_{j=1}^{p} \alpha_{1,ij} ln y_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^{q_1} \alpha_{2,ij} lnEmployment_{i,t-j} \\ + \sum_{j=0}^{q_2} \alpha_{3,ij} lnTrade\ Openness_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^{q_3} \alpha_{4,ij} lnInflation_{i,t-j} \\ + \sum_{j=0}^{q_4} \alpha_{5,ij} lnEnergy\ Productivity_{i,t-j} \\ + \sum_{j=0}^{q_5} \alpha_{6,ij} lnElectoral\ Democracy\ Index_{i,t-j} + \varepsilon_{it} \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

In equation (4), $i = 1,2,\cdots,N$ and $t = 1,2,\cdots,T$, α_i denotes the fixed effects for each panel, $\alpha_1 - \alpha_6$ are the lagged coefficients of the dependent and independent variables and ε_{it} is the error term. ε_{it} is assumed that it changes for each country and each time period.

The equation (4) can be written in a panel error correction term (ECT) representation given with equation (5):

$$
\begin{aligned}
ln\,\Delta y_{it} = \alpha_i &+ \sum_{j=1}^{p} \alpha_{1,ij} ln\,\Delta y_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^{q_1} \alpha_{2,ij} ln\Delta Employment_{i,t-j} \\
&+ \sum_{j=0}^{q_2} \alpha_{3,ij} ln\Delta Trade\ Openness_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^{q_3} \alpha_{4,ij} ln\Delta Inflation_{i,t-j} \\
&+ \sum_{j=0}^{q_4} \alpha_{5,ij} ln\Delta Energy\ Productivity_{i,t-j} \\
&+ \sum_{j=0}^{q_5} \alpha_{6,ij} ln\Delta Electoral\ Democracy\ Index_{i,t-j} + \beta_{1,ij} lnY_{i,t-1} \\
&+ \beta_{2,ij} lnEmployment_{i,t-1} + \beta_{3,ij} lnTrade\ Openness_{i,t-1} \\
&+ \beta_{4,ij} lnInflation_{i,t-1} + \beta_{5,ij} lnEnergy\ Productivity_{i,t-1} \\
&+ \beta_{6,ij} lnElectoral\ Democracy\ Index_{i,t-1} + \varepsilon_{it}
\end{aligned}
\tag{5}
$$

In equation (5) Δ denotes the first difference of the variables, $\alpha_1 - \alpha_6$ are the short-run coefficients and $\beta_1 - \beta_6$ are the long run coefficients of GDP, Employment, Trade Openness, Inflation, Energy Productivity, and Electoral Democracy Index respectively.

The equation (5) also can be expressed in an alternative way:

$$
\begin{aligned}
ln\,\Delta y_{it} = \alpha_i &+ \sum_{j=1}^{p} \alpha_{1,ij} ln\,\Delta y_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^{q_1} \alpha_{2,ij} ln\Delta Employment_{i,t-j} \\
&+ \sum_{j=0}^{q_2} \alpha_{3,ij} ln\Delta Trade\ Openness_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^{q_3} \alpha_{4,ij} ln\Delta Inflation_{i,t-j} \\
&+ \sum_{j=0}^{q_4} \alpha_{5,ij} ln\Delta Energy\ Productivity_{i,t-j} \\
&+ \sum_{j=0}^{q_5} \alpha_{6,ij} ln\Delta Electoral\ Democracy\ Index_{i,t-j} + \theta_i ECT_{i,t-1} + \varepsilon_{it}
\end{aligned}
\tag{6}
$$

In equation (6), θ_i represents the coefficients of the ECT which measures the speed of adjustment that is made every year towards long-run equilibrium. The optimal lag length for ECT is determined with Akaike Information Criteria (AIC) and a maximum length of two is chosen.

The panel estimation is done with both equation (5) and equation (6) with the pool mean group technique (PMG). In panel estimation this technique allows the intercepts, short-run coefficients, and error variances to differ across countries which enables to make separate inferences for each country. Therefore, when investigating the relationship between GDP and independent variables, not only a general PMG model with panel ARDL is constructed but also short term relationship for each individual country is also reported.

Data

The panel dataset for this study consists of data from 25 countries over the period of 1998-2021. These countries were chosen from developing countries from different areas of the world based on World Bank classification (United Nations, 2018). The countries were selected based on their democracy level, employment rate and GDP. The time interval of 1998-2021 was selected because of the data availability and significant increase in GDP after 1998. The list of countries can be found in Table 1.

Table 1. *Country list*

Countries				
Algeria	China	Indonesia	Morocco	South Africa
Angola	Egypt	Kenya	Nigeria	South Korea
Argentina	Ethiopia	Lebanon	Pakistan	Tunisia
Brazil	Ghana	Malaysia	Peru	Türkiye
Cameroon	India	Mexico	Senegal	Venezuela

In this study, the effect of employment, trade openness, inflation, energy productivity and electoral democracy index on GDP is investigated. Initially, additional variables are considered as candidate variables, but they are removed from the variable list as they are either not correlated with GDP, have high multicollinearity with other independent variables or they are not stationary at the level I(0) and I(1) which is required to conduct analysis with ARDL. A description of all the variables and their sources is given in Table 2. To ensure the stationary the logarithm of the variables is used.

Table 2. *Variable list, data sources and brief definitions*

Variables Used	**Description**	**Source**
GDP	The logarithm of GDP at constant 2015 U.S. dollars in millions	UNCTAD
Employment	The logarithm of the number of persons engaged in millions	PWT 10.0
Trade Openness	The logarithm of (Import + Export) / Total GDP	UNCTAD
Inflation	The logarithm of Average Consumer Prices	WEO
Energy Productivity	The logarithm of Energy Productivity	CEPII Database
Electoral Democracy Index	The logarithm of weighted average of the indices measuring freedom of association thick, clean elections, freedom of expression, elected officials, and suffrage	V-DEM

Results

Descriptive statistics for the data are given in Table 3. There are no missing values for the selected data. The average value for the logarithm of the GDP is 12.15 whereas minimum and maximum values are 8.95 and 16.58, respectively. The mean values for the logarithm of employment, the logarithm of trade openness and the logarithm of inflation are 3.02, 3.98 and 1.81, respectively. The logarithm of employment has a minimum value of -0.14 and a maximum value of 6.68, whereas the logarithm of the trade openness has a minimum value of 2.65 and a maximum value of 5.36. Also, the logarithm of inflation has a minimum value of -1.65 and a maximum value of 11.09. The logarithm of energy productivity has an average of 6.88, minimum value of 4.36 and maximum value of 8.11. The mean, minimum and maximum value for the logarithm of electoral democracy index is -0.87, -2.58 and -0.13 respectively.

Table 3. *Descriptive statistics*

Variable	Observation	Mean	Std.Dev.	Min	Max
GDP	600	12.1521	1.5585	8.9552	16.5767
Employment	600	3.0273	1.3884	-0.1376	6.6837
Trade Openness	600	3.9865	0.4732	2.6473	5.3558
Inflation	600	1.8092	1.2980	-1.6503	11.0879
Energy Productivity	600	6.8832	0.6510	4.3609	8.1110
Electoral Democracy Index	600	-0.8688	0.5805	-2.5770	-0.1312

Pairwise Pearson Correlation Coefficient Matrix for the final dataset is provided in Table 4. The most significant correlation is between GDP and Employment where a positive relationship is detected ($\rho = 0.78$). Also, there is a significant negative correlation between GDP and trade openness ($\rho = -0.29$). The correlation between GDP and inflation ($\rho = 0.01$), GDP and energy productivity ($\rho = 0.14$) and GDP and democracy index ($\rho = 0.07$) are low or negligible. Most of the correlation coefficients between independent variables are low or negligible but the correlation coefficient between trade openness and employment ($\rho = -0.44$), electoral democracy index and energy productivity ($\rho = 0.30$) may cause multicollinearity and should be examined.

Table 4. *Pairwise correlations*

	GDP	Employment	Trade Openness	Inflation	Energy Productivity	Electoral Democracy Index
GDP	1.0000					
Employment	0.7833*	1.0000				
Trade Openness	-0.2910*	-0.4470*	1.0000			
Inflation	0.0121*	0.0435	-0.1443*	1.0000		
Energy Productivity	0.1362*	-0.2820*	0.1073*	-0.0181	1.0000	
Electoral Democracy Index	0.0664*	-0.0922*	-0.1984*	-0.0309	0.3006*	1.0000

*$p<0.05$

Table 5. *Multicollinearity test*

Variable	VIF	1/VIF (Tolerance value)
Employment	1.38	0.7250
Trade Openness	1.41	0.7094
Inflation	1.02	0.9790
Energy Productivity	1.18	0.8492
Electoral Democracy Index	1.19	0.8423

Multicollinearity must be checked if the correlation between independent variables poses a problem. Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and tolerance values between the dependent variable GDP and the independent variables, Employment, Trade Openness, Inflation, Energy Productivity, and Electoral Democracy Index are given in Table 5 to detect if multicollinearity exists. All the VIF values are lower than 5 and all the tolerance values are higher than 0.25 which indicates no multicollinearity exists between independent variables.

Table 6. *Panel unit root tests*

Im, Pesaran and Shin test – (Panel means and time trend are included.)					
Series	$W_{\bar{t}}$	**p value**	**Series**	$W_{\bar{t}}$	**p value**
GDP	2.9893	0.9986	**ΔGDP**	-4.2989*	0.0000
Employment	1.0982	0.8639	**ΔEmployment**	-5.5914*	0.0000
Trade Openness	-0.7445	0.2283	**ΔTrade Openness**	-10.7459*	0.0000
Inflation	-4.8797*	0.0000	**ΔInflation**	-14.7126*	0.0000
Energy Productivity	-1.9012*	0.0286	**ΔEnergy Productivity**	-12.5882*	0.0000
Electoral Democracy Index	0.0294	0.5117	**ΔElectoral Democracy Index**	-9.4849	0.0000
H_0: All panels contain unit roots / H_A: Some panels are stationary					
Fisher ADF test (ADF regressions: 1 lags)					
	Series	**Statistics**	**p value**	**Series**	**Statistics**	**p value**
GDP	**P**	49.7286	0.4842	**ΔGDP**	**P**	121.4096*	0.0000
	Z	2.8477	0.9978		**Z**	-4.8878*	0.0000
	L	3.2644	0.9993		**L**	-5.4282*	0.0000
	Pm	-0.0271	0.5108		**Pm**	7.1410*	0.0000
	Series	**Statistics**	**p value**		**Series**	**Statistics**	**p value**
Employment	**P**	74.7308*	0.0133	**ΔEmployment**	**P**	136.6017*	0.0000
	Z	0.6895	0.7547		**Z**	-6.8626*	0.0000
	L	-0.5302	0.2985		**L**	-6.8626*	0.0000
	Pm	2.4731*	0.0067		**Pm**	8.6602*	0.0000
	Series	**Statistics**	**p value**		**Series**	**Statistics**	**p value**
Trade Openness	**P**	63.1742	0.0999	**ΔTrade Openness**	**P**	276.4964*	0.0000
	Z	-0.7716	0.2202		**Z**	-11.9021*	0.0000
	L	-0.8866	0.1885		**L**	-15.0409*	0.0000
	Pm	1.3174	0.0938		**Pm**	22.6496*	0.0000
	Series	**Statistics**	**p value**		**Series**	**Statistics**	**p value**
Inflation	**P**	140.5714*	0.0000	**ΔInflation**	**P**	437.2081*	0.0000
	Z	-5.5119*	0.0000		**Z**	-15.6784*	0.0000
	L	-6.2343*	0.0000		**L**	-23.9660*	0.0000
	Pm	9.0571*	0.0000		**Pm**	38.7208*	0.0000
	Series	**Statistics**	**p value**		**Series**	**Statistics**	**p value**
Energy Productivity	**P**	82.7818*	0.0024	**ΔEnergy Productivity**	**P**	173.1266*	0.0000
	Z	-2.0811*	0.0187		**Z**	-13.8430*	0.0000
	L	-2.4919*	0.0070		**L**	-17.0886*	0.0000
	Pm	3.2782*	0.0005		**Pm**	27.0886*	0.0000
	Series	**Statistics**	**p value**		**Series**	**Statistics**	**p value**
Electoral Democracy Index	**P**	60.1971	0.1531	**ΔElectoral Democracy Index**	**P**	239.7487	0.0000
	Z	-0.0614	0.4755		**Z**	-10.5213	0.0000
	L	0.0674	0.5268		**L**	-12.9911	0.0000
	Pm	1.0197	0.1539		**Pm**	18.9749	0.0000
H_0: All panels contain unit roots / H_A: At least one panel is stationary					

*Rejected null at .05 level

The ARDL method requires the variables to be stationary at either I(0) or I(1). Two panel unit root tests, namely, Im, Pesaran, and Shin panel unit root test and Fisher ADF tests are employed to check whether the variables are stationary at I(0) and I(1). The results of all tests are provided in Table 6. According to the results of Im, Pesaran and Shin panel unit root test, GDP, employment, trade openness and electoral democracy index contains unit root at I(0) but they become stationary at I(1), whereas inflation and energy productivity are stationary both at

I(0) and I(1). The Fisher ADF test results are also in match with the Im, Pesaran and Shin panel unit root test. GDP, employment, trade openness and electoral democracy index are stationary only at I(1) whereas inflation and energy productivity are stationary both at I(0) and I(1). This result denotes that the necessary condition for ARDL is met.

Table 7. *Panel cointegration tests*

Pedroni test				
	Panel		**Group**	
	Statistics	**p value**	**Statistics**	**p value**
v	0.8812	0.1894	-	-
rho	2.386*	0.0084	4.091*	0.0000
pp	0.6556	0.2546	-1.25	0.1054
adf	0.6526	0.2578	2.472*	0.0066
Kao test				
			Statistic	p value
Modified Dickey-Fuller t			1.1942	0.1162
Dickey-Fuller t			1.3997	0.0808
Augmented Dickey-Fuller t			1.6154*	0.0442
Unadjusted modified Dickey-Fuller t			1.9799*	0.0239
Unadjusted Dickey-Fuller t			2.1882*	0.0143

**Rejected null at .05 level, Null: no cointegration*

Table 7 provides the panel cointegration test results for the Pedroni test and Kao test respectively. Selected cointegration tests provide different results. While the Pedroni test suggests cointegration for rho it suggests no cointegration for adf and pp. On the other hand, the Kao test finds cointegration for only Augmented Dickey-Fuller t, Unadjusted modified Dickey-Fuller t and Unadjusted Dickey-Fuller t.

The optimum number of lags for the model and variables according to all countries was calculated with the help of the Akaike information criterion, with a maximum of 2 lags. As a result, it was determined as the most common lag across the countries as ARDL(1 1 1 1 1 1).

Table 8 demonstrates the findings of PMG panel ARDL results. PMG test investigates the short term and long-term relationship between GDP and Employment, Trade Openness, Inflation, Energy Productivity and Electoral Democracy Index for 25 countries. Hausman's test is conducted to select between the PMG estimation and MG estimation. p=0.3468 for the Hausman test suggests using the PMG estimator rather than the MG estimator.

Table 8. *Results for PMG estimator*

Variable	**Coefficient**	**Std. Error**	**Z**	**p value**
	Long run			
Employment	1.3599*	0.0592	22.95	0.0000
Trade Openness	0.5828*	0.0829	7.03	0.0000
Inflation	0.0117	0.0139	0.84	0.4000
Energy Productivity	0.5890*	0.0807	7.30	0.0000
Electoral Democracy Index	-0.2173*	0.0848	-2.56	0.0100
	Short run			
ECT	-0.0455*	0.0213	-2.14	0.0330
Δ Employment	0.1064	0.2843	0.37	0.7080
Δ Trade Openness	0.0129	0.0194	0.66	0.5070
Δ Inflation	-0.0065*	0.0033	-1.97	0.0490
Δ Energy Productivity	0.0728*	0.0331	2.20	0.0280
Δ Electoral Democracy Index	-0.0538	0.1031	-0.52	0.6020
Constant	0.0850	0.0521	1.63	0.1030
Hausman chi^2		5.60		0.3468

*p<0.05

Employment has a statistically significant and positive relationship with GDP only in the long run. 1 unit increase in the logarithm of employment also increases the logarithm of GDP with 1.36 unit in the long run. No significant effect is detected between employment and GDP in the short run.

Trade openness also has a statistically significant and positive relationship with GDP only in the long run. 1 unit increase in the logarithm of trade openness also increases the logarithm of GDP with 0.58 unit in the long run. No significant effect is detected between trade openness and GDP in the short run.

Despite having no significant effect on GDP in the long run, inflation has a significant negative effect on GDP. 1 unit increase in the logarithm of inflation decreases the logarithm of GDP with 0.0065 unit in the short run. It should be noted that although there is a significant relationship the magnitude of the effect is low.

Energy productivity has a significant positive effect on GDP both in the long and short run. In the long run, 1 unit increase in the logarithm of energy productivity also increases the logarithm of GDP with 0.59 unit whereas in the short run, 1 unit increase in the logarithm of energy productivity also increases the logarithm of GDP with 0.07 unit.

The Electoral democracy index has a significant negative effect on GDP in the long run whereas there is no relationship between them in the short run. 1 unit increase in the logarithm of electoral democracy index decreases the logarithm of GDP with 0.22 unit in the long run.

The ECT denotes the long-term equilibrium association amongst all independent variables. The ECT coefficient is negative and statistically significant and the coefficient term -0.0455 indicates that the convergence speed is about 4.5% returning to its equilibrium each year when disequilibrium occurs.

Table 10 denotes coefficients for the PGM model for each country which would allow policy implications specified for the country. In Table 9, ECT denotes the long-term equilibrium association amongst all independent variables.

Table 9. *Coefficient and significance for short-run PMG estimation for each country*

Country	ECT	∆ Employment	∆ Trade Openness	∆ Inflation	∆ Energy Productivity	∆ Electoral Democracy Index
Algeria	-0.0049	-0.0747	**0.1020***	0.0027	**0.1512***	0.0099
Angola	**-0.0758***	0.0572	-0.0771	0.0023	0.1853	-0.0621
Argentina	0.2282	2.2322	0.2334	0.0168	**0.6674***	-2.2146
Brazil	-0.0489	**0.6245***	-0.0203	-0.0161	0.0221	0.2384
Cameroon	-0.0155	-0.1113	0.0015	**-0.0057***	**0.0876***	0.0819
China	**-0.0702***	**-5.8767***	-0.0469	0.0032	0.0194	-0.0342
Egypt	**-0.1191***	0.0874	**-0.0271***	**-0.0107***	**0.1074***	**0.0354***
Ethiopia	**-0.1721***	0.5127	0.0021	**-0.0180***	-0.0015	-0.0197
Ghana	-0.043	**0.9657***	0.0526	0.0003	-0.022	-0.015
India	-0.0282	-0.4685	-0.0453	-0.0162	0.084	0.0291
Indonesia	-0.014	-0.1415	**-0.0634***	**-0.0286***	0.1689	**-0.1320***
Kenya	**0.0596***	-0.128	0.0368	-0.0028	0.1098	0.0471
Lebanon	**-0.2004***	0.2945	-0.0374	-0.0012	-0.0049	**1.0729***
Malaysia	0.0003	**0.6500***	-0.1051	0.0087	-0.1804	0.0297
Mexico	0.0242	0.7772	**0.2071***	-0.0014	**0.2399***	0.1071
Morocco	**-0.0799***	-0.4282	**-0.1373***	0.0009	**0.1763***	**-0.4506***

Nigeria	-0.0307	-0.1441	-0.0489	0.0036	0.1095	-0.0687
Pakistan	-0.0251	-0.0089	0.0277	-0.0008	-0.019	-0.0121
Peru	**-0.1098***	**-1.0937***	**0.1248***	-0.0024	0.0049	-0.0376
Senegal	**-0.2099***	1.1823	**-0.1255***	-0.0018	-0.0825	**-0.2227***
South Africa	**0.1815***	**0.2189***	**0.1528***	**0.0099***	**-0.1368***	-0.0003
South Korea	**-0.0736***	**1.3146***	0.0026	-0.0098	-0.1521	0.1291
Tunisia	**-0.0383***	**0.8578***	0.0268	-0.0023	0.0423	0.0036
Türkiye	-0.0203	0.8235	0.1075	-0.0256	0.1731	0.0733
Venezuela	**-0.2525***	0.5372	-0.0218	**-0.0665***	0.0711	0.0683

*p<0.05

For India, Nigeria, Pakistan and, Türkiye none of the variables are significant on GDP. For Algeria trade openness and energy productivity have positive effect on GDP. In Angola and in Kenya only ECT is important on GDP with negative coefficient for Angola and with positive coefficient in Kenya. Energy productivity is the only significant variable on GDP in Argentina with a positive coefficient whereas employment is the only variable that has effect on GDP in Brazil, Ghana, and Malaysia.

In China, South Korea, and Tunisia only ECT and employment have significant effect on GDP. ECT has negative effect on GDP in China, South Korea, and Tunisia, whereas employment has negative effect in China but positive effect in South Korea, and Tunisia. Inflation has negative significant effect and energy productivity has positive significant effect on GDP in Cameroon.

Both ECT and inflation have significant negative effect on GDP in Ethiopia whereas all the trade openness, inflation, and electoral democracy index variables have significant negative effect on GDP in Indonesia.

In Lebanon, ECT has negative significant coefficient and electoral democracy index has positive significant coefficient on GDP. In Mexico, trade openness and energy productivity have positive significant effect on GDP. In Venezuela, both ECT and Inflation have significant negative effect on GDP.

In Peru, ECT and employment have negative effect and trade openness has positive effect on GDP. In Senegal all the ECT, trade openness and electoral democracy index have negative effect on GDP. In Egypt, ECT, trade openness and inflation have negative significant effect whereas energy productivity and electoral democracy index have positive significant effect on GDP.

In Morocco, ECT, trade openness and electoral democracy index have negative significant effect on GDP whereas energy productivity has positive significant effect on GDP. In South Africa, ECT, employment, trade openness, and inflation have positive significant effect on GDP while energy productivity has significant negative effect on GDP.

Discussion and Conclusion

Panel data were used in the study and conducted unit root tests, panel cointegration tests, and PMG panel ARDL analysis to reveal both long- and short-term relationships between these variables and GDP.

As a result of our analysis, it was found that the relationship between trade openness and GDP has a statistically significant and positive effect in the long run. In the short run, no significant effect was found between these two variables. It is an expected result that the relationship between these two variables is significant and positive in the long run, and this

result we obtained is consistent with the explanations made in the literature for the relationship between these two variables. In the literature, it is stated that the relationship between democracy and trade openness is a situation that develops over time. In our study, the emergence of a significant and positive relationship between the two variables in the long term supports this result. In addition, considering that the countries we discussed in the study are developing countries and these countries have started to liberalize in terms of trade since the 1980s, it explains that the correlation coefficient between democracy and trade liberalization has become positive and stable in the long run at these countries in the transition period. Martin, (2006, as cited in Barış and Erdogmus, 2018) stated that the correlation coefficient between the two variables became positive and stable after 1989. He stated that the reason for this situation is related to the sensitivity of countries to democracy. Democratic governments in order to continue their existence in a country, unlike autocratic governments, need the majority of the people and need to be more sensitive to the interests of the people. Kalayci and Artan (2012), on the other hand, stated that democratization may lead to a decrease in some of the barriers to international trade and an increase in others. As an example of this situation, they argued that in conjunction with the increasing democratization, a decrease in tariffs on imported products and an increase in non-tariff barriers may be observed. Milner and Kubota (2005) stated that the tendencies of trade liberalization and democratization are interrelated and as the level of democratization in labor-abundant countries increases, the tendency to reduce trade barriers of political leaders in those countries will also increase.

In the study, a significant and positive relationship was found between employment and GDP in the long run. In conjunction with the increase in the level of democracy, investments will increase and the increase in investments will positively affect employment. Since it will take time to increase investments in countries along with democracy, its positive effect on employment will also show itself in the long run. This result can be interpreted in two ways according to the literature. An increase in the level of democracy will increase investment, employment, and availability of public goods. It will also encourage economic reforms and reduce social inequality leading to an increase in economic growth (Acemoglu et al., 2019). On the other hand, indicated that in the democratic maturation stage, along with the effect of industrialization, there may be an increase in the share of capital owners from income. This situation may reduce the income of the poor people and prevent their expenditures to increase their human capital. This may prevent the increase in labor productivity and negatively affect the increase in incomes of individuals and economic growth.

In the study, it was observed that while inflation didn't have a significant effect on GDP in the long run, it decreased GDP by having a negative effect on GDP in the short run. High inflation rates are one of the main economic problems, especially in developing countries. High inflation increases the uncertainty in the economy, causes country risks and foreign trade deficits to increase, and leads to macroeconomic instability. In addition, high inflation rates negatively affect investments by increasing interest rates, nominal wages, and nominal exchange rates. All these negativities negatively affect economic growth and cause a decrease in GDP. Generally monetary and fiscal policies implement to struggle with high inflation. However, the effect of these policies implemented to reduce inflation may be limited due to structural problems, especially in developing countries. Foremost of these structural problems are problems such as inflexible labor markets, complex tax systems, the rule of law, redundancy in bureaucratic procedures, and the low level of development of democracy. It is important to carry out structural reforms and increase the level of development of democracy in order to eliminate these problems and keep inflation rates consistently low. Increasing the level of

development in democratization will affect economic growth positively by increasing human, physical, political, and social capital and will be effective in keeping inflation at low levels by turning inflation expectations into positive ones. In addition, structural reforms and an increase in the level of democratization will also lead to a decrease in inflation by affecting the decrease in income inequality. Therefore, considering the level of democracy in the developing countries that we have considered in the study, it is expected result that inflation will have a negative effect on GDP in the short run. The increase in the level of democracy in these countries may lead to an improvement in inflation levels and a positive reflection on GDP in the long run. However, in different studies in the literature, different results can be obtained. For example, while Aisen and Veiga, 2006) stated that developments related to democracy had a reducing effect on inflation, they concluded that this effect was not valid in developing countries.

In the study, while there was no relationship between the electoral democracy index and GDP variables in the short run, the effect of the electoral democracy index on GDP was found to be negative in the long run. It is an expected result that there is no relationship between the two variables in the short run. Because it takes time for democracy to form and spread to institutions in a country. The fact that there is a negative relationship between the two variables in the long run, reveals that the conflict approach is valid in the developing countries considered in the study. The conflict approach is one of the approaches that explain the relationship between democracy and economic growth in the literature and claims that democracy can affect economic growth negatively. The reasons for this situation have been expressed in studies in the literature. For example, Huntington (1968, as cited in Erdogan, 2020) argued that democracy can have a reducing effect on national and individual savings by causing the consumption culture to become widespread. Huntington stated that this situation may make it difficult to open new business areas by increasing the financing costs of investments necessary for economic growth or by preventing these investments, and may create a slowing effect on growth. Alesina and Rodrik (1994), on the other hand, argued that if there is a high level of income inequality in a country, democracy in that country will not function effectively, and fair and ineffective taxation rates and burden will arise. In this case, segments with a higher share of income can influence the tax policies of the government that came to power through democratic processes by forming pressure groups or lobbying. Therefore, instead of taxing income and wealth, which can be effective in reducing income inequality, policy makers may pursue an ineffective taxation policy by increasing indirect taxes.

Considering the PGM results by country, it was seen that none of the variables we used in the analysis were significant on GDP in India, Nigeria, Pakistan and Türkiye. When we look at the common point of these countries, especially Pakistan and Nigeria, it is seen that the democracy process has been experienced for a very short time since they gained their independence, and it is generally governed by military or civilian governments. In India, on the other hand, it can be said that democracy has continued uninterruptedly since 1947 when it gained its independence, but the authoritarian regime it has followed recently has caused a decrease in the level of democracy. However, in these three countries, especially Pakistan and Nigeria, problems such as the weakness of state institutions, social inequality, excessive ethnicity, and decrease in the rule of law, infrastructure problems, and security cause the level of democracy to remain low, and thus economic growth cause adverse effects on macroeconomic instability.

In Türkiye, the free foreign trade policies followed in the 1980s and the export-based growth model led to the emergence of an economic structure integrated with the world

economy. Along with the developments in the economic field, democratic institutionalization has also been achieved in the political field. In addition, the regulations made within the scope of the European Union membership candidate process have also been effective in the transformation in the field of democracy in Turkey. However, the negative situations in the 1990s, both politically and economically, also negatively affected democracy. Therefore, there are ongoing structural problems in Turkey as a developing country. High propensity to consume and low propensity to save are some of these problems. In addition, high inflation, unemployment and informal economy rates, foreign trade deficits are among the problems that have been struggled for many years. These problems have had a very bad effect on the Turkish economy and the level of development of democracy in recent years. Policies implemented in this macroeconomic instability environment, as in other developing countries, are insufficient and structural reforms are needed.

As a result, the level of development of democracy should be increased and the number and independence of democratic institutions should be increased in order to ensure macroeconomic stability and reflect positively on growth, especially in developing countries. This will lead to the reduction of uncertainties, positive expectations, the realization of commercial relations and contracts in an environment of trust, the effective functioning of the market mechanism, the assurance of property rights, the reduction of transaction costs and the creation of a free competition environment, and thus it will lead to a positive effect on economic growth rates in the long run.

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Recognizing Ecocide - A Reasonable Step Towards Saving the Planet

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INTRODUCTION

Is it or should it be a crime to cause extensive or irreversible damage to ecosystems or to cause their complete destruction? Or is it acceptable to cause the collapse of the ecosystems that make life possible on earth? Since the emergence of civilization, harming another individual has been considered as crime in many different cultures and has been subjected to various penal sanctions. Today, on the other hand, it is well known that the lives of individuals are interrelated with the ecosystems they belong. It is clear that harming environment directly and indirectly, harm individuals. Therefore, damage given to the ecosystem should be evaluated in the same context. Even thought, our current civilization fails to put sanctions and even define as crime the disastrous activities causing catastrophes to ecosystems. Many scientists underline that the current international legal system ineffectual to prevent the pressure on the ecological systems. Functional mechanisms are needed to protect humanity, other species and the nature itself (Merz, 2014: 17; Gray, 1996: 216; Killean, 2021: 329).

This study argues that ecocide, a proposed crime against environment, can be a reasonable and applicable mechanism to prevent extensive destructive activities against environment. The main idea behind ecocide is that the destruction on ecosystems can be prevented to some extent by criminalizing behaviors that cause extensive environmental destruction. This study focusses on the emergence of the concept of ecocide and the history of the efforts to ensure its recognition as an international crime. The study also examines how the efforts carried out on the international platform affect national environmental law. The study aims to emphasize that national and international effords for the legal recognition of ecocide and their importance dealing with ecological crises.

ECOCIDE

The term ecocide is derived from the Greek words 'oikos' (house) and 'caedere' (to kill or destroy), basically defined as destruction of the natural environment. The term was first used by Professor Arthur Galston at a conference in 1970, referring to the devastating consequences caused by the chemical called Agent Orange, which was used by the US military in the Vietnam War. Galston used ecocide to express his concern about the dire effects that Agent Orange or similar chemical weapons could have on ecology and life. Scientists who share this point of view argued that ecocide should be considered a crime (Johnstone, 1971: 719- 720; Zierler, 2011: 15; Merz, 2014: 17; Sarlième, 2020: 233).

Merz defines ecocide as an extensive damage or destruction to ecosystems (Merz, 2014:16), Gray defines it as causing or allowing large-scale damage to the natural environment by individuals or institutions (Gray, 1996:216). Crook and Short stated that in the age of

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Anthropocene ecocide will be the main cause of genocide, if the environmental disasters, rapid species extinctions, loss of habitat, ecological collapses and the dependence of the human race on the biosphere is taken into account. For this reason, they argue that the definition of genocide should be revised and combined with the concept of ecocide, drawing on the traditions of political ecology and environmental sociology. According to this view, ecocide and genocide are highly interrelated and even interdependent concepts (Crook and Short, 2014: 305- 307).

On the other hand, Eichler, who considers ecocide from a broader philosophical perspective, underlines the relationship between ecocide and genocide, and states that these two are closely interconnected and they are even the results of the same action, especially for indigenous people. According to Eichler, justice for indigenous peoples can only be achieved by adopting an expanded definition of genocide that will include ecocide. This is not only because of the vitality of indigenous peoples' relationships with the ecosystems to which they are culturally and socially connected, which Eichler defines as genocide through ecocide. It is also related to the value of non-human individuals and non-human creatures in indigenous cultures (Eichler, 2020: 104). In the eyes of indigenous peoples, ecocide is seen as genocide rather than a tool of genocide, since nonhuman nature is not merely a resource for human use but has a value in itself (Gaioni, 1989: 355).

In looking at the Marxist literature, Satgar defines ecocide as the destruction of ecosystems, common areas, human and non-human life forms that sustain life, in order to ensure capitalist expansion. According to this approach, ecocide or imperial ecocide is a concept as old as the capitalist mode of production. Satgar explains ecocide with the concept of metabolic rift developed by Foster. According to this approach, capitalism breaks the organic bond between people and nature and alienate people from both themselves and the nature. Again, based on the concept of metabolic rift, Crook and Short state that the unceasing environmental degradation for the sake of capital accumulation creates a pressure that can cause the collapse of human civilization and it can even trigger the extinction of its own specie. Therefore, ecocide cannot be considered, understood or analyzed separately from the capitalist mode of production (Satgar, 2018: 56; Crook and Short, 2014: 299; Foster, 2000: 155; Broswimmer, 2002: 55; Lindgren, 2018: 528- 529).

Falk defines the term as the irreparable environmental damage consciously or unconsciously caused by humans in times of war and peace on the Proposed International Convention of Ecocide published in 1973 (Falk, 1973: 93). Whether the definition of ecocide should contain the element of intent has been a subject of much discussion[2]. Even though some claim that the element of intent is an indispensable part of the crime (Fried, 2008: 8; France, 2008: 8), the main view in the literature is that intent should not be sought since the reason acts usually occurs as a result of economic activities. According to this view, the purpose of most of the actions that cause serious ecological damage is not to harm the environment, but to provide economic benefit. However, that fact doesn't make the ecological damage less important. Therefore, seeking the element of intent in the crime of ecocide will exclude many acts that cause serious damage to the environment from the scope of the crime (Falk, 1973: 89; Gauger et al, 2012).

[2] An important part of the discussions conducted by the International Law Commission under the title of Article "26. Intentional and serious damage to the environment" was carried out regarding the element of intent.

On the other hand, Teclaff emphasizes that the characteristic feature of the concept is the extent of the damage done to the environment. For example, a damage to part of an ecosystem, such as an inland sea or an aquifer, can spread widely and be devastating to other ecosystems in a chain reaction. Ecocide may occur as a result of a single event such as a nuclear disaster, or it may occur with a long-term accumulation such as uncontrolled toxic wastes. An important point that is agreed upon in the concept of ecocide is that it is very difficult or impossible to repair the damage (Teclaff, 1994: 934). Finally, in the proposal submitted by Higgins to the United Nations Law Commission in 2010, ecocide was defined as "the extensive damage to, destruction of or loss of ecosystem(s) of a given territory, whether by human agency or by other causes, to such an extent that peaceful enjoyment by the inhabitants of that territory has been severely diminished" (Higgins et al, 2013: 257). A notable point in this definition is that the inhabitants of that area are not just humans. Higgins emphasizes that all residents of the damaged area, all the living habitants, humans as well as plants and animals are taken into account. Thus, the definition moves away from a human and property-centered understanding to a nature-centered one (Smith, 2010: 15).

It is insistently emphasized in the literature that environmental destruction and devastation should be defined as an international crime on the grounds that it prevents the use of many human rights, especially the right to life (Higgins, 2012: 48; Gray, 1996: 216; Berat, 1993: 328; van Solinge, 2008: 28; Falk, 1973: 89). For example, Higgins states that if we destroy the world, it will be no longer possible for us to live on it peacefully therefore our understanding must change. However, this change should be shaped not only personally, but also on the legal frame and our relationship with nature should evolve away from the relationship of property into a relationship of custody. In short, a law of ecocide is needed to serve to end ecocide (Higgins, 2012: 48). Similarly Killean states that if international criminal law aims to provide justice for crimes that hurt the conscience of humanity, as asserted, environmental crimes must also be classified as a crime, despite the significant obstacles, especially political resistance (Killean, 2021: 324).

According to another view, while the lives of humanity and many other species are in danger due to the excessive use of scarce resources, the only way to slow down the course of events and even reverse the destruction is through international and a self-sacrificing cooperation. Only then it will be possible to constrain the actions of individuals, states and companies, while recognizing the rights of human and non-human species and ecosystems. Such a change is only possible with an international regulation (Mehta and Merz, 2015: 7; Merz, 2014: 18).

LEGISLATIVE DEVELOPMENTS

First Efforts

The first proposal for the recognition of ecocide as an international crime date back to the 1970s. Firstly, it was Professor Arthur W. Galston, a plant biologist, that proposed an international treaty to ban ecocide, at the War and National Responsibility Conference, first held in Washington in 1970. Galson and his colleagues examining the destructive effects of the orange agent on life on their studies, emphasizing that the threat isn't limited with just the orange agent, expressed they were horrified by the imagination of a dystopian world due to the more sophisticated chemical weapons that can be used with more advanced methods in the

future. Therefore, they recommend banning practices that may cause vegetative destruction in future wars (Zierler, 2011: 15).

Another important development in these years was the United Nations Stockholm Conference held in 1972, in which Swedish Prime Minister Olof Palme stated in his opening speech that the Vietnam war was an ecocide. The Conference, for the first time, attracted the attention of the international community to the environmental issue, such as environmental destruction and transboundary pollution. Although no further emphasis was placed on the concept of ecocide in the conference, recognition of the right to environment and to acknowledgement of how the environment is essential for people to enjoy their fundamental rights and freedoms was noteworthy (Gauger et al., 2012).

Richard A. Falk, in his article published in 1973, proposed an international definition for the concept of ecocide in the draft international convention on crime of ecocide and argued that the development of a regulation would contribute to the prevention of environmental destruction. This article was then covered in the studies conducted by UN Subcommittee on the Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities in 1978 and in 1985 regarding the evaluation of the effectiveness of the 1948 Genocide Convention. Thereby the crime of eco-crime was discussed for the first time in international legislative negotiations. (Sarlième, 2020: 4).

During the evaluation of the Convention, Falk argued that the expressions "we are living in a period of increasing danger of ecological collapse" and "man consciously and unconsciously inflicted irreparable damage to the environment in times of war and peace" should be used (Falk, 1973: 93). During the evaluations, the element of intent was discussed and claimed irrelevant (Westing, 1974: 24-27). Mr. Bouhdiba from the subcommittee, supported the draft convention stating that any intervention to the region where the indigenous people live in would qualify as a kind of ethnic genocide, since it would be an intervention to the traditional lifestyles of people (Higgins et al., 2013: 256). However, the main purpose of this study was to prevent the degradation that indigenous peoples face rather than to protect the environment. Therefore, the Draft International Convention on the Crime of Ecocide was shelved after a brief review, without being put to a vote, despite the support of the majority of UN subcommittees[3] (Sarlième, 2020: 4; Higgins at al., 2013: 259; Crook and Short, 2014: 308).

Ecocide As a Crime Against Peace and Security

The most important international convention in which ecocide was discussed was without doubt the Draft Code of Crimes against the Peace and Security of Mankind. This Draft Code was later adopted as the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court (ICC) in 1998 and entered into force in 2002. Today, the Rome Statute regulates four crimes within the scope of Crimes Against Peace; genocide, crimes against humanity, war crimes, and the crime of aggression.

The period between 1984 to 1996 is highly important for the recognition of ecocide as a crime. In 1986 the Special Rapporteur of the International Law Commission recommended to conclude the list of crimes against humanity by adding a provision that regulate environmental crimes as punishable act[4] (ILC Yearbook; 1986: 45-46). For the next 12 years, the International

[3] For detailed information, please see "The study of the question of the prevention and punishment of the crime of genocide, file:///D:/indir/E_CN.4_Sub.2_416-EN.pdf.

[4] It was proposed that "any serious violation of an international obligation of fundamental importance for the protection and preservation of the human environment", which was not included in the 1954 draft, should be included in the scope of crimes against humanity. Members of the commission emphasized the seriousness of the violation and the importance

Law Commission continues to conduct and debate on bringing environmental damage and ecocide into the scope of Crimes Against Peace.

In the 43rd session held in 1991, the article regulating environmental damage was brought up for discussion by strengthening it with the criteria of "widespread", "long-term" and "serious" and then limiting it to "intentional". The members of the Committee agreed accidental damage should be excluded from the scope of this article, even if it is due to negligence. According to the article, only actions aimed at harming will remain within the jurisdiction of this article. On the other hand, some members state that the element of intent suggested by the special rapporteur is too broad and difficult to interpret. They underlined that almost all ecocide crimes committed peacetime are unintentional. Therefore, it is emphasized in the relevant article that it is not reasonable to seek the element of intent. Belgium emphasized that the concept of intentional harm is too restrictive, while Australia states that the element of intent should be softened. Moreover, Austria argued that the element of intent should not be accepted as a condition for criminal liability regarding ecocide, since in peacetime ecocide e is usually committed with a profit motive.

Another criticism has developed towards the criteria of "widespread", "long-term[5]" and "serious". It has been stated that seeking these criteria at the same time may eliminate the possibility of applying the article at all. In the light of these discussions, the draft text was added as Intentional and Severe Damage to the Environment within the scope of Article 26 [6] (Yearbook of the ILC; 1991, Vol. 1: 234-236; Gauger, 2012).

In the negotiations that took place in 1993, the element of intent came to the fore again and it was suggested to add the phrase *employing methods not only intended to but even "likely" to or "which may be expected to" cause the damage.* Otherwise, actions that cause widespread, long-term and serious damage to the environment, but conducted with economic motive rather than damage, will be excluded from the scope of this article. The general view is that there is no reasonable justification for not recognizing an act that was a crime in wartime as a crime in peacetime. Almost all of the members[7] expressed their opinions in favor of the adoption of the article, apart from the above-mentioned criticisms regarding the strengthening of the article (Yearbook of the ILC; 1993, Vol. II, Part I: 66).

During the 1995 negotiations, Special Rapporteurs unexpectedly declared his decision to exclude some articles from negotiations, including Article 26, to the commission. Therefore, the proposal was unilaterally withdrawn, despite all efforts to criminalize ecocide in times of war and peace, and despite the strong support of the commissioners. Although many members demanded that at least Article 26 be retained, no results were achieved. Thus, the 1998 Rome Statute strangely recognizes that environmental damage is a crime that occurs only in wartime, excluding peacetime. Therefore, in times of peace, ecocrime is excluded from the jurisdiction of the ICC (Yearbook of the ILC 1995; Higgins et al, 2012; Merz, 2014: 17).

Moreover, the statement included to the article of the Rome Statute within the scope of war crimes was taken from the definition of crime against the environment of the Environmental

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of the element of intent. It was underlined that less serious violations may not be included in the scope of crimes against humanity (Yearbook of the ILC; 1986: 46).

[5] The term "long-term" was changed to "durable" after the negotiation process

[6] *Article 26. Wilful and severe damage to the environment- An individual who wilfully causes or orders another individual to cause widespread, long-term and severe damage to the natural environment shall, on conviction thereof, be sentenced [to ...].*

[7] Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the United States opposed the Article 26.

Modification Convention (ENMOD) adopted in 1977[8]. However, the statement was changed by replacing the conjunction "or" with "and", becoming a definition of crime that is very unlikely to actually occur. As stated by Gauger et al., history shows how low the probability of this crime occurs (Gauger et al., 2012).

The removal of the clause "intentionally and seriously harming the environment in times of peace" from the draft text was a sudden and unexpected development. Besides, the recorded documents regarding the reasons for this decision are also quite inadequate. Doudou Thiam, the Special Rapporteur on the Draft Code of Crimes Against the Peace and Security of Humanity, argued that the removal of the article was due to the comments of several governments that were totally opposed to Article 26, during the 1993 session (Yearbook of the ILC 1995: 35). Christian Tomuschat, Rapporteur of the UN Working Group on Environmental Crimes, argued that commission members agreed on that it is still too early to accept offenses against nature as a crime against peace and security and only a direct damage to human existence can be considered within this context. Tomuschat noted that he was under the impression that nuclear weapons played an important role on the removal of the ecocide clause from the text. The text has been so narrowed that even a deliberate decision that could cause the most terrible disasters for humanity will not be enough to meet the criteria in the text (Tomuschat, 1996: 243; Mehta and Merz, 2015: 4).

Based on the comments of the rapporteurs, it is emphasized that there is political resistance behind the exclusion of the crime of ecocide. In parallel with the neo-liberal ideology's resistance to all kinds of mechanisms that restrict their economic activities, states have also resisted such a definition of crime that would limit their ability to exploit the natural environment (Killean, 2021: 39; Higgins et al., 2013: 255- 256).

Current Developments

Since the 1970s, when the concept of ecocide was first introduced and the argued that it should be accepted as an international crime, three alternatives stood out in the studies. These were ecocide as a stand-alone crime into the draft Code of Offences against the Peace and Security of Mankind; or to include ecocide under Crimes against Humanity; or as a third option, to include under War Crimes. After years of long debate, it was decided that environmental crime should be removed from the draft text of the Rome Statute and that only a highly softened version of it should be preserved under War Crimes (Mehta and Merz, 2015: 4). However, the decision to exclude ecocide from the scope of the ICC has led to criticism to the ICC that was established after the Rome Statute and committed to fighting crime and providing justice for victims worldwide. It was stated that the ICC fell short of its commitment to[9] "justice to the

[8] *States party to the Convention undertake "not to engage in military or any other hostile use of environmental modification techniques having* ***widespread, long-lasting or severe effects*** *as the means of destruction, damage or injury to any other State Party"* (ENMOD, 1977)

[9] Preamble of Rome Stature; "The States Parties to this Statute, Conscious that all peoples are united by common bonds, their cultures pieced together in a shared heritage, and concerned that this delicate mosaic may be shattered at any time, Mindful that during this century millions of children, women and men have been victims of unimaginable atrocities that deeply shock the conscience of humanity, Recognizing that such grave crimes threaten the peace, security and well-being of the world, Affirming that the most serious crimes of concern to the international community as a whole must not go unpunished and that their effective prosecution must be ensured by taking measures at the national level and by enhancing international cooperation, Determined to put an end to impunity for the perpetrators of these crimes and thus to contribute to the prevention of such crimes, Recalling that it is the duty of every State to exercise its criminal jurisdiction over those responsible for international crimes, Reaffirming the Purposes and Principles of the Charter of the United Nations, and in particular that all States shall refrain from the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any State, or in any other manner inconsistent with the Purposes of the United Nations, Emphasizing in this connection that nothing in this Statute shall be taken as authorizing any State Party to intervene in

victims" and that its role in distributing justice was more symbolic and even the Court has disappointed humanity and the planet (Rome Statute; Moffett, 2014: 38; Satgar, 2018: 64).

One of the main reasons for this is the relatively narrow jurisdiction of the Court. Limiting the jurisdiction of the ICC to genocide, crimes against humanity, war crimes and crimes of aggression leaves millions of victims of poverty, hunger, disease, natural disasters, financial crises and inequality out of the judiciary mechanism (Killean, 2021: 324). Environmental crimes, which have caused the victimization of millions of people, have likewise been excluded from the jurisdiction of the ICC. While crimes against the environment are only considered within the scope of war crimes, it is not considered as a crime to cause massive and irreparable environmental destruction that could threaten the lives of humans and other species and to cause permanent damage to ecosystems in peacetime.

However, it has been known for a long time that the lives of individuals are very closely related to the ecosystems they live in. Therefore, it is clear that the only way to harm individuals is not to harm their physical assets, but to injure the ecosystem they live in should be evaluated in the same context. Moreover, the risk here goes far beyond harming individuals; other species, future generations, ecosystems and ultimately the entire planet are at risk. Since the nature is seen as mere source for capital accumulation, the mass destruction of ecosystems is seen as the greatest threat to human and other living beings today. Therefore, the ICC's ignorance of environmental destruction and degradation causes its power to dispense global justice to be questioned and even viewed as inadequate (Heredia, 1994: 2175; Merz, 2014: 17; Higgins et al., 2013: 264).

Without a healthy environment, people's enjoyment of their most basic rights, such as the right to life, may be jeopardized. Therefore, the right to the environment is an important part of basic human rights. Precisely for this reason, it is extremely important to protect the right to the environment with correct and applicable legal mechanisms. On the other hand, due to the cross-border character of ecological cycles, the protection of the right to the environment must be realized by an international mechanism. Since the ICC is the first and only international criminal court and undertakes the mission of "deterring and punishing the most serious international crimes that threaten the peace, security and welfare of the world", it is seen as the most appropriate authority for the provision of environmental justice (Freeland, 2005: 132; Killean, 2021: 330).

It is precisely for this reason that in 2010, British lawyer Polly Higgins submitted the International Ecocide Law proposal to the UN Law Commission. The proposal sought to add the crime of ecocide as an independent crime to the Rome Statute. The proposed amendment is to include "the extensive damage to, destruction of or loss of ecosystem(s) of a given territory, whether by human agency or by other causes, to such an extent that peaceful enjoyment by the inhabitants of that territory has been severely diminished" clause to the text. It has been ensured that the problems arising from natural disasters such as floods and tsunamis are taken under responsibility by examining the ecocide under two headings as a result of human actions and other causes. In addition, it is considered important that the principle of superior responsibility will bind not only companies but also states. Legal responsibility in the face of ecocide as a result of human actions will lie with both governments, the decision makers, managers and the

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an armed conflict or in the internal affairs of any State, Determined to these ends and for the sake of present and future generations, to establish an independent permanent International Criminal Court in relationship with the United Nations system, with jurisdiction over the most serious crimes of concern to the international community as a whole, Emphasizing that the International Criminal Court established under this Statute shall be complementary to national criminal jurisdictions, Resolved to guarantee lasting respect for and the enforcement of international justice" (Rome Statute)

investors who are responsible for the action. Therefore, those responsible will be under the obligation to intervene before environmental damage occurs (Higgins et al, 2013: 257). In order for the International Ecocide Law proposal submitted by Higgins to be accepted by making a regulation in the Rome Statute, one of the party states to the Rome Statute must propose a change in law. The proposed bill may then be adopted by a two-thirds majority vote at a meeting of the Assembly of States Parties or at a review conference convened by the Assembly (Rome Statute, 2011: 8; Harvey, 2012: 11).

Some positive progress has been made towards the recognition of the crime of ecocide since the Higgins' proposal. In 2013, the ICC Prosecutor published a Policy Paper on Case Selection and Prioritization. In the document, it is stated that the gravity of the crime was a factor in the evaluation process. In this context, the ICC Prosecutor's Office will pay special attention to the prosecution of Rome Statute crimes committed or resulting in, inter alia, destruction of the environment, illegal exploitation of natural resources or illegal land grab (ICC, 2013; Killean, 2021: 324). In 2016, the ICC Prosecutor's Office amended the Policy document published in 2013, stating that it will attach special importance to the prosecution of crimes committed or resulting in the destruction of the environment, the illegal use of natural resources or the illegal land grab (ICC, 2016: 14). In addition, the document states that the ICC Prosecutor's Office will, upon request, try to cooperate and provide support with states regarding acts that constitute a serious crime under national law, such as the illegal use of natural resources, land grab, and destruction of the environment (ICC, 2016: 5). Moreover, in 2019, at the Meeting of the ICC Assembly of States Parties, Vanuatu and the Maldives call for consideration of adding the crime of "ecocide" to the Rome Statute (Banungana, 2022: 238-239). In 2020, Belgium proposed the consideration of adding the crime of ecocide to the Rome Statute.

National Efforts

The proposal for the inclusion of ecocide in the Rome Statute has attracted the attention of environmental movements and many of them are working intensively on this issue. The main goal is to get the support of citizens to create a pressure on their governments regarding the signature of the document. For example, in 2012 the citizens' movement End Ecocide organized a European Citizens' Initiative to demand that the European Union adapt legislation to outlaw ecocide (European Citizens' Initiative).

Higgins, on the other hand, predicted that the recognition of ecocide in international law would also find its reflection in national law. Although not included in the Rome Statute, some states have included the crime of ecocide in their penal codes (Sarlième, 2020: 234- 235, Mehta and Merz, 2015: 5- 6). Vietnam was the first country to make legal arrangements which led to the emergence of the term ecocide due to the terrible experiences it had during the Vietnam War. It is affirmed in 1990 that the act of "ecocide and destruction of the natural environment" is a crime against humanity[10] ((Social Republic of Vietnam Criminal Code, 2015; Sarlième, 2020: 234). In 1996, the Russian Federation similarly enacted the crime of ecocide under the Criminal Code within the Chapter 34. Crimes Against the Security of Humanity and Peace[11].

[10] Under Article 278 (1990) of the Vietnam Penal Code, "acts of ecocide or destruction of the natural environment", whether committed in time of peace or war, constitute crimes against humanity. The penal code was expended in 1999 and 2015, and sanctions vary from 10 years and going up to life imprisonment or death penalty were envisaged for the crime of ecocide or destruction of the natural environment. Besides, if the offense is committed under pressure or order given by a superior officer, the offender will face a penalty of 10 to 20 years imprisonment (Social Republic of Vietnam Criminal Code, Article 422. Crimes against humanity).

[11] Chapter 34. Crimes Against the Peace and Security Mankind, Article 358. Ecocide: Massive destruction of the animal

Ukraine[12] under Crimes Against Peace, Chapter XX. Criminal Offenses Against Peace, Security of Mankind and International Legal Order in 2021; Georgia[13] under Crimes Against Humanity in 2003; Armenia[14] under Crimes against Peace and Safety of Humanity in 2003; Moldova[15] under Crimes Against the Peace and Security of Humanity, War Crimes; Belarus[16] under Crimes Against Peace and the Security of Mankind and War crimes in 1999 and Kazakhstan[17] under Crimes Against Peace and Safety of Mankind. Increasing recognition of ecocide by nation states will contribute to the recognition of ecocide at international level.

But still, it should be underlined that due to the nature of environmental problems, an international mechanism is essential to deal with global disasters (Higgins, 2010: 32).

CONCLUSION

The ecological crisis is the most fundamental problem the world has to face. Various and diametrically opposed solution proposals are on the table. There are those who argue that fundamental transformation is needed, such as, people's perception, lifestyle, consumption-production relations, ethical values or the system itself, on the one hand. Undoubtedly correct but time-consuming perspective. And there are those who argue that the system, via the invisible hand, will solve the crisis on its own. Among these suggestions, perhaps the most applicable and reasonable solution, in the short term, is the adaptation of the system. This study argues that ecocide should be recognized as an international crime in order to prevent durable, long lasting, irreversible and extensive damage to the natural environment.

or plant kingdoms, contamination of the atmosphere or water resources, and also commission of other actions capable of causing an ecological catastrophe, shall be punishable by deprivation of liberty for a term of 12 to 20 years. Please see https://www.imolin.org/doc/amlid/Russian_Federation_Criminal_Code.pdf

[12] Article 441. Ecocide: Mass destruction of flora and fauna, poisoning of air or water resources, and also any other actions that may cause an environmental disaster, -shall be punishable by imprisonment for a term of eight to fifteen years (Criminal Code of Republic of Ukraine).

[13] Article 409 - Ecocide

1. Ecocide i.e. contamination of the atmosphere, soil, water resources, mass destruction of fauna or flora, or any other act that could have led to an ecological disaster, - shall be punished by imprisonment for a term of twelve to twenty years.

2. The same act committed during armed conflicts, -shall be punished by imprisonment for a term of fourteen to twenty years or with life imprisonment (Criminal Code of Georgia)

[14] Article 394. Ecocide- Intentional mass destruction of flora or fauna, contamination of the atmosphere, soils or water resources, as well as commission of other acts which have caused an ecological catastrophe—shall be punished by imprisonment for a term of ten to fifteen years (The Criminal Code of The Republic of Armenia).

[15] Article 136. Ecocide- Deliberate mass destruction of flora and fauna, poisoning the atmosphere or water resources, and the commission of other acts that may cause or caused an ecological disaster shall be punished by imprisonment for 10 to 15 years (The Criminal Code of The Republic of Moldova)

[16] Intentional mass destruction of flora or fauna, or poisoning of atmospheric air or water resources, or committing other deliberate actions capable of causing an ecological disaster (ecocide) are punished with imprisonment for a term of ten to 15 years (The Criminal Code of The Republic of Belarus)

[17] Article 161. Ecocide. Mass destruction of flora or fauna, poisoning the atmosphere, land or water resources, as well as the commission of other acts which caused or a capable of causation of an ecological catastrophe, - shall be punished by imprisonment for a period from ten to fifteen years (The Criminal Code of The Republic of Kazakhstan).

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Vocational High Schools Vocational Education Centers

Ayşe SOMUNCU[1]

Introduction

With globalization, crises are common all over the world. In the economic dimension of the crisis, layoffs and unemployment are experienced. Unemployment is one of the most prominet problems in countries. In this case, vocational training in the fields needed at the country level gains importance. Education is a process of preparation for a profession and social life. Every individual can come out of the education system they entered at a young age, having acquired the necessary features for society and work. This issue is important for community leaders in terms of ensuring the welfare and peace of the community. In this direction, vocational education; is the education that provides the individual with knowledge, skills, and work habits related to a particular profession in business life and develops the individual's abilities in various aspects (Alkan, Doğan, Sezgin, 1996, p.6).

Qualified staff is needed in every segment of society. Qualified personnel can be gained through vocational training. Therefore, vocational education is an important type of education for both the world and Türkiye. The reason why vocational education is important is that it is effective in preventing unemployment. In the European Commission unemployment report, it is emphasized that vocational training is not given importance. In the OECD report on combating unemployment, one of the seven categories is vocational training (Germir, 2013, p. 8-9). According to the March 2018 data of the Turkish Statistical Institute (TUIK), the unemployment rate for vocational and technical high schools is 9.9%. The number of unemployed is 339 thousand. The unemploymentt rate of university graduates is 11.1% and the number of unemployed is 825 thousand. In the third quarter of 2021, these figures are the unemployment rate for vocational and technical high schools, 12.5%, the number of unemployed ed, and 475 thousand. The rate of unemployed among university graduates is 13.7% and the number of unemployed is 1.283 thousand. According to the research carried out by the Ministry of Labor and Social Security with TÜİK with one hundred and ten thousand workplaces in 2013, it has been revealed that there is a shortage of two hundred and fifty-nine thousand workers and 75 out of every 100 employers need qualified employees (TÜİK, 2013).

From here, it can be deduced the majority of the unemployed in Turkey are unskilled or educated in areas that are not needed. Türkiye has a large young population. For this, more serious investments should be made in young people. In 2007, “A University for every city!” The large number of universities opened with the slogan may suggest that this investment has been made. The lack of technical equipment, infrastructure, and teaching staff in these universities reduces the quality of education and increases the number of unemployed university graduates.

In Karakul (2012)'s research, it was concluded that "unemployment with a diploma is more common among those who graduated from small city universities". There has been a significant change in the education level of the unemployed in the last 15 years. While the registered unemployed rate of high school graduates decreased, university graduates increased. While 47% of high school graduates were unemployed in 2005, this rate increased to 26% in 2019. The rate of university graduates increased from 12% to 26%.

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Türkiye has a young population. Therefore, the education of the young population is important. Education areas of young people should be determined. Training plans should be prepared according to sector demands. Vocational training should be done (MEB, 2014, p. 5). Individuals should be provided with a working space in line with their knowledge, skills and abilities. Accordingly, the country's education policies should be determined. The fact that Türkiye has a young population is an advantage in the process of joining the European Union and harmonization policies.

As the certificates and documents obtained in education in the member countries of the European Union are valid. This situation increases the importance of vocational education. In developed countries, the secondary education system is organized as general secondary education and vocational secondary education in a vocational education-oriented structure (Özyılmaz, 2013, p.205). Thus, the sector's need for intermediate staff is not met by undergraduates, but by vocational high school or vocational school graduates. Students cannot be fully employed since vocational education institutions in Türkiye do not comply with the demands of the sector after graduation. Families do not want their children to receive vocational education due to the low employment rate of vocational high school graduates and the fact that they have less chance to settle in university than general high school graduates. This situation causes a decrease in the number of vocational high school students.

The expansion of universities provided vertical mobility. Therefore, families have had to allocate more resources to education so that their children can enter university. While there is a great increase in the number of young people who want to enter the university, the need for intermediate staff in sectors such as machinery, electricity-electronics, and industry, especially equipped for technical positions, increases with the developing technology (İzto, 2015). The companies stated that they could not find personnel for their technician requirements and that the number of engineers exceeded the number of qualified technicians and that they hired engineers to meet their technician needs. The number of university graduates has far exceeded the number of technicians. Now, while three engineers work for one technician in companies in Turkey, this situation is as seven or eight technicians along with one engineer in Europe (Çiftçi, 2021).

Research have revealed the importance of vocational training in reducing unemployment and the need for qualified personnel in the market.

Researches made; revealed that vocational training is important in reducing youth unemployment and providing the skills needed by the market. Vocational education has been a type of education on which different policies are maintained and discussed for a long time.The coefficient application restricting access to higher education was put into practice in 1999. It has prevented successful students from turning to vocational education (Somuncu, 2019, p.104).

Well-planned vocational training has benefits at the individual, institutional and national level. The benefit to the individual is to employ with a good wage with the professional skills they have acquired, to be beneficial to the institution, to improve the business process with people trained by vocational training, to increase customer satisfaction and competition process. The benefits of vocational education at the national level are; European countries attach importance to vocational education. When structuring, there are two types of structuring of vocational training. The first one is employment-based structuring linked to labor markets, as in Germany. The other is the higher education-oriented structure, as in France, that has no connection with the labor market (Özer, 2021, p.3). The practice of passing without examination and additional points, which are recognized for vocational high school graduates at the start of higher education in 2001, can be compared to the situation in France.

A similar application to the situation in Germany is seen in Ankara, Akyurt Nevzat Hüseyin Tiryaki Vocational and Technical Anatolian High School. With the new machines taken into the furniture technologies department, the students receive practical training and also receive a fee from the revolving fund. Within the scope of the protocols made with the furniture industry, students have the opportunity to be employed abroad after graduation as well as in Turkey (Newspaper first page, 2021).

The main purpose of the 2023 Education Vision announced by the Ministry of National Education (2018); It is to raise qualified moral individuals who are equipped with the skills of the age and the future and who can use this equipment for the benefit of humanity, who are in love with science, who are curious and sensitive to culture.

According to Selçuk (2018, p.12); In line with the 2023 vision of the National Education policy, it will be planned to train qualified workforce in the professions and fields required by the business world. We are trying to ensure that the education-employment-production link is on solid ground. In line with this goal, it is aimed to improve the human, financial, physical and technological infrastructure, management and organization of your vocational education system to create an effective and efficient institutional structure (GMKA, 2018).

The targets following the 2023 vision in vocational education are; ensuring that the social perception of vocational education changes and aiming to determine the interests and abilities of the students within the education system and to direct them in this direction in their families. Academic content in the programs should be reduced, current vocational course content should be intensified, and on-the-job training opportunities should be increased. An environment should be created for the infrastructure and equipment of schools to be made compatible with technology in the national and international sector, public financial resources, and for employment with appropriate wages after graduation. . While increasing cooperation with the sector through national and international projects, transition to higher education should be provided. Vocational training should be planned for all these (MTEGM, 2018, p. 22).

Relationship between Vocational and Technical Education and Employment

While graduates of vocational and technical education secondary education institutions in Turkey do not have the qualifications required by the business world, on the other hand, there is a shortage of qualified personnel in enterprises. Therefore, graduates are either unemployed or have to work outside their fields (Özsoy, 2015, p.178). The reasons for this situation arise from reasons such as students with high cognitive learning level not choosing vocational and technical education secondary education institutions, vocational education programs not being fully updated in line with the demands of the labor market, lack of physical infrastructure and equipment in vocational and technical education institutions, and lack of sectoral experience of the educational staff. (MEB, 2012, p.46). In this context, there should be a tendency towards some innovations in vocational and technical education secondary education programs. It is considered necessary to ensure school-industry cooperation and that vocational and technical education secondary education institutions should have a flexible structure that can closely monitor the changes in the sectors (DPT; 1994, 30). Emphasis should be placed on structuring in vocational and technical education, based on growth-centered education and employment, and increasing the opportunities to benefit from graduates in a sustainable way (Günay and Özer, 2016, p.1).

The employment problem necessitates addressing issues such as the general structure of labor markets, the distribution of employment to sectors, the connection of vocational education and labor markets, and participation in the labor force. There is the double problem of increasing employment and lowering unemployment. For this reason, creating employment becomes the primary target of macroeconomic policies (Ministry of Development, 2014b, p. 2).

With the rapidly developing technology, new professions in science and technology are emerging and the need for personnel who know these technologies is increasing day by day. This situation causes the necessity of using new technologies in vocational and technical education. The development of science and technology at the global level also causes changes in the professional qualifications required for the job. This situation necessitates a comprehensive change in vocational and technical education (İçli, 2001, p. 67).

Türkiye has a young population. Therefore, it is among the countries with significant potential for the future. The fact that the majority of the population consists of young people increases the importance of the education of the young workforce. For the young workforce, it is necessary to plan education in line with the demands of the sector in the professions needed by the society, and to train the appropriate workforce in vocational and technical education in the determined areas.

Applications in vocational education policies can solve the unemployment problem. For the right economic growth policies, training of human resources is necessary. The long-term implementation of policies in education in Turkiye also complicates the solution of the employment problem. When the European Union's apprenticeship training programs, which are based on knowledge and skills, are examined, it is observed that flexibility can be transferred from one business line to another with short-term courses (İçli, 2001, p. 69). "As of the 2017-2018 academic year, apprenticeship training given in vocational training centers has been included in the scope of 12-year compulsory education. In the Vocational Education Center Program type, in the January 2017 registration period, the first new registration in the e-School is 14,745, the number of students registered in the e-Common module and receiving journeyman training is 62,640, the number of students receiving versed training is 26,774 and the number of students receiving versed teaching training is a total of 110,617. continues education and training" (VTE Strategy Document 2017 January-June Working Report, 2017, p.13). The majority of the young people who receive apprenticeship training in Turkey continue this training to contribute economically to the family budget (Tatlıdil and Sayılı, 1995, p. 86).

"According to TUİK data, the population of Turkiye has reached 75,627,384 as of 31 December 2012. The population is expected to be 84,247,088 people in 2023. The labor force participation rate in Turkiye is 50.7%. As of the end of 2012, the unemployment rate was 8.8%. During the same period, labor force participation rates were 71.9% for men and 30.1% for women. According to the United Nations (UN) data, the amount of workforce that Turkey will have in 2040 will reach its highest level, reaching 64.8 million. The UN claims that the population will decrease after this date due to the decrease in birth rates and the population over 65 will be more than the population aged 15-24. The UN report defines this demographic transformation as a "demographic window of opportunity" (Act. Hitit University and Middle Black Sea Development Agency (OKA), 2012, p.10).

Although there is a need for qualified personnel in some areas of the economy, unemployment rate is high among vocational and technical education graduates. The unemployment rate was lower in the 1980s. In Table 1, the number and rates of high school and vocational high school unemployed between 1979-1985 are given.

Table 1 Registered Unemployed in the 1980s and Their Rates by Education Levels

Years	High school graduate or equivalent	Industrial High School graduate	High school or equivalent school graduate %	Industrial High School graduate %
1979	25059	17311	13.2	9.1
1980	35747	22706	13.6	8.7
1981	47707	26380	13.9	7.8
1982	67273	36210	14.3	7.8
1983	97670	47886	15.6	7.7
1984	142394	68454	16.4	7.9
1985	156568	73300	16.6	7.7

Source: İİBK Unemployment Annuals, 1979,1980,1981,1982,1983,1984 (İİBK Bulletin March, April May,1985 Cited by Hesapcıoğlu, 1986, p.180

When Table 1 is examined, it is seen that unemployment rates of vocational education graduates were lower than those of general high school graduates in the past. "The unemployment rate was 14% in 2002, 12% in 2007 and 10.1% in 2012. According to the results of the Household Labor Force Survey of TUİK; In the period of December 2012, the highest share is the service sector and the lowest share is the construction sector" (Turkey Vocational and Technical Education Strategy Document and Action Plan 2014-2018, 2014, 19). Until the 1980s and the mid-1990s, vocational high school graduates were able to find jobs or open their businesses. However, In the 2000s, the number of people who graduated from vocational high schools and general high schools, who could not enter any university and who graduated from the unemployed secondary education level, is high. In 2019, the employment rate of general high school graduates is 48 percent, and the employment rate of high school equivalent vocational school graduates is 58 percent. It is seen that the unemployment rate of general high school graduates is 13. 1 percent, and 11.4 percent of those who graduated from high school and equivalent vocational schools. Considering unemployment and employment rates, graduates from high school or equivalent vocational schools are more advantageous in having a job and being employed than those who graduated from general high schools (EBS, 2021).

Approximately 11000 graduate students and 1250 employers participated in the Project (e-graduate) Monitoring of Vocational and Technical Secondary Education Graduates in 2009-2010. In the study, the number of graduates who stated that the gains gained at school were not sufficient to prepare them for business life was at the level of 42%. Most of the employers emphasized that the vocational knowledge and skills of vocational and technical secondary education graduates are insufficient (As cited in ERG and Koç, 2012, p. 25).

The problems related to the vocational and technical education system are experienced by students as well as graduates and employers.

According to Kayır et al.'s (2004) research titled "Some Basic Findings in the Vocational High School Research"; 48% of vocational high school students stated that they would not want to study in these schools even if they were given the opportunity. Students stated that the knowledge they have acquired at school is insufficient to prepare them for the profession, the technology in the industry is not available in schools, and the schools are disconnected from the industry (Cited by TÜRKONFED and ERG, 2006, p. 32).

Studies show that the education that vocational and technical secondary school graduates receive at school is not adequately suited to the demands of business life. "According to employers, the reasons for the inconsistencies in quality and quantity between the education programs implemented in vocational and technical secondary education institutions and the needs of the labor market are the lack of up-to-dateness of the programs taught in vocational

and technical schools, the lack of coordination and communication between vocational schools and workplaces, and the deficiencies arising from the basic education of the students. (ERG and Koç, 2012, pp. 26-27).

According to the Project for Monitoring Vocational and Technical Secondary Education Graduates (2008 Project Report) of the Ministry of Education, Research and Development Department (EARGED) (2010), in which 26,427 graduate students participated in 24 provinces and 63 pilot schools:

It has been determined that 29.66 percent of the graduate students participating in the research are still working in a job, while 58.66% are not working in a paid job. 25.10% of working students work in a temporary job. Considering the relevance of the job of participating graduate students who are currently working in a paid job to the department/program they graduated from, it is 38.82%. However, the rate of those who cannot find a job in any field is 15.98 percent.

Again, within the scope of the same research, according to employers;

As of June 2008, the number of workplace managers/representatives in 81 provinces who filled out questionnaires and registered in the system is 5195. 31.05% of employers stated that they had difficulties in finding qualified personnel. Of the employers who filled out the questionnaires in the provinces within the scope of the research, 76.03% stated that they employ vocational high school graduates in their enterprises, while 20.77% stated that they do not employ vocational high school graduates in their enterprises. The reasons why the participants do not prefer those who do not employ vocational high school graduates in their enterprises, and those who have vocational high school graduates when recruiting for their enterprises, were shown to be insufficient in their professional knowledge with 24.90% and inadequacy of professional skills with 24.24 percent.

Graduates of vocational education need to be able to open their own business. For this purpose, within the scope of the protocol signed with KOSGEB, 50 thousand TL grant, and 100 thousand TL interest-free loan are given by KOSGEB to vocational education graduates who open their own business (MTEGM, 2018, p. 31).

The main goal of education is to find a solution to unemployment. When it comes to employment, the first thing that comes to mind is vocational high schools. Adolescents and young people should be guided and trained in vocational education programs in line with their personality traits, interests, abilities and academic achievements. Directing the students to the field and profession suitable for their latent powers will ensure that they are at peace with themselves and increase their adaptation to the environment. When they graduate in the future, they will be successful and happy in the professions they prefer according to their interests and abilities. For this reason, it is very important to direct students to professional fields.

The Situation of Vocational Education in Türkiye

Vocational and technical education in Turkey is carried out with formal and non-formal education programs. Formal vocational education takes place in vocational and technical high schools that implement various programs. According to the circular sent by the Ministry of National Education (MEB) with 81 provinces; 22 school types affiliated to the General Directorate of Vocational and Technical Education were restructured under the names of "Vocational and Technical Anatolian High School" and "Multi-Program Anatolian High School" without any change in the education period and the rights and authorities of their graduates. Starting from the 2014-2015 academic year, the implementation started gradually, starting from the 9th grade. 9th grade programs are common in all high schools. In vocational and technical high schools, students choose a field in the 10th grade. In the 11th and 12th grades, they receive branch education depending on the field they choose (Ministry of National

Education Regulation on Secondary Education Institutions, 2013, Article: 31). This situation has changed with the 12th article of the Regulation on the Amendment of Secondary Education Institutions of the Ministry of National Education, published in the Official Gazette No. 31232 on September 2, 2020. In the regulation, it is stated that students will be admitted to Anatolian technical programs and vocational and technical secondary education institutions within the scope of the project with a central examination. Other Anatolian vocational high schools, on the other hand, are made through the e-School system, based on the students' preferences and secondary school success score, as a result of the promotion and guidance to be made by their schools within the first two weeks of the 9th grade. Branch selection is made through the e-School system at the end of the 9th grade for Anatolian technical and Anatolian vocational programs. The application is implemented gradually starting from the 2020-2021 academic year. The student starts education in the 9th grade with a certain field. In addition, the field/branch in vocational education has been brought into the system in applications that facilitate transitions to general education institutions.

Students who do not want to continue formal education after secondary school or go out of the system for any reason continue to vocational distance education high school and distance education high school. Students who continue vocational distance education take their vocational courses through face-to-face training in vocational and technical high schools. Apprenticeship, versed and journeyman training are held in vocational training centers. The functions of vocational training centers are regulated in Vocational Education Law No. 3308. The apprenticeship age is 14-19 years old. Those over the age of 19 can also receive apprenticeship training if they have not received apprenticeship training before. Since compulsory education was increased to 12 years in 2012, apprentices who do not want to continue formal education have to enroll in distance education high school or vocational distance education high school. Apprenticeship has been included in the scope of compulsory education (Law No. 6764 Amending the Decree-Law on the Organization and Duties of the Ministry of National Education and Some Legislative Decrees, 2016).

Vocational high school 12th grade students receive vocational training two days a week at school and three days at enterprises. Vocational high school students studying in the fields of hotel management receive theoretical training at the school in October-April of the academic year, and do internships at the end of the 10th and 11th grades in the summer months. Technical high schools have to do 300 hours of internship during summer holidays and weekends.

In the development plans and councils, decisions were taken on the structuring and development of continuous vocational and technical education. The number of students in vocational education high schools has not reached the desired level. Changes made in the education system in recent years have brought about changes in the number of students in vocational and technical education high schools. In Table 2, the number of vocational high school and general high school schools, students and teachers by years are given.

Table 2 Number of vocational and technical high school general high school schools, students, and teachers by years

ACADEMIC YEAR	GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATİON				VOCATİONAL AND TECHNİCAL SECONDARY EDUCATİON			
	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	NUMBER OF TEACHERS	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	% *	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	% **
2010 - 2011	4.102	118.378	2.676.123	56	5.179	104.327	2.072.487	44
2011 - 2012	4.171	122.716	2.666.066	56	5.501	113.098	2.090.220	44
2012 - 2013	4.214	119.393	2.725.972	55	6.204	135.502	2.269.651	45
2013 - 2014	3.744	117.353	2.906.291	54	7.211	161.288	2.513.887	46
2014- 2015	3.995	123.160	2.902.954	51	5.106	175.218	2.788.117	49
2015- 2016	5.311	151458	3.047.503	52	5.239	184.232	2.760.140	48
2016- 2017	5.225	147.052	3.138.440	54	5.851	185.988	2.713.530	46
2017- 2018	5.717	159.579	3.074.642	61	4.461	140.404	1.987.282	39
2018- 2019	6.242	175.275	3.250.334	64	4.640	149.147	1.799.391	36
2019-2020	6.925	186.914	3.412.564	61	6.121	193.717	2.218.088	39
2020-2021	6.876	189.193	3.920.083	62	6.196	192.916	2.398.519	38
2021-2022	6761	193589	4.092604	64	5.664	187120	2.311.426	36

(*) Percentages of General Secondary Education Students by Years

(**) Percentages of Vocational Secondary Education Students by Years

Source: Ministry of National Education (MEB Formal Education Statistics, 2008, 2014,2015,2018,2019, 2020, 2021. 2022)

When Table 2 is examined, it is seen that the number of 532 vocational high schools decreased between the 2020-2021 academic year and the 2021-2022 academic year. It is estimated that this decrease will continue in the 2022-2023 academic year. Student numbers decreased by 2% in the 2021-2022 academic year.

Eight years of compulsory education came to an end with Law No. 6287 on Primary Education and Education dated 30.03.2012 and the law on amending certain laws. The 12-year compulsory education period, which lasts in three levels of 4+4+4, has been determined by the law. With the start of the 4+4+4 compulsory education application in the 2012-2013 academic year, Anatolian High Schools etc. as a result of the Transition from Basic Education to Secondary Education (TEOG) exam. The students who failed to enter the types of education turned to vocational and technical education. This situation has led to an increase in the number of students in vocational and technical education, as seen in Table 2. Since the TEOG exam has been abolished in the 2018-2019 academic year, the High School Transition System (LGS) has started to be implemented. There are two types of placement in LGS. The first is placement in schools that accept students by examination, and the other is placement based on address (Uzumlu.MEB, 2021). In vocational and technical high schools, the courses related to the knowledge and skills required by the field are mainly structured. Afterward; Due to the lack of employment opportunities in the field, students and families prefer general high schools in order not to risk their chances of winning a university. For this reason, as seen in Table 2, while the percentage of vocational and technical education students, which was 49% in the 2014-2015 academic year, decreased to 38% in the 2020-2021 academic year, "three out of every four senior secondary school students could not be placed in a higher education program" (EBS, 2022).).

According to Article 12 of the Law on Private Education Institutions numbered 5580, a legal structure has been established for financial support to private vocational high schools opened in Organized Industrial Zones and outside these areas. This practice started in ten occupational fields in the 2012-2013 academic year. Different amounts of incentives have been given per student studying in the fields. Another allowance paid to the private sector through

vocational training is the fee paid to students participating in skills training. It is envisaged that students participating in skills training will be paid a fee of not less than 30 percent of the monthly minimum wage (Article 25 of Law No. 3308, amended by Article 45 of Law No. 6764). Two-thirds of this payment is paid by the state for workplaces employing less than twenty personnel, and one-third for workplaces employing twenty or more personnel. This payment is paid from the fund created by the provisions of the Unemployment Insurance Law.

Vocational Training Centers

The vocational and technical education system in Turkey, vocational and technical high schools, vocational schools and vocational training, centers etc. It consists of formal and non-formal education institutions such as "In vocational and technical secondary education schools and institutions, education is provided in 47 fields and 105 branches (Meslek.eba, 2022). Apprenticeship training programs are implemented in 33 fields and 181 branches in vocational training centers. Vocational training centers provide journeyman, versed certificates and vocational high school diplomas, and the employment rate after graduation is around 90% (Meslegimhayatım.meb, 2022).

Apprenticeship education was included in the scope of compulsory education with the Law No. 6764 published on December 9, 2016, and vocational education centers were structured as vocational and technical secondary education institutions. Amendments were made to the Law No. 3308 and the Basic Law of National Education No. 1739.

According to the new regulation, article 26 of the Basic Law of National Education No. 1739; "secondary education; It covers all general, vocational and technical education institutions and vocational education centers that provide four-year compulsory formal or non-formal education based on primary education. Those who graduate from these schools and institutions are awarded a diploma according to the characteristics of the program they have completed. However, vocational education center students must complete the different courses determined by the Ministry of National Education to receive a diploma.

After the Regulation on the Amendment of the Secondary Education Institutions Regulation of the Ministry of National Education was published in the Official newpaper dated 26 March 2017 and numbered 30019, apprenticeship education was included in the scope of compulsory education. With the regulation in the law, vocational education centers where journeymen and versed training and vocational and technical course programs are applied have been added to the definitions of "secondary education institutions". The requirement of not having completed the age of 18, which is required for registration by law, has also been removed.

The structure and functions of vocational education centers are regulated in Vocational Education Law No. 3308. In line with the needs of the society, vocational training and, vocational courses are also organized in vocational training centers. The Vocational Education Law No. 3308 has determined the age range of 14-19 for apprenticeship training. However, those who have passed the age of 19 and have not received apprenticeship training before can receive apprenticeship training in vocational training programs organized following their education level. Students who want to continue their apprenticeship education after finishing secondary school have to enroll in one of the distance education high school or vocational distance education high school programs due to the twelve-year compulsory education system implemented in 2012 (Vocational Technical Education Strategy Document 2014-2018, 2014, p. 9).).

Certification is made for those who have completed vocational and technical education in formal or non-formal education to open a business. Those who complete formal education are given a certificate approved by the Ministry of National Education, while those who receive

versed training in vocational training centers can open a workplace with a versed certificate (Vocational and Technical Education Strategy Document and Action Plan 2014-2018, 2014, p. 14).

Vocational qualification certificates can be issued in some institutions other than formal and non-formal education institutions affiliated to the Ministry of National Education: These are; Chambers operating within the scope of the Laws numbered 5174 and 5362 can open courses and issue certificates regarding the professions that are not included in the scope of the Vocational Education Law No. 3308. In addition, according to "Article 7 of the Metropolitan Municipality Law No. 5216", metropolitan municipalities have the authority to open courses within their bodies or in cooperation with some institutions (Vocational and Technical Education Strategy Document and Action Plan 2014-2018, 2014, p. 14).

According to Özer (2021); The employment rate of vocational education graduates, who were given traditional apprenticeship, journeyman and versed training, and many arrangements were made to strengthen vocational education and solve their problems, was 88 percent. Vocational training centers that do not have age restrictions and are sufficient to be secondary school graduates offer important opportunities to reduce unemployment. Students can receive education at school once a week for four years and at the company on other days. While they are paid one-third of the minimum wage, they are also insured against work and occupational diseases. He stated that they aim to increase the number of vocational training centers and increase the number of students to over 250 thousand. He said that the pilot project implementation on this subject was put into practice in Bursa, that three thousand students attend the vocational training center in the target region, and that the number will be increased to ten thousand with cooperation with the sector (Hürriyet, 2022).

With the Official Gazette dated December 21, 2021 and numbered 7346, it has been determined that "no less than thirty percent of the minimum wage for candidate apprentices and apprentices, and less than 50 percent of the minimum wage for 12th grade students who have earned the journeyman qualification". "The minimum wage that can be paid to students studying at schools and institutions other than the vocational education center program; two-thirds for enterprises employing less than twenty personnel, and one-third for enterprises employing twenty or more; The minimum fee that can be paid to the students who continue the vocational education center program" is paid as a State contribution from the amount allocated for the sub-paragraph (h) of the third paragraph of the 53rd article of the Unemployment Insurance Law dated 25/8/1999 and numbered 4447. "The President is authorized to extend the payments to be made within this scope up to ten academic years".

In the Official Gazette dated 19 February 2020 and numbered 31044, the definition of vocational training center was added to the Law No. 5580. With the definition of "means a private education institution where apprenticeship, journeyman and versed education and vocational and technical course programs are implemented", private vocational and technical education centers can be opened. Organized industrial zones and the private sector were enabled to open private vocational training centers suitable for their fields.

Somuncu (2019) conducted his research on 428 teachers in Ankara and said, "The education of the student who has failed two years in a row should continue in vocational training centers." The distribution of teachers' opinions about the judge's judgment is given in Figure 1.

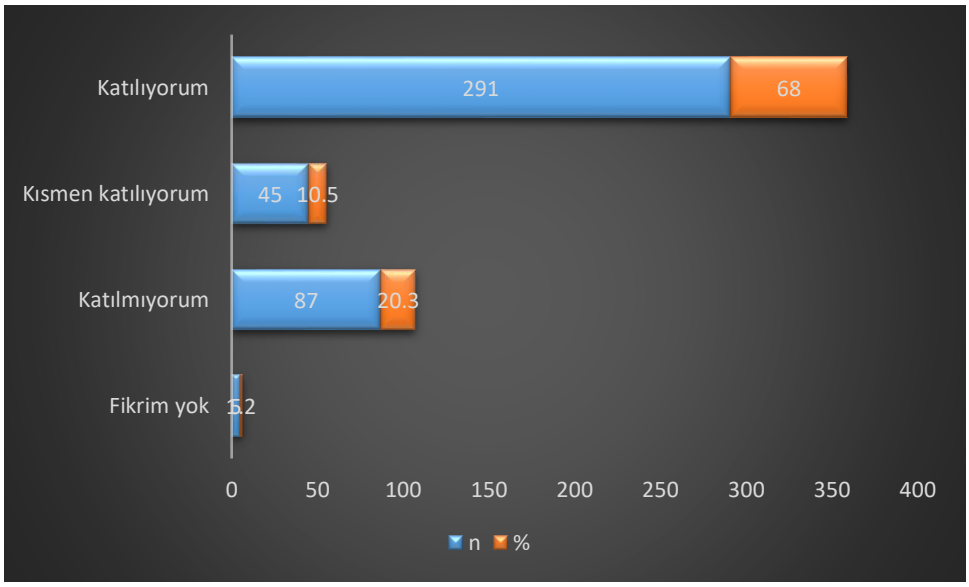


Figure 1 Teachers' views on the province that the education of students who fail two years in a row should continue in vocational education centers (Katılıyorum=agree, Kısmen Katılıyorum=partially agree, Katılmıyorum=disagree, Fikrim yok=no idea)

When the figure is examined; "The education of the student who has been unsuccessful two years in a row should continue in vocational training centers." The teachers who agreed with the statement constitute 68% (n = 291) of the group. Those who did not agree were approximately 20% (n = 87). There are 45 (10.5%) partially participating, 5 (1.2%) people who have no idea. The majority of teachers think that the education of the student who has been unsuccessful two years in a row should continue in vocational education centers.

The majority of teachers think that the education of the student who has been unsuccessful two years in a row should continue in vocational education centers. Students who fail two years in a row are obliged to enroll in distance education high schools. Since most of the students come from low-income families, when they pass to distance high school as a result of failure, they try to continue their education in distance vocational high schools by working in unskilled jobs. It may be more appropriate for these students to specialize in a profession by practicing in vocational training centers.

Again in the same study, the participants asked, "Where do you think theoretical training should be received during the apprenticeship process?" They also answered the question. they think that it should be taken mostly in vocational education centers (n = 198, 46.3%), followed by vocational and technical education high schools (n = 165, 38.6%). About 11% (n = 49) think that both should be given (Somuncu, 2019,

The application designed in the research was realized with the opening of vocational training centers in vocational and technical high schools with the approval numbered 38276813 dated 3.12.2022. Among the registered students of the schools in which a vocational training center program is opened;

• Will not be able to pass the class directly with the year-end achievement score or as responsible,

• It will be considered unsuccessful due to absenteeism,

• Has or will fall into repeating a grade for the second time during the education period,

• Apart from these students, who want to transfer to the vocational training center program,

If the students agree with their parents, they can transfer their records to the vocational education center program. The new settlement process of vocational and technical education is as in figure 2.

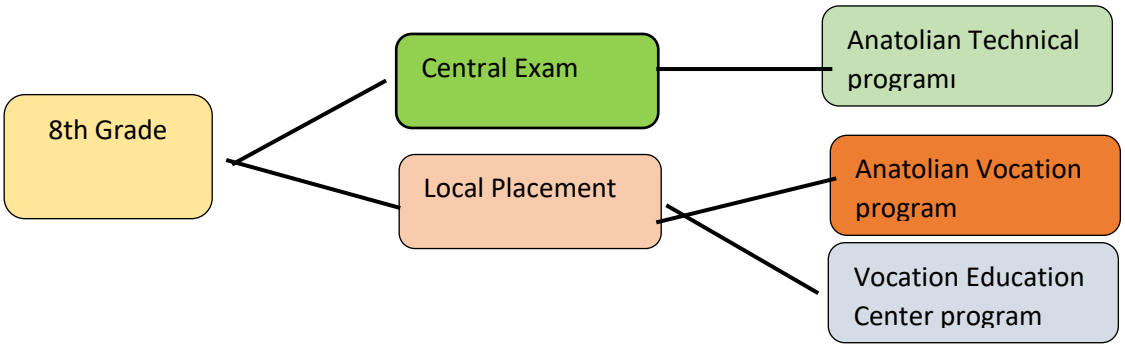


Figure 2. Vocational and Technical Education Placement Process

The "theoretical and practical training" programs of apprenticeship education are planned and carried out by the Ministry of National Education by the characteristics of each profession. According to the Regulation Amending the Regulation on Secondary Education Institutions of the Ministry of National Education, published in the Official Gazette dated March 26, 2017 and numbered 30019, "Theoretical training of vocational education center students is planned to be at least one and at most two days a week. The duration of the academic year is 36 weeks. Within the scope of the projects and protocols implemented by the Ministry, the theoretical training period may vary depending on the nature of the applied program. In case the conditions are met, the training of the 9th grade field courses can be given in vocational training centers or the training units of the enterprises.

The difference courses to be taken by those who want to graduate from vocational high schools among the students studying at the vocational education center were accepted by the decision of the Board of Education and Discipline dated 19.07.2019 and numbered 18, and the "Diploma Program" has been implemented since the 2019-2020 academic year. As of 14.08.2020, the "Compensation Program" has started so that those who have obtained a journeyman and versed certificate in the previous years from the vocational training centers can complete the difference courses and receive a vocational high school diploma. Versed compensation program (article 13.10.2021 and number 34541388).

• It is compulsory to be at high school graduate. .

• The duration of the program is as specified in the framework curriculum of the relevant field/branch and is applied for a maximum of 27 weeks.

• All of the training content of the program is carried out in enterprises.

• Training starts after signing a contract with an enterprise.

• A certificate of mastery is given to those who are successful at the end of the training.

• The program is implemented in 97 professions.

Students enrolled in the program are equivalent to 12th grade. Half of the minimum wage (50%) receives incentives. They receive a versed certificate without receiving the journeyman certificate obtained at the end of the 11th grade. With the program, it is aimed to meet the intermediate staff needs of industrial organizations. There are errors in planning and implementation. Even the masters who work in their workplaces as insured are registered to the program. Businesses receive money according to the number of trainees. Implementation of the program in this way causes an increase in the number of workplaces and students. This will

make it impossible for teachers to control the workplace and students with legal class hours ((Kamudanhaber, 2023).

The new process of vocational and technical education is as in Figure 3.

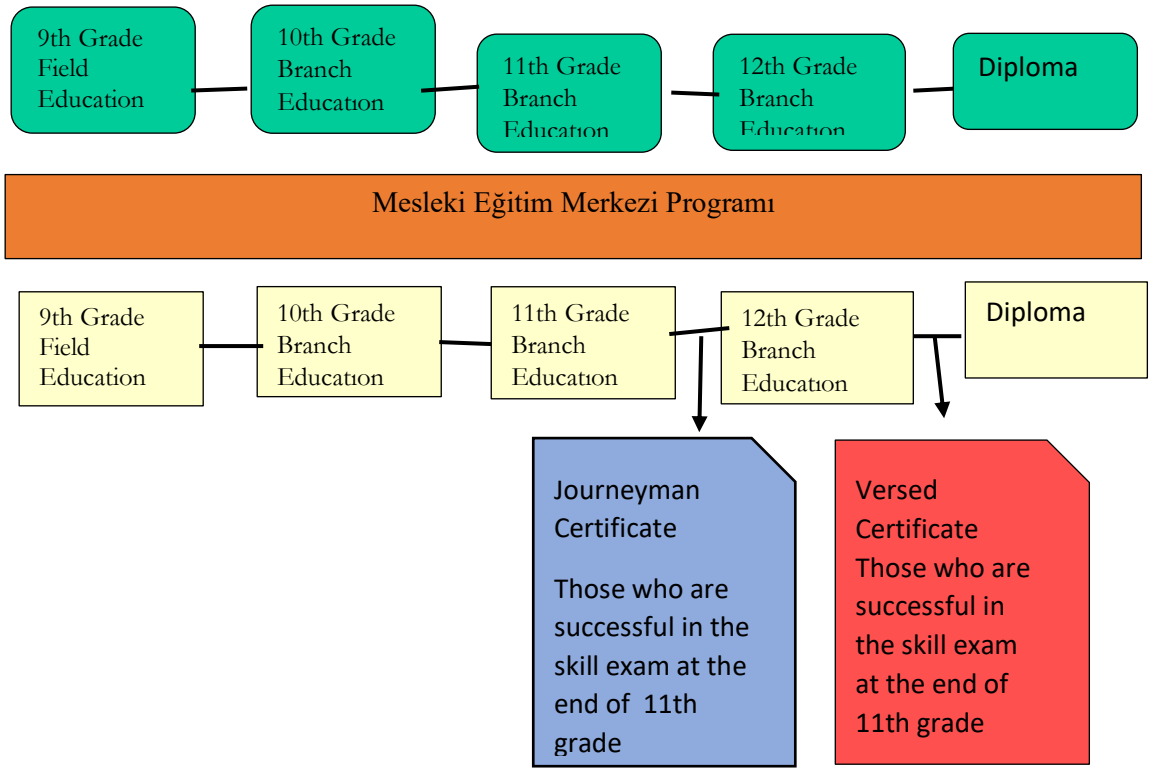


Figure 3 Vocational and Technical Education Process

As seen in Figure 3, the new process of vocational and technical education is completed with journeyman training at the end of the 11th grade, and mastery training and diploma at the end of the 12th grade. The apprentice who starts apprenticeship training in vocational training centers must sign a contract with an enterprise. In the workplace where the contract is signed, it is necessary to be a master who has a "master teaching certificate" (Vocational Education Law No. 3308, article 15). A business pedagogy course is required for master teaching certificate. To participate in this course;

• Those who have a master's or business establishment certificate and those who have received vocational training at least at the associate degree level can attend the 40-hour business pedagogy course offered by schools and institutions.

• Business pedagogy course can be done face-to-face or via distance education.

• A master teaching certificate is issued to those who are successful in the exam to be held at the end of the course.

Apprenticeship education dates back to ancient times in Anatolia. It has been and continues for many years in Turkish tradition and culture. The vocational training, which is an extension of the Akhism, still maintains its folkloric characteristics in some regions. In general, Turkish tradesmen have followed the rules and have adopted honest service as their motto for centuries. On the sign of his shop;

Our shop opens with basmala every morning.

We believe in the truth, our glory is Muslims

If it has a curve from us, of course it is yours,

There is no cheat, no scrap, we have halal goods

Our customer is our benefactor, our beneficiary is our half,

More goods harm, our profit is opinion.

The text is written

Conclusıon and Recommendatıons

The coefficient application, which started vocational education in Türkiye in 1999 and lasted for about ten years, and then the Transition from Basic Education to Vocational Education (TEOG) caused opposite damages. It is necessary to leave the past aside and bring it to a level that will provide future vocational education and the personnel desired by the sector.

Starting from the 2017-2018 academic year, TEOG has taken the exam. A new system called “Free Registration System Based on Parent Preference” was introduced instead. With this system, students can choose one of the five schools close to their homes. Anatolian Imam Hatip, Anatolian Vocational High School and Anatolian High School are among the five choices. Students who want to go to senior high schools; "on demand" takes the central exam. İsmet Yılmaz, Minister of National Education of the period, for the short name of the new system “Education Zone and Local Placement System without Examinations”; He explained it as "High School Entry System (LGS)". In addition, when a parent enrolls in secondary school, they will also know which high school their child will attend.

It was realized with the opening of vocational training center in vocational and technical high schools with the approval numbered 38276813 dated 12.2022. Vocational education programs in Turkey aim to prepare students for higher education. While businesses have a shortage of qualified personnel, vocational and technical schools cannot train students in line with the market's demand. Since there are strong ties between schools and workplaces in European countries such as the Czech Republic, Germany and the Netherlands, students can be employed after graduation. School-industry cooperation should also be strengthened in Turkey. The sector should support vocational and technical schools with tools and equipment (Gülmez, 2014, p. 125).

The transition to the job market is faster in countries with strong vocational orientation. For this reason, vocational guidance should be made in school systems following the developmental stages of students. Vocational orientation programs should be designed and implemented to meet the needs of the entire society (Somuncu, 2020, p. 187). The biggest problem in vocational orientation is the negative perception of vocational education in the society. Vocational education is seen as a school where children from low-class families and students who are unsuccessful in academic subjects are directed. The uniformity of the school name also increases this perception. Restructuring the names of schools can reduce this perception. For example; Such as Tourism College, Industry College, Health College (Kavi and Kocak, 2018 p. 1316, Somuncu, 2019b). In another solution, the number of thematic high schools can be increased. The qualified personnel required by the sector can be trained in thematic high schools. Depending on the economic characteristics of the regions, thematic high schools can be opened. For example, Animal Husbandry and Animal Products Vocational and Technical Anatolian High School in Kars can provide the training of qualified workforce of that region. Vocational and technical high schools for the economic characteristics of the region, such as thematic high schools or the mining vocational and technical Anatolian high school opened in Balıkesir-İvrindi, can be opened within the intermediate staff of assistant veterinarians, which is also a subsidiary field of animal husbandry (Doğan, 2016, pp. 122-123).

As in the "Working in a Cafe" course in Finland in the last two years of secondary school (Sacu, 2016). Putting practical introductory courses in the programs, students and teachers

spending time at their workplaces and getting information about the work can be effective in directing students to professions. Guidance studies should be focused on directing students to professions in line with their interests and abilities. Referrals should be made according to the business lines in each region. Vocational and technical schools should focus on practice, and regional characteristics should be taken into account when creating departments. Business protocols should be established between schools and sector units to provide job opportunities after graduation. Research and development laboratories should be established in vocational and technical high schools in cooperation with the sector. Institutions that train teachers for vocational education need to be re-established. An effective vocational training will help solve the unemployment problem and increase the welfare level of Turkey.

At the level of Türkiye, with the understanding of social state, national resources, self-sufficient and national planning that ensures independence, students should be directed to higher education at the rate required by the markets, and in secondary education, students should be directed to vocational high schools or vocational training centers. Türkiye has a young population and youth employment is important. When it comes to employment, the first thing that comes to mind is vocational and technical education. Especially while the industry needs intermediate staff, the number of unemployed university graduates is high in Turkey. Our young people spend time for their central exams for academic education, and their families spend money. After graduation, our young people cannot find jobs that will meet their expectations, and as a result, they have to accept jobs at the intermediate level. To prevent this situation, vocational education should be made attractive. Many policies have been followed from past to present regarding vocational education. In this regard, a national policy for production should be followed. For this reason, it is necessary to target the employment of young people with the slogan of a factory in each province, instead of their education in universities that do not have infrastructure and sufficient teaching staff, with the slogan of a university in each province. Turkey should follow a national structure regarding vocational education, and it should be able to produce the necessary tools, equipment and technology for the country in every field. For this reason, vocational and technical education should be given importance. Adequate financial support should be provided for the infrastructure, tools and equipment requirements of vocational and technical high schools. An effective vocational training can only be done in well-equipped schools. Policies should be implemented to facilitate the employment and university placement of young people who graduated from vocational and technical high schools. It should not be forgotten that Turkey needs well-trained qualified intermediate staff as well as well-trained engineers. In this direction, education should be planned for production.

Minister Özer stated that vocational education has an important place in the economy, that the model of vocational education has changed, and that the opening of a school and a business is opened at the same time. He mentioned that the curricula are determined together with the representatives of the private sector. With the changes made in vocational education, Türkiye is going through a very different process. As our President stated in the opening speech of 255 vocational training centers in all organized industrial zones on January 10, we will introduce one million young people to vocational training centers. With the amendment made in Law No. 3308, 30% of the minimum wage received by the student is now paid by the state, not the employer. While businesses are now finding the employee they are looking for, unemployment will reach single digits. One of the 50 R&D centers was built in Balıkesir in the field of agriculture. The fifty-first will be held in İvrindi. He announced that they are planning to build five more vocational and technical high schools of international quality in 2022, such as the international vocational and technical high school built in İvrindi (Milliyet, 2022).

From December 3, 2021, when the approval of vocational education centers opened in Vocational High Schools was approved, to April 3, 2022, the number of students enrolled in vocational education centers increased by 158 percent in three months, from 159 thousand to

410,000. While it is an advantage for employers that students who attend vocational training centers receive one third of the minimum wage in the first three years within the scope of apprenticeships, 50% of the minimum wage when they become a journeyman in the 12th grade, and the state covers all of this wage and their insurance: provides the advantage of gaining quality. . Since there is no age limit in practice, 222 thousand 283 of the 410 thousand students are students aged 19 and over. This rate is 54% of the current student. This is effective in reducing youth unemployment. The highest demand for vocational education centers is in Istanbul with 30,510 students. Gaziantep with 17 thousand 413 students and Adana with 17 thousand 339 students follow Istanbul. Mersini ranks fourth with 16 thousand 317 students and Hatay ranks fifth with 16 thousand 154 students. Areas of great interest to students; While it brought beauty and hair care services to first place with 7 thousand 100 students, it brought motor vehicle technology to second place with 60 thousand 31 students. Food and beverage services ranks third with 39 thousand 479 students, electrical-electronic technology ranks fourth with 35 thousand 249 students, and fashion design technology ranks fifth with 29 thousand 169 students (Vatan 2022). For versed compensation programs, new arrangements should be made. Control mechanisms should be established.

The interest in the fields and vocational training centers is at an undeniable level with the decrease in youth unemployment and the contribution it will provide to the country's economy. The number of students enrolled in vocational education centers is expected to reach one million by the end of 2022 (Vaatan, 2022a). With the Council of Ministers Decision No. 2009/15546, the faculties that train teachers for vocational and technical education were closed. The increase in the number of students enrolled in vocational education centers established in vocational high schools will cause the problem of the lack of vocational course teachers in these institutions. For this, a "Vocational Education Institute" should be opened within a university to be determined in line with the decision taken at the 20th National Education Council, with a cooperation protocol with the Ministry of National Education. For example; Çankırı Karatekin University Vocational School, which has conducted research on vocational education in the past and whose campus is well designed, may be suitable for this situation. The fact that the Vocational School was the only university in Çankırı for a long time has been effective in the social and cultural development of this institution, which is affiliated with Karatekin University. While training teachers for vocational education with the non-thesis master's programs created in Vocational Education Centers, researches on vocational education will also be carried out. In Germany, which is a successful European country in the field of vocational education, Vocational Education Institutes have undertaken the teacher training function (Bolat, 2016, p.50). The success in tof the Finnish education system is due to teachers and teaching graduates (Sahlberg'. 2011, pp. 34-37).

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The Legacy of Ukraine's Integration into the Global World Order

Deniz Dinç[1]

Introduction

Globalization process has swept all around the world. This process basically forces all countries into two main transformations. Market economy and representative democracy are the two main pillars of the globalization. The integration process into globalization creates many obstacles for developing and post-Soviet countrıes. Former post-Soviet countries in the Eurasian geography have deeply suffered from this process by shifting their command economy to the market economy. Not only economic obstacles, but also cultural obstacles deeply affected the post-Soviet countries. Ukraine, in particular, is an important example in this context. Ukraine's importance can simply be observed taking into account its strategic geographical location between Russia and the West. Ukraine's integration into globalization continued with various internal tensions throughout the 1990s and 2000s. The historical background of Russia's invasion of Crimea in 2014 and the Russia-Ukraine war that started in 2022 was shaped in the two decades after the independence of Ukraine. In this study, I will discuss the crucial years from the independence until the Orange Revolution in Ukraine, in the context of neoliberal transformation and democratization. In other words, this study mainly focuses on economic and democratic dimensions of transition periods respectively. In the last section of the chapter, this study explores the Orange Revolution as a turning point of the post-Soviet transition periods in a much broader way taking into account the public opinions of Ukraine. Thus, this study will attempt to show the background of the Ukraine-Russia tension and war, which is a hot topic in today's current global debates.

The Economic Liberation of Ukraine's Command Economy

International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank strongly recommend four important reforms for post-Soviet countries. Privatization, removing state subsidies in agriculture, devaluing local currencies to world currency level and reducing government deficits are the core targets recommended by the IMF and World Bank. Privatization indicates selling all state enterprises to the private sector. Reducing government deficits indicates cutting not only state subsidies in agriculture but also cutting all welfare state implementations. For instance, free health facilities and free education programs must be diminished according to the neoliberal principles. Devaluing local currencies target aims to diminish tariff barriers, so this target aims to increase Ukraine's import level, at the same time to decrease Ukraine's export level. As well as removing state subsidies target aims to strengthen market economy in the agricultural aspect (Graham, 2006, p. 7).

The Targets of the IMF and World Bank stem their theoretical concept from neoclassic economy theories. The neoclassic economy theories are the updated version of classical economy theories of Adam Smith and David Ricardo. According to Adam Smith running to reach individual benefits at the same time enhances benefits of society with the help of the invisible hand in the economy. The neoclassic economy theory keeps basic rules of the classic liberal theories and anti-interventionist approaches in economics (Ölmezoğulları, 1996, p. 43).

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Therefore; state interventions in order to enhance welfare state paradigm are totally neglected in the neoclassic approaches of economics. The concepts of social justice and income distribution are given to market economy initiative according to the mainstream neoclassic and classical liberal approaches.

Economic liberation process of Ukraine has been depended on global economic and cultural transformation for four decades. The transition period of Ukraine should be evaluated by the heritage of Soviet Command Economy and neoliberal policies, which is the hegemonic model of the current World Economy. The Soviet Command Economy depended on specialization. Strongly centralized structure of economy brought limited gaps for private entrepreneurs. Therefore, entrepreneur spirit of the society was not flourished under the strict state intervention of the command economy. However, neoliberal economic regulations necessitate the total reverse conditions of command economies. For this reason, Ukrainians had encountered a lot of difficulties to adjust capitalism during 1990s. 70 percent of Ukraine's GDP leaned up on agriculture and industry in the first two decades after the independence in 1991. The country possesses varied types of mines including significant coal and iron. Ukraine involves 2.7 percent of Soviet territory, but Ukraine possesses 20 percent of mineral resources of the Soviet Union (Ersun&Palacıoğlu, 1997, p. 6). Ukraine had a developed industry. By the year 1995, industrial income composed 35% of GDP and comparatively industry is the largest sector among the other sectors. Furthermore, Ukraine's industry included heavy industry, such as armament plants, aircraft factories and car factories (Ersun&Palacıoğlu, 1997, pp. 6-8). Based on specialization in the economy, every Soviet republic specialized in various industrial and agricultural sectors. For example, a product had to be processed and finalized by collaboration with different republics of the Soviet Union. Therefore, Eastern parts of Ukraine which specialized in heavy industrial products required a lot of energy resources. Ukraine provided its energy demand from Russia overwhelmingly and to some extent from Turkmenistan's gas resources. The energy dependency of Ukraine to Russia would cause economic crisis in the early years of Yuschenko's presidency.

Considering economic output in the early years of transition, it was not difficult to claim that Ukraine's economy collapsed. Inflation rates reached a peak in 1993 and eventually unemployment rates were consistently increased. For instance, by the end of 1991 the unemployment rate was 7000, but by the end of 1995 it reached 126000 (Hare, Ishaq&Estrin, 1998, p. 182). During the period between 1991 and 2007 Domestic products in the Ukrainian market also fall by 30 percent (Olcar, 2007, p. 53). Informal economy consisted half of the economic activities taking the year 2004 into account (Olcar, 2007, p. 51). Privatization process progressed slowly after the initial years of independence. Not only privatization but also entire regulation process progressed slowly. The gradual progress of economic liberation can be sought lack of constitutional regulations of the country. Considering post-Soviet countries Ukraine was the latest country who composed its constitution by the year 1996. Boundaries of authority were not drawn well. Therefore; a lot of conflicts were occurred among three powers: legislative, executive and justice. The conflicts particularly, between executive and legislative weakened reformation process. At this point, as Hare and the others states:

In early 1995 parliament rejected the program of privatization put forward by the government; this rejection was seen by the latter as a serious step back. Earlier, in July 1994, the Ukrainian parliament had voted to halt all privatization. It claimed that this was necessary in order to decide which state property should be privatized and how this should be done. Parliament then proceeded to draw up a list of 6100 strategic enterprises' that it claimed could not be privatized at all. Many members of parliament and their advisers profoundly objected to the whole idea of privatization" (Hare, Ishaq&Estrin, 1998, p. 184).

If foreign capital investments of Ukraine are examined we will encounter permanently increasing degree of capital attraction. Capital investments increased from 159 million dollars

to 1715 million dollars in ten years from 1994 to 2004. In 2006's statistics show that Ukraine took nine billion dollars of foreign investments from 176 countries. Nonetheless; foreign capital investments in Ukraine were concentrated on rich profitable fields, so this process does not create area of employment, and does not provide transformation of technology and administrative information (Olcar, 2007, p. 230-231). After 1999 the economy of Ukraine had been released from the shock therapy years, which was based on neoliberal prescriptions. According to the World Bank development reports between 2000 and 2004 inflation rates fell. It was 70 percent in 2000, but fell into 5.2 percent in 2003. The GDP started to increase permanently after 2000. However, the growth in economy did not affect unemployment rates. It approximately remained in its worse situation (Graham, 2006, p. 15).

Business elites are the most advantageous group of the transition period of Ukraine. They easily captured former public industries especially in the era of Kuchma. Corruption could simply increase with the lack of certain trade laws and market economy regulations. Economic growth cannot reduce poverty and inequality in the country. Therefore, crime rates. which are strongly related to inequity and poverty issues are increasing in Ukraine day by day . There was a big demand for car and house alarms, and other security devices in Ukraine (Olcar, 2007, p. 53). This type of problems and method of solutions is not only Ukraine's problem but also global problems which have been created by the implementation of neoliberal policies throughout the world.

The impact of Economic collapse in mid-1990s can be traced in concreted cases. Life expectancy rates dropped 5 years for men. Data courtesy of Alcohol and Drug Information Center from Kiev mentions that approximately half of deaths regarding males were caused by addiction of smoking and alcohol (Romaniuk, 2002, p. 246). The reason behind smoking and alcohol addiction among men can be sought behind impoverishment of society and frustration from the transition. After citizens of Ukraine had faced with the difficulties, they lost their enthusiasm about the transition process. The society was not used to capitalist style living behaviors, such as competition. In the transition period greater social freedom and slackening public control over individual behavior and stress contribute to raising tendency of addiction. Moreover, high quality products of multinational tobacco companies and brilliant advertisements had attracted especially young citizens (Ibid., p. 256). High expectations from the EU integration and Orange Revolution had frustrated Ukrainians as well. Most of Ukrainians began to think that Orange Revolution was not really a revolution. As scholar Hobinyet Svetlana Taras points out that it was a struggle among elites who want to improve their hegemony on resources (Avar, 2007, p. 108).

Democratization: From the Independence to the Orange Revolution

Democratization indicates liberal democracy approach in this study since ideological opinions determine democracy theories and approaches. For instance, radical democracy approaches criticize liberal democracy on the grounds that liberal democracy passives citizens. In liberal representative democracies citizens can merely participate political decision making processes in election times. On the other hand, liberal theories criticize radical democracy theories that these theories remain dysfunctional in the implementation processes.

The weakest stomach of Soviet Union was undoubtedly lack of democracy. Despite the fact that Lenin's critically stand against bureaucracy, his party model which was organized from up to bottom was not successful in order to eradicate bureaucracy in the USSR (Dinç, 2022, p. 21; Gürbüz, 2007 p. 110). The relation between communist party and public was destroyed by the rise of overbureaucratization in the USSR. The Bureaucratic form of the administrative structure expanded among Soviet republics. Hence, the democratization process in Ukraine should be traced by the heritage of the Soviet Union. In other words, Ukrainians were not used to go to elections and receive election through liberal democratic processes. Under these

structural conditions Leonid Kravchuk became president in 1991 referred his campaign to Ukraine's first president Mykhailo Hrushevsky in 1918. Kravchuc period can be perceived as an infancy period of Ukraine. In this period, the country focused on its internal problems. After the independence, lots of problems were waiting to be solved. State-building process, economic liberation process and ethical issues are still Ukraine's enduring problems. Cultural relations, such as ethnical identities and religious belongings are also influential factors considering democratization process in Ukraine (Batta, 2022, pp. 65-74). The western part of Ukraine is mainly catholic and the eastern and southern parts are Orthodox. Eastern part of Ukraine speaks Russian. However; western parts of the country are more nationalistic based on Ukrainian national identity. In this context, Huntington treats Ukraine that she is on the fault line between western and eastern civilizations (Hohots&Loukerenko, 2002: 115). I assume that this polarization hold peak in recent years of the Orange Revolution. Nonetheless; the predictions like Huntington were not realized suddenly realized soon after Orange Revolution.

Kravchuk who was an ex-communist party leader could not implement reformation process properly. Therefore, he lost the 1994 election to Leonid Kuchma. Kuchma again had close ties with communist party in the Soviet era. Norman Graham classified Ukraine's regime in Kuchma era as a non-liberal electoral democracy considering with Western style democracy norms (Graham, 2006, p. 24). The regime of Ukraine, indeed, involves both democratic and authoritarian dimensions. Carothers defined Ukraine as a 'hybrid state' successfully enlightened the characteristics of the regime (Kuzio , 1998, p. 174). According to Carothers hybrid states have six main critters: 1.Citizens interests are underrepresented or ignored; 2. Low levels of political participation beyond voting as in a delegate democracy; 3. Frequent abuses of the rule of law; 4. Election outcomes produce uncertain results and lack legitimacy; 5. Exhibit low levels of trust in state institutions; 6. Poor performance of the state (Ibid., p. 174). Hybrid states can rule the country in a long period. For instance; Mexico under Revolutionary Party ruled Mexico for many years (Kuzio, 2005a, p.172). Nevertheless; the weakest stomach of the ruling elites of hybrid states is certainly elections. Authoritarian governments have lack self-confidence and they generally prefer using tricks, cheatings and gerrymandering in election. Rigged elections cause to regime change. Georgia and Serbia's regime changes involved the same basic characteristics with that of Ukraine's.

Transition state's hybrid character does not mean that they have a permanent tendency in order to reach purely liberal democratic Western countries. For example; in the second part of Kuchma era was more authoritarian than his first five years. In his presidency Kuchma frequently changed prime ministers. He made laws which terminate immunity of representatives. Finally, he made a law which regulates the defamations for presidency, whıch created pressure on media. Therefore, in Ukraine independent media disappeared. Wrong implementation of administration and corruptions of the ruling elites were not transmitted to public. (Olcar, 2007, p. 79) Kuchmagate was an important scandal which shows the size of authoritarian governance of Kuchma. Opponents accused him of being involved the killing of journalist Georgiy Gongadze in 2000.

Due to the lack of adequate capital accumulation in the initial years of Kuchma, the Oligarchs accepted to some extent to share power with national democrats. However; as soon as they finished capital accumulation they preferred to rule the country by themselves under Kuchma's strict regime. Kuchma also involved in corruption accusations in the 1998 parliamentary election. Former members of nomenklatura were active and able to obtain 177 of the 450 seats in Verkhovna Rada, Ukraine's legislative organ. Therefore, this situation revealed that the Soviet legacy deeply impacted political structure of Ukraine in Kuchma era. The political spectrum of Ukraine could be divided into the three main groups in the era of Kuchma: Centre-right National Democrats, Centrist Oligarchs who have their origins in the higher levels of the Soviet Ukrainian Nomenklatura, and the Communist Party of Ukraine (KPU) (Hare, Ishaq&Estrin, 1998, p.188). These three main political groups influenced by four

main ideologies. These are Social democracy, communist nostalgia, prosperous contentment, and liberal capitalism (Hohots&Loukerenko, 2002, p. 118). These ideologies composed opinions of political parties. Despite the fact that so many parties could be seen in the political spectrum, indeed, they were influenced by four main ideologies.

Social Democracy in Ukraine mainly shared liberal democratic rules. They believed that democracy does not have to wait for economic reform. The elections must be equal and open. A democratic system involves protection of the minority rights and freedom of speech. Income distribution creates disadvantages for a large extent of population. Inequality of Ukraine is a problem (Hohots&Loukerenko, 2002, p.122). Therefore, redistribution of income must be regulated in a fair way. The most striking point which differentiates Social Democracy from Liberalism is that Social Democrats are anxious for the result of market economic implementations. For this reason, they want to implement affirmative action policies in order to enhance living conditions of the poor. Social Democrat ideology effects on mainly primarily socialist and social democrat parties and some of the nationalist liberal movements. Rukh for example, to some extent was affected under Social Democratic ideas. Considering Yuschenko's Our Ukraine and Tymoshenko Bloc, these movements, to some extent was affected by Social Democracy as well. Nonetheless; Social Democracy was not powerful deterministic factor in Ukraine.

Communist nostalgia was an important ideology, especially in the beginning years of the independence. Despite the fact that Communists lost most of their power in 2000s, they were important factor in political spectrum. Communists believe that there was nothing much wrong with collectivism and Communist society in the Soviet Union. Market economy system serves for the benefits of the rich. Day by day, the rich have grown richer and the poor have grown poorer. The rich classes in Ukraine control government and regulate the system for their benefits according to the Communists. For Communists, some of the communist elite converted into democrats and they were ruling the country without showing any care for the masses. Popular term democratization for Communists is a so called democratization. They believed that democracy is meaningless without equality. Communists also opposed to nationalists. There was no reason to empower native language of Ukraine for their opinion. Actually, Communist had no hostility for democracy. As highlighted previously, they wanted to implement radical democracy rules against liberal representative democracy. Although communists had some democratic opening comparatively to the heritage of the past, Ukrainian Communist Party had a tendency to remain in status quo (Hohots&Lourekenko, 2002, p. 125).

As for Prosperous Contentment, it can be evaluated that it was not an ideology. It could also be evaluated under the ideology of liberal capitalism. Nonetheless; it could be useful to enlighten the centrist political spectrum of Ukraine. It is main argument is that everything is pretty good in Ukraine and democracy is the best governmental form in which everyone is benefitting from it. There can be inequalities in the regime, but it is not so important. Seeking for profit is a fine thing because competition will progress the country. (Hohots&Lourekenko, 2002, p. 126). By this political factor the Ukrainian elites wanted to legitimize their sovereignty. They reflected all Ukraine as a homogenous bloc. Although everything was going bad and there were so many problems of democracy in the country, they used democracy as a mask for their oligarchic authoritarian regime. Kuchma period and his successor Yanukovich could be examples of this kind of power sharing in Ukraine. Liberal-capitalism, indeed, had not so much difference from prosperous contentment. The supporters criticize the regime of Ukraine that liberal reforms have not been implemented at enough level. Former communist party members ruled the country for their own interest. Inequality of wealth was not an anxious issue. Private property was the main base to reach economic development. That's why collectivist property was the main impediment for economic liberation. All of collectivist heritage of Ukraine had to be eradicated as soon as possible. For this ideology Freedom of speech, protection of minority rights are not so important (Ibid., p. 127). Tymoshenko, Yuschenko, in other words, the Orange

Bloc can be referred in this group. Although from their speeches, they were closer to liberal democracy, we witnessed that when they came to the power nobody could guaranty that they would pursue democratic line against their opponents. For instance, in the 2006 representative elections Yuschenko's Our Ukraine merely won 81 seats in parliament. On the other hand Yanukovich's Regions of Ukraine party came first in the election with 186 representatives. Moreover, Yanukovich started representative transfer from Our Ukraine. Then president Yuschenko canceled the parliament and declared early election date (Olcar, 2007, p. 82). As this case reflects, it is obvious that Yuschenko didn't respect the will of the people.

The Orange Revolution

Presidency elections of 2004 opened a new period in transition of the country. Leonid Kuchma with the support of the Russian Federation selected Victor Yanukovich as a successor for him. Kuchma was frayed under authoritarian rules, scandals and corruptions. The trust for Kuchma was seriously decreased in his second term. The Opposition in Ukraine was seriously threatening the ruling regime. The EU (European Unıon) and the United States supported 'Our Ukraine' candidate Victor Yuschenko. Young organization *Pora* which was supported by George Soros' Open Society Foundations played a key role before and after the election. First round was made on the 31 October, 2004. In the first round of the election no one could achieve to pass 50% threshold among 24 candidates. Yuschenko received 39.90% and Yanukovich received 39.26% of the votes. Runoff made on the 21 November, 2004 resulted with enormous conflict. According to the official runoff Yanukovich received 49.46% of votes, but Yuschenko received 46.61% of them.

Yuschenko refused the results and claim that there was an obvious electoral fraud in the election. Meanwhile, Russia celebrated the victory of Yanukovich. Yushchenko repudiated official results and declared him as the victor of the election by 54% of the votes. His supporters gathered in public squares and began to protest via organizing rallies. Meanwhile, the European Union and the USA intervened in the situation and demanded repeat of the runoff. President Kuchma and Ukraine high court could not resist to the immense internal and external pressures. For this reason, they had to declare the decision of repeating the runoff.

Reelection of runoff held on December 26, 2004 resulted by the victory of Yushchenko. Yuschenko defeated Yanukovich by 52 to 44 percent, and he was inaugurated as independent Ukraine's third President on January 23, 2005 (Kuzio, 2005b, p. 117). Culturally separation of Ukraine between the West and the East reflected the election results. The Western part of the country attributed the situation as a revolution, but the Eastern citizens evaluated the situation as a Western oriented coup d' etat (Stepanenko, 2005, p. 597). According to survey results the Eastern Russian speaker population comprehends the Orange Revolution as a conspiracy which was financed and organized by the West and their native collaborators. As Stepenenko states: "The proportional part of ethnic Russians who believe that it was a coup d'etat, organized with western support is two times greater than the amount of their like-minded ethnic Russians, 45.8 percent of Russians and 18.6 percent of Ukrainians support this position" (Ibid., p. 600). Although authoritarian and corrupted regime paralyzed the country, The Eastern population support for ruling elite can be explained in two ways. One of them the Eastern part of the citizens of Ukraine most likely had more privileges relatively over the other parts of the country, or they believe that nothing will be radically changed with the change of the ruling elites. The first assumption is worse than the second because if the country is regionally divided into two parts considering different benefits of citizens, it will eradicate the facilities of living together. In this context, Stepanenko's survey supports the worse point. "For the electorate of the Donbas region, Yanukovich was a countryman and a good manager; who understands people's needs. With his help, people from Donbas hoped to obtain economic and social preferences for the region. This, in a way, also proved the deformation of social relations in Ukraine." (Stepanenko, 2005, p. 606).

Looking with the issues from the Western point of view, the Orange Revolution was the final period of the transition. The Orange Revolution can be read not only a democratic rebellion, but also national consciousness and anti-corruption rebellion (Ibid., 600). In the survey of Stepanenko's article the Western citizens briefly consider that the Orange Revolution stems overwhelmingly its roots from the internal discontent against the Kuchma regime. During the Kuchma period mafia and the criminal world were playing the most important role in the life of Ukrainian society. After the Orange Revolution surveys interestingly show that entrepreneurs and businessmen began to play effective role in the Ukrainian society. This is the breaking point to understand the meaning of the Orange Revolution. Global capital always demand safe and non-risky environment. New flourishing businessmen and entrepreneurs who want to integrate with global capital were suffering from mafia phenomenon and unstable conditions of the country. Ukrainian Nomenklatura was ruling the country in order to provide benefits for their own interests since independence. Moreover; they were not enthusiastic for the Western oriented integration process. The interests of the Nomenklatura overlapped with the Eastern newly rich industrial oligarchs, so the supporters of Kuchma regime took its roots from Russian oriented industrial oligarchs. However, Europe and United States did not allow the process to progress in this way. External intervention combined with demands of entrepreneurs caused Orange Revolution. Another significant point in the background of the Orange Revolution is geostrategic importance of Ukraine. The Territory of Ukraine is a kind of bridge for shifting energy resources from Asia to Europe. Most of gas pipelines of Asia drive through in Ukraine. Undoubtedly, big powers hegemony struggle on Ukraine will progress in near future. Nonetheless, considering the global stability of market economy, permanent unstable Ukraine should not be wanted by big powers.

Thus far, I have covered the background of the Orange Revolution. The Orange Revolution was a non-violent revolution. History of the world is full off bloody revolutions. Reluctant change of ruling elites most of the times engender with violence. Soros foundations played a crucial role not only in Orange Revolution, but also almost all of the colored revolutions. Foundations of Soros especially supported young organization *PORA* (it's time). The reason of particularly supporting the youth most likely was that the youth would fulfill the lack of dynamism in a condition of revolution. Ukrainian *Pora* was inspired by Serbian *Otpor* and Georgian *Kmara*. The Soros foundations directed its work globally. For instance, young leaders of *Otpor* and *Kmara* trained and they shared their experiences with the leaders of *Pora*.

George Soros' main aim was to integrate authoritarian countries into the globalization process. Therefore, main demands of Soros oriented groups are to reach liberal democratic-economic transformation of post-Soviet and authoritarian countries. Soros's aims can be explained as a soft power of United States. Soros Foundation, indeed, using its abstract goals, wants to expand cultural, economic and political benefits of the USA (Olcar, 2007, p. 275). Imperialist interventions of the USA are named as a fierce power. Occupations of Afghanistan and Iraq are the examples of usage for fierce power. In this context, Soros's interventions can be evaluated cheaper comparatively US open occupations taking into account the cost of two types of the politics. It is early to evaluate the success of colored revolutions and open occupations because everything is still changing. Nonetheless, considering USA's tough circumstance in Iraq and Afghanistan, Soros' method is more successful in almost all aspects. The reason behind of this situation can be explained that soft power combines external and internal factors. However, open occupation merely lean upon external factors. The Soros foundations influenced media as well. For instance, Ukrainian Channel 5 and Era TV financed by Soros played an active role during the revolution. The television supported Yuschenko's election campaign (Marples, 2006, p. 363). Furthermore; postmodern technologies such as communication, information technologies were used to stimulate public opinion (Stepanenko, 2005: 602). Orange fashion, nonstop concerts of popular singers converted the atmosphere to a carnival. Television broadcasts and fashion created an illusion that every citizen participate in

the anti-governmental action. (Stepanenko, 2005: 602) Another important factor of the success of the Orange Revolution was that the opposition all together combined a strong unity for taking over the power from Kuchma (Marples, 2006, p. 357). Tymoshenko, Yushchenko and Moroz reached an agreement to defeat Kuchma. Kuchma regime was melting after the Kuchmagate scandal. Nonetheless; the opposition could not launch big rallies after the Kuchmagate scandal, although they had a majority in the parliament. Lack of unity of opposition impedes them to overthrown Kuchma regime. As Kuzio highlights: "The failure of the four opposition parties to unite against Kuchma's regime and its oligarchic allies was one reason why these protests failed to attract the kind of mass support that propelled the Orange revolution. Because of its motley make-up, the opposition could not agree on a positive message, focusing instead on negative slogans and catchphrases" (Kuzio, 2005b, p. 122).

Conclusion

Ukraine's transformation process is not an isolated process similar to other Eurasian countries. Transition of Ukraine is deeply affected by external forces. The most important one is undoubtedly current hegemonic economic model 'Neoliberalism'. Although neoliberalism weakens nation state's sovereignty, still strategic conflicts among big powers keep its importance. Therefore, transition of Ukraine has been shaping with struggle among big powers. The United States and the European Union as dominant actors of globalization need to integrate Ukraine into their strongholds. However, Russia as a representative of the different dimension of the world capitalist system, did not want to lose its gate to Europe. Under these conditions the Orange Revolution was a turning point in the transition of Ukraine. It can be said that the power of the country has shifted from 'Oligarchs' to 'Democratic Oligarchs' through the Orange Revolution. There is no so much difference between Yuschenko and Yanukovich considering equal distribution of the wealth and welfare regulations. The worse thing is that big powers struggle has been separating Ukraine. Russia's war in Ukraine dramatically worsened the situation. The cornerstones of the road leading to the war that started in 2022 were laid specifically in the Orange Revolution and the globalization integration process it accelerated.

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The Effect of Cultural Intelligence on Intercultural Sensitivity of Students in Higher Education

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Introduction

It can be said that there is a relationship between people's cultural intelligence and their intercultural sensitivity as İlhan and Çetin (2014) assume that those who have high level of cultural intelligence are successful in engaging with different cultures (as cited in Thomas & Inkson, 2004). People are assumed to have "high level of cultural intelligence in order to provide effective and successful intercultural interaction" (Şenel, 2020, p. 362). Cultural intelligence is one of the strategies used to manage intercultural differences so that it is necessary to acquire new abilities such as cultural intelligence so as to adapt to and live with different cultures in multicultural environments (Mercan, 2016). Cultural intelligence can be improved with the help of understanding, perception and interpretation of cultural awareness (Yazıcı, 2021). Moreover, it is essential to have adequate cultural intelligence so as to interact and communicate with people from different cultures. It is necessary to handle cultural differences issue in the field of tourism and hospitality so that it can help tourism and hospitality students improve their intercultural competence so as to operate and interact efficiently (Grobella, 2015 as cited in Jhaiyanuntana & Nomnian, 2020). It is observed that a limited amount of research exists in the literature about the link between cultural intelligence and intercultural sensitivity of students while it is possible to find some studies solely on cultural sensitivity or on cultural intelligence. Additionally, the number of these studies for tourism students in higher education is very few so that the present study concentrates on filling this gap in the literature. In this vein, the current study aimed to contribute to tourism education at tertiary level in Turkey by examining the correlation between tourism students' cultural intelligence and intercultural sensitivity levels. In the first section of the study, theoretical framework for cultural intelligence and intercultural sensitivity and studies related to them are given. In the second section, the methodology, the participants and the data collecting tools of the study are explained. In the third section, the findings and the results related to the research conducted on cultural intelligence and intercultural sensitivity are presented in order to determine the relationship between cultural intelligence and intercultural sensitivity of the participants. In the forth section, the conclusion and the discussion of the study are presented and in the last section, future research and the implications are given.

Cultural Intelligence

Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templar, Tay and Chandrasekar (2007) and Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (2006) define cultural intelligence as "a specific form of intelligence focused on the ability to grasp, reason, and behave effectively in situations characterized by cultural diversity" (as cited in Bobanovic & Grzinic, 2019, p. 87). It is also "an individual's ability to perform and reason correctly in culturally diverse situations" (Min, Lee & Park, 2020, p. 1). Early and Ang (2003) accept it as "a multidimensional concept" and it can be classified into four subdimensions as motivational, behavioural, cognitive and metacognitive (as cited in

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Şenel, 2020, p. 363). Motivational dimension of cultural intelligence is "people's capacity to direct their energy or attention toward functioning and learning in situations containing cultural otherness" (Wawrosz & Miroslav, 2021, p. 4). In other words, Templer, Tay and Chandrasekar (2006) state that it is related with "the intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy of the person in terms of gaining intercultural experiences and adapting to different cultural environments" (as cited in Polat, 2020, p. 419). Behavioural component of cultural intelligence is related with people's "ability to adapt a wide repertoire of verbal and nonverbal expressions in interaction with people from different cultures" (Wawrosz & Miroslav, 2021, p. 4) or as explained by Ang et al. (2007), it is consisted of "verbal and non-verbal acts regarding the relationship established with people from different cultures" (as cited in Polat, 2020, p. 420). Moreover, cognitive dimension of cultural intelligence is "an individual's knowledge of cultural institutions, norms, practices, and conventions from different cultural backgrounds" (Wawrosz, & Miroslav, 2021, p. 4). Ang et al. (2007) explain that it is "an individual's knowledge of rules, practices and traditions in different cultures, resulting from his/her own experiences or education" (as cited in Polat, 2020, p. 419). Finally, as Ang and Van Dyne (2008) assert that metacognitive component displays "cognitive awareness regarding other people's cultural preferences" (as cited in Polat, 2020, p. 419).

There are many studies concentrating on determining students' cultural intelligence levels and affecting factors (Abdien & Jacob, 2018; Min, Lee & Park, 2020; Yazıcı, 2021). Abdien and Jacob (2018) examined a detailed analysis of students' cultural intelligence studying in hospitality education institutions in Spain and Egypt. The results of the study indicated that cultural intelligence showed differences according to gender and nationalities and it could be developed by having experience through interacting and working with people from different cultures. The research also claimed that cross-cultural training definitely affects the students' cultural intelligence. Similarly, Min et al. (2020) studied with 264 undergraduate hospitality students to explore the effect of cultural intelligence on students' preferences. The study displayed that students could benefit from their cultural intelligence so as to be more open to diversity and an inclusive learning environment could be achieved by enhancing the students' cultural intelligence. In another study, Yazıcı (2021) investigated to measure students' cultural intelligence level with a longitudinal study with the participation of 736 third-grade students studying at a tourism faculty. She claimed that people working in tourism industry adapted easily and quickly to the intercultural environment in case they had high cultural intelligence, which revealed that cultural intelligence levels of tourism students could be a prominent effect on adapting to the tourism sector after the students' graduation. The study indicated that interaction with people from different cultures was important for tourism students as it developed and enhanced the level of their cultural intelligence.

Intercultural Sensitivity

Bulduk, Usta and Yeliz (2017) and Chen and Starosta (2000) refer to intercultural sensitivity as "accepting cultural difference as they are (without prejudice and ethnocentrism) and evaluating without judgement as well as approaching with positive attitudes" (as cited in Tekin, 2020, p. 59). Chen and Starosta (2000) assessed the intercultural sensitivity into five dimensions. First, respect for cultural differences dimension is related with respecting people's values and behaviours from different cultures and tolerating their ideas and culture without overvaluing their own culture. Second, interaction enjoyment dimension explains the enjoyment that individuals get from the communication with people from different cultural backgrounds. Third, interaction attentiveness dimension is associated with the effort of the learners made on understanding the case during intercultural communication. Forth, interaction engagement dimension shows individual's open-mindedness and willingness to communicate. Finally, interaction confidence dimension refers to individual's confidence in intercultural environments (as cited in Taşkın, 2021).

The Relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Intercultural Sensitivity

Although it is possible to find much research on students' cultural intelligence in higher education, there are a limited number of studies on examining the relationship between cultural intelligence and intercultural sensitivity of the students in the literature (Mercan, 2016; Göl & Erkin, 2019). For instance, Mercan (2016) explored the correlation between cultural intelligence levels of 617 employees at hospitality businesses and their intercultural sensitivity. Statistically significant difference was found between participants' term of employment, positions along with age and behavioural and cognitive factors of cultural intelligence. Moreover, there was a significant difference between intercultural sensitivity and cultural intelligence of the participants. The findings of the study indicated that cultural intelligence enhanced intercultural sensitivity of the individuals. In the same vein, Göl and Erkin (2019) examined the link between nursing students' cultural intelligence level and their intercultural sensitivity level at a public university. Students wishing to work abroad and encountering with people with various cultural backgrounds had high cultural intelligence and intercultural sensitivity levels. The study showed a positive correlation between these levels assuming that intercultural sensitivity increased together with higher cultural intelligence. It also displayed that it was essential to develop students' cultural intelligence and sensitivity with the help of programs so as to manage cultural differences by increasing education with programs.

By looking at the literature reviewed above, it appears that those who work or study in the domain of tourism need awareness of other people's cultures or differences as a lifelong process. Thus, the current study aimed to shed light on the correlation between intercultural sensitivity and cultural intelligence levels of students in the context of tourism education in higher education. In the light of the information aforementioned, the following research questions were addressed:

1. What is the current level of tourism students' cultural intelligence?
2. What is the current level of tourism students' intercultural sensitivity?
3. Does cultural intelligence influence tourism students' intercultural sensitivity?

Methodology

The present study was designed as a descriptive type of general survey research design with a quantitative method to give responses to the research questions of the study. The participants were verbally informed that their participation in the research would not affect their grade and completely voluntary. The data were collected through face to face survey in 2022-2023 academic year. The data collected from the students were firstly coded and then analyzed through SPSS. Specifically, descriptive statistics such as means and standard deviations were computed in order to show the students' responses to cultural intelligence and intercultural sensitivity items. Furthermore, regression analysis was administered so as to find out the relationship between cultural intelligence and intercultural sensitivity of the students.

Participants

The research universe of the present study was comprised of associate degree students studying at a Vocational School in a public university in Turkey. The students were studying at Tourist Guiding Program and Tourism and Hotel Management Program. The participants were selected using random cluster sampling. Totally 120 students who agreed to participate in the study and who were attending school on the day of data collection contained the sample of the study. Method used in the study was general survey that was administered face to face to the students. Regarding the students' gender, of the 120 students, 58 (48.3 %) of them were female and 62 (51.7 %) were male. In terms of their major, 61 (50.8%) of the participants were from Tourism and Hotel Management program while 59 (49.2%) of them from Tourist Guiding program. Besides, the students' ages ranged between 17 and 32.

Data Collection Instruments

The data which were collected through Personal Information Form, Turkish adaptations of Cultural Intelligence Scale (İlhan & Çetin, 2014) and Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (Öğüt & Olkun, 2018) were used in order to find out answers for the research questions. Firstly, students were informed that their participation in the study was voluntary and the data collected would not be used anywhere else except from the current study. Then, the students filled in the Personal Information Form which was also comprised of information related with the students' department, gender and age and then, they were given the scales.

The Cultural Intelligence Scale originally developed by Ang et al. (2007) was implemented to measure the participants' levels of cultural intelligence. The scale was adapted into Turkish by İlhan and Çetin (2014) and was used for the purpose of the current research. It was consisted of 20 items with a 5-point Likert-type response format ranging from ''totally disagree'' (1) to ''totally agree'' (5). It contained four sub dimensions as cognition including six items, behaviour with five items, motivation with five items and meta-cognition with 4 items. Before analyzing the scale, SPSS reliability analysis was conducted to check the reliability of the items in two scales. The Cronbach's Alpha internal reliability coefficients of the subdimensions of the Cultural Intelligence Scale (Ang et al., 2007) were obtained .86 for the cognition, .83 for the behaviour, .86 for the motivation and .72 for the metacognition (İlhan & Çetin, 2014). For the current study, the Cronbach's Alpha was found to be .87 for the metacognition subdimension, .79 for the cognition subdimension, .83 for the motivation subdimension and .85 for the behaviour subdimension. The reliability coefficient of the whole Cultural Intelligence Scale was found to be .90 which was quite satisfactory.

Intercultural Sensitivity Scale was a self-report scale developed by Chen and Starosta, (2000) and was used to measure the students' level of cultural sensitivity. The Turkish version of the scale (Öğüt & Olkun, 2018) was conducted for the aim of the study. It included 21 items with a 5-point Likert-type response format ranging from ''totally disagree'' (1) to ''totally agree'' (5). It was consisted of three factors namely respect for cultural differences and interaction enjoyment with seven items, interaction attentiveness and interaction engagement with nine items and interaction confidence with five items. For the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale, the Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency coefficient calculated on the data set of 120 students was found 0.81 (Öğüt & Olkun, 2018). For this study, the Cronbach's Alpha was obtained to be .78.

Findings

Students' Cultural Intelligence Level

In order to assess the students' cultural intelligence levels, descriptive statistics were conducted and group means and standard deviations were presented in Table 1. Results of the items were given in groups in terms of four areas of the Cultural Intelligence Scale (Ang et al., 2007) as outlined in the method section.

Table 1. Means for four subcategories of cultural intelligence

	N	Mean	SD
Cognitive	120	2.77	1.48
Metacognitive	120	3.82	1.30
Behavioural	120	3.80	1.42
Motivational	120	3.89	1.34
Overall mean score	120	3.57	1.38

Considering the mean values displayed in Table 1, it was seen that the students had cultural intelligence in varying degrees of strength. To be more specific, the factor of motivational

intelligence was the highest (M=3.89), which meant "strong agreement" in Likert type scale and followed by metacognitive (M=3.82), behavioural (M=3.80) and cognitive (M=2.77) factors.

The descriptive statistics for students' cultural intelligence items according to four subdimensions were shown in the Table 2 through Table 5. Based on the variable distribution (ranging from 1 to 5), it was determined that the levels between "1.0-1.80" was very low, "1.81-2.60" was low, "2.61-3.40" was moderate, "3.41- 4.20" was high and "4.21-5.0" was very high. Table 2 illustrated the frequency of the students' responses in means and standard deviations in cognition dimension.

Table 2. Descriptive results of students' cultural intelligence in cognitive dimension

Cognitive	N	M	SD
I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.	120	2.58	1.45
I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.	120	2.26	1.33
I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.	120	3.23	1.52
I know the marriage systems of other cultures.	120	2.61	1.66
I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.	120	2.71	1.48
I know the rules for expressing nonverbal behaviours in other cultures.	120	3.23	1.46
Overall mean score	120	2.77	1.48

As could be seen in Table 2, the students reported that they knew the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures (M=3.23) and the rules for expressing nonverbal behaviours in other cultures (M=3.23) at "moderate" level. Additionally, they knew the arts and crafts of other cultures (M=2.71) and the marriage systems of other cultures (M=2.61) at "moderate" level. In contrary, they stated that they did not know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages (M= 2.26) and they did not know the legal and economic systems of other cultures (M=2.58) at "low" level.

Table 3. Descriptive results of students' cultural intelligence in metacognitive dimension

Metacognitive	N	M	SD
I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.	120	3.53	1.35
I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.	120	3.85	1.36
I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.	120	3.78	1.27
I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.	120	4.23	1.22
Overall mean score	120	3.82	1.30

Moreover, the participants obtained high mean score in the metacognitive category (M= 3.82) as shown in Table 3. Specifically, they reported that they checked the accuracy of their cultural knowledge as they interacted with people from different cultures at "very high" level (X= 4.23). It was followed that they adjusted their cultural knowledge as they interacted with people from a culture that was unfamiliar to them (M=3.85) and they were conscious of the cultural knowledge they applied to cross-cultural interactions (M=3.78) at "high" level.

Table 4. Descriptive results of students' cultural intelligence in motivational dimension

Motivation	N	M	SD
I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures	120	4.21	1.18
I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me	120	4.01	1.32
I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me	120	3.86	1.32
I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me	120	3.68	1.45
I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture	120	3.73	1.45
Overall mean score	120	3.89	1.34

Table 4 displayed that the participants had the highest mean score in the motivational subcategory (X= 3.89) of all subdimensions of cultural intelligence. To be more specific, they stated that they enjoyed interacting with people from different cultures. (X= 4.21) at "very high" level. They were confident that they could socialize with locals in a culture that was unfamiliar to them (X= 4.01) and they were sure they could deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that was new to them (X= 3.86) at "high" level.

Table 5. Descriptive results of students' cultural intelligence in behavioural dimension

	N	M	SD
I change my verbal behaviour (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it	120	3.80	1.47
I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations	120	3.83	1.36
I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it	120	3.78	1.37
I change my nonverbal behaviour when a cross-cultural situation requires it	120	3.66	1.48
I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it	120	3.93	1.36
Overall mean score	120	3.80	1.42

The participants had high mean score in all the items in the behavioural subcategory (M= 3.80) as shown in Table 5. In detail, they thought that they altered their facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction required it (M= 3.93) and they used pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations (M= 3.83) at "high" level.

Students' Intercultural Sensitivity Level

The second research question dealt with the current intercultural sensitivity level of the participants. Table 6 indicated the descriptive statistics for three subcategories of intercultural sensitivity like respect for cultural differences and interaction, interaction attentiveness and interaction engagement and interaction confidence.

Table 6. Means for three subcategories of intercultural sensitivity

	N	Mean	SD
Respect for cultural differences and interaction enjoyment	120	4.20	1.05
Interaction attentiveness and interaction engagement	120	3.88	1.12
Interaction confidence	120	3.55	1.09
Overall mean score	120	3.87	1.08

As displayed in Table 6, the means in the subdimensions suggested that students had more respect for cultural differences and interaction (M=4.20) than interaction attentiveness and interaction engagement (M=3.88) and interaction confidence (M=3.55). Students also had high mean scores in their overall intercultural sensitivity level (M=3.87).

Relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Intercultural Sensitivity

The third research question focused on the correlation between cultural intelligence and intercultural sensitivity of the students. The relationship between subdimensions of cultural intelligence and subdimensions of intercultural sensitivity was analyzed by regression analysis. Subdimensions of cultural intelligence were consisted of cognition, behaviour, metacognition and motivation. Subdimensions of intercultural sensitivity were consisted of respect for cultural differences and interaction enjoyment, interaction attentiveness and interaction engagement and interaction confidence.

Table 7. Regression analysis of cultural intelligence subdimensions and respect for cultural differences and interaction enjoyment

R2= ,194 adjusted R2=,136 F=3.312 P value=,017							
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinetary Statistics	
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	3,915	,361		10,857	,000		
Metacognition	,093	,095	,150	,982	,331	,627	1,595
Cognition	-,304	,095	-,461	-3,199	,002	,704	1,420
Motivation	,275	,132	,417	2,087	,042	,367	2,725
Behaviour	-,070	,105	-,114	-,660	,512	,489	2,043

Table 7 showed that independent variables namely cognitive, metacognitive, behavioural and motivational dimensions explained 13.6% of variance in respect for cultural differences and interaction enjoyment factor. It could be said that the subdimensions of cultural intelligence had a positive effect on respect for cultural differences and interaction enjoyment factor (R= 0.194; R2= 0.136; F=3.312; $p<0.05$). According to the standardized regression coefficients, the relative importance of the predictor variables on respect for cultural differences and interaction enjoyment factor was as followed: Cognitive (β=0,461), motivation (β=0.417), metacognitive (β=0.150) and behaviour (β=0.114). Cognition and motivation were found to be associated with the respect for cultural differences and interaction enjoyment.

Table 8. Regression analysis of cultural intelligence subdimensions and interaction attentiveness and interaction engagement

R2= ,376 adjusted R2=,330 F=8.280 P Value=000							
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinetary Statistics	
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2,477	,293		8,453	,000		
Metacognition	,061	,077	,106	,789	,434	,627	1,595
Cognition	-,135	,077	-,223	-1,755	,085	,704	1,420
Motivation	,282	,107	,463	2,630	,011	,367	2,725
Behaviour	,115	,086	,204	1,339	,186	,489	2,043

The regression analysis in Table 8 displayed that independent variables like cognitive, metacognitive, behavioural and motivational dimensions explained 33% of the variance in interaction attentiveness and interaction engagement factor. It was seen that the subdimensions of cultural intelligence had a positive impact on interaction attentiveness and interaction engagement factor (R= 0.376; R2= 0.330; F=8.280; p<000). According to the standardized regression coefficients, the relative importance of the predictor variables on interaction attentiveness and interaction engagement factor was as followed: Motivation (β=0,463), cognition (β=0.223), behaviour (β=0.204) and metacognitive (β=0.106). Motivation was only found to be positively correlated with interaction attentiveness and interaction engagement.

Table 9. Regression analysis of cultural intelligence subdimensions and interaction confidence

R2= ,211 adjusted R2=,153 F=3.666 P Value=,010							
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinetary Statistics	
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2,556	,363		7,036	,000		
Metacognition	-,151	,095	-,239	-1,583	,119	,627	1,595
Cognition	,059	,096	,088	,618	,539	,704	1,420
Motivation	,307	,133	,457	2,309	,025	,367	2,725
Behaviour	,043	,106	,069	,404	,687	,489	2,043

As Table 9 demonstrated independent variables like cognitive, metacognitive, behavioural and motivational subdimensions explained 15.3% of the variance in interaction confidence factor. It was concluded that the subdimensions of cultural intelligence had a positive impact on interaction confidence factor (R= 0.211; R2= 0.153; F=3.666; p<0.01). According to the standardized regression coefficients, the relative importance of the predictor variables on interaction confidence factor was as followed: Motivation (β=0,457), metacognition (β=0.239), cognition (β=0.088) and behaviour (β=0.069). Motivational dimension was found to be positively correlated with interaction confidence while no significant differences were obtained between cognitive, metacognitive and behavioural dimensions and interaction confidence.

Conclusion and Discussion

In this study, it was hypothesized that students' cultural intelligence was related to their intercultural sensitivity. To address the research questions of the study, empirical research with tourism students was designed and conducted. With this aim, firstly, students' cultural intelligence level was determined according to four subdimensions of the Cultural Intelligence Scale (Ang et al., 2007) as cognition, metacognition, behaviour and motivation. By looking at the results of the study, it was seen that the students generally obtained the highest mean score in motivational intelligence level while they had the lowest cognitive intelligence level among four factors of cultural intelligence. Accordingly, improving students' intelligence in cognition seemed to be important and needed to be improved. To be more specific, students should be informed about the practices, rules and traditions of other cultures and they also needed to be given chances to have education and experiences in different countries (Polat, 2020) as they explained that they did not know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages and they did not know the legal and economic systems of other cultures. This could be increased through enhancing education programs (Göl & Erkin, 2019) such as Erasmus Exchange programs. Besides, training programs supporting cross-culturality would be beneficial in developing students' cultural intelligence (Abdien & Jacob, 2018). Furthermore, it was seen

that the students had high motivational intelligence level as a result of the data analysis of the study. In detail, they had enough self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation as they were eager to adapt themselves to environment which was culturally different and they were ready for having intercultural experiences (Templer et al., 2006).

Concerning second research question of the study, intercultural sensitivity level of the students was analyzed in terms of three subcategories of the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (Chen & Starosta, 2000) namely respect for cultural differences and interaction enjoyment, interaction attentiveness and interaction engagement and interaction confidence. The students' general intercultural sensitivity level was found to be high at the end of the analysis. By looking at the findings, it was concluded that the students obtained the highest mean score in the dimension of respect for cultural differences and interaction. They respected the values of people from different cultures. However, they had the lowest mean score in the dimension of interaction confidence. The students found it very hard to talk in front of people from different cultures. In the light of this finding, it was evident that the students needed to be encouraged to interact with people from different nations by increasing their self-confidence.

Secondly, the effect of cultural intelligence on the students' intercultural sensitivity was analyzed, which was the main aim of the study. The results indicated that there was a positive relationship between the students' cultural intelligence and their intercultural sensitivity (Göl & Erkin, 2019; Mercan, 2016). To be specific, motivational intelligence had a significant place in the students' intercultural sensitivity namely in respect for cultural differences and interaction enjoyment dimension. Additionally, cognitive intelligence had also an important role on the students' respect for cultural differences and interaction enjoyment factor. However, there was not a statistically significant difference between the students' behavioural and metacognitive intelligence and their intercultural sensitivity. Besides, motivational intelligence was also found to be effective in interaction attentiveness and interaction engagement along with interaction confidence dimensions while no statistically significant difference was found between the students' meatcognitive and behavioural intelligence levels and intercultural sensitivity. The results were partly consistent with the previous studies which indicated that there were statistically significant differences between all dimensions of cultural intelligence and intercultural sensitivity (Mercan, 2016; Göl & Erkin, 2019).

These findings supported the idea that the more the students had high cultural intelligence level the more they would be successful in engaging with various cultures (İlhan & Çetin, 2014 as cited in Thomas & Inkson, 2004; Yazıcı, 2021). In order to increase the students' cultural intelligence level, they should be aware of cultural differences and this awareness needed to be raised (Yazıcı, 2021). Another way to improve cultural intelligence was the inclusion of learning environment (Min et al., 2020).

Future Research and Implications

The findings of the study provided a foundation for future research about students' cultural intelligence and their intercultural sensitivity although the findings of the study were mainly based on self-reported data from a small group of students, which explained certain built-in limitations. In other words, this study could be a sample for those who want to do research on cultural intelligence and intercultural sensitivity of the students in different departments in higher education. Courses aiming to increase students' intercultural communication skills should be included in the curriculum of tourism education. Meanwhile, the current study had some limitations. Based on the results, some suggestions for further studies could be made. To start with, the combination of multiple sources of data might be included in research on intercultural sensitivity and cultural intelligence. It was also suggested that further studies could be done with the participants from different experiences and educational background. Lastly, researchers should try a mixture of data collection instruments such as qualitative and quantitative data collecting instrument and semi-structured interviews.

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Design Processes In Pique Weaving

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Introduction

In general, design and creativity in the field of textile includes the stages of risk taking, improvisation, research, discovery and imagining the applicability/reflectivity of these new discoveries and verifying them with experimental studies. These verifications, which are important as the verification process in mathematics, are of great importance especially for industrial production processes, and they are arranged in a way that results in successful productions by minimizing the risk factors that can be taken in free/individual designs. Weaving fabric designs, production method, raw materials, weaving plans, color, finishing processes, etc. factors shape. As a result of applying any of them with small changes, there are almost endless possibilities and thus fabric structures with different surface/pattern properties emerge. Therefore, it is important that technical designs suitable for the technology to be used in woven fabric design and aesthetic design including the color and texture of the fabric are intertwined and that the first prototypes are tested with various factor changes before production. In this study, pique weavings that create relief/voluminous regions on the fabric surface by binding the warps with a special task to the fabric within the framework of the motif and pulling the upper threads to themselves in these regions are the subject. The reports, which were confirmed by experimental sample studies, were used in the final product designs, and it was seen that the pattern properties had a great effect on the pique formation.

The design process is the process of finding a creative idea in the mind for a purpose or a problem and concretizing this idea according to a certain plan (Gürcüm ve Kartal, 2021: 546). According to Studd, design is a mystical content that is 98% common sense and 2% creativity. The textile industry is a multifaceted field that requires an understanding of design, management and technology for its success. Textile design plays a crucial role in creating innovative and attractive products for a variety of end-user applications, from fashion to automotive, sportswear to medical textiles (Studd, 2022:35). The textile design process, as in every field, begins with the identification of a problem and need, and this process is followed by problem-solving focused, art, aesthetic function, logic and profitability. The textile design process is a field with a wide variety of production methods, including many different technical approaches and applications, from fibers that are fabric raw materials to the final product (Tanyer ve Başaran, 2020:1738).

The starting point in the studies to be carried out for the design of woven fabric is to determine the important features of the product, which is planned to be made, in accordance with the intended use. It should be well known which aesthetic and technological factors depend on the features determined after the preliminary research studies. The ability of the design to

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This study was produced from the master's thesis titled "Relief Effects Obtained by Tension Differences in Compound Weavings and Design Dimension" (Merve Gündoğdu, 2022) conducted at Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli University, Fine Arts Institute, Department of Textile Design.

gain a privileged and original quality depends on the correct use of its tools and elements within the framework of conscious thought (Şardağ, 2002:14).

Woven fabrics create different weave structures according to the yarn systems used, so simple and compound weaves are used in the design of these fabrics. In the development of such designs, as Başer states, "knowing the properties of these structures and the benefits they provide on the fabric is very important in terms of both production and use" (Başer, 2004:1-8). Each of the mentioned weave structures results in various surface effects in their own characteristic features, even apart from variables such as yarn, density, color. At this stage, as Üstüner conveys; surface designs are extremely important in woven and knitted fabrics that can be patterned in the unity of structure and surface. "Weaving design is not superficial but structural and is formed by the technical resolution of the aesthetic design. Therefore, besides the aesthetic design, there is also the technical design". The problem of how to produce the surface image obtained and the unity of the structure and the elements that will form the structure creates the weaving or knitting design (Üstüner, 2019: 140).

In the productions made with single-layer fabrics and yarns that do not have any effect properties, generally flat surface fabrics are reached. The surface effect can be changed by adding different yarn types to such fabrics, changing the weaving densities, and applying special finishing processes. Or, for such effects, weave structures such as honeycomb and cord, which provide fluffy surface effects on their own in the weaving action, are used. In compound weaving structures, on the other hand, by adding additional yarns to the warp and weft systems and assigning special tasks to these yarns, fabrics with a thicker, heavier structure and varying from flat surfaces to voluminous structures can be obtained compared to simple weaves.

When three-dimensionality is mentioned in textiles, structures with a certain depth, height and width come to mind, and these effects can be achieved by the bulky structures of the yarns used or the tension settings applied on the weaving loom (Berber, 2019:8; Halaçeli, 2009: 78).

In simple or compound weaving structures, the use of negative weave structures together in obtaining the surface texture and appearance differences, that is, the raised and collapsed areas that create a bulky effect, or the inclusion of warp/weft yarns that make long floats in certain regions with tighter connections are among the effective methods applied. Pleat and pique weavings, which are included in the compound structures, are among the weaving structures in which the special duty yarns that form the long floats are included in the fabric with tight connections in certain areas according to the design. In these techniques, when the task is given to the warp thread, different tensions must be applied on the loom.

According to the Oxford dictionary, the term "tension" is defined as an effect produced by forces that attract each other. In textile language, yarn tension means tensile tension that develops in the yarn when exposed to an external tensile stress, this group of weaving structures form puffy areas through floats on the back of the fabric (El-Tantawi, 2021: 370).

Başer explains piqué weavings under fantasy weaves as fabrics that obtain various motif effects with extra warps fed under a great tension from a separate beam on the loosely woven plain basic fabric. The recesses and protrusions that these warps create on the surface by shrinking the fabric create the motif effect (Başer, 2004:206). The word pique comes from the French word meaning "quilted," and the effect in this weave is similar to the raised effect in quilting (El-Tantawi, 2021: 369).

Warp piques are plain weave fabrics in which relief effects with parallel stripes or motifs are created on the surface, with lower warps with different tensions, in addition to the warp and weft yarn in the basic structure. Pique fabrics woven with yarns such as cotton, cotton/polyester have a light and cool effect due to their textured surface properties. There are also thick, heavy varieties that include wadding yarns to make the recesses and protrusions on the fabric surface more effective, and these types, also known as "matelassé" (Başaran ve Özcan, 2020: 81-97),

are used in areas such as bedspreads. Pique fabrics are woven on dobby or jacquard looms according to the complexity of the design or the size of the pattern. In addition to being more resistant to wrinkles, it has a firmer handle compared to flat surface fabrics. Pike is also among the preferred fabrics for men's and women's clothing, especially for summer sports jackets. However, since light fabric production is desired in the types used in clothing, single-layer fabric weaves such as cord, ribs, honeycomb, which are also considered as false pique, are also used (Başaran, 2023:290).

Characteristically, pique fabrics have patterned or linear, fluffy, parallel stripe effects on the fabric surface. In pique weavings with a yarn ratio of 2:1, the pique warps that are intermittently included in the fabric structure are similar to the production principle of pleat weavings, as they are more taut than ground warps. Thus, grooved effects occur on the fabric surface, but folding does not occur as much as pleat. Therefore, back warp floats should not be more than necessary. Watson (1921:96-97) states that "the piqué part formed by ground warps and wefts without connecting to the back warp can be of various widths, but should be limited to about twelve rows". The ground of pique weaves, which can be produced with dobby systems or jacquard systems for large patterns, is usually in plain weave pattern. Ground warps and back/pique warps are in different beams due to different tension. As the ground weaving part is pulled down in the areas where it joins with the pique warp, indentation-protrusion or wavy effects are obtained on the weaving surface. These effects are more pronounced with wadding yarns (Başaran, 2023:290).

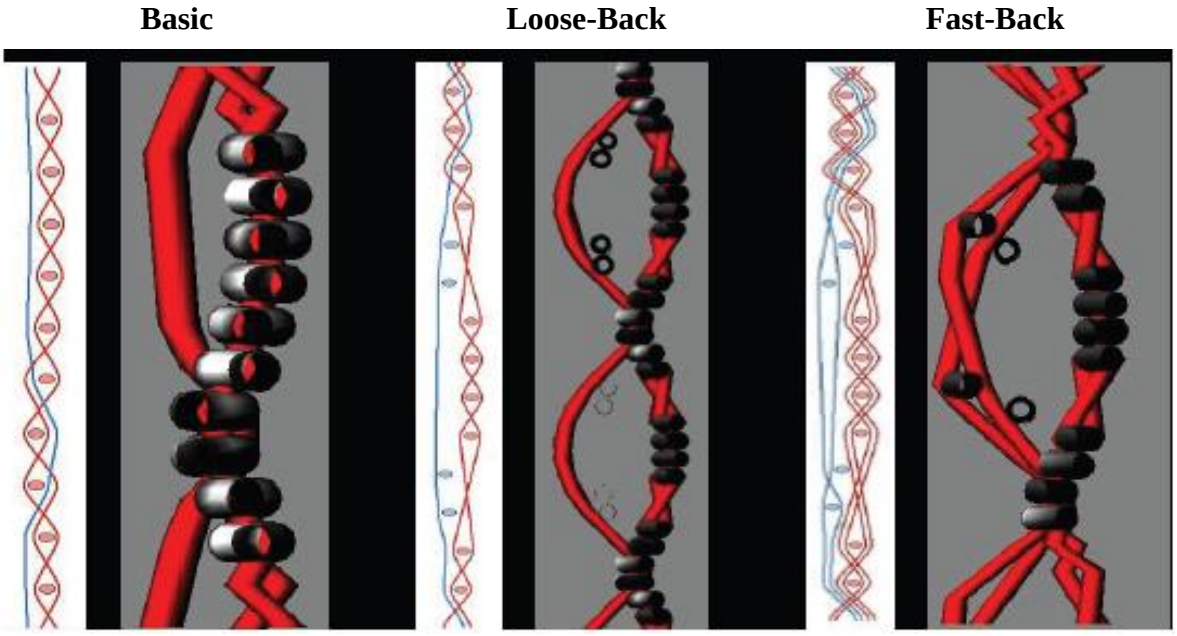


Figure 1. Connection types formed by the pique warp with the ground fabric (Başaran, 2023)

In pique weavings, the ground warp and weft threads form their own surfaces in the distance between the pique warp connections. In this part, when the necessary weft row is completed, the connection to the tauted pique warps creates a recess and the woven part rises with fluffy effects. The pique warp must pass over at least two wefts in order to bind the ground fabric tightly. The most common method of making such effects noticeable is the use of wadding yarn. Wadding yarns, which are thicker and do not require twisting and quality properties like other yarns, are loose when used for filling purposes only, without making any connections between ground and pique warps, and when the pique warp is connected to the wadding weft at one point, a tight back connection is provided. This situation is expressed as "loose-back, fast-back" (Watson, 1921:96) in some literatures (Figure 1). Wadding wefts can be included in pique fabrics in a ratio of 2:1 or 4:2. In some designs, both ratios for tapes of different thickness can be included in the same report (Başaran, 2023:290-294).

In this study, pique weaving techniques, which is one of the compound weaving structures, were examined, and the texture and visual reflections of the patterns used to create the relief zones were exemplified by experimental studies.

Materials and Methods

Research process and theme determination: In the first stage, a general framework was determined for the design process. In this research, in which the experimental model was used in addition to the literature information, the theme that would guide the study was determined first, and a storyboard and manifesto were prepared. The next steps in weaving designs are: sketches suitable for the theme images, color and material selection, determination of the weaving technique that best reflects the surface texture to be emphasized, preparation of technical reports (weave report, drawing-in, dobby plan etc.) for applications.



Figure 2. "Human Made/Contaminant" storyboard

The theme Human Made/Contaminant has been chosen to emphasize the negative relations between humans and nature in a rapidly changing world. Urbanization and industrialization have been the two main factors causing environmental problems. Both factors have turned the destruction of the environment into a problem and negatively affected the relationship between the environment and people. Problems such as air, soil, water pollution and the release of industrial wastes into nature, irreversible consumptions/destructions in nature, melting of glaciers were reflected in the inspirational images and sketches were made in this direction (Figure 2).

Sketch studies: One of the most important and crucial points of a design is sketch or rough draft work, and the product that the designer tries to reveal is three-dimensional, physically perceived and experienced design organizations (Demirarslan ve Demirarslan, 2020: 54). In this direction, how the elements such as line, texture, color, pattern, form and continuity in the theme images were examined, and it was reflected in the design application examples and sketch studies through drawings (Figure 3).

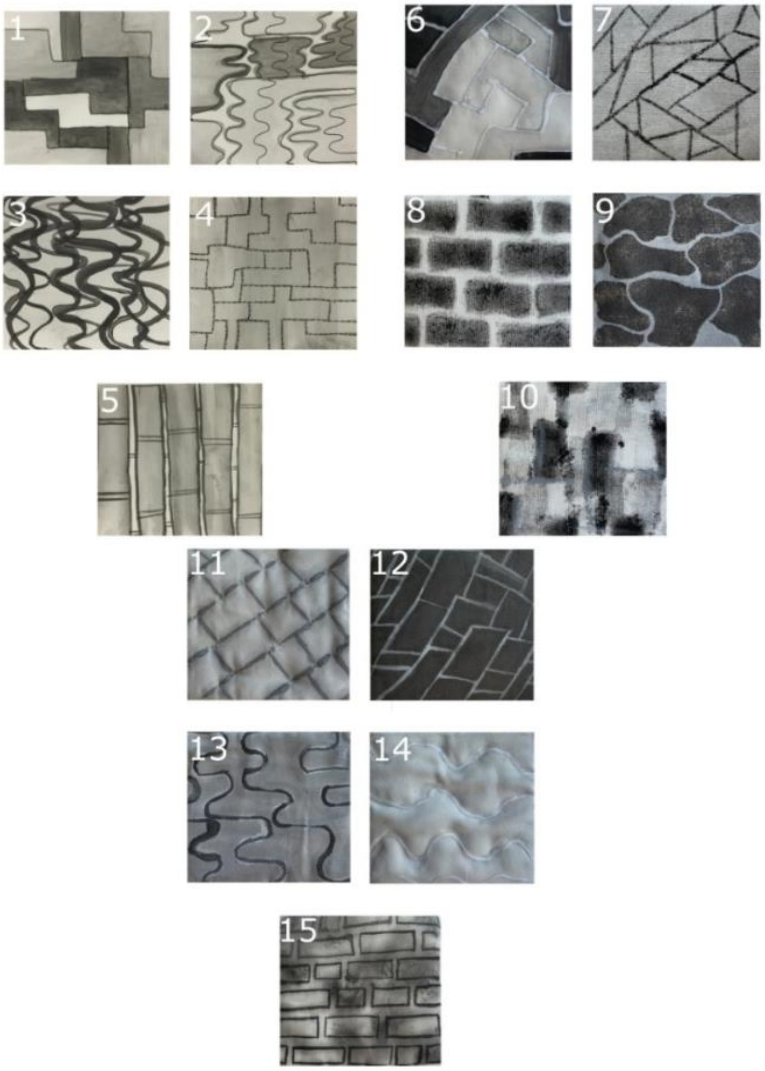
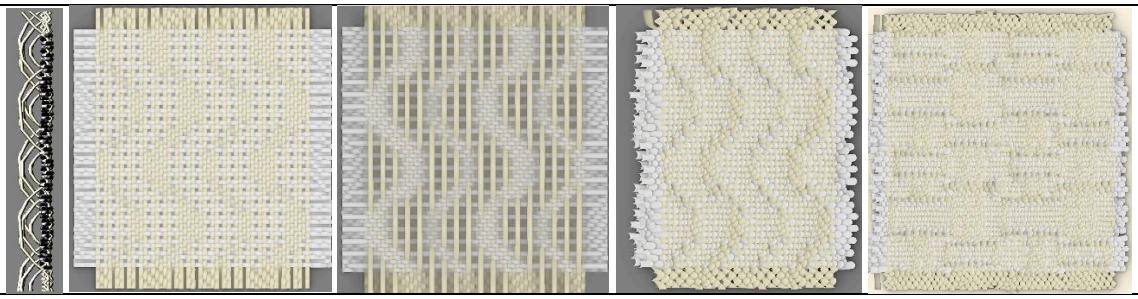
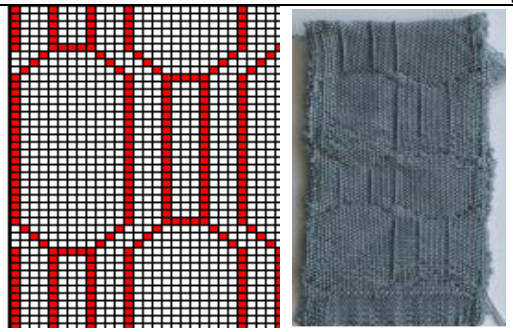
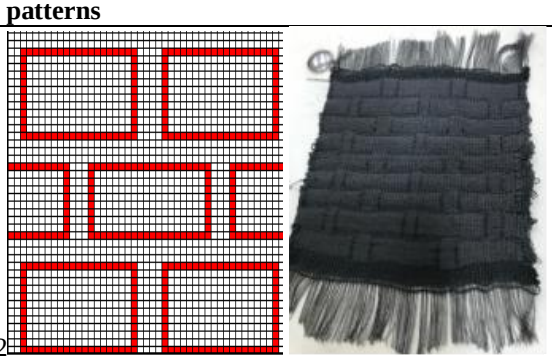
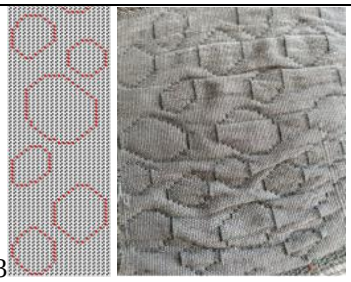
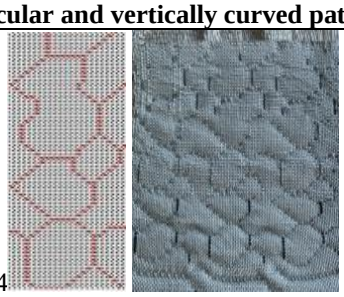
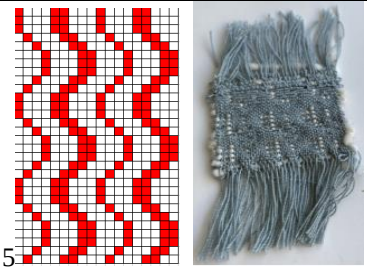
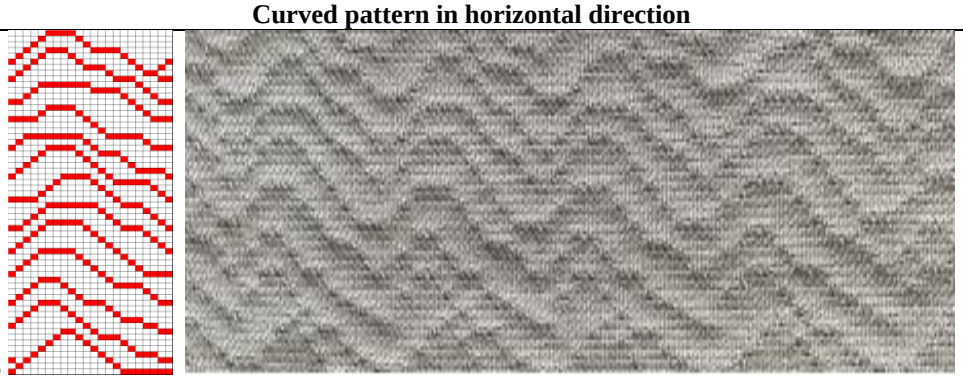


Figure 3. "Human Made/Contaminant" sketches

At this stage, different types of materials were used to create relief effects on the fabric surface. In order to determine the pattern and color effects, first of all, sketches were made with water and gouache paints on paper. In addition to two-dimensional surface studies, voluminous surface structures have been tried to be obtained by applying techniques such as bonding and weaving with materials such as yarn, fabric, silicone.

Sample studies: After the sketch studies, pattern and material researches were carried out, and effects such as texture and volume that may occur on the fabric surface were investigated. In order to determine the weaving technique, compound weaving structures were examined, and it was concluded that the pique weaving technique is among the appropriate techniques in order to obtain relief-effective weaving surfaces. Pique weavings can create the closest effects to the visuals in the "Human Made/Contaminant" theme due to the voluminous texture and pattern feature it creates on its surface in terms of its structural, physical and visual characteristics. For the pique weaving pattern designs, first, sample studies were planned, pattern, weaving plan, drawing-in, dobby plans were prepared, pre-tests were made in Nedgraphic software and simulations were followed. In the sample studies, the group drawing-in plan and weaving frequencies were kept constant, and dobby plans prepared according to the pattern were used in each sample (Table 1).

Table 1. Surface samples obtained from sample studies

Simulation examples obtained with NedGraphics software	
	
Straight line patterns	
 1	 2
Warp and weft thread Nm 50/2 polyester Wadding thread Nm 50/2 polyester	Warp and weft thread Nm 120/2 polyester Wadding thread Nm 50/2 polyester
Circular and vertically curved patterns	
 3	 4  5
Warp and weft thread Nm 50/2 polyester Wadding thread Nm 50/2 polyester	Warp and weft thread Nm 50/2 polyester Wadding thread Nm 20/1 cotton
Curved pattern in horizontal direction	
 6	
Warp and weft thread Nm 50/2 polyester; Wadding thread Nm 50/2 polyester (4 pieces)	

Patterns in various line effects were prepared for sample studies. In some designs, squares with sharp lines, curved lines or round lines in the vertical direction in some, and curved lines in the horizontal direction in the last application. Thus, the effect of linear and regional differences on voluminous fabric structure was tried to be measured. Quadrangular patterns (Samples 1 and 2), which cause long-lasting connections on the same warp, and motifs placed far apart from each other (Samples 3,4 and 5), which cause excessive back warp floats, cause

wadding yarns to appear on the surface and fluffy effects at the desired rate found not to occur. It was observed that the most successful results were obtained with horizontal curved lines (Sample 6) connecting to different warps at shorter heights. According to these results, the patterns used were revised and final samples were prepared to confirm the results (Figure 4). For the designs that make up the findings part of the study, the patterns were prepared according to the results obtained in the sample studies, and the fabrics were produced on a 24-harness dobby loom.



Figure 4. Final sample studies created with revised patterns

Results and Discussion

Preparation of weaving plans: The main weaving plans used in weaving designs are drawing-in, dobby and weaving knitting reports.

Fabric samples, which an experienced weaver or textile designer can easily read through analysis, are actually treasures of information where weaves are recorded/stored (Başaran 2023: 1). In weaving designs, weave unit reports are diagrams showing the movement pattern of warp and weft threads, and fabric surfaces are formed by the continuous repetition of this unit.

Correct placement of columns expressing warp threads and rows expressing wefts is very important in the preparation of unit weave patterns in multi-layered or compound weaving structures. The warp and weft threads that form the ground and back structure and are placed one behind the other in a double-layered fabric are shown in open reports in the columns standing side by side during the technical report preparation and in the rows placed one above the other. The ground and back warp threads are placed side by side in accordance with the thread ratio. Warp 2:1 yarn ratio was applied for pique weavings. The first number represents the ground, the second number represents the pique warp (G-P-G). In the weft group, the placement is arranged as two ground and one wadding thread (G-W-G) with the same ratio.

In pique weavings, a separate pattern must be prepared for the proper placement of the weaving weave. Pique weaving patterns were prepared in line with the data obtained from the sketches and experimental samples prepared in accordance with the theme for the application studies. The motif size and especially the width of the motif are determined according to the loom capacity and the applied weaving technique in weaving designs. Therefore, for pique weavings, which are planned to be produced on a 24-harness dobby loom, at least two frames can be used for the floor and 22 frames for the pattern at most. Four of the thirteen designs prepared in accordance with the aforementioned criteria were selected for application (Figure 5).

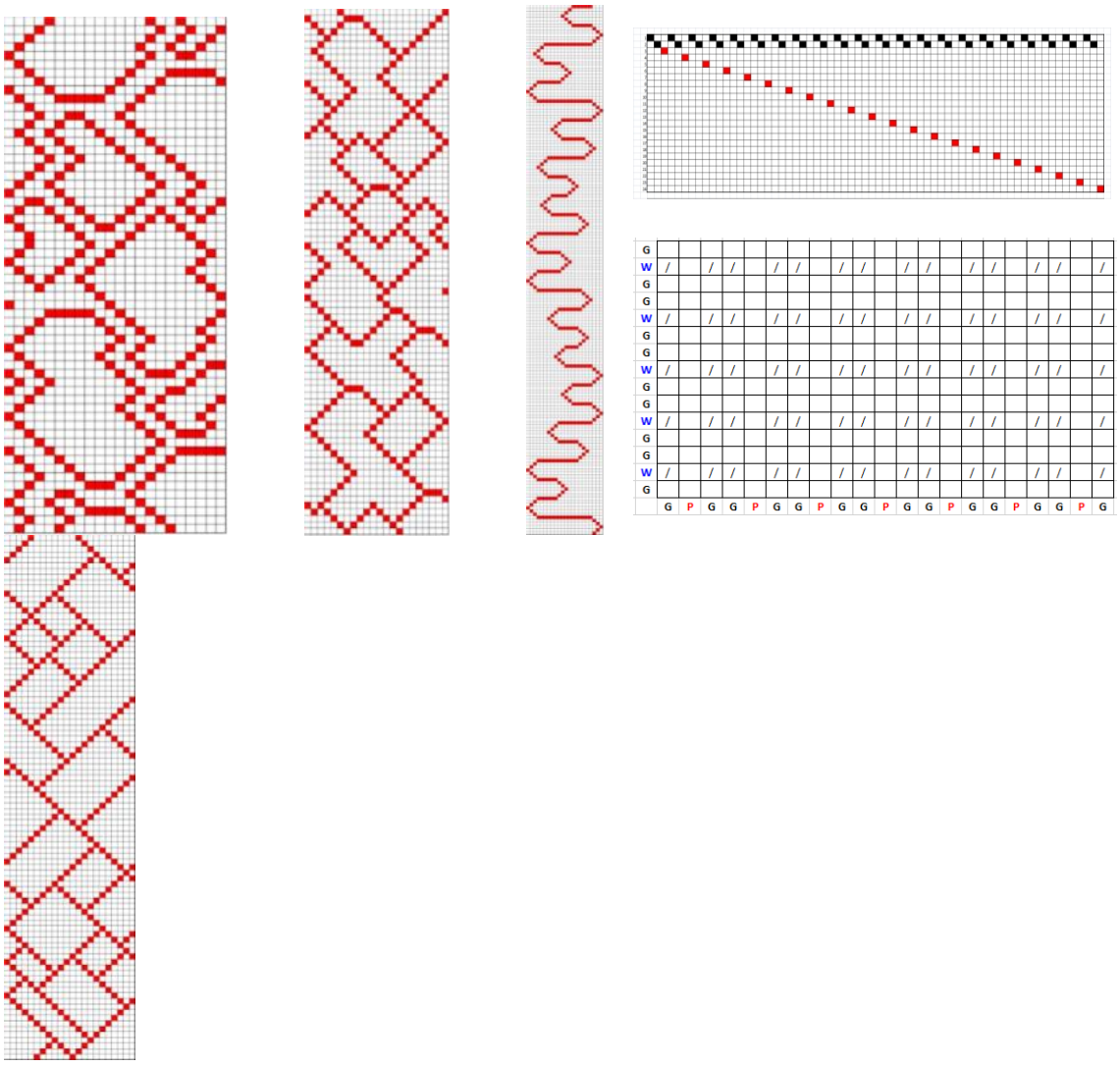


Figure 5. Patterns selected for pique weaving designs, drawing-in plan and weaving layout according to yarn ratio

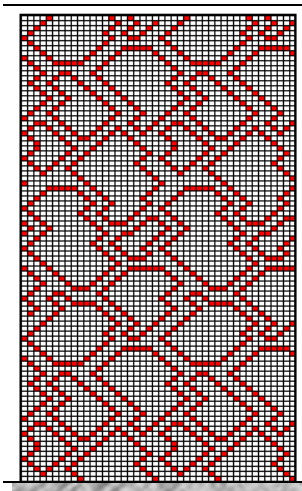
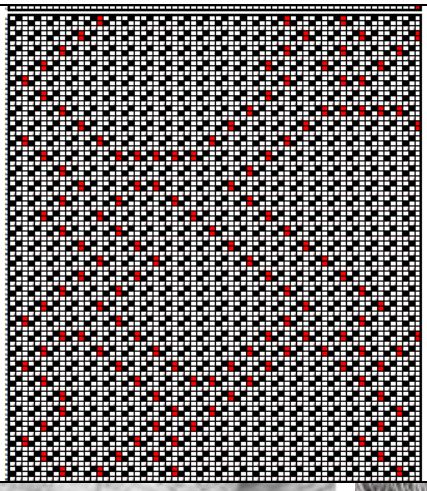
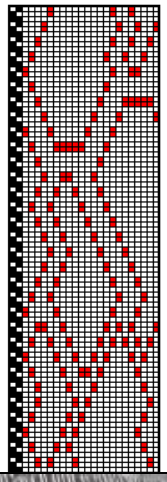
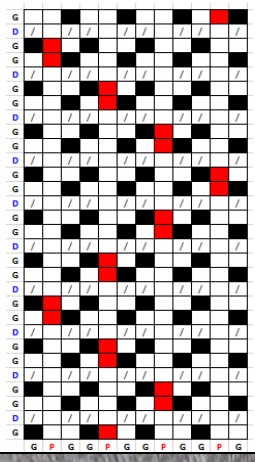
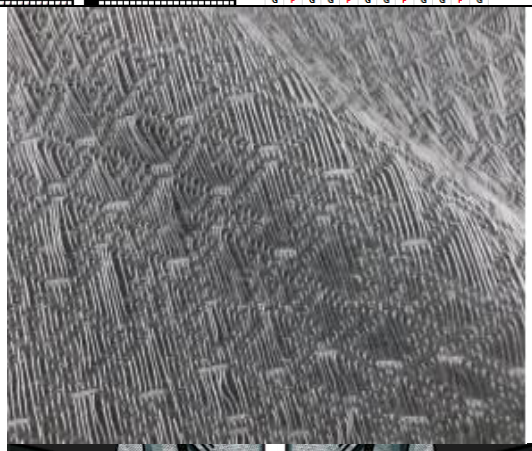
Another plan that should be prepared in advance for the movement order of the warp threads is the drawing-in plan. In the drawing-in plan prepared for sample applications, it is arranged as two harnesses for ground warps and twenty-two harnesses for pique warps. A common "grouped drawing in" plan was used in all weaving samples. Under the drawing-in plan, weaving plans were prepared in accordance with the yarn course in line with the draft plan given in Figure 5. In order to complete the weaving plans, plain weave was added to the intersection points of the ground warp and ground weft, and a lifting sign (/) was added to all ground warps in the wadding weft rows. Pattern movements in red color are placed on the pique warps. Finally, the dobby/lifting plans required for the weft rows were prepared, and the repetitive ground movements in the drawing-in were reflected on the dobby plan once. The dobby plans used vary according to the size of the pique pattern, the use of the wadding weft and the yarn ratio.

Weaving preparation and application: Warp thread calculations were made in line with all weaving plans. A drawing-in plan containing 66 warp threads was repeated ten times for 30 cm fabric width and was prepared in the numbers indicated in Table 2 in line with the 2:1 yarn ratio. The ground warp threads are placed in the upper beam and the pique warps are placed in the lower beam in a more taut manner and weaving processes are carried out. Each fabric study is 30x40 cm woven in size.

Table 2. Technical information of sample studies

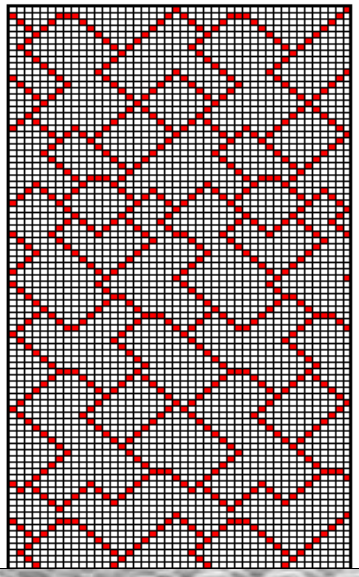
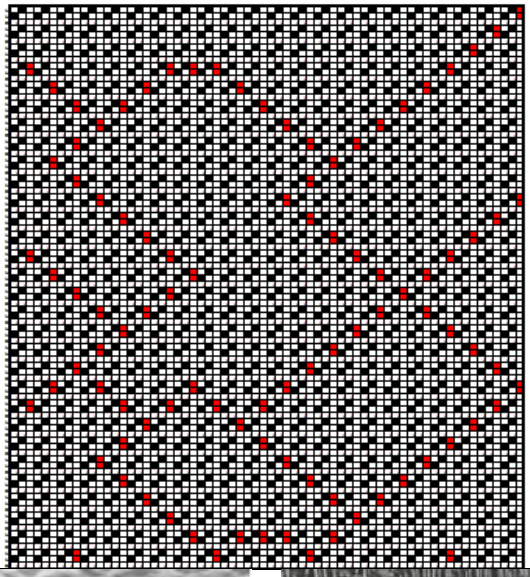
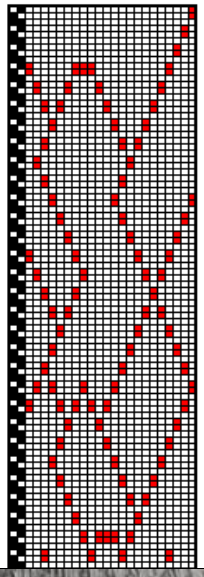
Weave Technique		Pique weave with wadding weft
Ground Weave		Plain 1/1
Loom Information		Dobby Loom (24 Harnesses)
Type of Drawing in		Grouped Drawing-in
Reed Number		100
Ground Warp Count		440
Pique Warp Count		220
Thread Type	**Warp**	50 Nm polyester
	Weft	50 Nm polyester
	Wadding	50 Nm polyester
Thread Ratio	**Warp**	2:1
	Weft	2:1
Color	**Warp**	Light grey
	Weft	Light grey
	Wadding	Dark grey

Table 3. Design 1

Pattern	Weave plan	Dobby/Lift plan	Weave detail view
			
			

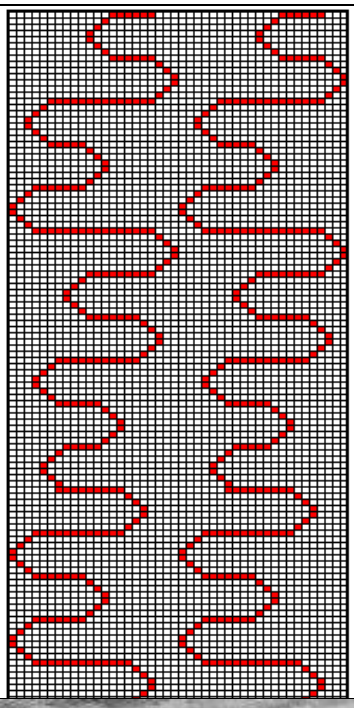
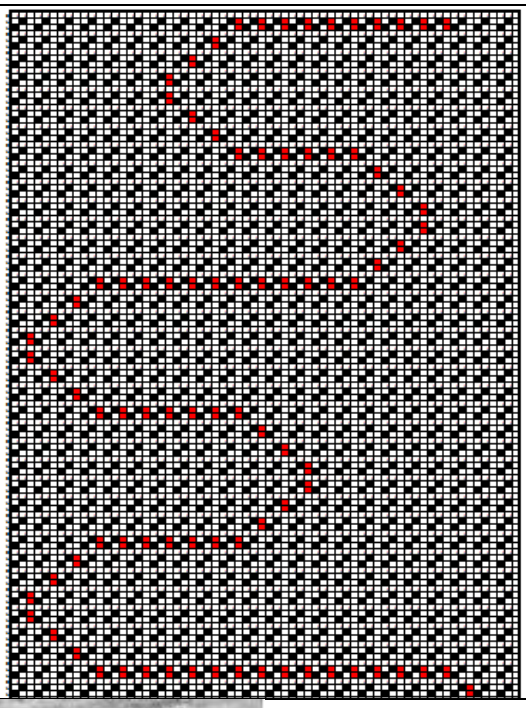
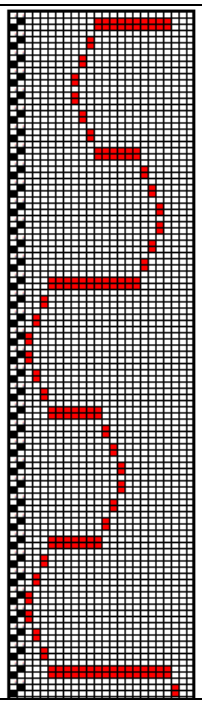
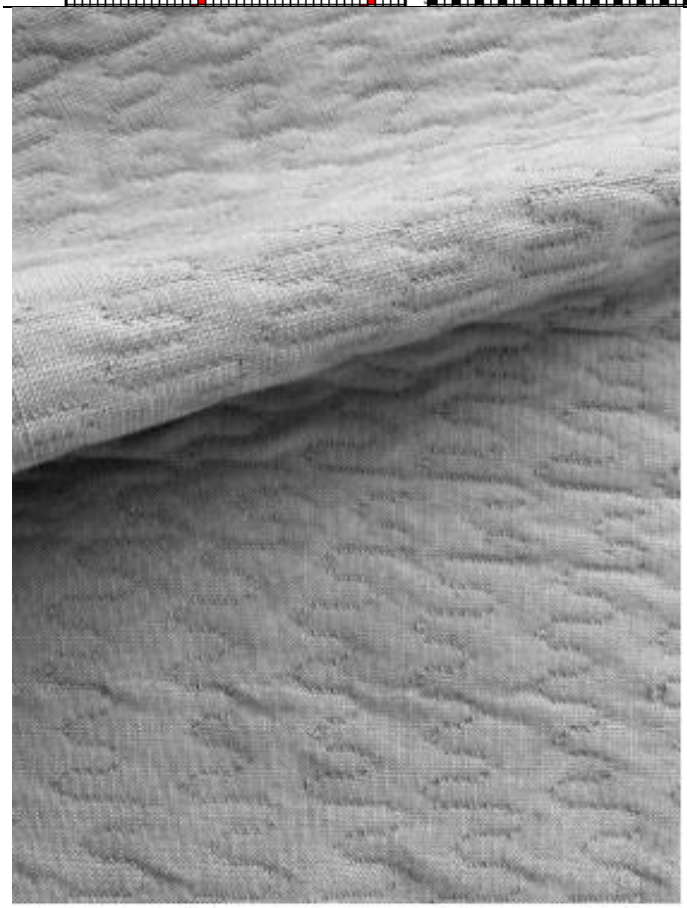
The dobby plan of Design 1 was applied 5 times according to the determined fabric dimensions. Since geometric forms of different sizes are placed at close distances to each other, the warps floating in the motif made connections with each other's border at close distances and formed short-distance floats on the reverse of the fabric (Table 3). Thus, the pique warps were included in the fabric at short distances, increasing the effect of the wadding wefts. Only loosely connected pique design is created, without any connection between the wadding weft, ground and pique warps.

Table 4. Design 2

Pattern	Weave plan	Dobby/Lift plan
		
		

Since the dobby plan of Design 2 has more weft rows, it was repeated 5 times in accordance with the determined fabric dimensions (Table 4). In the pattern containing geometric forms of different sizes, the pique warps did not form very long floats on the back of the fabric due to the connection points.

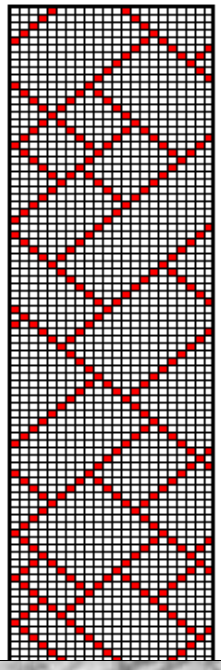
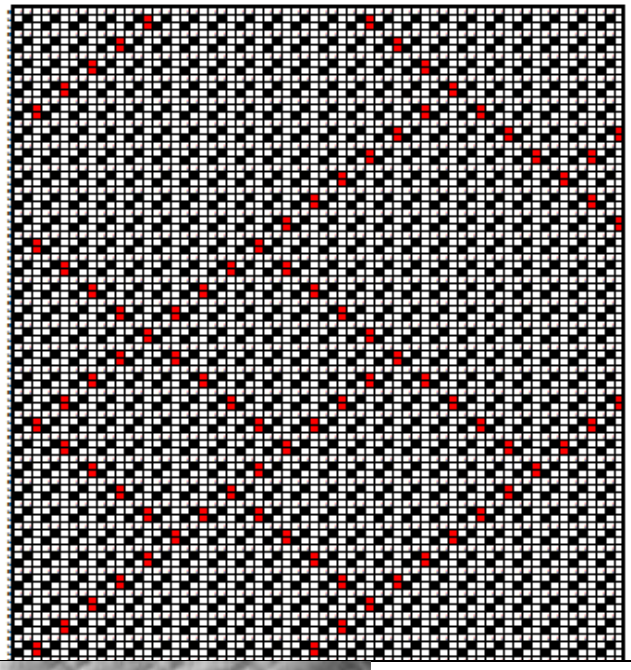
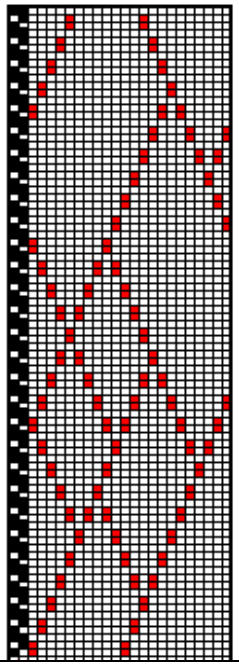
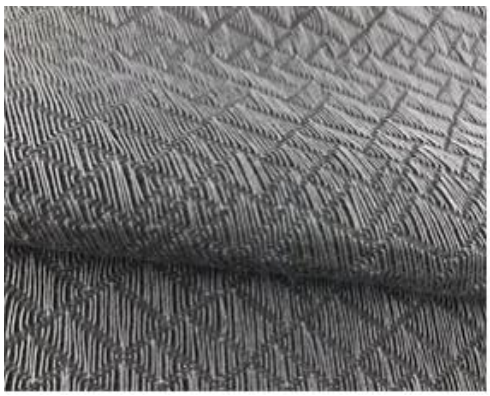
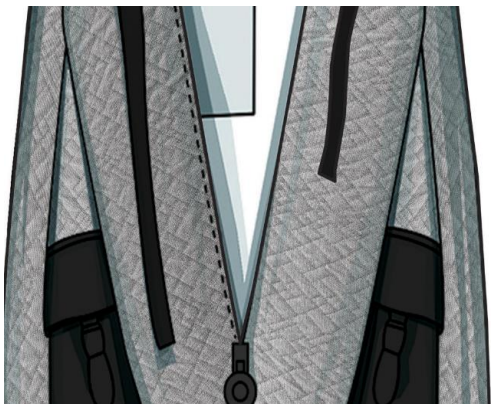
Table 5. Design 3

Pattern	Weave plan	Dobby/Lift plan
		
	 	

In the third pique design (Table 5), a wavy-shaped motif structure was used and a pattern that continued parallel to the edge was created along the fabric. In the design, which has a wavy and long pattern report, the pique warp connects with the wefts specified according to the pattern, creating floats on the reverse side of the fabric in other parts. Since the pattern used in

the third design is wide and does not form a closed form, the relief effects, which are characteristic of pique fabric, are less common than the other samples.

Table 6. Design 4

Pattern	Weave plan	Dobby/Lift plan
		
	 	

In the fourth design, quadrilaterals of different sizes are arranged to form a pattern (Table 6). Since the geometric forms do not have separate borders, the motif borders are composed of

common lines. Although long floats are observed in the quadrilaterals with a long body area, the targeted relief effects on the fabric surface have been clearly achieved.

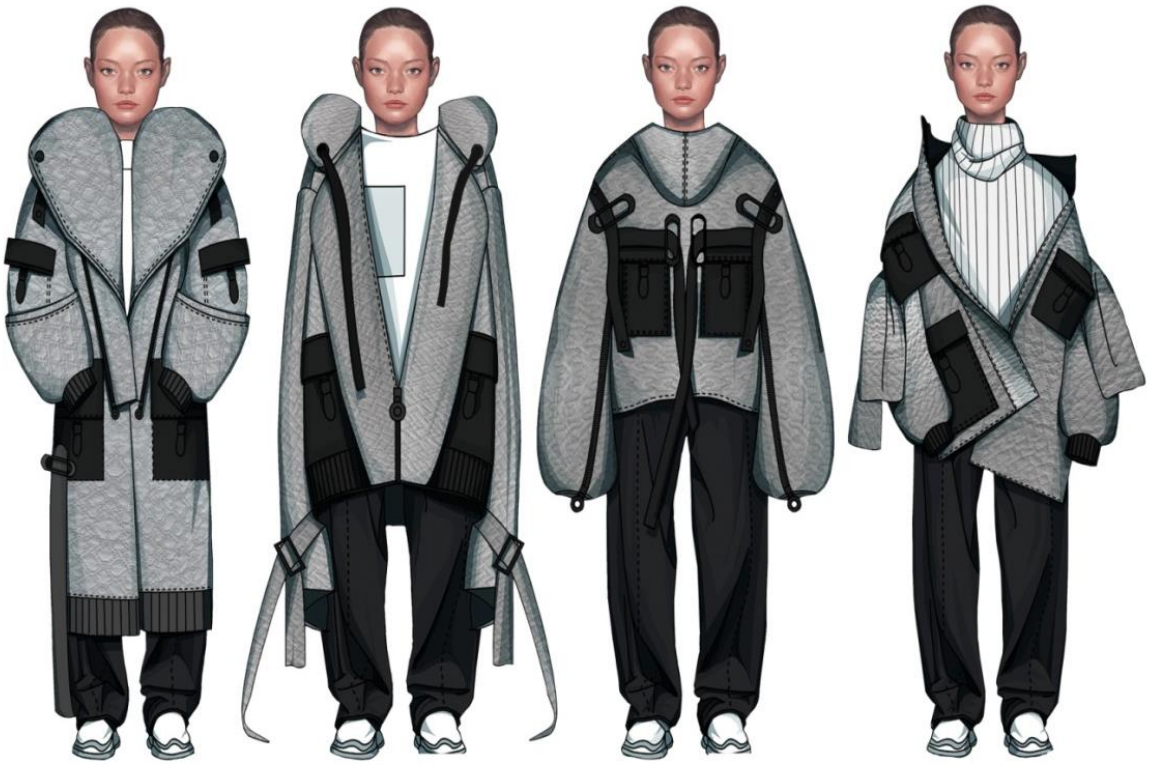


Figure 6. Examples of the use of pique weaving

Conclusion

As Richards stated, in some weavings, warps and wefts are systematically included in the fabric according to the surface weave used and create a dense surface, while some of them mostly perform long floats, as in pique weavings. The pull of floating yarns towards the fabric varies depending on the differences in the type of interlacing or closeness of these yarns within the weaving structure (Richards, 2022:73). The author also recommends that the pique warps be more twisted than the others in this type of weaving, thus stating that the yarns and structures reinforce each other.

The results obtained from this study, which was carried out as a result of literature research and experimental design implementations, are as follows:

• Although the yarn and weaving densities used in woven fabrics have a great influence on the surface formations, the weaving technique used is also very important.

• Pique weaving technique gives very good results in voluminous surface formations.

• Connections made on the same vertical in the selected patterns may cause the wadding thread to appear on the surface.

• It has been observed that wavy and oblique form choices in patterns are effective in achieving the targeted results.

• The combination of motif regions of different widths creates asymmetrical relief effects on the fabric surface.

• Motifs with closed form increase the desired pique effects.

• The close placement of the closed forms ensures that the filling yarns are included in the fabric at closer distances and increases the relief effect.

• Placing the independent closed forms at long distances causes the pique warps to be less involved in the fabric and creates long floats on the reverse side.

• As in Design 3, the connection distances of the wavy lines applied in the vertical direction are long and they do not form a closed form, causing long floats on the reverse of the fabric, as well as reducing the relief effect. However, in the preliminary sample studies, it was observed that the wavy lines placed in the width of the fabric gave successful results due to their close distance, even though they were not closed forms.

In the patterns prepared for the designs to be developed in this direction, it is important to pay attention to the pique part of the upper fabric without connecting with the pique warps, that is, the motif intervals that will cause long floats and the vertical connections that will occur in the same warp plane. In addition, it is thought that design studies that will be developed with yarn properties, density, yarn ratio, color variations, etc., which affect weaving designs, will make new contributions to the literature.

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Turkish Higher Education Crisis Management And Gender

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Nedim Emre GÜRGEN[2]

1. Introduction

In this study, we examined the situation of academic women in Turkish universities. The research shows the current statistics of Turkish academic women and examines insights into the glass-ceiling syndrome at Turkish Higher Education Management before and after Covid-19 pandemic crisis. Within the scope of glass ceiling syndrome and crisis management, we investigated the obstacles that academic women face in transitioning to senior management positions.

A crisis threatens an organization's high-level goals, and sometimes endanger its life and require immediate response; organization creating tensions where crisis anticipation and prevention mechanisms are inadequate (Demirtaş, 2000). Crisis management requires fast and effective decision-making and correction of deviations as soon as possible (Şimşek, 1997). Crises threaten the existence and the ability of the organization to act effectively and quickly against situations that adversely affect its activities (Karabulut & Pekdemir, 1998).

After the Presidential Circular dated March 12, 2020 and numbered 2020/2 was shared with the public, Turkish Higher Education Council published a Covid-19 information note for universities on 13.03.2020. In this statement, various directions were included on how academic and administrative staff, students can fulfil their responsibilities during the pandemic crisis. There is detailed information at https://covid19.yok.gov.tr .We examined the impact of crisis management on gendered practices in Turkish Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) before and during COVID-19 pandemic, a period of extraordinary pressure on leadership positions.

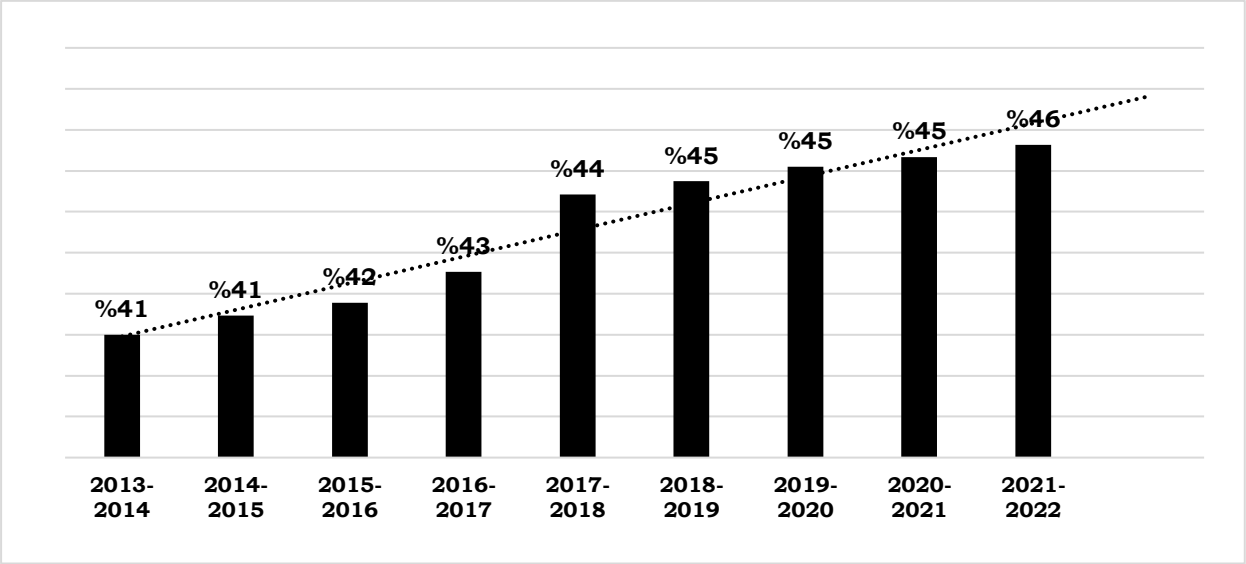
In this research, we used primary and secondary sources. Data is collected by the questionnaire, which is developed by one of the authors (Atay) before and after COVID-19 pandemic crisis. Turkish academic women is the universe of the research. Before pandemic 29 academic women replied the questionnaire. After pandemic, the number of participants increased to 65. The research contains results regarding the Covid-19 pandemic crisis management, role conflict, glass ceiling syndrome, job satisfaction and superior-subordinate relations that academic women encounter in business life. In addition, the study defines the problems that academic women face in their business life. We explored the experiences of the Turkish academic women with caring responsibilities and gender inequalities before and after the pandemic. We conclude the paper with a discussion on what the existence of academic role conflict mean for the career of individual women academic leaders. We examined the effects of the pandemic on the perceptions of Turkish academic women on the glass ceiling syndrome and discussed the solution suggestions in the light of the research findings.

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1.1. Situation of Academic Woman in Türkiye

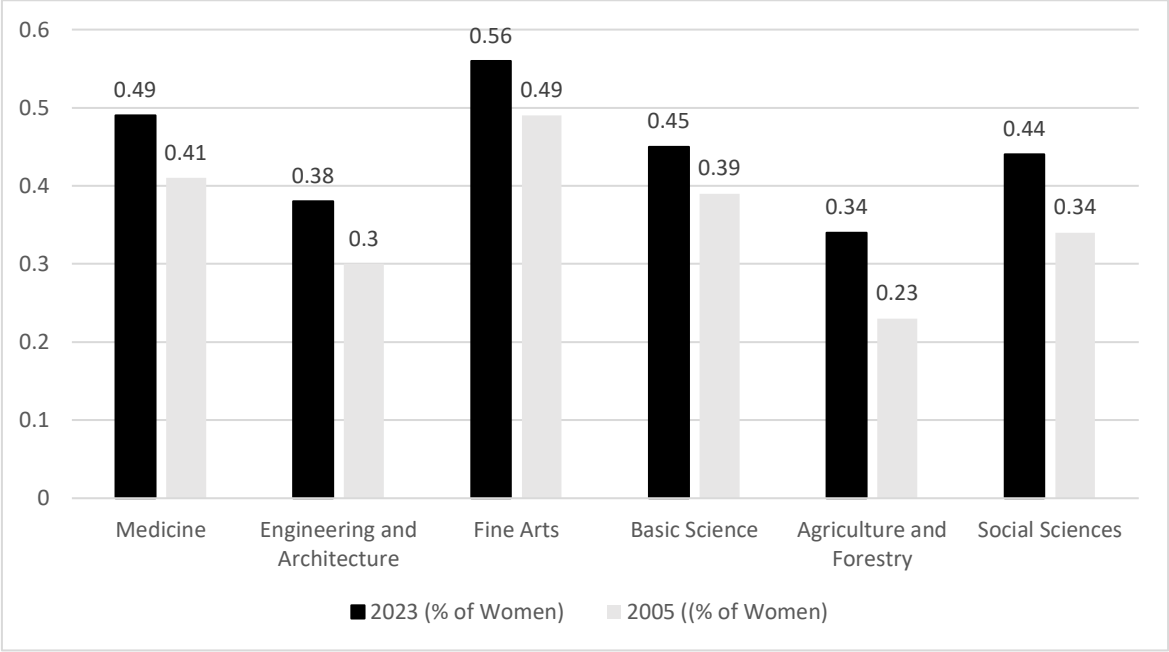
In this section, we examine the situation of academic women in Türkiye. One of the results of the modernization studies that started with the Tanzimat process is that women get the right to higher education (Uyar and Ertuğrul, 2020: 66). The process that started with the conferences within Darülfünun (this word stands for University and means 'House of Science' in Turkish) resulted in the acceptance of women to university education on February 5, 1914, with the effect of women's movements and the increase in the need for female teachers (Ergün, 1978: 441; Spuler, 1975: 428-439). There is a positive relationship between the increase in the education level of women and their entry into business life (Özkanlı, 2001: 131). With the establishment of Istanbul University in 1933, Darülfünun was closed with the "University Reform". Currently, there are 204 Higher Education Institutions (129 state universities, 75 foundation universities) in Türkiye (https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr Access Date: 30.04.2023). The latest SheFigures Report (2021) shows that in 2019 the proportion of women heads of institutions in the Turkish Higher Education Sector was 28% (SheFigures Report, 2021).

Academic women were accepted to the Faculty of Higher Economics and Commerce School for the first time in the 1932-1933 academic year (Çakır and Arslan, 2018: 266). During 32-years between 1914 and 1946, the number of academic woman in universities and colleges increased rapidly, and the rate of academic woman was found to be 13.9% in 1946 (Köker, 1988: 123). By 2023, this rate has reached 46%. It is predicted that the rate of academic woman may exceed 50% in 2030 (Graph 1).



Graph 1: Change in the Ratio of Academic Woman in Türkiye over the Years (https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr Access Date: 22.03.2022).

Academic women has the opportunity to work in many disciplines in Türkiye. These disciplines are Medicine, Social Sciences, Basic Sciences (Science-Literature), Engineering and Architecture, Agriculture and Forestry, Fine Arts. According to Graph 2, academic women constitute the majority with a rate of 56% in Fine Arts. In Medical Sciences, it is approximately the same rate with the academic men (49%).



Graph 2: Ratios of Academic Woman by Different Disciplines (https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr Access Date: 22.03.2022).

When the findings of Özkanlı's 2007 research (for the years 2004-2005) were compared with the rates between 2022-2023, it was observed that the rate of academic woman increased in all six classifications (Özkanlı, 2007a: 62). The highest increase was in Fine Arts, Agriculture and Forestry disciplines. While the rate of academic woman in the Humanities, Fine Arts and Medicine disciplines is above the general rates, the rate of academic woman in all disciplines is not below 34%.

Currently the statistics of Turkish female students in 2023 are as follows: the rate of those with associate degree education is 52%, the rate of those with undergraduate education is 48%, the rate of those with graduate education is 49%, and the rate of those with doctoral education is 49%. When these rates are compared with 2014, it is seen that the rate of female students receiving undergraduate education has remained the same, while the rate of female students studying associate, master and doctorate education has increased (https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr Access Date: 25.02.2023).

Table 1: Distribution of Academics by Gender

Distribution of Academics by Gender						
Title	Prof. Dr.	Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Assist. Prof. Dr.	Lecturer	Research Assistant	Total
Year	**1984**					
Women	290	547	560	1114	2404	4915
Men	1533	2049	1847	2726	5504	13659
Total	1823	2596	2407	3840	7908	18574
Women (%)	0,16	0,21	0,23	0,29	0,30	0,26
Year	**2022**					
Women	11228	8916	19964	19147	25123	84378
Men	22152	13027	23091	18234	22678	99182
Total	33380	21943	43055	37381	47801	183560
Women (%)	0,34	0,41	0,46	0,51	0,53	0,46

There are four types of universities in Türkiye: associate degree, undergraduate, institute and research centres. Academic women consist of 43 % of the academicians in associate degree programs, 46% of undergraduate programs, 49% of institutes and 32% of research centres. The ratio of female professors is 24% in associate degree programs, 32% in undergraduate programs, 48% in institutes and 31% in research centres (Table 2).

Table 2: Number of Teaching Staff by Academic Title According to the University Type in Turkey 2023

	Total		**Prof. Dr.**	**Assoc.Prof. Dr.**	**Assist. Prof. Dr.**	**Dr. Lecturer**	**Research Assistant**
State Universities	**M**	85979	19237	12160	19237	19688	19688
	W	69306	9836	8058	15590	21433	21433
	T	155285	29073	20218	34827	41121	41121
Foundation university	**M**	13675	3504	1284	4533	2374	1980
	W	16212	1871	1230	5186	4668	3257
	T	29887	5375	2514	9719	7042	5237
Vocational Schools	**M**	13740	490	659	2898	9664	29
	W	10376	198	397	2193	7558	30
	T	24116	688	1056	5091	17222	59
Universities	**M**	80106	21255	12022	20427	5319	21083
	W	69284	10875	8335	18274	7754	24046
	T	149390	32130	20357	38701	13073	45129
Institutes	**M**	1184	226	114	225	74	545
	W	1103	151	86	163	96	607
	T	2287	377	200	388	170	1152
Research Centres	**M**	1018	379	411	219	6	1018
	W	478	171	217	70	20	478
	T	1496	550	628	279	26	1496

In 2023, 46% of faculty members at Turkish universities are female (Table 1). According to Table 1, the proportion of female professors is 34 percent. In Türkiye, 41 percent of the associate professors, 46 percent of the assistant professors, 51 percent of the lecturers and 53 percent of the research assistants are women. When we compare data 1984 and 2023, the proportion of academic woman among all academics increased. For example, the proportion of academic woman serving as professors has increased more than twice in the last 40 years. It is clear that this is a positive development based on historical, cultural and social factors (Özkanlı and White, 2008). In Türkiye, the high representation rate of women in academic life depends on the increase in education rate, the ideology of the Turkish Republic, standard criteria for academic promotion for both men and women academics…etc. Although the number of academic women is high, when the academic title increases the ratio declines. Besides, there is

a sharp decline in the administrative levels. It is important to look at the status of academic women at senior management level. The total number of state universities and foundation universities in Türkiye is 204. Unfortunately, only 17 of the rectors are female (% 8). In state universities, only five of the rectors who work at 129 state universities are women (approximately % 4). It is stated in the literature that the academic discipline type, other care responsibilities, career mobility, experience outside the academic field, the process of appointment to gender stereotype and senior management can affect the probability of women becoming senior managers (Özkanlı, 2007b; Carrington and Pratt, 2003; Özkanlı and Neale, 2010; Bagilhole and White 2005, 2006, 2008; Thanacody et al. 2006; Özkanlı et al. 2009a, 2009b; Woodward 2007). It is strategic to increase the representation of women at the senior management level. Turkish academic women have to be more active at senior management positions in the future.

1.2. Glass Ceiling Syndrome

The concept of gender difference stems from the biological and physiological differences of the male and female sexes. Although gender base on a biological infrastructure, the men and women are different in terms of self-perception, expression, motivation, behaviour and expected roles. The concept of gender roles in the literature encompasses the expectations of the society, the psychological characteristics assigned to gender since 1970s. In the USA "Glass Ceiling" concept is used in the 1970s, to describe invisible barriers that prevents women and minority groups from advancing in their careers or reaching higher positions in a company. These barriers can be rooted in unconscious sexist or racist beliefs, structural barriers or discriminatory practices, and the unequal distribution of opportunities for advancement. The glass ceiling limits the career potential of women and prevents them from reaching higher positions. Although the international documents and laws of many developed countries offer equal rights and conditions to male and female employees, women may face invisible barriers in their working life.

Academic women focus on both their social and professional lives, their roles may conflict. Conflicting roles is challenging and may cause to neglect one role. In the literature, "role conflict" has been identified as one of the important barriers on the way to senior management. The relationship between work life and daily life is traditionally established with the term 'role' (Fichte, 1994:96). For instance, a woman academician overtakes different responsibilities due to her roles as an academician, academic manager, thesis consultant…etc. in her work life and wife, mother, housewife, daughter, sister, aunt, neighbour…etc. due to her roles in out-of-work life (Çelebi, 1993:14-18). Role conflict is the case that fulfilling a role complicates fulfilling other roles, which an individual has (Can, 1999:63). From this context, difficulties that an academic woman encounters in her work life and daily life may be implications of a role conflict. Role conflict between work life and out-of-work life may be described as uncompromising contrast (Rain et al, 1991; Savcı, 1999; Voydanoff, 1988). What makes this conflict uncompromising is the time factor (Greenhaus and Beutel, 1985:77). In role overload, the individual undertakes so many roles in a period that exceed his/her capacity. Therefore, the individual either will not fulfil them properly or will fulfil as many as possible after sorting them in terms of priority. In time-based role conflict, time spent for achieving a role is substituted for time attributed to other roles. This substitution renders the conflict between two roles uncompromising, which in turn gives rise to negative physical and psychological outcomes. Several researchers found that the role conflict between work life and out-of-work life, depression and physical disorders are more widespread among women (Atabek, 1994; Burke and Weir, 1987; Çiftçi, 1982; Kessler and McRae, 1984; Loerch et al, 1989; Pleck and Staines, 1985; Pleck, 1985; Savcı, 1997; Sekaran, 1983). As discussed by

Özkanlı & Korkmaz (2000c, p.321) the most important problem faced by academic women in Turkish universities is role conflict, academic women live a big role conflict especially during their assistant professorship stage where their desire of promotion is intensive. Succeeding their promotion and rising up to professorship they tend to think that men and women have to work equally hard to promote, leaving aside the idea that they have to work harder than men do. Taking care of changes in the roles of academic women in their non-work life (wife, housewife, mother...etc.), changing opinions according to titles is thought to be in close relation with role conflict. Role conflict becomes increasingly more important in the lives of academic women as their careers progress. It is often reported to be the cause of many women's redefinition of their career roles. For instance, women who were interviewed in one study, stated that pressures rising from the increasing demands of their family roles often caused them to reduce their standards of performance in their careers even though they had received very supportive family socialisation and experienced very high career motivation at the beginning(Acar, 1983, p.411). It is clear that role conflict resulting mainly from the inability of women scientists to dissociate themselves from traditional family roles-despite their social background and socialisation characteristics continues to be an important barrier to women's career advancement in academia (Acar 1991, p.155).

"Glass Ceiling" concept is based on the invisible barriers. American women workers face in their advancement to the upper echelons stem from organizational and behavioural biases (Wirth, 2001: 1-2). Hymawitz and Schellhardt used the concept of glass ceiling first in 1986 in an article titled "Women in Business" on Wall Street Journal (Weyer, 2006). Then, the concept of glass ceiling was introduced in 1987 by AM Morrison et al. by "Cracking the Glass Ceiling: A Phenomenological Study of Women Administrators in Higher Education" and the obstacles that women face in work life are explained (Jarmon, 2014: 20).

In 1991, the "Glass Ceiling Commission" was established within the scope of the "Glass Ceiling Law", which was brought to the agenda of American congress and put into effect in the United States (Johns, 2013: 1). In the report published by the Glass Ceiling Commission in 1995, the concept of glass ceiling has been defined as the hidden, inaccessible obstacles that women and minority groups face in climbing the career ladder in their working life (Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995: 4). The definition made in the report published by the Glass Ceiling Commission is an important step since it expresses that minorities also face the same obstacles beyond describing women. The metaphor of "glass" used in the concept of glass ceiling is related to the obstacles that women face in climbing the career ladder in their working life (Hoobler et al., 2009: 939). In other words, the glass ceiling represents unconscious, stereotypical and invisible barriers, not a physical barrier that women encounter on this climb (Harlander, 2014: 2849).

The origin of the glass ceiling lies in the fact that women see the goal they set when they go up the career ladder, but they encounter bottlenecks in reaching those goals (Yamagata et al. 1997: 571). The glass ceiling is a manifestation of gender inequality in any field (Wirth, 2001: 1). Glass ceiling is in effect for business or non-profit level institutions that women employees who want to have status encounter and struggle. It is defined as intangible and insurmountable obstacles (Günden et al., 2012) that aim to prevent women beyond their personal achievements. In some studies, it is emphasized that men and minority groups may experience glass ceiling syndrome in their business life and career steps, just like women (Utma, 2019: 49). When we look at the definitions for the concept of glass ceiling, it is striking that similar descriptions and expressions are emphasized. If we look at the common denominator where the definitions come together, the following features stand out for the concept of glass ceiling (İpçioğlu et al., 2018: 687-688):

a. In particular, it has a limiting effect on the working and career lives of female employees.
b. It depicts obstacles that are often expressed as hidden and difficult to overcome.

c. The concept of glass ceiling generally includes a prejudice and gender-based approach.
d. The glass ceiling is conceptually a concept that arises from the existence of the "female" gender in working life, regardless of the sector, industry branch or the personal characteristics of women.

The “Glass Ceiling Syndrome” contains all the difficulties faced by women workers in their careers. Individual (multiple roles, personal preferences and perceptions…etc.), organizational (organizational culture, values, work-private life balance…etc.) and social factors (neighbourhood pressure, stereotypes…etc.) lead to the “Glass Ceiling Syndrome”.

2. Methodology

The universe of the research is Turkish academic women from various universities. We collected the data by a questionnaire, which is developed by one of the authors (Atay). We classified demographic information of the participants (year of birth, department, title, term of office, current and past administrative duties, marital status, number of children and the educational status of their spouses questioned). Comparing the pre- and post-pandemic conditions of academic woman, we asked questions to measure their perceptions of role-playing, job satisfaction and gender-related disadvantages. We summarized and grouped the answers. The research included 65 academic women from 25 different universities after pandemic and 29 academic women before pandemic (www.yok.gov.tr Access Date: 07.02.2023). After pandemic 65 academic women born in 1956-1995 from 13 different cities participated in the research. The mean age of the sample is 48. Totally 94 academic women participated to our research. The research universe is 94 academic women working in 13 different cities in Türkiye. We suppose that all of them understood and replied the questions correctly.

When we controlled data before the analysis we found out that, there is no missing data and extreme values. We explained the frequency values for categorical variables and descriptive statistics for numerical variables at tables and graphics below.

Table 3: Participant Title (before pandemic)

Participants Titles	**Number**	**Rate (%)**
Prof. Dr.	3	0,10
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	5	0,17
Assist. Prof. Dr.	5	0,17
Dr. Lecturer	2	0,07
Research Assistant	14	0,48
Total	**29**	**1**

Before the pandemic approximately 50% of the academic woman who replied the questionnaire was research assistants. The rate of academic woman working was professors is 10.3% (Table 3).

Table 4: Participants Title (after pandemic)

Participants Titles	**Number**	**Rate (%)**
Prof. Dr.	26	0,4
Assoc. Prof. Dr.	13	0,2
Assist. Prof. Dr.	11	0,17
Dr. Lecturer	8	0,12
Research Assistant	7	0,11
Total	**65**	**1**

After the pandemic 40 % of the academic woman who replied the questionnaire was professors. The proportion of assoc. professors is 20%. Doctor lecturer and a research assistant rate was nearly the same (12%). The proportion of academic woman who work as assistant professor was 17% (Table 4).

Table 5: Participants' marital status, Spouse education status, Number of children (Before Pandemic)

Marital status	**Participant**	**Rate (%)**
Single	10	0,34
Married	15	0,52
Divorced	3	0,1
Unanswered	1	0,03
Total	29	1
Number of children	**Participant**	
1 child	6	
2 children	6	
No child	17	
Total	29	
Spouse education status	**Participant**	
Single	14	
University	9	
Master degree	2	
PhD	4	
Total	**29**	

Table 5 contains information on the marital status of participants, the number of children if present and spouse education status. 52 percent of the respondents are married and 41% of the respondents have children. 60 percent of the spouses are university graduates.

Table 6: Participants' marital status, Spouse education status, Number of children (After Pandemic)

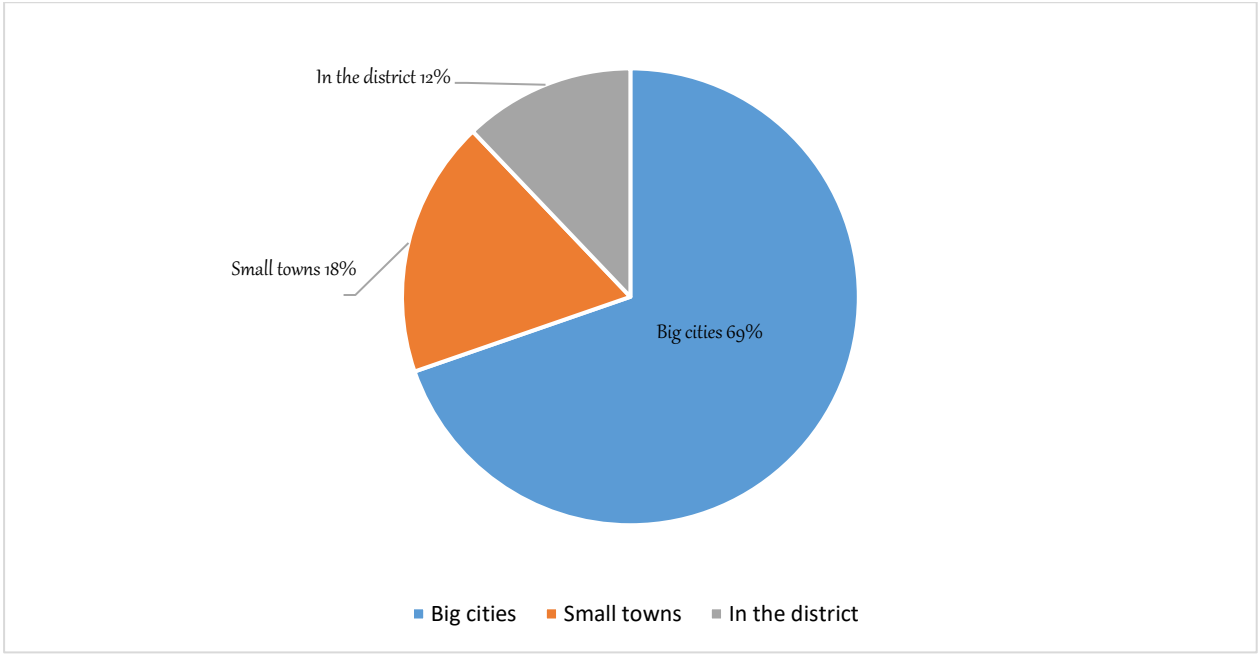
Marital status	**Participant**	**Rate (%)**
Single	13	0,2
Married	47	0,7
Divorced	5	0,1
Total	65	1
Number of children	**Participant**	
No children	5	
1 child	32	
2 children	15	
Missed (single)	13	
Total	65	
Spouse education status	**Participant**	
Missed (single)	13	
High school	1	
Two-year degree	2	
University	20	
Master degree	5	
PhD	24	
Total	**65**	

Table 6 contains information on the marital status of participants, the number of children if present and spouse education status. 70 percent of the respondents are married and 70% of the respondents have children. In terms of the education status of the spouses, 46% of the spouses have PhD degree. 38 percent of the spouses are university graduates.

3. Discussion

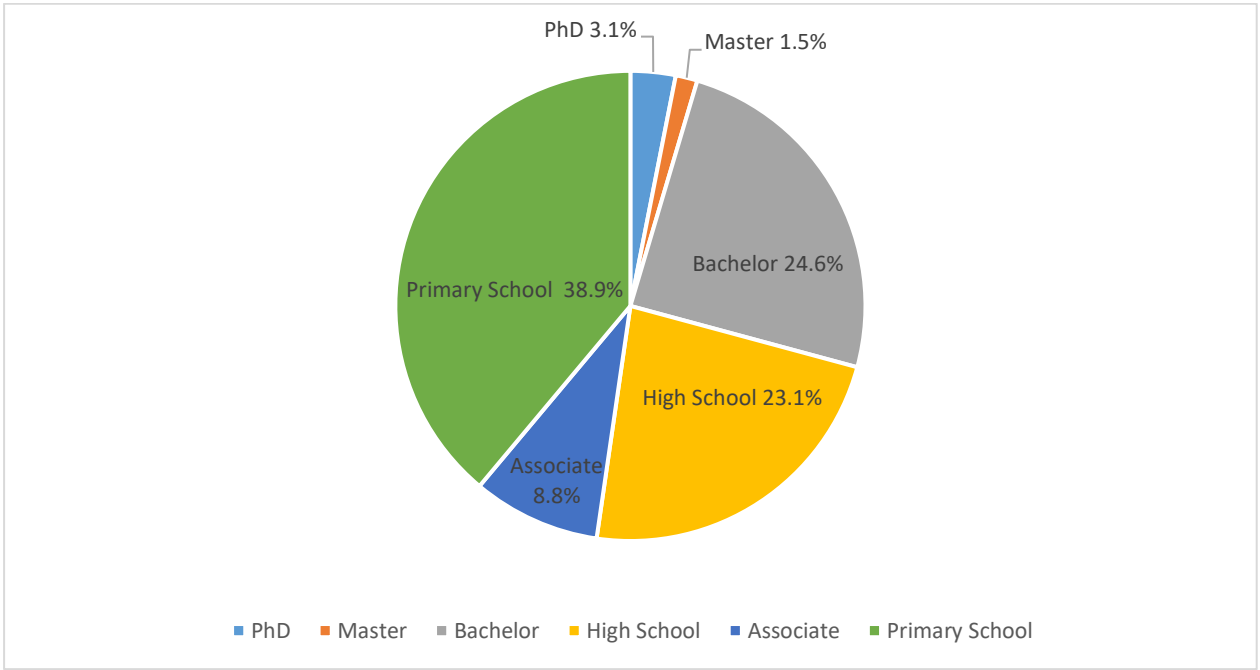
In this section, we explained the frequency distribution of the categorical questions. We discussed the results on categorical expressions. The graphs below are summarizing the answers of the participants after pandemic.

Where did you live mainly during your childhood and youth?



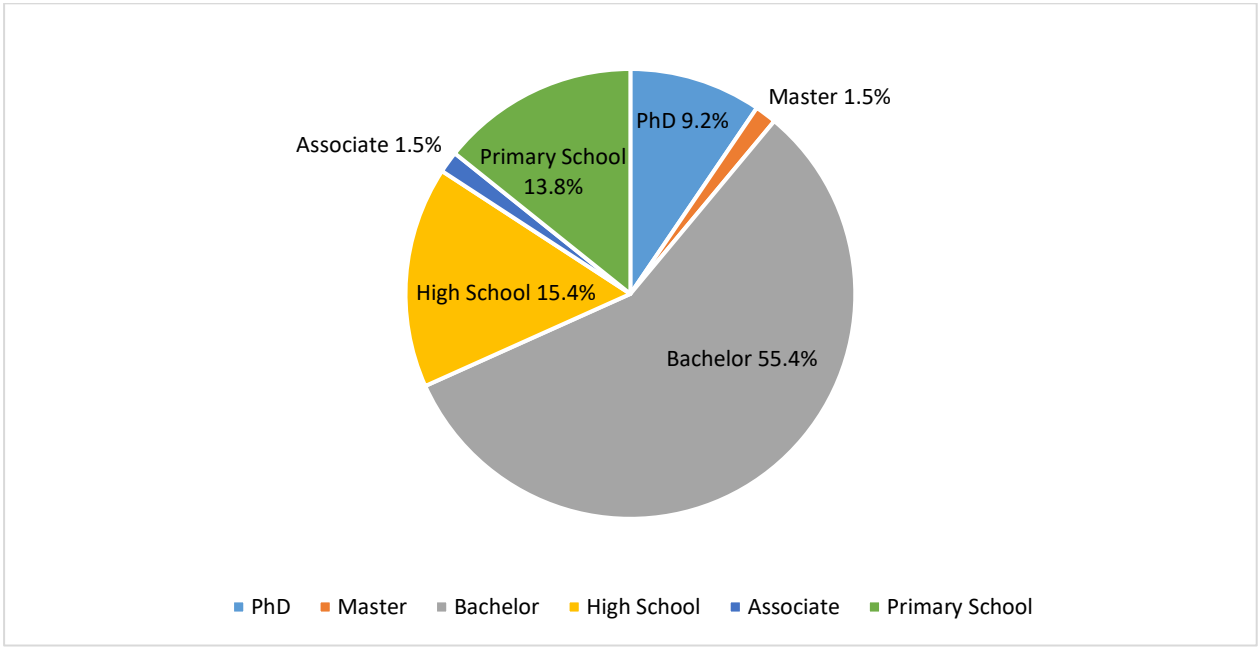
Most of the participants lived in big cities during childhood and youth. The population of the big city is over 200,000. The number of participants who lived in small towns with a population of 50,000-200,000 is 18 percent. The number of respondents who answer this question “in the district” is 12 percent.

What is your mother's education?



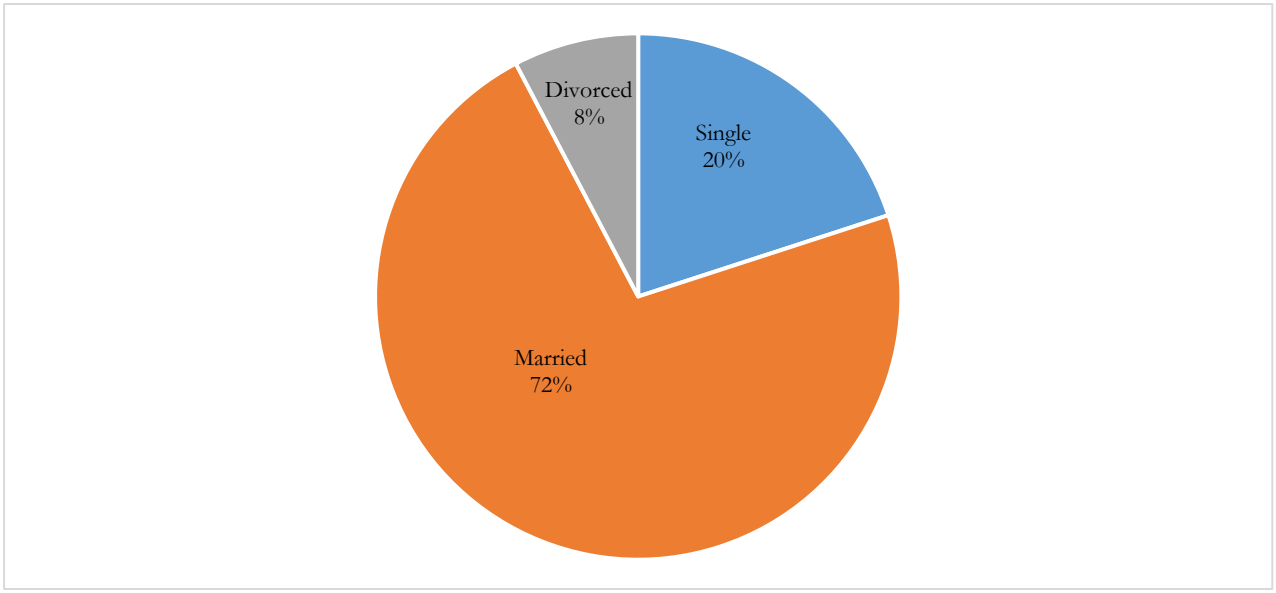
38.9 percent of the mothers of the participants are graduates of primary school. This result shows that there is a generation gap in terms of education level. 24.6 percent of the mothers of the participants are graduates are university. The percentage of high school graduates is 23.1. The fact that the remaining distribution is relatively balanced may be due to the wide range of age groups in the sample. We observed that as the age of the participants decreased, the education of their mothers increased.

What is your father's education?



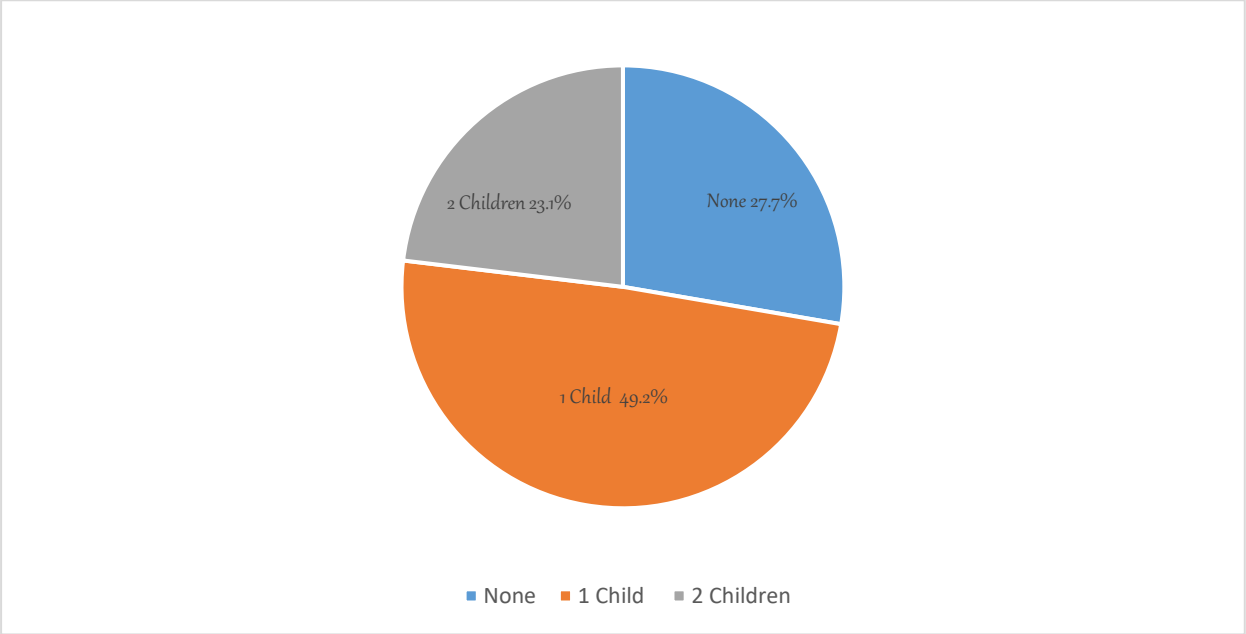
We examined the education of the participants' fathers also. The rate of university graduates is 55.4 percent. This rate is higher than the education of the mothers of the participants.

What is your marital status?



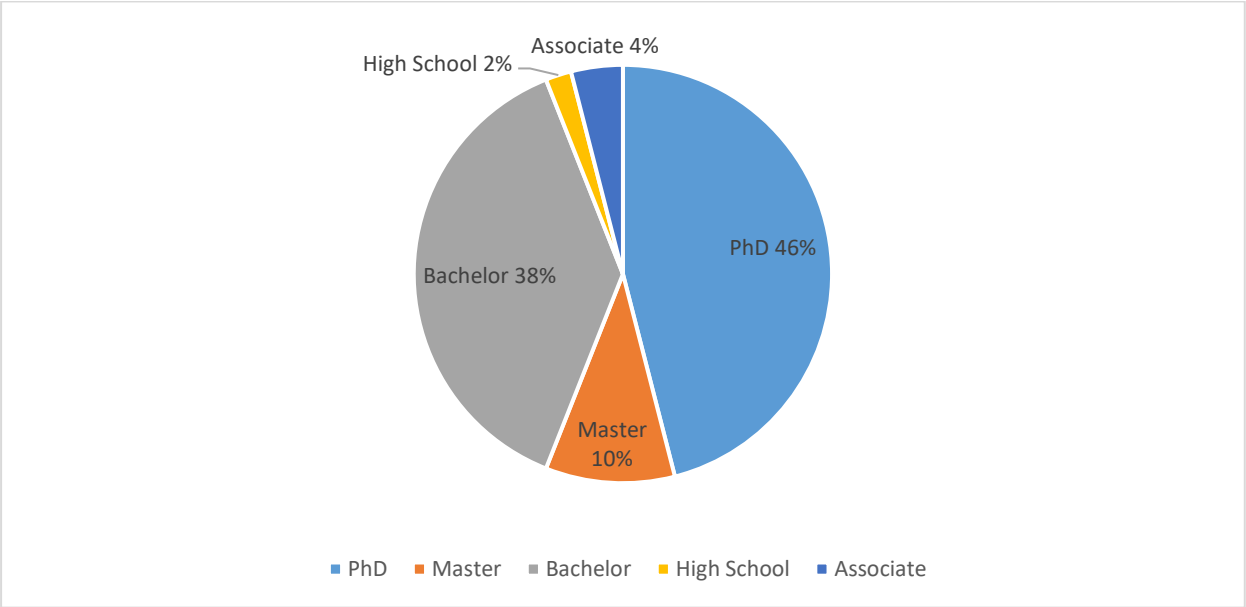
72 percent of the participants were married, 20% were single and 8% were divorced.

How many children do you have?



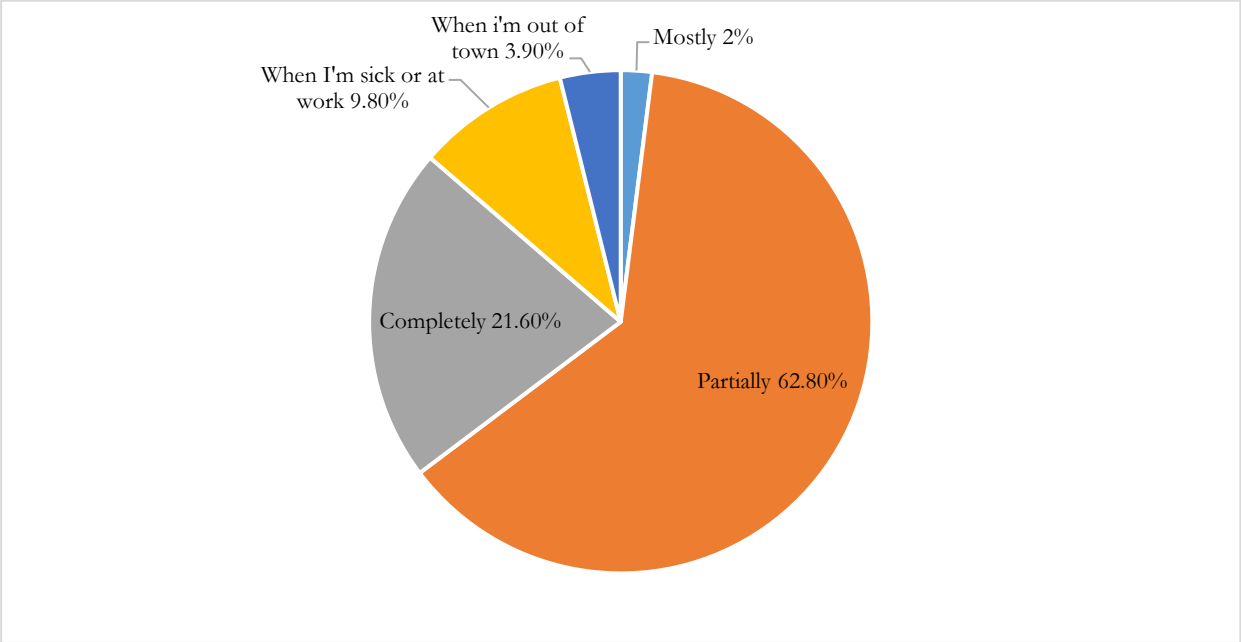
About half of the participants have one child. There is not any participant with more than two children in the sample.

What is your spouse's education?



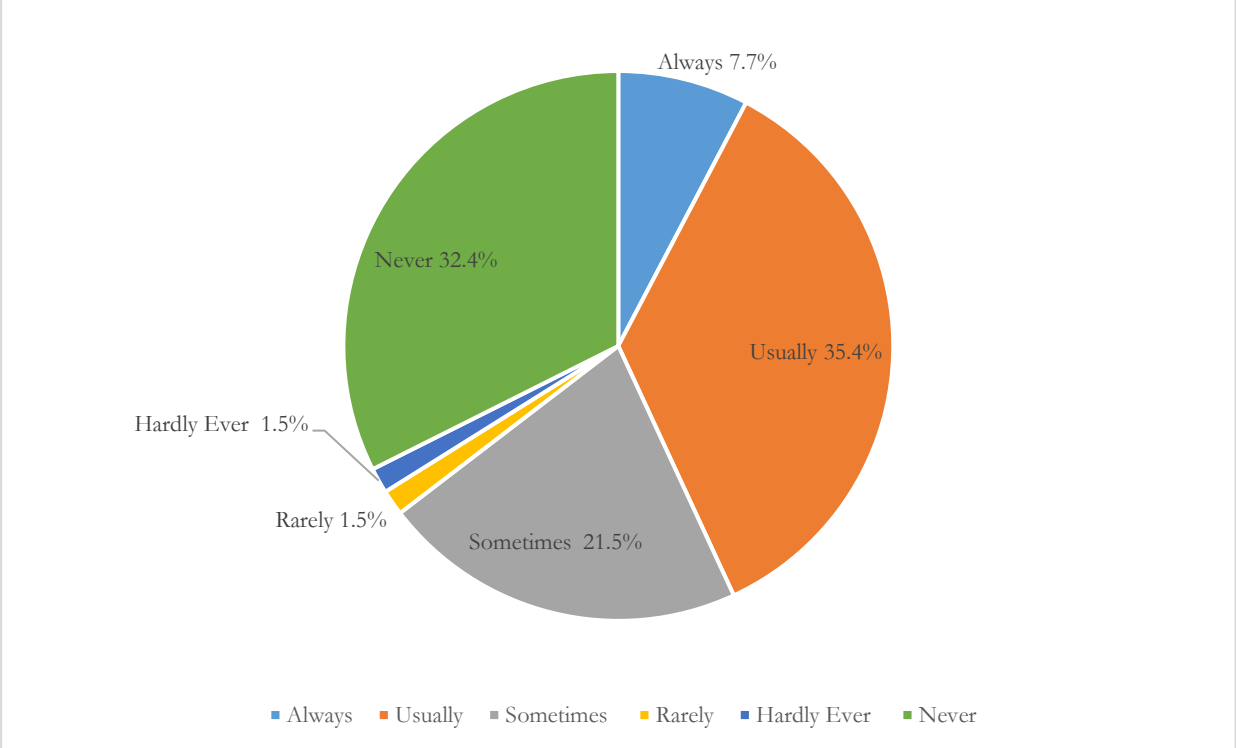
About half of the spouses of the participants have PhD degrees. Approximately 40 percent of the spouses are university graduates. The education of married participants and their spouses seems to be equivalent.

If you are married, to what extent does your spouse share housework and childcare responsibilities?



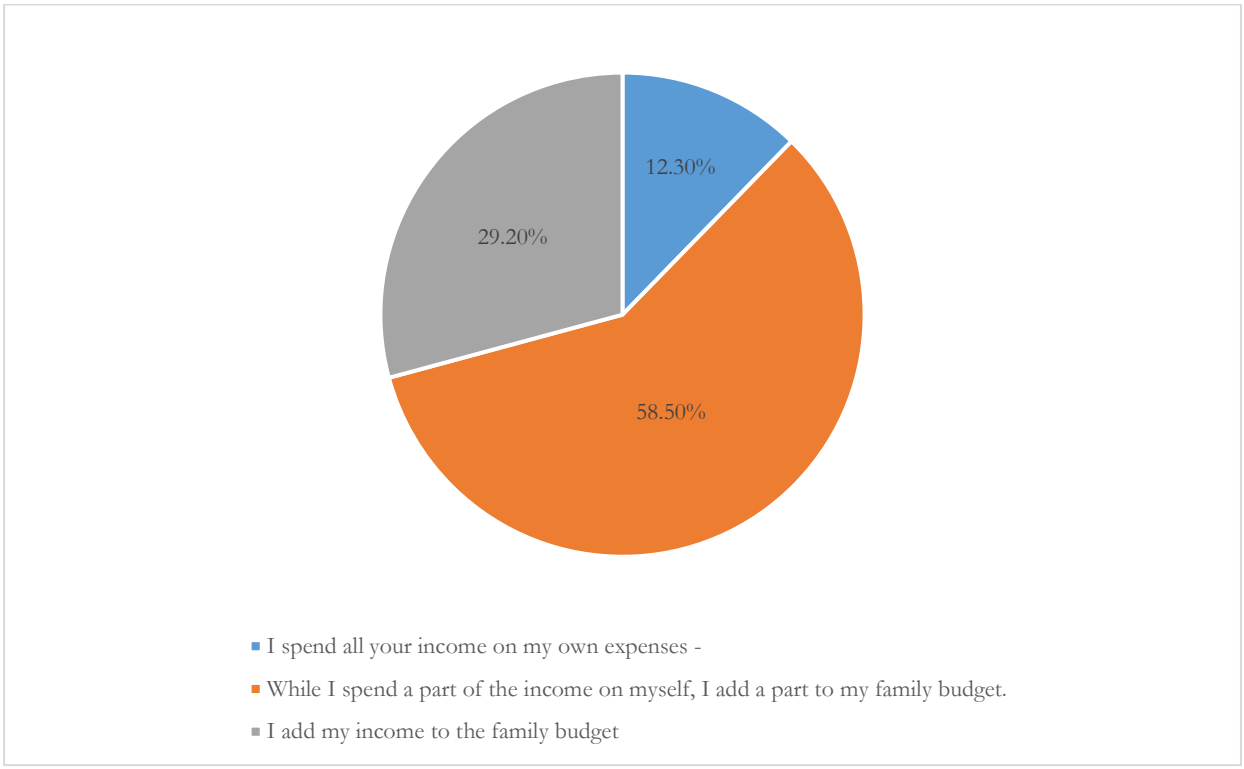
21, 6 percent of the participants stated that the responsibility is fully shared. 62,8 percent of the participants stated that they share responsibility in part. About 15% of the respondents indicated that they help when it is mandatory. Some of the spouses never shared housework and childcare responsibilities.

How often do you employ a helper for household chores?



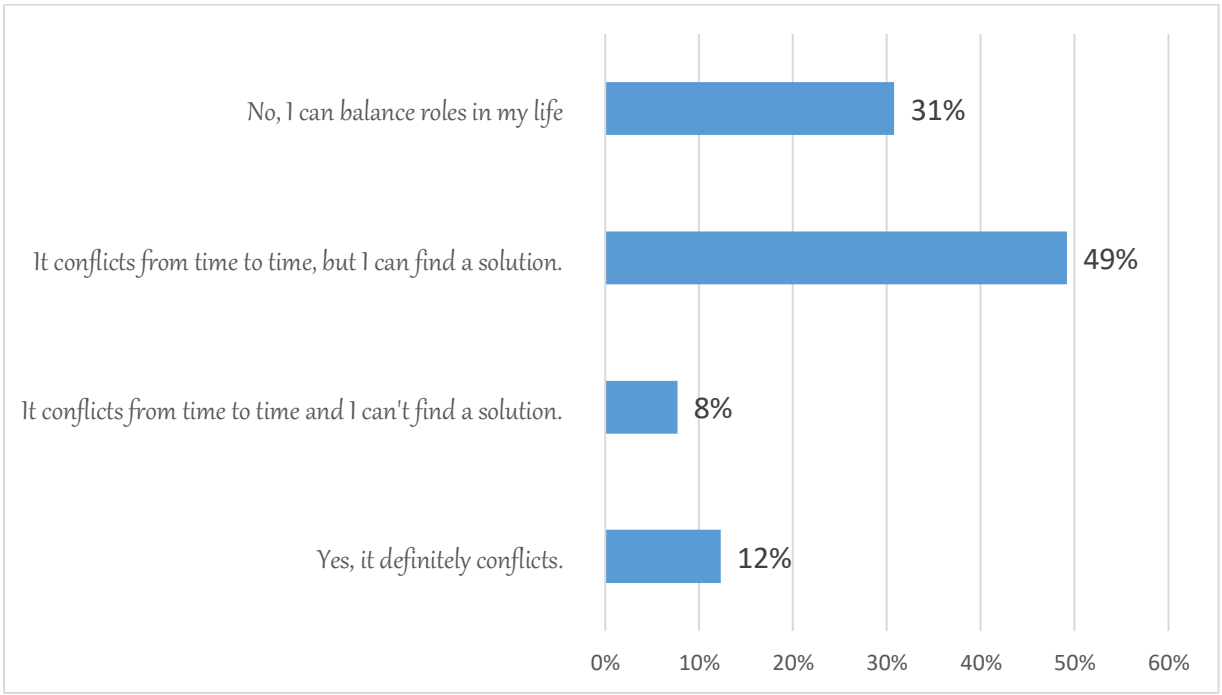
Approximately 65 percent of the participants stated that they have professional support for household chores at different intervals.

How do you use your own income?



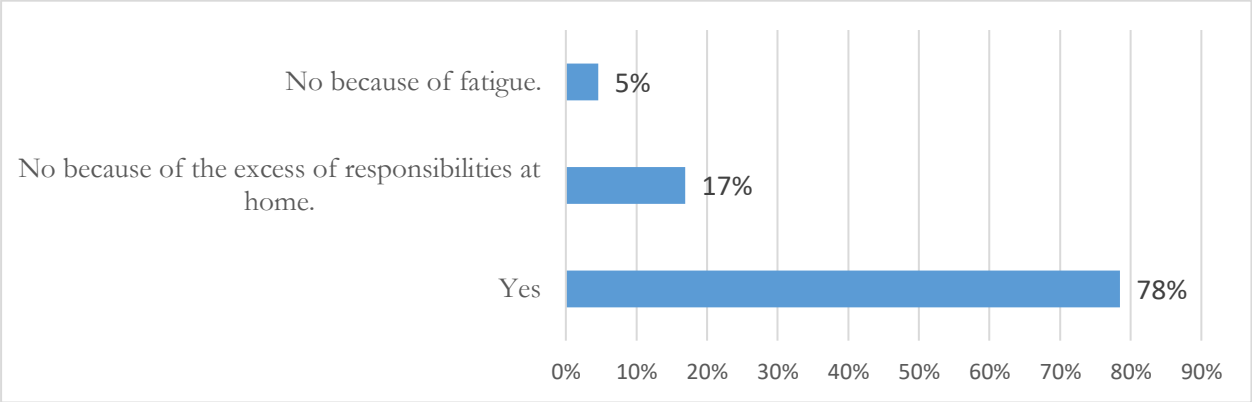
Almost 88 percent of the participants stated that they add partially or all of their income to the family budget.

Do you think that your role in your business life conflicts with your role in your private life (mother, spouse, child, etc.)?



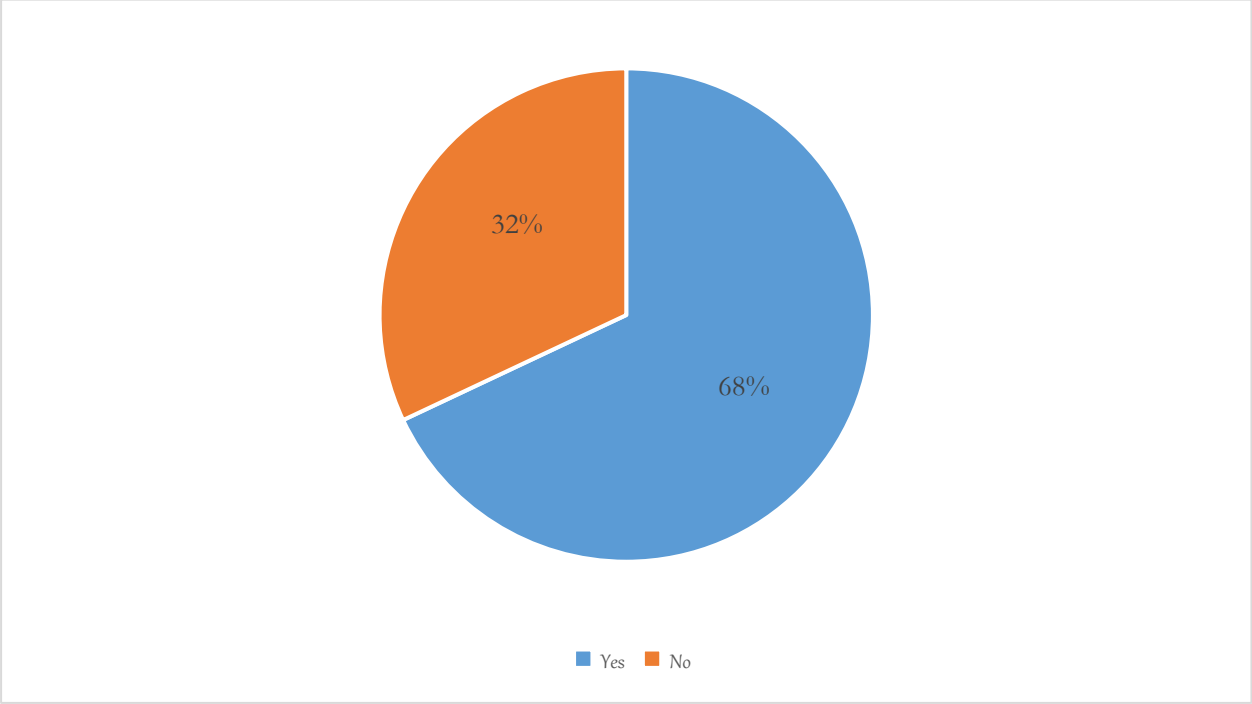
Approximately 50 percent of the participants stated that they had partially role conflicts but were able to find a solution. Approximately 70 percent of the participants experiencing role conflict stated that they could not find a solution.

Can you find the opportunity to carry out your scientific studies at home outside of working hours?



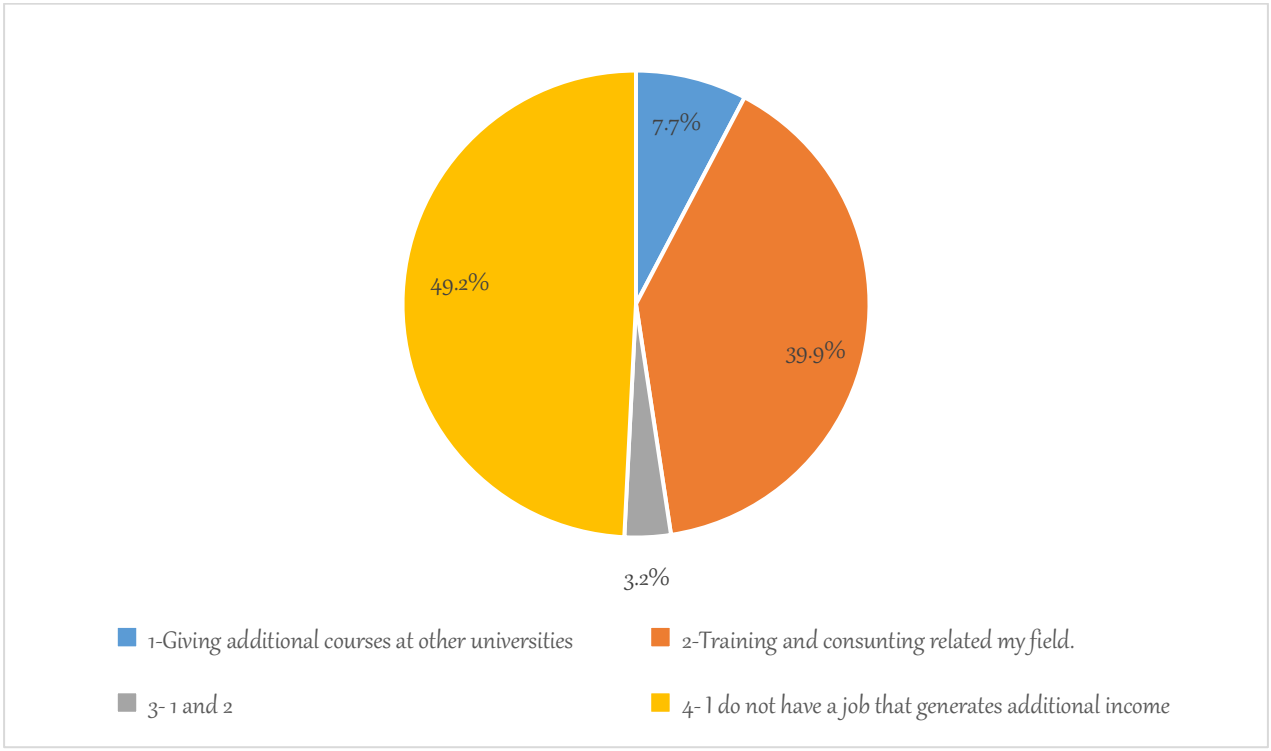
Almost 80 percent of the participants stated that they work at home outside of working hours.

Did you experience childcare or pregnancy during the writing of the thesis?



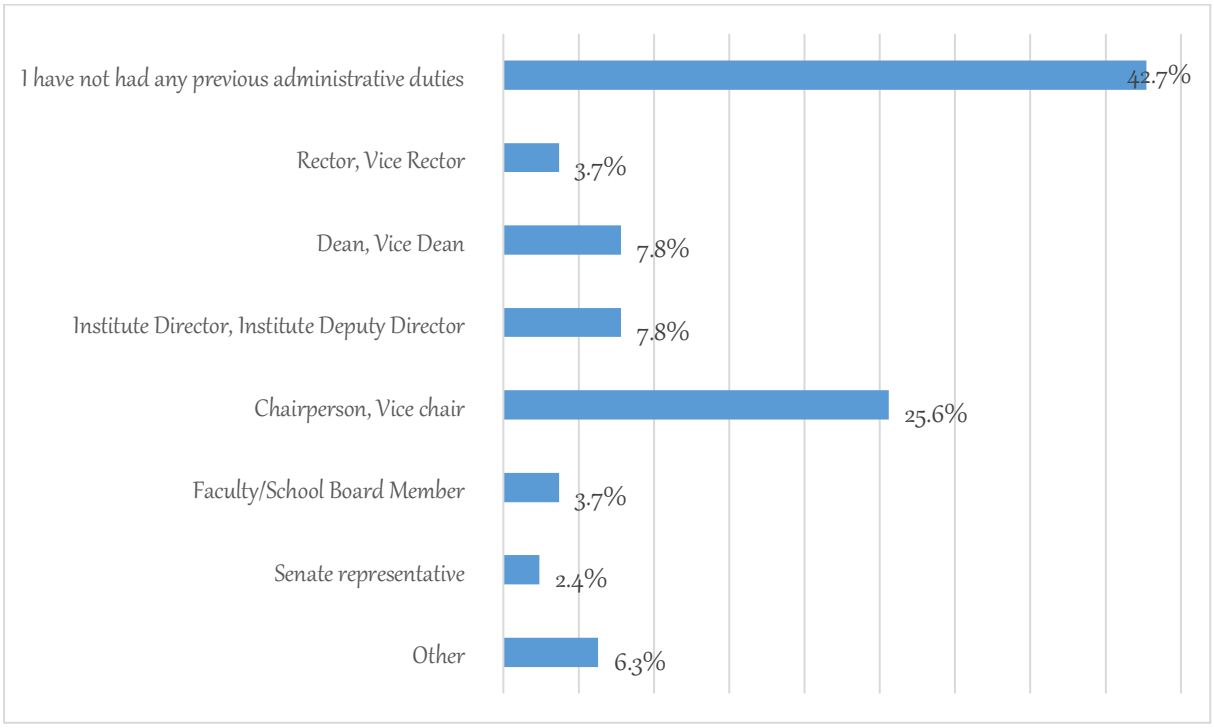
Almost 70 percent of the participants stated that they had childcare responsibilities or experienced pregnancy during their thesis writing process. These conditions increased their role conflict.

If yes, what is your occupation that you devote time to professionally other than your main job, using your professional expertise or other specialties?



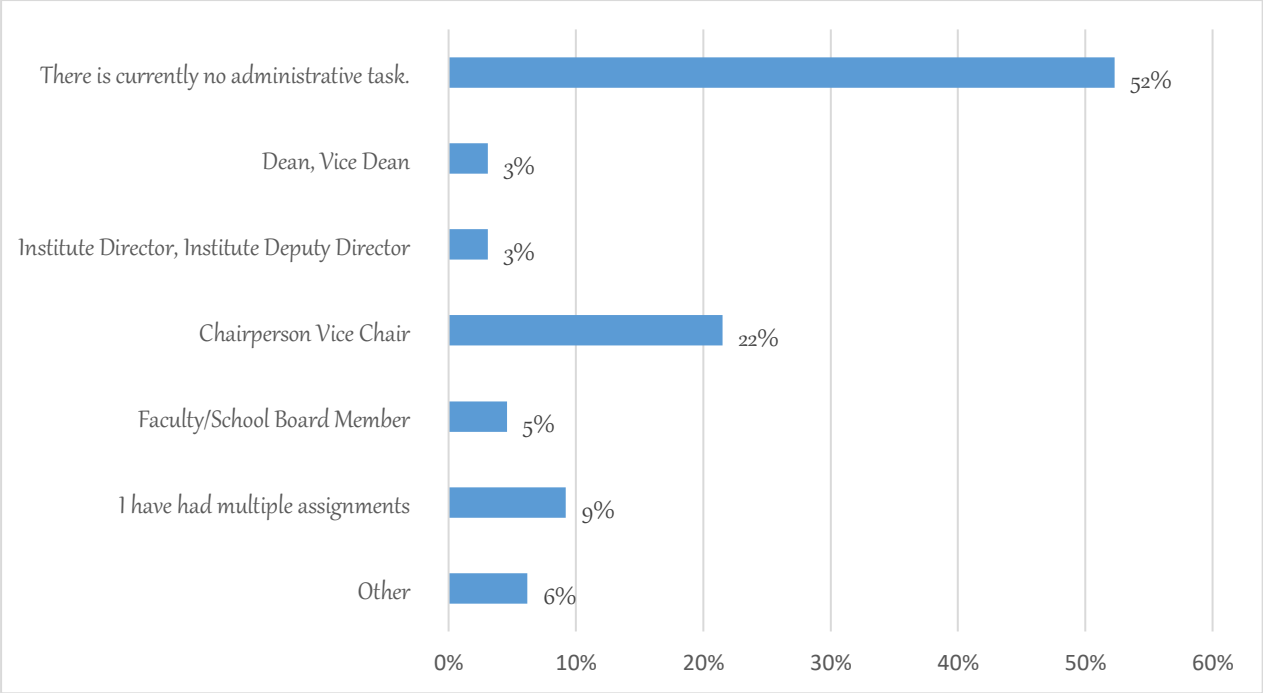
Almost 50 percent of the participants stated that they earn additional income by providing consultancy in their fields or giving lectures at other universities out of working hours.

If yes, what is your past administrative role?



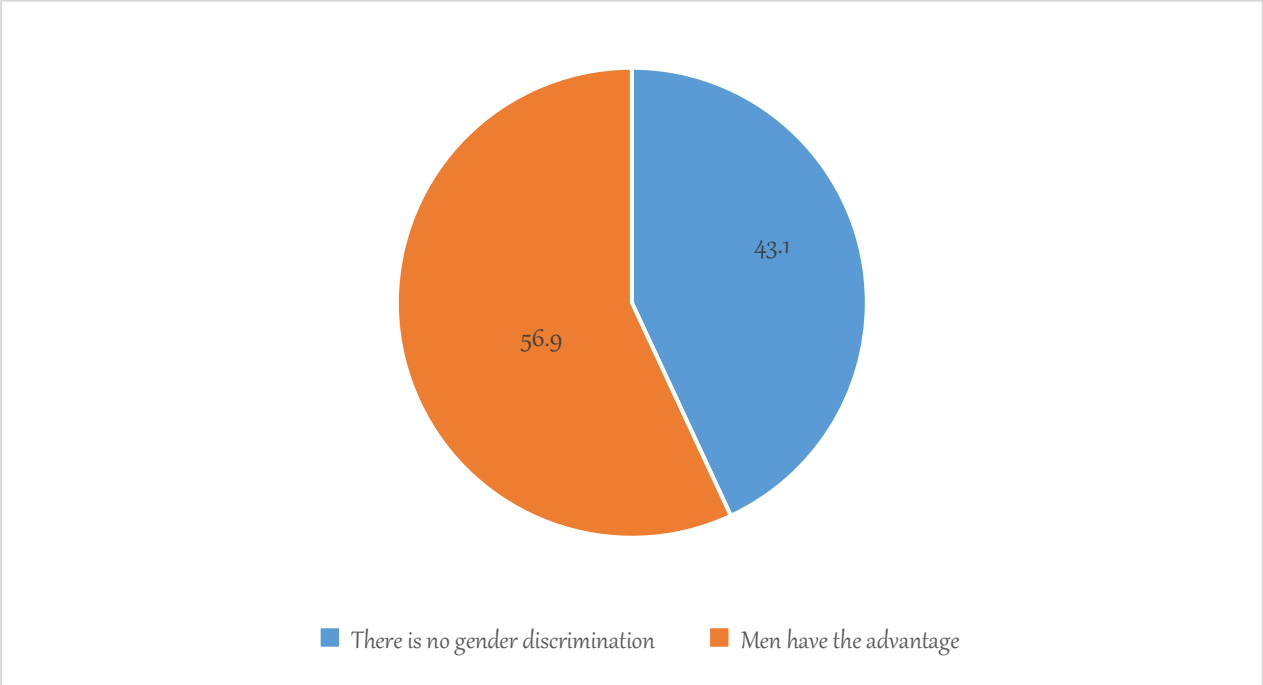
Almost 50 percent of the respondents have never had an administrative role in the past. About 26 percent of the respondents stated that they were Department Chairs in the past.

Do you currently have an administrative task?



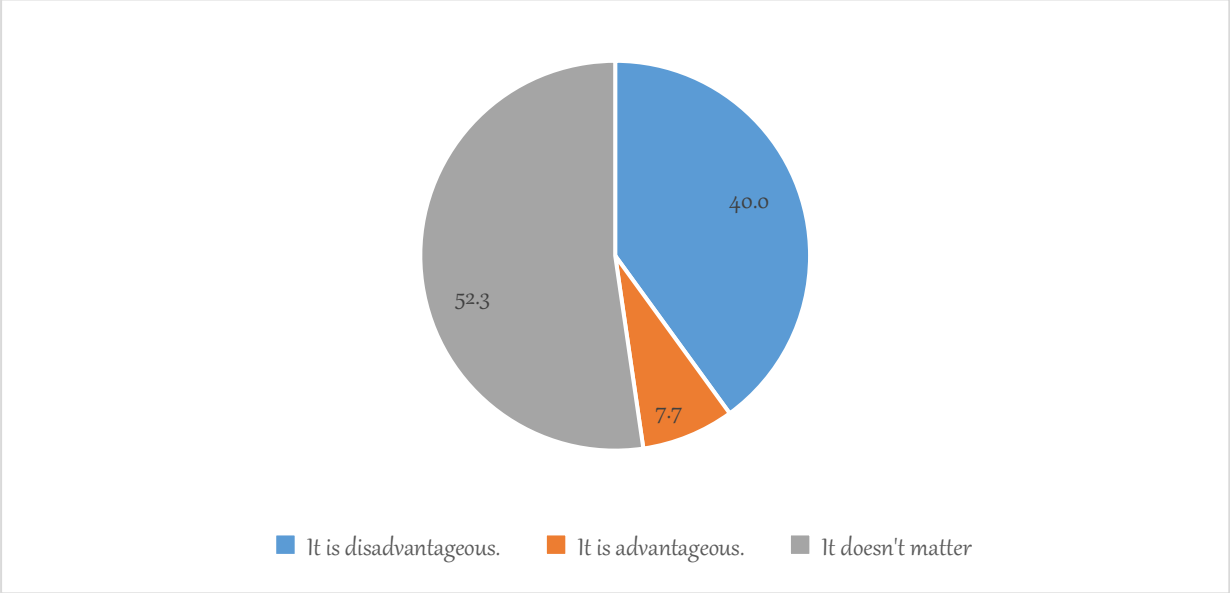
Similar to the previous question, 52 percent of the respondents currently do not have an administrative role. About 22 percent of the respondents stated that they are currently Department Chairs.

Which of the following is closest to your view of academic life?



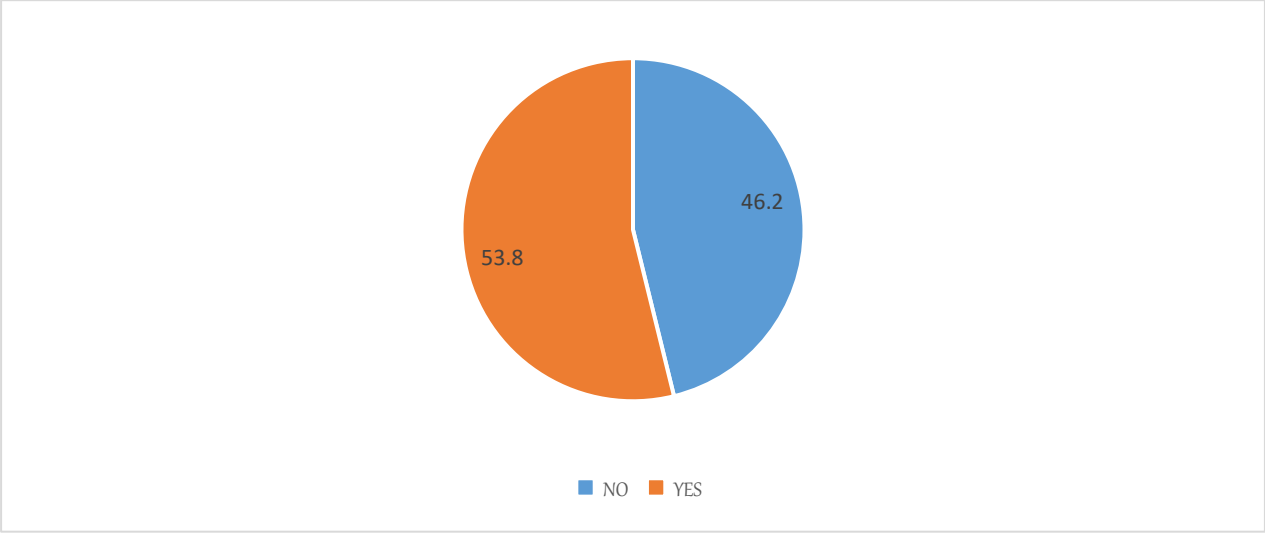
We asked to the participants whether they experienced gender discrimination in academic life. About 57 percent of the participants stated that they experienced sexist attitudes or practices, and they think that this is the case at the academic life.

Being a woman, in academic management;



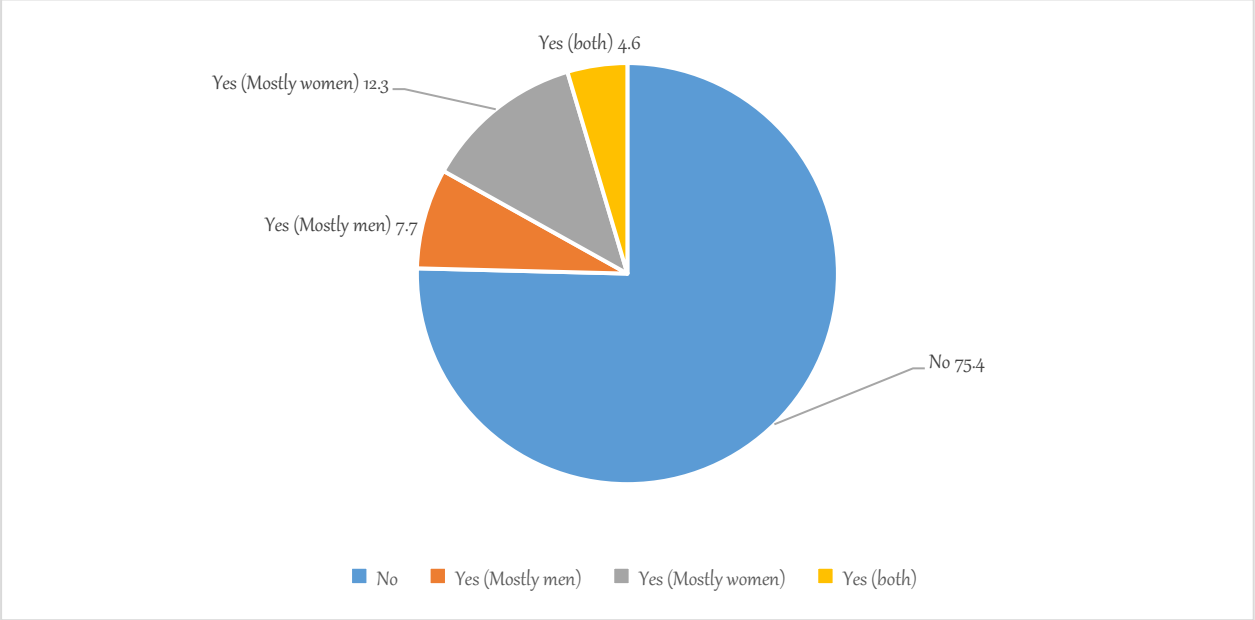
The 7,7 percent of the participants felt that women had an advantage in academic management, while 40% of participants said that women were disadvantaged. The 52,3 percent of the participants stated that management might be advantageous or disadvantaged depending on gender-neutral qualifications.

Do you think that female administrators have to work harder than male administrators do in order to be accepted in the academy?



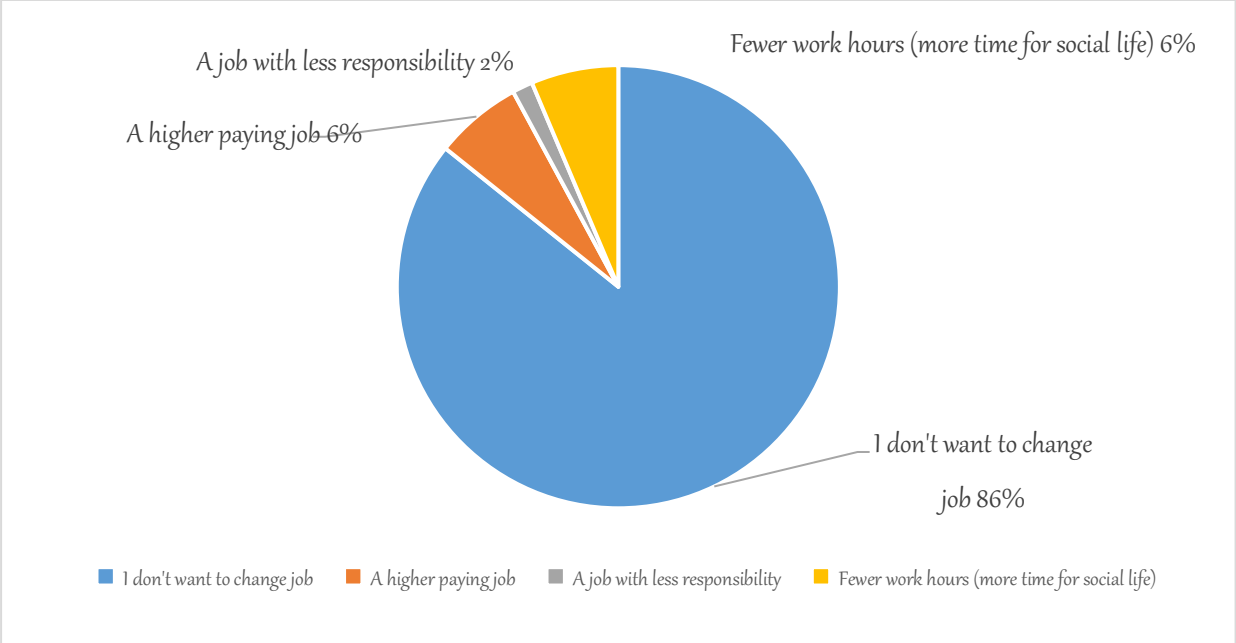
54 percent of the respondents believe that female managers at the universities have to work harder than male managers to prove themselves.

Does being a female manager create problems in your relations with your subordinates?



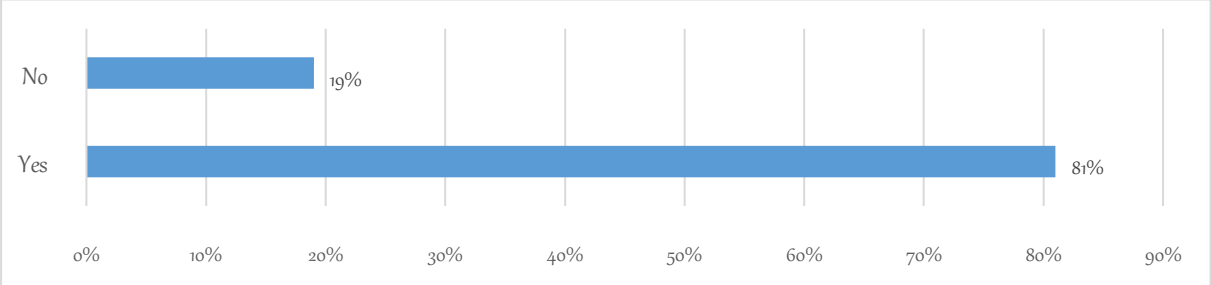
72 percent of the respondents do not think that being a female manager creates problems in their relationships with their subordinates. Five of those respondents thought that being a female manager caused problems with their subordinates and eight of them had problems especially with female subordinates.

If you were thinking of changing your job, what kind of job would you prefer?



86 percent of the participants do not want to change their job.

If you had the opportunity to start over, would you choose to become an academic?



The majority of the participants stated that they are not looking for a new job and would choose to become an academic again if they had the opportunity to go back.

In this section, we discussed the results on numerical expressions. We used a 5-point Likert scale at the last 16 questions of the questionnaire. We summarized the answers in Table 7. Table 7 shows the situation of the glass-ceiling syndrome before and after the pandemic, job peace, work satisfaction, technological fit, perceived gender discrimination, and the role conflict/ business efficiency issues.

Table 7: Distributions of responses from contributions

During the pandemic;	Totally disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	I don't know (%)	Agree (%)	Totally agree (%)
During the pandemic, my stress level has made it difficult for me to conduct my usual professional activities.	10,8	29,2	12,3	32,3	15,4
During the pandemic, the stress level of my executives made it difficult for me to conduct my usual professional activities.	18,5	40	10,8	24,6	6,2
Compared to before and after the pandemic, there was a decline in the peace of business in terms of gender at my work place.	29,2	35,4	21,5	9,2	4,6
The pandemic has caused me to question my professional priorities.	21,5	23,1	13,8	33,8	7,7
Working from home has corrupted my work and family life balance in favour of the job. I had to spend more time on professional obligations than before.	9,2	32,3	9,2	36,9	12,3
I think that spending more time on vocational obligations than before the pandemic is associated with managing savings. It involves all the decisions between men and women managers.	4,6	24,6	26,2	32,3	12,3
I think that it is related to gender-based discrimination that I spend more time on vocational obligations than before the pandemic.	27,7	46,2	13,8	6,2	6,2
In terms of job efficiency, it has been challenging to be at home all the time during quarantine days.	7,7	29,2	9,2	38,5	15,4

During the pandemic, being at home all the time during the quarantine days caused role conflict.	9,2	38,5	15,4	21,5	15,4
Considering the pre-pandemic: I think that there is gender-based discrimination against academic woman.	15,4	33,8	21,5	23,1	6,2
I think glass ceiling is a fact for academic woman.	7,7	32,3	24,6	24,6	10,8
I think the peace of business between academics is low.	4,6	12,3	21,5	46,2	15,4
I think the peace of business between a female manager and a female academic is very high.	3,1	32,3	30,8	27,7	6,2
I think authoritarian management style of female managers increased during the pandemic.	9,2	38,5	35,4	12,3	4,6
I think the authoritarian management style of male managers increased during the pandemic.	9,2	35,4	33,8	13,8	7,7
During the pandemic, I had no problem to adapt to technological solutions.	6,2	15,4	7,7	44,6	26,2

We used SPSS program in order to determine the appropriateness of the expressions in this section for parametric tests, the skewness and kurtosis values of each expression. Since the skewness and kurtosis values were between ±2.0, we applied parametric tests.

> *"A kurtosis value between ±1.0 is considered excellent for most psychometric purposes, but a value between ±2.0 is in many cases also acceptable, depending on the particular application (George & Mallery)".*

Q1) Do the answers to the statement "I think glass ceiling is a fact for academic women" differ according to titles, education level of the parents and marital status?

We performed a homogeneity test on the distribution of the participants according to their titles. Since Sig>0.05, it was seen that the homogeneous distribution condition was met. Then, ANOVA test was performed and it was found as Sig=0.908. Since Sig>0.05, it is seen that the answers given to the statement "I think glass ceiling is a fact for academic women" do not differ according to the title. When looking at the other subgroups, the answers given according to the education level of the parents and marital status do not differ.

Q2) Do the answers to the statement "My roles (wife, mother, housewife, child…etc.) in my private life and at home in business life conflict with each other." differ according to titles, education level of the parents and marital status?

We performed a homogeneity test on the distribution of the participants according to their titles. Since Sig>0.05, it was seen that the homogeneous distribution condition was met. Then, ANOVA test was performed and it was found as Sig=0.127. Since Sig>0.05, it is seen that the answers given to the statement " My roles (wife, mother, housewife, child…etc.) in my private life and at home in business life conflict with each other." do not differ according to the title. When looking at the other subgroups, the answers given according to the education level of the parents and marital status do not differ.

Q3) Do the answers to the statement " When we compare the workplace peace before and after the pandemic, the workplace peace has decreased in terms of gender in the place where I work." differ according to titles, education level of the parents and marital status?

We performed a homogeneity test on the distribution of the participants according to their titles. Since Sig>0.05, it was seen that the homogeneous distribution condition was met. Then, ANOVA test was performed and it was found as Sig=0.247. Since Sig>0.05, it is seen that the answers given to the statement " When we compare the workplace peace before and after the pandemic, the workplace peace has decreased in terms of gender in the place where I work." do not differ according to the title. When looking at the other subgroups, the answers given according to the education level of the parents and marital status do not differ.

Q4) Do the answers to the statement "With the pandemic, the perception of gender-based negative discrimination towards academic women has increased." differ according to titles, education level of the parents and marital status?

We performed a homogeneity test on the distribution of the participants according to their titles. Since Sig>0.05, it was seen that the homogeneous distribution condition was met. Then, ANOVA test was performed and it was found as Sig=0.757. Since Sig>0.05, it is seen that the answers given to the statement "With the pandemic, the perception of gender-based negative discrimination towards academic women has increased." do not differ according to the title. When looking at the other subgroups, the answers given according to the education level of the parents and marital status do not differ.

We shared frequency information regarding the perception of the glass ceiling syndrome, the perception of role conflict, the perception of work peace, and the perception of the change during the pandemic on gender inequality in the categorical results section. In this part, we examined whether these four titles differed according to the title, education level of the participant's family or marital status.

We observed that the results regarding the perception of the glass ceiling syndrome, the perception of role conflict, the perception of the work peace and the perceptions of the pandemic on the gender inequality did not differ according to the title, educational status of the participant's family or marital status.

Table 8: Effect of pandemic- Compared to pre-pandemic and now

Compared to pre-pandemic and now;	Not changed.	Decreased.	Increased.
Glass ceiling perception for academic woman	89,2%	4,6%	6,2%
Perceived gender-neutral discrimination against academic woman	86,2%	6,2%	7,7%
Peace of business among academics	84,6%	13,8%	1,5%

We asked about the effect of the pandemic at Table 8. The vast majority of the participants stated that they did not perceive a significant effect. We examined "Glass ceiling perception for academic woman", "Perceived gender-neutral discrimination against academic woman" and "Peace of business among academics" in this study. We summarised the results on perceived glass ceiling, role conflict and job satisfaction below.

During the pandemic and compared before and after the pandemic;

I. When the ratio of the perceived glass ceiling detected in the participants, we observed interesting results. The difference between those expressing the presence of this problem (37.4%) and those who reject it (40%) is 2.6% in favour of those who reject it.
II. For participants, the authoritarian tendency of women and male managers during the pandemic did not differ significantly. More than 45% do not feel the presence of such a problem.
III. The proportion of those who think that business peace between women is low is 35.4%, while the proportion of those who think that job peace between academics is low is 61.6%.This result may show that the lack of business peace may depend on gender.

We summarised the findings briefly as follows:

- The majority of the participants grew up in big cities.
- The sample mainly consists of participants who have two or three siblings.
- Considering the education level of the mothers of the participants, they are primary school graduates. We found that bachelor's graduates are in the second place.
- Considering the education level of the fathers of the participants, we found that the rate of undergraduate graduates is very high. This rate is much higher than the country average (21.9%).
- The majority of the participants are married.
- The education level of the participant spouses is high. According to TUIK 2022 data, the ratio of male undergraduate graduates to the general population is 21.9%, while the rate of doctoral graduates is 0.5%. In the sample, the proportion of spouses with a doctorate degree is 14%; the proportion of those with a bachelor's degree is 31%. The participants used their marriage preferences in favour of individuals with similar levels of education.
- The majority of the participating spouses partially share responsibilities such as housework and childcare.
- The majority of the participant spouses add all or part of their earnings to the family budget.
- The majority of the participants have one child, and none of the participants has more than two children.
- Approximately 40 percent of the participants provide training and consultancy services related to their field.
- The participants generally employ professional support at home.
- The participants think that male academics are more advantageous and academic women have to work harder than men to promote.
- The rate of the participants who think that being a female manager is disadvantageous is about 40 percent
- Most of the participants think that working at home during pandemic increased the role conflict between work and social life. The leadership style regardless of gender is very important on this situation.
- Nearly 80 percent of the participants stated that being a female manager does not pose a problem with their subordinates.
- Nearly 70 percent of the participants experience role conflict at different levels. 75 percent of them stated that they spend time at home for scientific studies. 30 percent of the participants stated that they experienced role conflict at their childcare responsibilities or pregnancy problems while they were writing their thesis.

- In terms of work efficiency, the majority of the participants think that working at home is disadvantageous. 40 percent of the participants think that academic women experience glass ceiling syndrome.
- The rate of the participants who think that the peace of mind is low in the academy especially during pandemic is around 60%.
- 48 percent of the participants had various administrative duties in the past.
- 65 percent of the participants currently have administrative duties.
- The rate of the participants who do not consider changing their jobs is 81 percent. This result shows that the participants in the sample are satisfied with their jobs despite the problems.

4. Conclusion

In the first part of the study, the situation of academic women in Türkiye is examined. Accordingly, the overall rate of academic woman is 46%. Although this rate is acceptable, it is observed that the rate of academic women decreases as the authority and responsibility increase, especially in administrative duties. For example, only five academic women work as rectors in 129 state universities (www.yok.gov.tr Access Date: 07.03.2023). In the second part of the study, interviews were conducted with academic women working at various universities before and after pandemic. Findings were obtained under four main headings: role conflict, glass ceiling syndrome, general job satisfaction and effect of pandemic.

As a conclusion the perceptions of academic woman on these four topics are as follows:

Role conflict: Academic women think that they have to work harder than their male colleagues in order to establish a family and work balance. The vast majority of the participants (72%) who are spouses, mothers, housewives, children... etc. stated that they experience role conflict especially during pandemic.

Glass Ceiling Syndrome: More than half of the participants thought that men are more advantageous than women are. Considering the perception of gender-related disadvantage in management, approximately 60 percent of the participants stated that they faced disadvantaged situations based on gender. Considering the perception of gender-related disadvantage in subordinate communication, we found that the participants perceived the problems they face independent from gender.

Job satisfaction: In general, we found that academic women are satisfied with their jobs and do not think to change their jobs. For the participants, the most determining reason for job satisfaction was “It is a job that gives an opportunity to develop creativity”. According to the qualitative analysis, the participants experienced discrimination based on gender for two different situations, "in general" and "during managerial duties". The participants stated that women are disadvantaged in academic life. In relations with subordinates, the participants thought that the problems experienced were independent of gender.

Effect of pandemic: About 90 percent of respondents do not think that the pandemic has changed their perceptions on glass ceiling syndrome. Similarly, around 86 percent of respondents think that perceived sexist attitudes are independent from pandemic and about 85 percent of the participants said that pandemic has not affected their work peace.

In future studies, we plan a comparative study with other countries investigating different dimensions of the subject on different sample groups.

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Adapting to the New Normal: How COVID-19 Has Shifted Consumer Behavior

Samrita BHATTA[1]

Introduction

The coronavirus, which started from a Chinese seafood and poultry market has spread to nearly all countries of the world. This all started in December 2019 in Wuhan, a city in China. According to World Health Organization (WHO), the global pandemic has killed about 1.6 million people across the globe and counting. Despite taking extreme precautions, world leaders also contracted the virus. Since World War II, humanity has not seen such severe restrictions. The government of several countries has imposed uncountable restrictions to overcome the effects of this emergency. The lockdown and other imposed restrictions have severely affected the daily activities of people, businesses, communities, and countries in general.

Looking back at the history of human civilization, pandemics have formed immense social, political, and behavioral changes (Black Plague to Spanish Flu) (Martin Reeves, 2020). The 2019 pandemic also has brought about the same transformations which have directly or indirectly affected the way human beings react to these circumstances. COVID-19 is having a long-term effect on customer desires, tastes, and behaviors all over the world (Stancu, 2020). The purpose of this paper is to understand the immediate impacts of Covid-19 on the behavioral aspect of consumers. This paper also aims to understand if the old habits of consumers will return to normal or if consumers will adapt to the changes that have occurred as an effect of this pandemic.

When it all started in China, and then later during early 2020 it set foot on to other countries around the globe, it was seen that the spread of the virus was enormous. This had affected the world economy. Concerning the marketing aspects, this paper tried to understand the consumer's journey during the pandemic period. In the beginning, the consumers felt in shock as this type of hit was not experienced in the past 100 years. The reaction to the threats caused by the pandemic period was difficult to cope with. But then with time, consumers started coping with the situation, and then at a later stage, they started to adapt to the changes that occurred by the restrictions brought in by the virus.

Immediate impacts (changes in behavior) on consumer behavior: A result of Covid 19

Panic buying

At the beginning of the pandemic, due to the rising number of Covid-19 cases and the restrictions made by the government, consumers were coerced to stack up all the necessities and the daily required commodities. The anxiety level of consumers was shot up which led to panic buying. Many countries like Australia, America, Canada, etc., showed cases where consumers appeared to be fighting over toilet paper. In Sydney, Australia's largest city, supermarket shelves have been cleared in minutes, forcing one chain to enforce a four-pack buying limit (Mao, 2020). Hashtags relating to toilet paper were trending on social media sites

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like Twitter and Facebook. It might seem funny but the situation was quite chaotic. Many reporters during that time claimed it to be the dumbest crisis of all time. The behavior is "obviously irrational," according to consumer science experts, and is a direct example of herd thinking stirred up by social media and news coverage (Mao, 2020).

Panic buying is the practice of purchasing huge quantities of goods and commodities in preparation for an impending or perceived disaster. Panic purchasing happened across the world during the Covid-19 outbreak as individuals stockpiled up on necessities like as food, toilet paper, cleaning supplies, and hand sanitizer.

Fear of shortages caused by interrupted supply networks and stockpiling by others was one reason for the panic purchasing. As word of the pandemic spread, individuals began to worry about the future supply of products and began purchasing in quantity, even if they did not need them right then. The uncertainty surrounding the pandemic was another element that contributed to panic purchasing. People were uncertain about how long the epidemic would endure, how serious it would be, and how it would impact their daily life. This uncertainty caused worry, and individuals responded by purchasing more than they needed to feel secure.

Panic purchasing had both beneficial and bad outcomes. On the one hand, it made people feel more prepared for the epidemic and assured that they had enough supplies to last a long time. On the other side, it resulted in shortages, hoarding, and raised pricing, making it difficult for others to obtain the necessities they required.

Hoarding

Hoarding is the purchase of large quantities of a commodity by a speculator with the intent of benefiting from future price increases. The term hoarding is most frequently applied to buying commodities, especially gold (Hayes, 2021). During the pandemic period, hoarding for perishable foods like vegetables and fruits was found to be more sensitive than non-perishable foods like instant noodles (Wang & Na, 2020). The spending habits of the consumer have risen more than eight hundred times than normal spending. The stacking up of food items to health care products like masks, and sanitizers had spiked up to a different level.

Several harmful outcomes have resulted from hoarding during COVID-19. It has caused shortages of vital supplies in some locations, making access to these items difficult for others. Price gouging has also occurred as a result of certain vendors taking advantage of high demand and limited supply to charge outrageous rates. Furthermore, hoarding may cause fear and anxiety in society because others may be concerned that they will not be able to get the required products to satisfy their requirements.

Ordering online

In response to the coronavirus crisis, it was announced that retail outlets except for those considered to provide essential goods and services were to close with immediate effect. This created space for online orders to touch the sky. Surprisingly, the sky was not the limit. According to Nielsen, these behaviors make it possible to understand early indicators of consumer actions, which can help companies manage their supply chain in response to news cycles. In the case below, we see a “breathing room” period of about two weeks after major news events tied to COVID-19 (NielsenIQ, 2020). The shift to online purchasing of food will likely remain at a higher percentage of the population than before the pandemic. Besides food, casual engagement in online buying had also risen. The online clothing business had seen almost close to all-time high purchases.

One of the primary advantages of purchasing online during COVID-19 was that it lowered the need for in-person shopping, which helped restrict the virus's transmission. Online shopping

was also a simple and effective way to purchase necessary things without having to leave the house or worry about running out of items in stores.

However, there were certain difficulties with buying online during COVID-19. Due to increased demand for online shopping, shipment, and delivery dates were delayed, and some goods were out of stock or had limited availability. Furthermore, there was a risk of virus exposure when shipments were delivered, although this risk was considered to be rather low.

Adaptation of digital technology

After the enforcement of strict rules for minimizing the spread of the virus, people were compelled to stay at home, be homeschooled and work from home. These instant changes had their negative as well as positive share of influences. Consumers adopted several new technologies for the consumption of daily necessities. Besides this, the use of social networking sites like Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, WhatsApp, etc., was one of the top-used applications. Consumers no longer must sit and wait in front of the Idiot Box, just to know what new products have come in. The use of word-to-word marketing has seen major changes since the introduction of these social media networks. Moreover, during the lockdown period, the tool of communication between consumers was these social media sites. Another topic of discussion that has made a huge impact on consumer buying patterns is influencer marketing. Instagram is also a social media app that allows users to gather followers, connect with different brands and entities, and facilitate social interactions among consumers (Blight, Ruppel, & Schoenbauer, 2017). The topic of interest here is if consumers will continue to do so at the same pace in the future days to come.

People and companies all across the world were compelled to adjust to new ways of living and working as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, and technology played a critical part in this adaptation. Many businesses and organizations embraced new technology swiftly to keep operations running and people connected, even when in-person connections were restricted or impossible. Remote work and virtual meetings have become the standard for many firms, with video conferencing and collaboration applications like Zoom, Microsoft Teams, and Slack experiencing increased adoption. Employees were able to work from home and collaborate with coworkers virtually, reducing the danger of viral transmission. E-commerce and online shopping also saw considerable growth as people shunned physical businesses and resorted to Internet platforms to buy products and services. Aside from these technical developments, data analytics and artificial intelligence (AI) were critical in monitoring and managing the epidemic. To track viral propagation, predict outbreaks, and guide public health choices, data-driven models and AI algorithms were deployed.

Overall, the COVID-19 pandemic has hastened the adoption of new technology in a variety of businesses, allowing individuals to work, study, and get treatment remotely. As the epidemic progresses, these technological modifications will almost certainly continue to play an important part in how we live and work.

Data privacy and convenience

The Internet has played a very crucial role during the COVID period when the Government announced different phases of lockdown and people had to stay at home to maintain social isolation. The Internet has moved forward the day-to-day lives of people in the sphere of IT, education and research, health, banking transactions, insurance, entertainment, shopping, and other activities (Srivastava, 2020). The use of the internet is growing at the speed of light. As of result of the lockdown, with online classes, work from home, and 62 restrictions, the usage of the internet has gone uphill. From online grocery shopping to online clothing, the privacy of consumers is at stake. Companies are known to be collecting data on consumers. The dependency on digital media has led consumers to give up their data more often than before.

Will this foster a long-lasting mindset change or not? This will be seen after the Covid situation gets normalized.

Significant data privacy issues surfaced throughout the world during the COVID-19 epidemic. As governments and health groups rushed to track the virus's spread and devise efficient public health interventions, unprecedented amounts of personal data were collected.

The usage of contact tracking applications was one of the most noteworthy examples of this. Many nations employed these applications to track possible COVID-19 exposure, which generated concerns about the collecting and storage of personal data. Some people were concerned that the data acquired by these applications may be misused or accessed by unauthorized parties.

In addition, to contact tracing applications, there were worries about the use of face recognition technology and other types of artificial intelligence. Simultaneously, there were worries about the acquisition and use of personal health data. Personal health information was gathered and shared with health institutions and other entities while people sought medical treatment for COVID-19. Concerns were raised that this information may be utilized for commercial reasons or accessed by unauthorized people.

Overall, the COVID-19 epidemic underscored the significance of data privacy and the necessity for effective protections to secure individuals' personal information. While there were genuine public health reasons for gathering data during the epidemic, these efforts must be balanced with adequate safeguards for people's rights.

Switching brands

Brand loyalty is associated with customer relationship management. Many high-end brands have been able to stick to what the customer wants and fulfill their needs accordingly. Yet due to the changing environment during Covid-19, it was seen that consumers had shifted their loyalty from one brand to the other. This general change in behavior has also been reflected in a shattering of brand loyalties, with 36 percent of consumers trying a new product brand and 25 percent incorporating a new private-label brand (Tamara Charm, 2020).

With lockdowns, quarantines, and economic uncertainty, people were more careful about their purchases and looked for the best bargain. Here are some of the reasons why people switched brands during the epidemic.

- Availability: Due to supply chain interruptions and panic purchasing, numerous companies were unable to meet demand for their products. This prompted customers to turn to competing brands that offered comparable items.
- Price: The epidemic had a financial impact on many consumers, forcing them to reconsider their buying patterns. They were seeking less expensive alternatives to their favorite brands, or they were prepared to move to private-label goods to save money. Quality: During the epidemic, several consumers reported problems with the quality of their favorite brands. This might be due to supply chain interruptions or changes in manufacturing procedures. As a result, people shifted to brands they regarded to be of higher quality.
- Social responsibility: The epidemic pushed to the forefront of consumers' attention problems like sustainability, ethical sourcing, and fair work standards. Some customers moved to brands that were viewed as socially responsible and connected with their ideals.
- Convenience: Due to mobility constraints and social isolation, many customers switched to internet purchasing. Brands that provided simple and convenient

online purchasing experiences, such as speedy shipping and simple returns, were successful in attracting new customers.

The store comes to home

When the world was in complete lockdown, consumers couldn't shop in stores or go to retail shops. This brought about changes in the online grocery shopping culture. In Turkey, the famous online shopping site *Trendyol* used the time of crisis to make grocery shopping available to various regions in the country. This availed consumers of convenience during times of crisis. Not just online shopping sites, but general retail stores also used the social media sites like WhatsApp for the convenience of customers to shop for daily food items.

Many companies had to adjust to the new reality of social separation and lockdowns during the COVID-19 epidemic. One method retailer responded to this difficulty was to deliver things straight to consumers' homes.

This tendency began with grocery businesses, which rapidly noticed that many customers were hesitant to visit crowded supermarkets. Instead, they started providing home delivery or curbside pickup. Customers may place their orders online or by phone, and their groceries would be delivered straight to their door.

But it wasn't just supermarkets that were getting in on the act. Many merchants have also begun to provide home delivery or pick-up services for their items. Everything from clothes stores to electronics stores was featured. Some establishments even went so far as to provide virtual shopping experiences. Customers could use video chat to interact with a store associate, who would walk them through the store's merchandise as if they were there in person.

During the epidemic, this notion of merchants coming to your house became popular. Many individuals valued the ease and security of buying from home, and some even preferred it to the conventional in-store experience. As a result, even as the epidemic has subsided, many retailers have continued to provide home delivery and pickup alternatives.

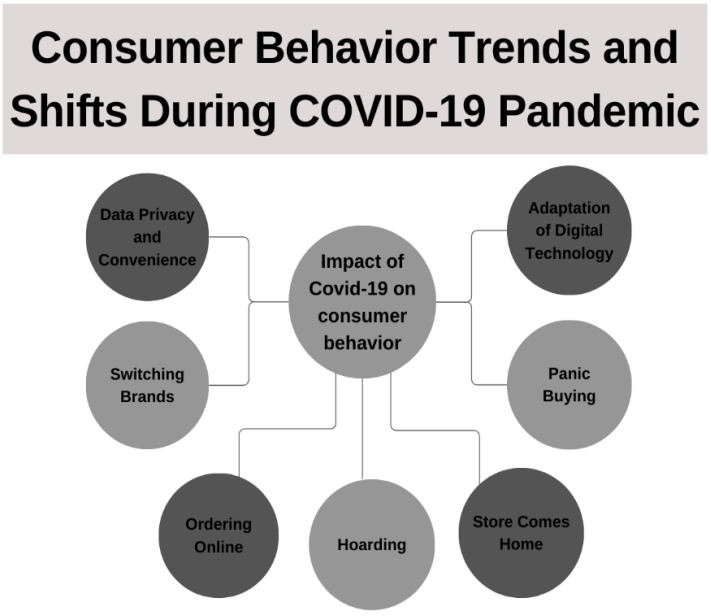


Fig: Impact of Covid-19 on consumer behavior

Temporary or permanent?

One of the major reasons for behavioral changes is the external environment. Depending on cultures, geographies, and other factors, behavior may vary dramatically from

one place to the next. This aspect of consumer behavior is becoming more complicated as a result of the pandemic; for example, since physical travel is limited, consumers are transitioning into virtual worlds at an alarming pace and are exposed to newer influences. Most behaviors are supposed to return to normal. However, certain behaviors will inevitably die as a result of the user discovering a more convenient, affordable, and available alternative while under lockdown. Netflix and Disney are two examples of streaming services. They are more than likely to move customers from going to the movies. Technology is a second major driver of consumer behavior. The advent of cars, appliances, and aircraft, has greatly altered consumer behavior since the Industrial Revolution. Mobile, television, the internet, and now social media and user-generated content have all followed suit. Wants are becoming needed as a result of emerging technologies. For example, we didn't miss our mobile phones when we first got them, but nowadays you can't live without them. The internet is now as critical as electricity, if not more so, than television. The way technology turns wants into needs has a big influence on the development of new habits like online shopping, online dating, and online everything (Sheth, 2020). Research shows that it can take between 18 and 254 days to form a new habit; on average it takes about 66 days. People more quickly adopt habits that do not significantly change existing routines (Lally, Van Jaarsveld, Potts, & Wardle, 2010). Since the initial lockdown period there was a high demand for telepaths but now has fallen to less than half what it was in the beginning(Fox & Sizemore, 2020). The real deal of whether the changes in consumer behavior will continue in this manner or not is yet to be determined.

The COVID-19 epidemic has caused several alterations in our way of life. As individuals acclimate to the "new normal," other pandemic repercussions have evolved, such as retailers coming to your house, brand switching, hoarding, and panic shopping. It's uncertain if these effects will be transitory or lasting, but there are several possibilities to consider.

The growth of home delivery and online shopping was one of the major changes brought about by the epidemic. Businesses had to devise ways to provide things to their clients without in-person contact as people became more hesitant to leave their homes. While some individuals will most certainly return to purchasing in stores once the epidemic has passed, home delivery and internet shopping may stay popular. Many firms have invested in the infrastructure required to provide home delivery, and some customers find it to be a convenient way to buy. However, other people may prefer the in-person shopping experience, particularly for things that they want to view or test before purchasing. The epidemic has disrupted supply chains and caused product shortages, prompting some firms to move suppliers or adjust their product offers. This has caused considerable consternation among consumers, who may find it difficult to locate their favorite items or detect changes in the products themselves. While some of these changes may be temporary, others may be permanent if businesses discover that they can create items more effectively or if they are unable to obtain their regular components or materials. Furthermore, the pandemic has increased consumer awareness of supply chain concerns, and some customers may be more likely to seek out items created locally or sustainably.

The epidemic also increased hoarding and panic purchasing as individuals hurried to stock up on essentials such as toilet paper, hand sanitizer, and disinfectant wipes. While part of this activity may have been motivated by fear and uncertainty, it's also likely that individuals may continue to hoard products long after the epidemic has passed. The pandemic may have acted as a wake-up call for those who were unprepared for a crisis, and they may wish to make sure they have a stockpile of vital things in case of future calamities. However, once the immediate threat has gone, it is feasible that individuals may resume their pre-pandemic buying patterns.

To summarize, it is impossible to determine if the pandemic's repercussions, such as stores closing, brand switching, stockpiling, and panic buying, would be transitory or lasting. Some changes are motivated by fear and uncertainty, whereas others are motivated by a desire

for ease, efficiency, or sustainability. Finally, how we adjust to the "new normal" and what lessons we learn from this experience will determine the influence of the pandemic on our buying patterns and behaviors.

Units adapting to the new normal

Change is the only constant thing in this entire world. It has been almost more than a year since Covid-19 happened to us. Looking at the world after a year, it has been seen that we have been forced to adapt to what is called the new normal. From home school, online classes, work from home, lockdown, quarantine, and wearing of gloves and face masks, we have adjusted to what is known as the new normal. Despite all the changes and impacts caused to the consumers, it is yet to see if these behavioral shifts will continue further in the future or not. The term "new normal" was first used to characterize the substantial changes that took place in the economy, society, and culture during the 2008 financial crisis, which resulted in instability and social unrest. People's way of life and how they viewed the world around them were impacted by these developments. The idea of the "new normal" expressed the notion that our reality had changed and that we needed to adjust (El-Erian, 2010). The phrase emphasized the concept that the changes brought about by the financial crisis were permanent, necessitating people and society to adjust to new conditions. Uncertainty, volatility, and unpredictability defined the new normal. As a result, individuals had to adapt their expectations and develop new tactics to deal with the new normal's obstacles.

People were found keeping themselves entertained even during this time of emergency. Consumers have been forced to develop new methods to be safe while remaining engaged, productive, and informed as a result of the COVID-19 crisis and its associated constraints. This circumstance has resulted in substantial alterations in their everyday lives, including changes in their routines, behaviors, and requirements. People have been forced to adjust to a new way of life that stresses safety, and their customary routines have been altered to meet the current conditions. This adaptability has had a tremendous influence on how people live, work, and connect as they try to navigate these difficult times. News websites are seeing jumps in traffic as people try to stay informed on updates related to COVID-19, leading to a 39% increase in people reading online news. Social networks are also seeing a major boost, as people turn to these platforms to connect with others, seek entertainment, and get real-time updates and news all in one place. This has led to a 29% increase in social media use (Faith Martin, 2020). There is also an increase in the trend of watching television. The use of digital platforms like Netflix, Disney Plus, Hotstar, etc., has gone upward in trend.

Since consumers have also changed and adapted to the new situation, it becomes necessary for brands to change and adapt to the current situation as well. Companies must rethink their marketing strategies and ensure content is not deemed insensitive to the current situation. But they need to strategize beyond messaging and act across their communications. To drive toward success and accelerate their sales, marketers need to understand what they are offering. Since most of the time consumers are at home, they try to find new ways of keeping themselves busy and entertained at home. Virtual learning and an engagement-based online shopping outlet can be created for consumers, as consumers are always eager to learn and experience new things. Using direct mail to spread deeper content and brand information could also be helpful for brands.

Conclusion

The changes brought about by the pandemic have brought about major consequences in almost all sectors all over the world. Changes in work, shopping and consumption, learning, life at home, communications and information, entertainment, health, travel, and mobility are some of the major changes that occurred. This study has documented some of the changes in

consumer behavior patterns during the beginning phase of the Covid-19 pandemic. Topics related to whether these changes will continue or die in the coming days are also discussed. Apart from this, marketers and companies associated with brands should also improvise on how they can improvise marketing strategies. Finally, considering the exploratory nature of this study, the choice of subjects has been affected by my own personal experiences, works of literature, individual prejudices, and the media we consume. Other researchers would, understandably, focus on a variety of other issues that may be significant influencers and measures of consumer behavior during the COVID-19 pandemic. The first managerial implication that can be drawn from this study is that marketers should also learn to adapt to the new situation. Improvisation on their part should be initiated. But since companies and brands also follow certain protocols and policies. it may not be convenient for brands to change immediately. But as it is said, better late than never, companies must put a step forward for transition. Examples of large retail stores can be quoted, where they transitioned from in-store shopping to online shopping. Additional delivery facilities were also accommodated for customers during the pandemic time.

The second implication is related to the demand and supply factors during the pandemic period. Hoarding and panic buying was common trait seen during the pandemic period. Taking orders from customers first and then adding to the inventory could be a good strategy for retailers to stop hoarding and panic buying. The start of the pandemic has brought about several research prospects. In the case of marketing as well, there are various topics that researchers can pick a topic and study about it. This can add up to contributions to the existing literature. Research opportunities relating to consumer behavior and the shifts in consumer behavior patterns due to the pandemic can be studied. Due to the prevailing lockdown, consumers are subjected to getting used to technology that facilitates academic work, study, work, and consumption in an easier and more efficient approach.

The use of word of mouth by consumers for getting information and review regarding products has increased a lot during this pandemic period. The use of social media sites like WhatsApp, Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and other social media sites has made it easier for consumers to get to know more about products. Consumers are getting more used to the virtual world and are adjusting to it. ParmyOlson outlines some anecdotes about how people communicate with chatbots in a recent Wall Street Journal post. The Microsoft XiaIce social chatbot, according to the author, has over 660 million users in China alone.

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History Of Sustainability – Development And Environment Reports

Armagan CANAN[1]

Introduction

This section examines the history of environmental and development reports and the history of sustainability regarding the irreversible destruction of nature by humans, which is one of the most important problems today. The terminology and formats used by the sustainability reports published in the twenty-first century are based on this history.

Although the aforementioned historical development encompasses many different approaches, it seems that internationally accepted studies that are closely associated with scientific knowledge have a certain tendency and the reports are increasingly similar. Although this situation increases the intelligibility of the content for those who read the reports over time, it causes a limited understanding of sustainability in the ever-changing world to go around the problems and not reach the root causes.

Therefore, the following review provides a chronology of key environmental and development reports and a framework for why and how significant changes have occurred. Thus, this text provides a good guide to evaluate the content of major conference conclusions and reports published today, to understand whether they show the true causes of the environmental & developmental problems and, if not, why they do not.

Fundamentals of Sustainability

Since environmental problems were first seen in countries where the world's resources are overused and consumed, suggestions for the solution of environmental problems and the first environmental policies emerged in these countries and spread to the world. Developed countries also guide the environmental policies of developing countries, as they still control most of the world's resources directly or indirectly. Because the perception of environmental problems is reflected the world through their glasses (Şengül, 2008).

The subject of environmental problems started to attract intense attention after Rachel Carson's work Silent Spring was published in 1962. One of Carson's main criticisms was the view that chemicals used against harmful organisms would eventually lead to more chemical use when the organisms became resistant to these chemicals. In Carson's approach, environmental problems are directly related to sustainability. In addition, only 10% to 20% of the over seventy thousand synthetic chemicals sold in the US market have been systematically tested (Foster, 2012).

The work The Population Bomb, written by biologist Paul Ehrlich, a professor at Stanford University in 1968, describes the rapidly increasing human population causing hunger and social turmoil. Claiming that this would cause environmental problems, the author of the book, in his statement in 2009, stated that it was understood that the book had made quite optimistic predictions. The approach in the book is to prevent population growth through the government's legal measures, such as levying additional taxes on families for each new child and taxing the luxury consumption of children's products. On the other hand, Ehrlich recommends policies

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such as providing reproductive education at an early age and enabling the sterilization of volunteers. Another suggestion is to make agreements for countries to have as much population as they can feed themselves, and to cut off food aid to countries that do not agree. He suggested all these and similar policies to prevent environmental problems because he calculated that the population problem would reach insoluble in a few decades (Wikipedia, 2023-a).

Again in 1968, the Paris Biosphere Conference, organized by UNESCO and with the participation of many states, was the first international meeting to establish a balance between the environment and development (Caldwell, 1973). As a result of the meeting, UNESCO launched the MAB [Man and Biosphere] program. The program mostly involves educating people and conducting research on the use of resources for development (Bissaanti, 2016).

In 1971, the independent International Institute for Environment and Development [IIED] was established in England (International Institute for Environment and Development, 2023). The Institute produces policies and prepares and implements projects for developing countries that suffer from environmental problems. Projects and policies prepared with a sustainable development approach recognize the importance of the local conditions of the country in which they will be implemented. However, it envisages that the sectors in which development will be targeted should be selected and that private sector organizations in these sectors, as well as the state, should be accepted as a shareholder in development policies. The World Resources Institute was born out of this organization and prepares various reports on the environment, and natural resources (World Resources Institute, 2023). IIED receives its funds from a wide range of supporters, from oil companies to various public institutions (Wikipedia, 2022-a).

UNESCO, the UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, opened the Ramsar Agreement on the Protection of Wetlands for signature in 1971, and the agreement entered into force in 1975. Wetlands protected by this agreement are called Ramsar Sites. For example, there are more than 10 Ramsar Sites in Türkiye (Ramsar, 2022). In 1972, the Paris Agreement on the Protection of Cultural and Natural Assets was accepted. The fact that these agreements have been made demonstrates that it is acknowledged that resources with certain qualities are a global concern and not the exclusive property of any one nation (Akipek, 2001).

The Human Environment Conference was held in Stockholm in 1972 by the UN with the participation of 113 countries. Although the main purpose of the conference was the regional pollution and acid rain seen in Northern Europe, the declaration announced at the end set out 26 comprehensive principles related to environment and development (Zafir, 2014). These principles should be listed here as they form the basis of all sustainability approaches used today (Wikipedia, 2022-b):

- *Human rights must be defended, and racism and colonialism must be condemned.*
- *Natural resources must be protected.*
- *The world's capacity to produce renewable resources must be preserved.*
- *Wildlife must be protected.*
- *Non-renewable resources should be shared and not exhausted.*
- *Contamination must not exceed the self-cleaning capacity of the environment.*
- *Harmful ocean pollution must be prevented.*
- *Development is needed to improve the environment.*
- *Developing countries need help.*
- *Developing countries need affordable prices for exports to maintain environmental management.*

- *Environmental policy should not hinder development.*
- *Developing countries need financial resources to improve environmental protection.*
- *A holistic development program is needed.*
- *Rational planning should be able to resolve conflicts between the environment and development.*
- *Human settlements should be planned in such a way as to eliminate environmental problems.*
- *Governments should establish their appropriate population policies.*
- *National institutions should plan for the development of the country's natural resources.*
- *Science and technology should be used to improve the environment.*
- *Environmental education is mandatory.*
- *Environmental research should be supported, especially in developing countries.*
- *States can overuse their resources if they wish, but should not endanger the resources of others.*
- *Those who endanger the resources of other countries should be subject to punishment.*
- *Each nation must create its standards.*
- *In international matters, joint work should be essential.*
- *International organizations should help improve the environment.*
- *Weapons of mass destruction must be destroyed.*

The global think tank Club of Rome, founded in Switzerland in 1968, was instrumental in the emergence of The Limits to Growth, prepared by Meadows & Randers & Meadows in 1972 with the support of the Volkswagen Foundation. This study focuses on solving the probable problems caused by the trends that took place between 1900 and 2100 by using the Dynamic Earth model of Jay Wright Forrester, a computer and systems engineer. As a result, the study concluded that as long as the economic trends of the 1970s continue, they will be dragged into irreversible chaos and disasters in the middle of the next century. This conclusion has been reached even though the danger of nuclear war, the turmoil that may arise due to income distribution differences, and the nationalist movements that may arise were not taken into account. The recommendations of the study are briefly as follows (Perelman, 1976):

- *The population must be controlled and stabilized.*
- *To avoid scarcity of non-renewable resources, resource use per unit of industry output should be reduced below its present value.*
- *To avoid depletion and pollution, economic choices must be shifted from the production of goods to the production of services.*
- *In industrial and agricultural unit production of goods, a pollution rate below the current levels should be reduced.*
- *Capital should be directed towards food production or inequalities in food distribution should be reduced.*
- *Agricultural capital and technology should be directed towards soil enrichment and conservation, as the capitalization of agriculture will lead to further erosion and loss of soil fertility.*

• *To avoid a total reduction in capital accumulation, the average life span of capital should be extended by means of production that are more durable, easily repaired and do not wear out quickly.*

Criticisms of Limits To Growth have generally been for resource scarcity detections (Ropke, 2005). Whereas, the book examines boundaries from various aspects, from population growth to scale growth to environmental problems (Meadows, Randers & Meadows, 2004).

In 1974, the UN held a meeting on international economic order and the development agenda in Mexico, and the Cocoyoc Declaration was eventually published. The declaration argued that the solution to the environmental, developmental and poverty problems should not be left to the market mechanisms. It stated that growth-oriented development policies do not make sense for poor countries because balanced sharing cannot be seen in the presence of market mechanisms (Zafir, 2014). An important feature of the declaration is that it suggests the taxation of international goods in favour of poor countries so that the international tax system can serve as a basis for international energy and resource management (Coyococ Declaration, 1974).

1980 and Change

As we approached 1980, the emphasis on the relationship between sustainability and energy began to increase. Therefore, before the concept of sustainability was used frequently all over the world, the emphasis on sustainability in energy and CO2 emissions concept gained an important place. The following paragraphs describe the studies that led to this change.

In 1979, the First World Climate Conference was convened under the leadership of the World Meteorological Organization [WMO]. At the conference, it was explained for the first time that carbon dioxide causes global climate change. For this reason, attention has been drawn to human-induced fossil fuel use and the effects of global climate change on humans (Koo, 2011). The World Climate Program and the World Climate Research Program were established under the influence of this conference, paving the way for the establishment of the IPCC (Wikipedia, 2022-c).

The concept of sustainable development was used for the first time by the International Union for Conservation of Nature [IUCN] in the report called World Conservation Strategy [WCS] in 1980. However, the priority is still environmental protection. While sustainable development is a sub-title, 'conservation' is the main topic of the report and environmental protection is explained in detail throughout the report. According to the Strategy for Conservation of World Living Natural Resources in this report, the evaluation is made in three main items: 1) The protection of biological diversity will be the guarantee of agriculture, forestry and fisheries in the long run. 2) Nature is the repository of raw materials for new scientific and technical developments. 3) Conservation of species in nature together with the natural areas they live in is important in terms of leaving a healthy world to future generations (Akın, 2009). In the recommendations section, the strategy has been analyzed by separating national and international action plans as well as priority needs. The report suggested the development of more technical protection methods than his previous studies. It emphasizes that environmental and resource protection policies have a very complex structure, regardless of the sector. The perspective in the report highlights the ecological compatibility of the economic transactions made at the project stage, at the very beginning of the investment, to achieve sustainable development policies. Despite all its detailed and coherent explanations and policy recommendations, the last section of the report, section 20 concludes that growth, trade liberalization, financial flow, improvement of the international financial system, and joint agreement for international companies must be realized for sustainable development (International Union for Conservation of Nature, 1980).

In 1983, the UN Secretariat General established an independent commission, the World Commission on Environment and Development. Since the name of the commission's chairman was Gro Harlem Brundtland during the report Our Common Future published in 1987, the commission is also called the Brundtland Commission (Çamur & Vaizoğlu, 2007). Although this report defines sustainable development as *"development that meets the needs of the present while not compromising the capacity of future generations to meet their own needs"*, the same report recommends green economic policies that are still advocated today, such as increasing efficiency and turning to non-polluting products and technologies (Akın, 2009). Poverty is cited as an important cause of environmental degradation (Bozlagan, 2004). According to the report, the goals of economic growth, environmental protection and social equality should be achieved together.

In 1984, UNEP listed the requirements for sustainable development (Zafir, 2014):

- *First of all, communities that have to destroy their environment at the expense of destroying the natural resources around them should be helped.*
- *Natural resource limitations need to be taken into account as the development process continues.*
- *A cost-first development approach based on economic criteria should be used.*
- *Appropriate technologies should be developed to meet basic needs.*
- *Community-centered initiatives are needed.*

Based on the UN Conference on the Human Environment, the Vienna Convention on the Protection of the Ozone Layer was signed in 1985. The Convention established an institutional structure for limiting the amount of anthropogenic, ozone-depleting substances (United Nations, 1985). Then, based on this convention, the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Destroy the Ozone Layer was signed in 1987 and entered into force in 1989.

The second World Climate Conference was held in Geneva in 1990, and a more political approach was taken instead of the technical approach in the first conference. The resulting declaration was criticized by many scholars for the weakness of its commitments. As a result of the conference, it was decided to establish GCOS (Global Climate Monitoring System) in 1992 (Wikipedia, 2023-b). Preparations for the signing of the UNFCCC (UN Framework Convention on Climate Change), which will begin to gather under the name COP in 1995 on the control of greenhouse gases, have begun in 1992 (Akın, 2009).

In 1991, a fund called the Global Environment Facility [GEF] was established by the World Bank, UNEP and UNDP to address urgent environmental problems such as climate change, ozone depletion, reduction of species diversity, water pollution, desertification and deforestation. The fund aimed to assist developing countries on a project basis. However, today, developed countries use the fund to reduce the damage caused by developed countries to the environment and to stop social movements against environmental pollution, instead of projects suitable for establishment. This attitude reflects the transformation of international institutions in line with neoliberal policies. In particular, the World Bank, after 1980, started to allocate resources to environmental projects that it had never been interested in before. The resources it allocates are at a low level of 1.02% of its total loans but are used to reduce the reactions to the losses of the supported projects. In addition, the funds provided cover only a certain part of the total amount within the scope of the project. Funds are made available through environmental non-governmental organizations and by emphasizing the concept of sustainable development. Projects prepared for funds that can be obtained from the GEF, as a rule, must be related to international environmental problems and not to local problems. The fact that the GEF is supported by the World Bank and UNDP causes UNEP to stay in the background of environmental issues (Duru, 2014). In its 25th annual report, the GEF states that conventional

ways of doing business are certain to lead to disasters, not only in terms of the environment but also in terms of economic growth, employment, abundance and security. However, the report considers this whole complex situation as an opportunity and even interprets that environmental problems, like *"many wars won in the past"*, are also a battle for development. GEF implements its applications mostly through projects involving universities, private sector companies and non-governmental organizations (Global Environment Facility, 2016).

In 1992, the UN Conference on Environment and Development was held in Rio. Two papers, two agreements and an action plan emerged as a result of this conference. The Biological Diversity Agreement emphasizes the necessity of national strategies, plans and programs and reveals the understanding that facilitates reaching an ecological approach (Zafir, 2014). Another important result is the action plan announced under the name Agenda 21. This action plan has addressed the issue of sustainability in three dimensions: economic, social and environmental. This approach is reflected in the economics literature with the use of the following indicators: Greenhouse gas emissions, biodiversity, solid waste amount, water pollution, soil pollution, environmental expenditures and environmental taxes for environmental dimension; GNP, production growth, trade volume, number of vehicles, energy use, per capita income for the economic dimension; population density, household electricity use, household water use, rural and urban population distribution, internet use per capita, number of doctors per capita, number of teachers per capita, education rate, child mortality rate, etc. for the social dimension. (Kanberoğlu & Mollavelioğlu, 2013). In addition, Agenda 21 underlined the importance of public organizations that facilitate democratic participation and underlined that everyone should be responsible for making decisions about their environment (Çamur & Vaizoğlu, 2007).

In 1993, the UN started to use the human development index. Although this is not directly related to nature, it points to the existence of other phenomena other than income in economic welfare measures. Then, at the UN Conference on Population and Development held in Cairo in 1994, the concept of sustainable development was emphasized again (Çamur & Vaizoğlu, 2007).

The conference of the parties to the UNFCCC [COP 1] was held in Berlin in 1995. When the protocol including the target of reducing carbon gas emissions by 20% below the 1990 levels was not accepted in 2005, the route to the Kyoto Protocol, which emerged in 1997, was opened. Since 1995, COP meetings have been held every year. The most recent COP 27 meeting was held in Sharm El Sheikh, Egypt in 2022. COP 21 held in Paris in 2015 was very important for the decisions taken and is examined below.

Sustainability in the Twenty-First Century

Beliefs, ideas and opinions about what sustainability is, have started to be examined in very narrow patterns since 1997. Because from an ecological economics perspective, it was not possible for mainstream economics to truly face the challenges of sustainability due to the big problems in the global economy. To cover up this big problem and ensure the continuation of business as usual, studies other than sustainability definitions confined to a simple framework have been completely brushed aside. Sustainability definitions that could have been the subject of a more holistic study in the 1970s, such as the Cocoyoc paper, were out of date. In the following paragraphs, studies on twenty-first-century sustainability based on this narrow-framed definition of sustainability predominate.

The COP 3 meeting held in Japan in 1997 resulted in the Kyoto Protocol. The agreement was opened for signature in 1998 and entered into force in 2005. Reducing greenhouse gas emissions is the main objective of the agreement. The emission of carbon, methane, nitrogen and CFC gases is tried to be controlled (Gönel, 2010). The countries that signed the agreement promised to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions by 5% between 2008 and 2012 compared

to 1990 (Zafir, 2014). The USA, one of the countries with the largest carbon emissions, announced in 2002 that it would not sign the agreement. Türkiye, on the other hand, did not sign the agreement because it was counted among the developed countries first, and then it was removed from the list of developed countries in 2001 (Yılmaz & Yılmaz, 2011), and signed the agreement in 2009. Canada withdrew from the agreement in 2012. Three important mechanisms emerged in Kyoto and these mechanisms bear the traces of the liberal market approach. These are International Emissions Trade [IET], Clean Development Mechanism [CDM] and Joint Implementation [JI] (Sweeney, 2015).

In 2002, the World Summit on Sustainable Development [Rio+10] was held in Johannesburg, South Africa. The summit concluded that the relationship between development and environmental protection is more complex than previously thought (Harper, 2008). In the statement issued after the summit, it was stated that globalization and the market economy created new development opportunities as well as harmful ones. Since most of these losses are in developing countries, it has been recommended that these countries focus on reform practices. It was underlined once again that countries should act jointly to provide basic needs and protect biodiversity. Food problems, epidemics, armed conflicts, terrorism, natural disasters, and ideological intolerance have been pointed out as obstacles to sustainable development (Zafir, 2014). However, these are the results faced by developing countries that try to realize their development within the free market economy and globalization, rather than the reasons that hinder development. In addition, since a full consensus on many issues could not be reached at the summit, the content of the declaration that emerged included a small number of agreed issues and weak targeting on issues that could not be agreed upon and could not go beyond a kind of goodwill statement (Gönel, 2010).

An important report published in 2006 is the Stern Report, which focuses on the effects of climate change on the economy. The report, chaired by Nicholas Stern, an economist at the London School of Economics, defines climate change as the biggest market failure ever. As a solution, the report recommending environmental taxes states that the sooner action is taken, the more the costs of not taking action can be reduced. In this respect, cost-benefit analysis constitutes the main point of view of the report. Nevertheless, the report is important in terms of considering a 5-6 degree global warming as possible. Unfortunately, by suggesting that CO2 ppm values should be targeted between 500-550, the report seems to accept a high-value range in which global climate change will occur (Wikipedia, 2023-c).

In 2007, UNEP launched the Green Economy Initiative in partnership with the International Trade Union Confederation [ITUC], the International Labour Organization [ILO] and the International Organization of Employers [IOE]. The comprehensive report Green Employment: Towards Humane Working Conditions in a Sustainable and Low-Carbon World, published by this partnership in 2008, explains how this will create millions of jobs, as well as recommendations to reduce emissions (Sweeney, 2015). The report explains that green employment can be the answer to two 21st-century problems facing the human species (United Nations Environment Program, 2018):

- *Protecting the natural environment and dangerous & unmanageable climate change*
- *Creating suitable job opportunities for over one billion people in need of economic and social development and a growing population*

The report acknowledges that the labour market has an important role to play in sharing the benefits of economic growth and reducing poverty. But fundamentally, UNEP's views find their basis in the aforementioned 2006 publication The Economics of Climate Change: The Stern Review (Sweeney, 2015). Therefore, the report argues that it is possible to contain climate change on the one hand, and to grow and create low-carbon and developing economies on the other (United Nations Environment Program, 2018). In particular, the report, which evaluates

each person working in the renewable energy sector within green employment, states that this number will increase day by day because the profitability of green energy investments will increase (United Nations Environment Program, 2018). However, it might not be possible to classify every work done in the renewable energy sector, and therefore every employment, in the green employment class. Because the fact that a sector produces energy output that does not emit carbon does not mean that its inputs also lead to zero carbon emissions. Apart from the renewable energy sector, the report lists the green employment efforts that can be created in the logistics, transportation, industry, real estate, mining management, agriculture, retail and forestry sectors and the characteristics of these sectors, and the majority of the report proceeds by examining the opportunities in these sectors.

According to the Bali Action Plan adopted at COP 13 held in 2007, developed countries should reduce their emissions by 25-40% by 2020 compared to 1990 levels. A few months before COP 15 two years later, the US announced its own emissions reduction target: 17% from 2005 level or 4% from 1999 level (Sweeney, 2015). Therefore, the country, which could be the biggest supporter of the 25-40% reduction target compared to 1990 levels, avoided emission reductions.

The first of the 'degrowth' conferences that started in 2008 was held in Paris. While conferences were initially held biennially or every year, lately, sometimes more than one conference takes place in different parts of the world in the same year. The last one was held in Brussels in 2023. This event encourages the participation of activists as well as participation from the scientific community. Because among the participants, the idea that the 'degrowth' approach has a direct connection with the practice is dominant. In addition, issues such as interdisciplinarity, the development of historical socialism, post-socialism, environmentally sensitive economic approaches, 21st-century goals, globalization, criticism of existing environmental policies, a new type of democracy and new institutions, the relationship of 'degrowth' with other social movements, local governments are among the main topics of interest in degrowth conferences (Degrowth Conference Budapest, 2016).

At the Durban Climate Change Conference in 2011, 194 participating countries decided to become parties to an agreement that would prevent climate change by 2016, which was realized in 2015 as the Paris Agreement, known as COP 21. The establishment of the Green Climate Fund in Durban, a structure focused on technology development to prevent climate change has been decided. Protesters protesting in Durban criticized the people who took the floor at the conference, saying that they were the ones who created environmental problems (Renner, 2012). Again, among the studies in 2011 is the Towards Green Growth booklet prepared by the OECD. The booklet directly uses the concept of *"environmentally friendly growth"* and argues that the environmental problems experienced stem from the usual way of doing business and that sustainable growth cannot be achieved with this old system. Growth models taking into account environmental pollution thresholds and the importance of natural capital in growth are proposed (OECD 2011).

In 2012, the UN Global Sustainability High Panel [UN-HPGS] was held. The output of the panel was a report called Resilient Society, Resilient Planet. The report focused on poverty to ensure sustainability (Zafir, 2014). It has been stated that the increase in the number of middle-class people to over 3 billion by 2040, together with the increase in population, indicates a greater use of world resources. In this report, it is accepted that the findings and recommendations of the Brundtland Report are valid for 2010 as well. Moreover, the report argues that the sustainable development paradigm should be added to mainstream economics so that policymakers cannot turn a blind eye to the reality of environmental problems. The need for growth is also highlighted in this report. To overcome the poverty problem, it is recommended that both the private sector and the governments should take initiatives in health, education and new investments (United Nations, 2012). It is observed that the states take the

lead and the local remains weak because it overlooks the need for structural change, so the report cannot go beyond an effort that has not escaped from its growth focus.

The IPCC has been publishing comprehensive reports since 1990. The approach in the 2014 IPCC reports is about adapting to the current global climate change problem. It is argued that adopting, while complex, is possible and, in the long run, cheaper than doing nothing. The IPCC claims that increasing the efficiency of structures, appliances and distribution networks will reduce energy demand. However, productivity gains in the last 200 years stand out as a cause of global climate change and many other environmental problems, confirming the Jevons Paradox. IPCC reports show the use of natural gas instead of coal as an alternative energy source, and even the use of nuclear energy (United Nations Intergovernmental Panel On Climate Change, 2014-a).

The IPCC sees poverty as one of the reasons why the effects of climate change are strong. According to the IPCC, poverty slows economic growth, hinders the fight against poverty, undermines food security and increases inequality. Therefore, their resistance to climate change and their ability to adapt is decreasing. It is not a big surprise that this approach, which runs counter to almost all development theory and practice, is found in the most watched environmental reporting globally. Because the people and institutions preparing the reports are extensions or direct managers of global capitalism; not only cannot reach the main causes but also show the situation of the people who suffer the most from the problems as the cause of the problem. Trying to find the 'benefits' of global climate change, the IPCC draws such compelling conclusions that, according to it, *"Migration can have both positive and negative effects. Societies from which people leave can be revived with the money sent by immigrants, but the workload, especially for women, increases and makes these groups more vulnerable."* (United Nations Intergovernmental Panel On Climate Change, 2014-a). In this respect, it is seen that the methods proposed in the IPCC reports on the environment are similar to the methods of the mainstream economics on employment. The reason for this similarity is that the main source of both environmental problems and employment-related problems is common. Both suffer from overuse, devaluation, being seen as a cost element by the socio-economic system, being polluted with harmful materials, and ultimately losing the ecology to run their cycle (Magdoff, 2002).

It is among the predictions of the IPCC that an additional investment of between 190 billion and 900 billion dollars will be required annually until 2050 to transition to a global low-carbon economy (United Nations Intergovernmental Panel On Climate Change, 2014-b). The IPCC Fifth Assessment Report in 2014 explains that even if emissions are stopped right now, greenhouse gases released into the atmosphere so far will keep temperatures elevated for centuries (United Nations Intergovernmental Panel On Climate Change, 2014-c).

In IPCC reports, while each sector is handled separately, it is emphasized how much these sectors can contribute to greenhouse gas reduction. For example, it is stated that greenhouse gas emissions originating from agriculture constitute 10-12% of the total greenhouse gas emissions originating from humans, and then some techniques are suggested to reduce this emission. One of these techniques is the replacement of fossil fuels with biofuels (United Nations Intergovernmental Panel On Climate Change, 2014-c). However, presenting the use of biofuels as an alternative when the poor need food is to ignore food prices and the poverty produced as it is. It is quite naive to think that sectors operate separately in this way. Most of the inputs of the agricultural sector are provided by the industrial sector. Agriculture is not a natural production sector as it was 150 years ago, it was rapidly industrialized especially after 1950. In terms of greenhouse gas reduction, it has the chance to provide more explanatory information to examine the economy in its entirety in terms of all sectors and their relations with each other.

In IPCC reports, it is stated that it would be beneficial to create incentives for ideas on regulating food demand, reducing greenhouse gasses, reducing food losses and waste, and changing diets (United Nations Intergovernmental Panel On Climate Change, 2014-c). It is difficult to find a good example of incentives effectively changing any trend in a capitalist economic order. On the contrary, more products are offered to the market by lowering the product quality along with the prices, and more people are trying to reach these goods and services. Meat consumption statistics are a good example of this: As the income level rises, meat consumption increases, but the quality of the meat consumed is low due to the production made by disregarding animal rights and the use of animal feed and techniques supported by excessive technology.

Is it possible, with incentives, to direct the segments with higher incomes to products that emit less greenhouse gas instead of meat consumption? The IPCC reports take the problem upside down, so it looks for a solution in incentives. The problem is not that increasing incomes are directed towards malnutrition; it is due to the uneven increase and distribution of incomes, the injustice at the production stage, and the fact that the capitalist production-distribution system produces goods that can be sold in excess and presents it as if it has qualities that it does not have.

The approach of the IPCC reports is based on the principle that technology is a pioneer in solving environmental problems. For example, it is stated that changing the planting dates of grains, improving sowing machines, and using dry sowing, seedling sowing and seed pre-germination techniques will increase the yield (United Nations Intergovernmental Panel On Climate Change, 2014-c). This approach is useful for immediate adaptation to global climate change and environmental problems. However, the reason for global climate change is not that productivity has decreased and therefore should be increased. Excessive yield from the soil and the inability to return the taken to the soil naturally are the causes of soil problems. The IPCC's approach also makes upside-down assessments in finding a solution to the main problem, seeking solutions to continue the practice that ultimately caused the problem.

The same attitude is followed by the IPCC in finding solutions to agricultural problems, especially the possible famine. For example, it is stated that deepening agricultural markets and increasing the predictability and reliability of the world trade system through reforms will enable famines to be managed. It is recommended to develop risk-sharing and transfer mechanisms, establish water markets and to price water (United Nations Intergovernmental Panel On Climate Change, 2014-c). However, those who can share and transfer the risk will be those who dominate the markets, have access to information and have the technology to predict the world drought forecasts more accurately. Deepening agricultural markets will put those who use financial instruments better in a more advantageous position. Pricing water will not result in more efficient use of water, which is a right to life, but will result in adding the most important natural resource to the assets of capital, which tends to monopolize. All of these are already happening, and the leading causes of scarcity are the methods used by capital to increase efficiency, pricing and deepen the markets.

The IPCC 2014 report states that higher food and energy outputs can be achieved if bioenergy is produced using crop rotation or the use of plant residues (United Nations Intergovernmental Panel On Climate Change, 2014-c). At first glance, the proposal seems to work, but it should not be ignored that the purpose of land use will change with the increase in income from these sources, the concentration of capital in this sector and competition in bioenergy production. Companies that will compete in the sector will want to use plants directly produced for food purposes as input in cases where plant residues or crop rotation are insufficient in bioenergy production, and people, especially those who suffer from hunger, will face the problem of increasing food prices. The continuation of the same recommendation warns that *"there is a risk of increased competition for land, water, and other resources."*

(United Nations Intergovernmental Panel On Climate Change, 2014-c). This warning shows that the reporters were aware of the limited resources. However, they are reluctant to openly state the resource limitations and talk about the *"risk of increased competition"* in the 'economic' language. However, the IPCC offers regulations that allow increased competition as a solution to the problems; and thus contradicts itself.

Like previous reports, the IPCC's latest report, Climate Change 2023 Synthesis Report, considers human activities such as fossil fuel use, deforestation and agriculture as the cause of climate change, but does not explore the motivation, cause or necessity behind these activities (United Nations Intergovernmental Panel On Climate Change, 2023).

The IPCC does not produce reports on its own but tries to conclude by summarizing the reports published in peer-reviewed journals (Barlas, 2013). However, there is solid evidence that these reports were manipulated. One of them is the lawsuit filed by the Democratic Party in the USA in 2007, proving that the White House has limited what scientists can make public about climate change. It has been revealed that 279 government climatologists have been exposed to restrictions such as delaying the media coverage of the entire study, changing the content, or reflecting the study contents differently (Hebert, 2007). Another example is the American Enterprise Institute [AEI]funded by the Exxon Mobile oil company. AEI awarded scientists $10,000 for writing articles that contradict the climate change information contained in the IPCC's reports (Tanuro, 2011). It is noteworthy that one of the efforts of the Union of Concerned Scientists for climate change is to take action against Exxon Mobile's policies that hinder scientific studies (Union Of Concerned Scientists, 2016).

The Natural Capital Declaration Roadmap, prepared by UNEP's Finance Initiative in 2013, is a report that tries to identify the opportunities, risks, measures and responsibilities that the sector should take where environmental problems are increasing. The concept of *"natural capital"* used in the report is defined as ecosystem stocks that ensure the sustainable flow of goods and services. An examination of the report reveals that financial institutions have begun to understand the dependence of the finance sector on the real sector and the real sector's dependence on natural resources. A significant portion of the agreed measures might provide temporary benefits, such as the creation of a legal system where banks are held responsible for the pollution caused by customers, or the development of new methods for the accurate measurement of natural capital to determine risk accurately (United Nations Environment Program Finance Initiative, 2013).

In 2000, the United Nations [UN] set 8 targets for Millennium Development to be achieved by 2015. These are the reduction of extreme poverty and hunger; primary education for all; promoting gender equality and emancipation of women; reducing the child mortality rate; improving maternal health; fighting AIDS, malaria and other diseases; ensuring environmental sustainability; the improvement of global cooperation for development (United Nations, 2000). The aim here was to provide rapid development in the fields of sustainable development and fight against poverty. As can be understood from the naming of the problems, it is aimed to address the ongoing problems. The causes of the problems were not questioned. In 2016, it was observed that positive development was achieved in terms of achieving these targets. However, on the other hand, while a significant part of the world's population lives in poverty, it has been determined by the UN that the excessive use of resources by the Nordic countries causes environmental problems. It has been noticed that the problems in the environment hinder the development of developing countries. 17 Sustainable Development Goals, in the main areas of economic, social and environmental, have become the new global development goal of the UN. Because it has been accepted that only a balanced world ecological system will allow developed societies. Thus, the development problem of developing countries has begun to be perceived as a problem of regulating the amount of resource use between countries with excessive resource consumption (Mayer, Haas & Weidenhofer, 2017).

COP 21 meeting in Paris at the end of 2015, which attracted attention all over the world due to the rapid increase in average temperatures, was held with the sponsorship of companies such as Air-France, Renault-Nissan and BNP Paribas. After the conference, a consensus called the Paris Agreement, which was accepted by 195 countries, signed by 174 countries in 2016, and whose implementations came into force in 2020, was reached. Accordingly, it has been accepted that the main target is that the climate temperature does not rise 2°C above the average temperature at the beginning of the industrial revolution. Since the parties stated that the 2°C^limit of the countries in danger of being submerged is high, it will be essentially 1.5°C if they can succeed. However, there are no detailed country targets for these promises and decisions as in Kyoto (Wikipedia, 2023-d). There is no sanction mechanism to be applied in case countries fail to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions sufficiently. Another aspect of the agreement that has been criticized is the imposition of similar obligations on developed and developing countries in terms of fossil fuel reduction, whereas developed countries will be responsible for 80% of cumulative emissions in the next century, while they are responsible for 60% of current emissions (Sweeney, 2015). As an expanded version of the Clean Development Mechanism [CDM] in the Kyoto Protocol, it is envisaged to establish a greenhouse gas reduction system under the name of Sustainable Development Mechanism [SDM], which will include all countries.

In November 2016, COP22, the 12th Meeting of the Kyoto Protocol and the first meeting of the Parties to the Paris Agreement was held together in Marrakech, Morocco. The most important development of the meeting was the signing of the Paris Agreement by the USA and with it countries such as Japan, Australia, Israel and the United Kingdom. Thus, a total of 111 countries signed the agreement, but Türkiye and Russia are not among them. Another development in the meeting was the announcement of the long-term greenhouse gas reduction plans of the USA, Canada, Germany and Mexico. For example, the USA has prepared a plan to reduce 80% of its 2005 greenhouse gas emission level by 2050 (Ocak, 2016). In addition, developed countries reiterated that they would implement the $100 billion aid package they mentioned in 2015. It is noteworthy that another important practice underlined by COP22 for greenhouse gas emission reduction is cooperation with private financial institutions (United Nations Environment Program, 2016). On the other hand, it is criticized that organizations such as the World Coal Union and the Australian Business Council take part in the meetings as observers (Wikipedia, 2022-d).

The last two meetings, COP26 and COP27, witnessed an accelerated reduction of fossil fuel vehicles, a slowdown in coal-fired power plants' retirement, and a decision by other countries to compensate poor countries affected by climate change for damages. In real terms, reaching a consensus to stop climate change has not been possible.

Evaluation

In light of this, it may be claimed that all concepts are intertwined and that wholeness is eluding the answers. Environmental problems, development, greenhouse gas reduction, a new system to be created by an international agreement, etc. concepts are used with an understanding that leads to confining the concept of sustainability within certain limits. While the current CDM has not provided any benefit in terms of sustainable development, it seems quite risky to develop it and to continue to use it in COP meetings by qualifying it with the concept of sustainable development in an urgent issue such as greenhouse gas emission reduction.

The historical trend of studies for global environmental problems was to use scientific approaches that emphasized the relationship between development and the environment in the 1970s, to abandon the development perspective and to seek technical solutions to urgent problems since the 1980s, to touch upon the connection between environment and development again but also treating environmental problems as an opportunity to mediate growth since the mid-1990s. The link between sustainability and energy is undeniable, but leaving it to

engineering solutions, including politics, is to ignore the human-induced social nature of the problem. Technical solutions can solve some of the ecological problems created by humans. Finding the root causes of the problems and correcting or eliminating them will be possible with comprehensive and systemic social research.

It is useful to think about the analysis of the issues and data in the development and environment reports that are being published and in the final declarations of the conferences. If final statements or reports make heavy use of proposals that offer technical micro-solutions to global problems, then their definition of sustainability is narrow and feeds on a version of the market economy that meets mainstream economics.

Research that prioritizes systemic thinking and root cause analysis is needed to eliminate the root causes of environmental and developmental problems.

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How Leadership Styles Affect Intrapreneurial Behavior In Organizations

CENK LACIN ARIKAN[1]

Introduction

This chapter aims to explore how different leadership styles influence intrapreneurial activities. It specifically focuses on three leadership styles: transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant (laissez-faire) leadership. Intrapreneurship encompasses both the establishment of new ventures within the organization and the revitalization of the organization through innovation and strategic renewal. Transformational leadership involves inspiring and motivating employees to go beyond their own self-interests and work towards the organization's goals. Transactional leadership, on the other hand, relies on rewarding employees for meeting specific targets and goals. Passive-avoidant leadership refers to a hands-off approach where leaders avoid taking responsibility and providing guidance (Fiaz et al., 2017).

By exploring the relationship between intrapreneurship and leadership styles, this chapter aims to provide insights and recommendations for organizations to foster a supportive environment for intrapreneurial activities. Ultimately, this chapter seeks to highlight the importance of managers in encouraging and facilitating employees' initiatives to explore new opportunities and drive innovation within the organization.

Effective leadership is recognized as a key factor in today's global business environment, where organizations strive to outperform their competitors (Bass et al., 2003). It is widely acknowledged that leadership has the potential to unlock dormant capabilities within an organization, foster innovation, tackle challenges during uncertain times, and deliver outcomes that are unique and difficult to replicate (Arikan, 2008). In the current landscape, almost all resources, except for human resources, can be imitated to some extent by the competitors. This highlights the importance of leadership styles that focus on nurturing and cultivating the potential of employees. By leveraging the human factor effectively, organizations can establish a sustainable competitive advantage that is hard for competitors to emulate (López, Arango, and Jaramillo, 2019).

This chapter aims to provide an overview of major leadership styles that can be valuable for organizations based on their specific requirements. This overview will serve as a valuable resource for both researchers and practitioners, enabling them to gain insights and perspectives to address their current issues and future goals. By understanding different leadership styles, organizations can identify approaches that align with their culture, values, and objectives. This knowledge empowers leaders to make informed decisions about the most appropriate leadership style to adopt within their respective contexts (Jensen and Luthans, 2006).

Furthermore, this chapter intends to contribute to the ongoing discussion on effective leadership by shedding light on the relationship between leadership styles and intrapreneurial behavior. By examining the impact of different leadership approaches, researchers and practitioners can enhance their understanding of the factors that influence employee engagement, productivity, and overall organizational performance. Ultimately, this chapter endeavors to provide valuable guidance and recommendations that can assist leaders in

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maximizing their potential to inspire and lead their teams effectively. By harnessing the power of effective leadership, organizations can navigate the complexities of the business landscape and achieve sustainable success in an increasingly competitive environment.

Different Styles of Leadership

Leadership has been a key topic in organizational studies for around five decades. Researchers highlight its critical role in organizational success. Effective leadership is necessary for providing direction and motivation, especially in challenging times. Sustaining achievements also relies on successful leadership. It is essential for employees to remain competitive. Motivating and guiding organizational members towards common goals and aligning daily activities with the overall mission and objectives, are crucial for organizational performance (Engelen et al., 2014).

Like many other concepts and constructs in organizational studies, leadership lacks a unified definition. One of the major reasons for this is the great extent leadership reaches. Leaders can be found in formal as well as informal groups. Leaders also can evolve in time and may change their attributes, depending on personal growth and situational characteristics. Moreover, the same leader may act as a subordinate, or a subordinate may act as a leader depending on the situation. Therefore, the contingent nature of leadership should be considered in all leadership related issues (Vecchio, 2003).

A commonly accepted definition by Robbins and Coulter (2009) emphasizes three aspects of leadership: 1) leadership is a process, 2) leadership affects people, and 3) leadership facilitates attaining organizational goals. Their approach is noteworthy because it explains so much in a concise manner. Being a process implies its dynamic and evolving nature because it entails steps whereby the subordinates accept the leader's role whether he/she is a formal or informal leader. Also, because it is a process, the relationship between the leader and the followers may change into a different one as time goes on. The followers may become very committed to their leader or they may lose their faith and start to experience loosening of the relationship. Secondly, leaders are the ones that influence people. In other words, they are the kind of people that can make you do things you would not normally be doing. Leaders possess the ability to appeal to people's feelings and they can change the subordinates' behavior. Therefore, leaders are effective. Thirdly, leaders engage people by motivating and leading them into achieving organizational goals. Thus, they help subordinates and energize them into getting the results and reaching accomplishments.

Northouse (2015) asserts that leadership styles include three major components. Firstly, they give direction to employees. Secondly, they enable the execution of determined plans. Thirdly, they help motivate people and keep them committed to the organizational goals. In this regard, leaders are enablers that affect their subordinates, and they do this with a vision in mind. Based on these, we can say that the same group of employees in the same company with the same goals may very well achieve quite different results under different leadership styles. On the other hand, according to Daft (2014) leadership is a two-way relationship where both the leader and the followers affect each other and evolve over time. Obviously, this is a more dynamic way of approaching leadership.

Leadership can affect the performance both directly and indirectly in an organization (Manzoor et al., 2019). Furthermore, obedience to authority by the employees may result even in certain unethical behaviors that may jeopardize the people, organization, and even the society as a whole to some extent (Zhilla et al., 2018). Thus, leadership style is critical in an organization's life. Because leadership has direct impact on the human capital and consequently on the corporate culture of an organization, it can be a major source of inimitable success or competence (Arikan, 2019). The major leadership styles that have been cited by academicians in the literature over the years seem to focus on three categories: 1) Transformational,

2) Transactional, and

3) Passive-avoidant (Laissez-faire) leadership styles.

Transformational Leadership

Top and middle managers play a crucial role in fostering an organizational environment that supports and encourages intrapreneurship. They can lead their subordinates in embracing intrapreneurial activities by championing innovative ideas, providing necessary resources and expertise, and supporting small experimental projects. Among various leadership theories, transformational leadership is particularly relevant to intrapreneurship, as it has been found to stimulate employees' creativity and innovation (Sarros, Cooper and Santona, 2008).

Transformational leadership involves inspiring followers to adopt the organization's vision as their own and directing their efforts towards collective goals. Components of transformational leadership include inspirational motivation, idealized influence (attributed and behavioral), individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation (Molero et al., 2007). Inspirational motivation entails creating and expressing an appealing future vision, along with demonstrating optimism and enthusiasm. Idealized influence involves sacrificing for the group's benefit, exemplifying high ethical standards, and inspiring admiration, respect, and trust. Individualized consideration entails providing support, encouragement, and coaching to individual followers. Intellectual stimulation involves behaviors that increase problem awareness, challenge assumptions, and encourage innovative thinking (Lussier and Achua, 2007).

Extensive research has shown that managers rated higher on transformational leadership by their followers are associated with higher levels of extra effort, work innovation, and organizational citizenship behavior. Transformational leadership can lay the groundwork for intrapreneurship for several reasons. Firstly, it helps develop a clear organizational vision and mechanisms for identifying opportunities. Secondly, it stimulates independent thinking, idea generation, and questioning of outdated operating rules and systems. Lastly, it enhances followers' confidence and skills to devise and implement innovative solutions aligned with organizational goals. In other words, transformational leadership, with its components of inspirational motivation, idealized influence, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation, plays a significant role in creating the conditions for intrapreneurship. It fosters a vision-driven and innovative organizational culture, encourages independent thinking and problem-solving, and builds followers' confidence and abilities to drive innovation (Shepherd, Patzelt, and Haynie, 2009).

Bass and Avolio (2004) identify four key components of the transformational leadership style: 1) Idealized Influence, 2) Inspirational Motivation, 3) Intellectual Stimulation, and 4) Individualized Consideration. Idealized influence refers to the leader's role modeling and ability to earn the admiration of followers. Through their charisma, leaders become examples for others to emulate. Inspirational motivation involves inspiring and motivating followers, fostering commitment and loyalty (Arikan, 2022). Intellectual stimulation encourages followers to question the status quo, think innovatively, and engage in group decision-making. It creates an environment where followers can freely express their ideas without fear of punishment or criticism. Individualized consideration recognizes that each follower is unique and requires personalized mentoring and support. The leader appreciates and delegates based on individual needs and developmental levels. Overall, the transformational leadership style aims to transform promising employees into future leaders by investing in their growth and considering the leader-follower relationship as a valuable human capital investment rather than a cost item (Phillips and Garman, 2006).

Transformational leadership focuses on the development and growth of followers, their needs, values, and moralities. Managers with a transformational leadership style aim to

transform individuals and organizations by changing their mindset, expanding their vision, and aligning their behavior with values and goals. They uphold the interests of employees, generate awareness and acceptance of the group's purpose, and inspire employees to go beyond their self-interest for the benefit of the group (Eyal and Kark, 2004). The transformational leadership style allows for more flexibility and growth within the organization, with less strict boundaries in terms of tasks and roles. This style emphasizes a higher tolerance for failure compared to transactional leadership. The leader plays a guiding and enabling role, assisting followers in their personal and professional development. The focus is on helping followers become more confident, competent, and committed to both the organization and its goals (Limsila and Ogunlana, 2008).

Transformational leaders encourage their followers to approach problems from new perspectives, provide support and encouragement, communicate a compelling vision, and stimulate emotions and identification. This leadership style has a positive impact on both individual and organizational outcomes. It influences variables such as motivation, employee satisfaction, and performance. Higher levels of transformational leadership are associated with increased group potency, which refers to the collective belief in the group's ability to achieve its goals (Laspita et al., 2012). In other words, transformational leadership emphasizes personal and organizational transformation, inspiring followers, and creating a shared vision and purpose. It has a significant influence on employee and group outcomes, promoting motivation, satisfaction, and performance.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is identified as the second major leadership style in the literature. Transactional leaders establish clear structures and roles that enable subordinates to achieve goals. The relationship between the leader and subordinates is based on transactions, where the leader controls rewards and contingencies. Transactional leadership consists of two components: contingent reward and active management-by-exception (Hornsby, Kuratko, and Zahra, 2002).

Contingent reward refers to the leader's ability to recognize and reward good performance. It involves offering rewards or incentives in exchange for desired behaviors or outcomes. Active management-by-exception focuses on the leader's behavior of proactively identifying and addressing mistakes and failures. This style of leadership involves closely monitoring for deviations or errors to maintain stability in the workplace. However, subordinates may perceive transactional leadership as disempowering, as it primarily aims to maintain the status quo rather than fostering innovation or change (Ashforth, Harrison, and Corley, 2008).

Followers under transactional leadership are typically motivated extrinsically, driven by external rewards and punishments. This approach may limit creativity and innovation among employees. Managers with a transactional leadership style may prioritize maintaining focus on key tasks by disregarding or passing up on innovative ideas suggested by their subordinates. In other words, transactional leadership emphasizes clear structures, contingent rewards, and active management of exceptions. While it can ensure consistency and stability, it may hinder creativity and innovation, and employees may perceive it as disempowering (Avolio, Bass, and Jung, 1999).

The transactional leadership style is effective in simple and stable environments, where goals and values can be clearly communicated to followers. According to Northouse (2007), transactional leaders prioritize achieving goals and objectives, with little concern for follower development. They focus on clarifying goals and ensuring that followers' efforts are not wasted, building a positive reputation for the leader. However, the transactional leadership style primarily targets short-term goals and often considers employee development as a cost item rather than a priority.

Politis (2002) highlights the importance of role clarification and task specificity for followers in transactional leadership. This clarity helps maintain efficiency and avoids ambiguity, enabling concerted efforts toward achieving clear objectives. Transactional leaders are expected to provide feedback on task progress to ensure goal attainment. Aarons (2006) suggests that transactional leadership is suitable for highly standardized processes, where clear procedures and protocols are necessary.

Transactional leadership is characterized by a more structured and task-oriented approach. Leaders who adopt this style focus on setting clear expectations, monitoring performance, and providing rewards or punishments based on outcomes. The relationship between the leader and followers is transactional in nature, with an emphasis on exchanging rewards for meeting specific goals or performance criteria (Epitropaki and Martin 2005).

Transactional leaders use contingent reinforcement to motivate subordinates. This involves offering rewards, such as recognition, bonuses, or promotions, in exchange for achieving desired results. On the other hand, they may also apply management-by-exception, which involves intervening only when problems or deviations from standards occur, either through active monitoring or passive corrective action (Hassi, 2019).

Compared to transformational leadership, transactional leadership is more concerned with maintaining the status quo and ensuring compliance with established rules and procedures. It focuses on achieving immediate objectives and delivering tangible outcomes (Epitropaki and Martin 2005). While this style can be effective in stable and predictable environments, it may limit creativity, innovation, and long-term organizational growth.

Research has shown that transactional leadership can have positive effects on certain outcomes, such as task performance and productivity, especially in contexts where clarity and structure are crucial. However, it may not foster employee engagement, intrinsic motivation, or commitment to organizational values and vision (Chiang and Hsieh, 2012).

In other words, transactional leadership relies on structured exchanges and contingent reinforcement to motivate followers. It emphasizes task completion, adherence to standards, and the use of rewards and punishments. While effective in specific situations, it may not promote transformative change or inspire individuals to go beyond their immediate self-interests.

Passive-avoidant (Laissez-faire) Leadership

Passive-avoidant leadership consists of two components: laissez-faire leadership and passive management-by-exception. Laissez-faire leadership reflects a passive and indifferent approach towards tasks and subordinates. Leaders exhibiting this style are disengaged and show a lack of involvement or guidance. Passive management-by-exception involves using contingent punishments or corrective actions when deviations from performance standards occur. Passive-avoidant leaders avoid establishing clear agreements, clarifying expectations, and providing goals and standards for their followers (Goodnight, 2011).

Managers who adopt a passive-avoidant leadership style are unlikely to inspire ideas, innovation, creativity, or a willingness to embrace change among their subordinates. Their lack of active involvement and guidance can lead to a lack of direction and motivation within the team or organization. This leadership style does not encourage or support proactive behaviors or the pursuit of new opportunities. In other words, passive-avoidant leadership is characterized by a hands-off approach, indifference towards tasks and subordinates, and a reactive management style. It does not foster an environment conducive to idea generation, innovation, or change (Robbins, 2009).

The concept of laissez-faire leadership has been described by different authors using their own words, but the underlying idea remains consistent. The leaders in this style intentionally

limit their interference in the decision-making process and give their subordinates the authority to make their own decisions regarding their work. This approach assumes that subordinates are capable and knowledgeable enough to handle their responsibilities independently (Martin and Epitropaki, 2001).

However, it is important to note that laissez-faire leadership can have its drawbacks. Without the active involvement and guidance of leaders, there may be a lack of direction, coordination, and feedback within the team or organization. This can lead to confusion, inefficiency, and a decrease in overall performance. The laissez-faire leadership style is often seen as less effective compared to other leadership styles that involve more active engagement and support from leaders. While it may be suitable in certain situations where subordinates are highly skilled and self-motivated, it is generally not recommended as a primary leadership approach in most organizational contexts (Bass and Bass, 2008).

Bhatti et al. (2012) highlight that the laissez-faire leadership style lacks explicit guidelines for achieving common objectives. While this may initially appear chaotic, it opens new possibilities. Employees are not confined by norms or compared against fixed thresholds. The laissez-faire style truly lives up to its name. In this leadership style, top management demonstrates a bold commitment by trusting individuals and their full potential. This fosters creativity and out-of-the-box thinking, which would be limited under different leadership approaches. Consequently, jobs in such organizations are often highly sought after. However, not everyone is suited for these companies or roles. Individuals who are hesitant to take responsibility or struggle with uncertainty may find these organizations too challenging.

In short, laissez-faire leadership is characterized by leaders who avoid taking responsibility, making decisions, and interfering in the decision-making process of their subordinates. It grants subordinates freedom and autonomy in their work, but it may lead to challenges in coordination and performance. Effective leadership often requires a more proactive and involved approach to guide and support the team towards achieving organizational goals.

Intrapreneurship

Intrapreneurship refers to entrepreneurial behaviors within established organizations, encompassing the creation of new ventures and the transformation of existing organizations through innovation and strategic renewal (Antoncic and Hisrich, 2003). It applies to various types of organizations, including small businesses, multinational corporations, nonprofits, and public sector organizations. While some distinctions are made between entrepreneurship and intrapreneurship, the similarities outweigh the differences in terms of the process, inputs, and potential outputs (Antoncic and Hisrich, 2001).

At the organizational level, intrapreneurship is often conceptualized as entrepreneurial orientation, characterized by risk-taking, innovation, and proactiveness. Risk-taking involves venturing into unknown areas without knowing the outcome. Innovativeness entails generating new ideas and experimenting with new processes, products, or services. Proactiveness relates to anticipating future needs, changes, or challenges and acting to create new opportunities (Zahra, 1991).

Intrapreneurship can also be studied at the individual level, focusing on bottom-up, proactive initiatives by individual employees. In this context, intrapreneurship involves behaviors such as networking, out-of-the-box thinking, taking initiative, assuming leadership roles, and a willingness to take risks. Individuals displaying intrapreneurial characteristics, known as intrapreneurs, drive product development, improvement, and market penetration. They share similar traits with entrepreneurs, including innovation, motivation, a desire to overcome challenges, and a commitment to continuous learning (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996).

The concept of intrapreneurship has been described using various terms such as intrapreneuring, corporate entrepreneurship, corporate venturing, and internal corporate entrepreneurship. These terms all refer to the phenomenon of entrepreneurial activities taking place within established organizations (Kuratko et al., 1993).

There is a consensus that entrepreneurship involves identifying and developing opportunities to create value through innovation, regardless of the resources available or the location of the entrepreneur. In the context of intrapreneurship, it specifically refers to entrepreneurial activities occurring within an existing company (Hornsby et al., 1993).

Different researchers have provided different definitions and perspectives on intrapreneurship. Some view it as a process where individuals within organizations pursue opportunities independently of the resources they currently possess. Others see it as a departure from established norms and practices to pursue new opportunities. There are also narrower definitions that focus specifically on large corporations or new venture formation (Hornsby et al., 1990).

In this chapter, intrapreneurship is defined as the entrepreneurial process that takes place within an existing organization, regardless of its size. It encompasses a wide range of innovative activities and orientations, including the development of new products, services, technologies, administrative techniques, strategies, and competitive approaches (Hills and LaForge, 1992).

Overall, intrapreneurship is seen as a way for organizations to foster innovation, drive growth, and adapt to changing environments by tapping into the entrepreneurial mindset and capabilities of their employees within the existing organizational structure (Guth and Ginsberg, 1990).

Previous research has classified intrapreneurship into four dimensions: new business venturing, innovativeness, self-renewal, and proactiveness. New business venturing involves creating new businesses within existing organizations, including redefining products or services, and developing new markets. Innovativeness focuses on product and service innovation, technological advancements, and new production methods (Carrier, 1994).

Self-renewal pertains to the transformation of organizations through the renewal of key ideas, such as redefining the business concept and introducing system-wide changes. Proactiveness refers to a firm's inclination to take risks, be initiative-driven, and compete aggressively with industry rivals (Covin and Slevin, 1991).

These dimensions are distinct in their activities and orientations. However, they are also related and contribute to the overall construct of intrapreneurship, as they align with the Schumpeterian innovation concept. Intrapreneurship involves pursuing creative solutions, developing new and enhanced products and services, implementing strategic changes, and addressing competitors (Covin, 1991).

The inclusion of these four dimensions in the intrapreneurship construct ensures both convergent validity, as they collectively measure the same underlying construct, and discriminant validity, as they capture unique facets of intrapreneurship without redundancy (Chandler and Hanks, 1993). Understanding and promoting intrapreneurship through these dimensions can help organizations foster an entrepreneurial culture, drive innovation, and stay competitive.

By encouraging employees to embrace new opportunities, engage in innovative practices, embrace change, and take proactive approaches, organizations can benefit from the entrepreneurial mindset and drive growth from within. In other words, the four dimensions of intrapreneurship provide a comprehensive framework for studying, understanding, and promoting entrepreneurial behavior within existing organizations (Carrier, 1994).

How Different Leadership Styles Engage Intrapreneurial Behavior

Exploring the direct influence of different leadership styles on intrapreneurial behavior would provide valuable insights for organizations seeking to foster a culture of innovation and entrepreneurship among their employees (Enginoglu and Arikan, 2016). In addition to transformational leadership, other leadership styles, such as transactional leadership, could also be examined to understand their potential impact on intrapreneurship. Transactional leadership, characterized by clear expectations, rewards, and punishments, may influence intrapreneurial behavior through different mechanisms. For example, transactional leaders can establish performance targets and provide incentives that encourage employees to take initiative and seek innovative solutions.

Moreover, other organizational factors beyond leadership style and management support should be considered in the context of intrapreneurship. Organizational culture, structures, and processes play crucial roles in either enabling or inhibiting entrepreneurial behaviors (Arikan and Enginoglu, 2016a). Creating a supportive and flexible work environment, promoting collaboration and idea-sharing, and providing resources for experimentation are important factors that can facilitate intrapreneurship within an organization.

Table 1. How Different Leadership Styles Engage Intrapreneurial Behavior

	When to use	How to use	Who is best suited
Transactional Leadership Style	*Simple tasks *Realistic expectations *Specific aims and goals	*Very clear goals *Well defined rewards and punishment that the followers value	*Leaders who are short term goal oriented *Followers who want very definite results
Transformational Leadership Style	*Comlicated tasks *Undefined outcomes and unlimited results	*Appreciation *Empowerment *Tolerating mistakes	*Highly capable workforce *People who are learning oriented
Laissez-Faire Leadership Style	*Need for high creativity *If the workforce is capable of handling high uncertainty	*Let employees determine the goals *Mutual trust *Autonomy	*Teams or companies capable of self-managing *Top management fully supporting this philosophy

Source: Arikan (2020) p.51

Overall, investigating the influence of different leadership styles, along with other organizational factors, on intrapreneurial behavior would contribute to a deeper understanding of how organizations can effectively promote and harness employee-driven innovation and entrepreneurial initiatives. Such insights can guide the development of strategies and practices that encourage intrapreneurship, leading to improved competitiveness and performance in today's dynamic and challenging business landscape (Arikan and Enginoglu, 2016b).

Leadership has been a central focus in organizational studies for nearly five decades. Numerous researchers emphasize the crucial role of leadership in the success of organizations (Antoncic and Hisrich, 2003). Without effective leadership, companies face challenges in finding direction and motivation, particularly during difficult times. Even during periods of success, the issue of sustaining achievements becomes significant. Successful leadership is essential for employees to maintain their competitiveness. Motivating and guiding organizational members towards shared objectives, as well as aligning daily activities with the overall mission and goals, are strategic and vital factors for organizational performance.

Conclusion

Leaders play a crucial role in motivating and leading their subordinates towards achieving organizational goals. Different leadership styles exist, including transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire. There is no one-size-fits-all approach to leadership, as various factors come

into play, such as personal affinities, organizational expectations, and the skills and capabilities of subordinates. Effective leadership depends on a good match or correlation between the leader and followers.

When selecting leaders, organizations should consider these factors, but ultimately, the quality of fit between the leader and followers is decisive. A transformational leader may struggle with employees who require clear instructions, while a transactional leader may be more effective in such cases. Conversely, a transformational leader is suitable for a highly capable and learning-oriented workforce, empowering them to become future leaders.

Leadership can also extend beyond formal hierarchies, with informal leaders emerging naturally within teams or projects. Organizations should recognize and invest in these leaders, matching them with appropriate roles. Expecting the same leadership from everyone is a common mistake, as different situations require different leadership styles. Management should assess leaders' potential and align them better with their subordinates.

This chapter encourages practitioners to critically examine themselves and their employees, seeking in-depth feedback to understand expectations better. A mismatch between leaders and subordinates does not necessarily indicate incompetence; a better match can unleash employees' potential. Additionally, the laissez-faire leadership style highlights the possibility of self-management among employees without a leader. Not all organizations are suitable for this approach, but it highlights the need for a different view of leadership in certain groups.

Researchers can benefit from longitudinal studies to understand how leadership styles evolve over time and their effectiveness in different organizational settings. Further research on how leadership styles impact organizational commitment at different levels can enhance understanding in the field. Overall, this chapter contributes perspectives and ideas to the discussion on different leadership styles, emphasizing the importance of fit between leaders and followers. Future research can delve deeper into these styles and their effects on organizational commitment, providing enhanced understanding for researchers and practitioners alike.

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Rethinking About Radical Public Administration: Egalitarian Participation Approach in Institutions and the Renewed Power of the Public Sphere

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1. INTRODUCTION

Patrick Dunleavy's radical public administration approach emphasizes that social problems are at the root of administrative change, and it is not a coincidence; on the contrary, it is a factor that ensures the administration's integrity (Şener, 2005). In parallel with the crises in society, crises in public administration are inevitable. Crisis immunity develops with the resolution process. According to Dunleavy (1982), the pathological growth of bureaucracy occurs with the development of public administration within the framework of liberal democracy or in line with the increasing control of the people. He defines radical approaches replacing bureaucracy as broad socialist values. The governing and governed parties fully recognize the values of liberalism, which are democracy, free elections, free speech, and the protection and sustainability of civil rights. Within the framework of these values, theorists have brought cooperation proposals to solve the increasing governor-governed conflicts. Before the 1970s, Follet, Barnard, and Mayo suggested increasing integrativeness rather than conflicting with the governed as a guide to increase efficiency. The notion that is effective in providing this integration is called "participation." In scientists' theories before 1970, participation is conceptualized as a tool that affects productivity. The movement, which started with Dahl in the context of classical pluralism, brought up the necessity of the principle of equality in the concept of participation (Şener, 2005).

The discursive conception of the public sphere, which started with Habermas, emphasizes that society should impact the decisions that concern society. This concept was not limited to the political arena; it also showed its effect in the social and cultural fields. Feyerabend's "anything goes" view is a bridge between science and society in the context of equal participation. On the other hand, Fox, Miller, and Mouffe criticize the idea of consensus despite having a Habermasian point of view. Mouffe's agonistic discourse model will be reviewed as the reason for this criticism. According to Dunleavy (1982), radical changes occur by being influenced by the differentiation in the society's economic basis. In this context, the radical approach to public administration in practical politics may be related to socialist parties or larger social groups. The economic crisis experienced in 1970 caused radical changes in the conception of public administration.

With the theorists such as Waldo and Frederickson, who were influential in the 1970s and later, participation definitely stopped being seen as a tool and found a place in public administration as a goal. The academicians who evaluated the state of the discipline at the

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Minnowbrook Conference discussed how to solve the identity problem of public administration. This conference affected many scientific studies directly or indirectly. It has significantly increased the number of new academic publications (Özgür, 2014). After the conference, the administrative paradigm was changed worldwide. Although the reasons for these administrative reforms varied from country to country, they were based on similar principles. The new administration approach with flexible and dynamic organizational structures is called "New Public Administration." In this study, the forms of public administration, which Dunleavy called radical, and the holistic change of these administration forms are explained within the "egalitarian participation" framework. Dunleavy (1982) defines the organization as managing or getting things done, synonymous with management. In practice, this field deals with the problems that arise in practice-related processes and their solutions. In this context, the administration is responsible for solving the problems that arise in the bureaucratic management process. In a period of rapid democratization, the basis of the problems is generally social. In the first part of the study, integrative solution theories created by theorists for social-based problems will be discussed.

2. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATION AND PARTICIPATION

While seeking an answer to how organizations shifted to the participatory management system, it can be said that Follet put forward the first concepts related to this approach. According to most people, governing consists of giving orders, and it is believed that the person who receives the order will obey the order and show strict adherence to it. However, according to Parker Follet, the obedience technique will be useless considering that employees sometimes do not think that the order they are expected to obey is appropriate for the situation. Sometimes, they fail to follow the order for various reasons, including insufficient reference frames. Follet thought that it would be more functional to use "power with others" instead of "power over others" (Çevik, 2012).

Follet's power-over expresses the coercive communication dominated by overwhelming power over the ordered people. In contrast, power-with describes a cyclical behavior that attempts to persuade employees to do as they are told, establishing cooperation between employees and the manager. Circular behavior advocates the effectiveness of a win-win solution rather than an "either-or" solution. Employees of every status in the organization can influence each other. One can talk about the existence of power-with when the manager influences the worker, and the worker has the opportunity to influence the manager. (Şener, 2005).

Follet is one of the management scientists who attempted to solve the manager-managed conflict with an integrative approach. For the managers' orders to be effective, the persuasion of the managed ones should be ensured first. At this point, Follet states that managers should give importance to the thoughts of the group they manage and take them into account (Şener, 2005). In other words, when the managers want to make the people under their responsibility productive, they must logically justify the directives they want to enforce and even persuade the employees to implement them voluntarily. Even managers getting the consent of the managed people may fail to provide efficiency. Because the behaviors, values, and other permanent learning that people have gained from their environment, education processes, and past experiences will also affect the productivity of the work to be done positively or negatively. The manager's task is to improve the competencies and perspectives of the managed ones in the organization and make an effort to change them to contribute to organizational goals. Follet said this could only be possible when employees are given sufficient responsibility, participate in the management process, and establish cooperation between managers and employees. From this point of view, Follet is the first person to express the idea of participatory management (Çevik, 2012).

Barnard's work supports Follet's ideas regarding employee willingness and the importance of participation. Regarding the efficiency and effectiveness of the organization, it is not enough that the managers have the authority to give orders and the employees obey the orders given by the managers. For this reason, the direction of authority is from bottom to top, contrary to expectations. The authority used by the manager is acceptable as it is a guide for the employees. For the managed people to implement the given order, they must be able to make sense of what is requested in the order; the given order must be related to the work done by the employee and be rational. It must also fit their qualifications (Öğüt and Öztürk, 2007).

The manager who wants the given orders to be carried out has to consider the orientations of the natural organization that affect the execution of the orders. According to Barnard, the natural organization expresses the unity of individuals in the formal organization, who have a joint life, and are connected through communication (Şener, 2005). According to Scott, Barnard supported this perspective with the concept of organizational balance. This concept suggests that an organization's continuity of existence depends on the balance between employee contributions to management and employee satisfaction from work supported by the natural organization (Öğüt and Öztürk, 2007). Barnard has revealed that the formal and natural organizations are strongly related to each other and stated that in case of negativity in any of them, the other would be affected and fail to maintain its integrity (Şener, 2005).

In order to ensure organizational efficiency, the bond between the formal organization and the informal natural organization should be firm, and it should function in a way that affects the organization positively. According to Barnard, natural organizations have three essential functions. First, the natural organization is used as a means of interaction among employees in the formal organization. Second, it increases compliance with the formal organization by increasing employees' commitment to their work. Third, it protects employees' self-esteem and individual integrity. As can be seen, the second function should be underlined because, like Follet, Barnard is also looking for a solution that will enable the employees to serve the organization willingly and approve the work they do. Participation is meaningful only when it plays a role in intra-organizational harmony and employee willingness (Şener, 2005).

As it is known, the outcomes of the Hawthorne experiment prove that the participation changes proportionally with the intra-organizational harmony and willingness. This experiment was conducted by a team led by Elton Mayo in the Hawthorne workshops of an electric company in Chicago, USA, in a period covering the late 1920s and early 1930s (Çevik, 2012). Elton Mayo's and his team's interpretation of the experiment using numerical data showed that physical elements of the working environment did not significantly increase the employees' efficiency. However, employees' social interactions with their teammates were effective in productivity. Workshop workers who take orders focus on the work; the factors such as reinforcement due to increased production, job satisfaction, etc., affect production positively. Being respected by the people at the workplace as an individual, feeling a sense of belonging to the group, being rewarded for their achievements, disposition to group work, and willingness to cooperate with other members are the factors that determine the quality of the work done. In the Hawthorne experiment, Mayo and his group focused on the production-oriented behaviors of people in organizations and the effects of intra-organizational relations. According to the outcomes, measures should be taken to reduce employees' physiological and psychological fatigue in organizations; group work and cooperation should be developed, and communication between subordinates and superiors should be reinforced (Aktan, 2011).

The findings of Elton Mayo and his group show that the employee's willingness increases productivity, as suggested by Barnard and Follet. Considering the human being as a social entity and the manager's approach in this direction give meaning to participation in the context of organizational efficiency. In this sense, Barnard directly relates productivity and participation. Barnard states that productivity is related to meeting the basic individual motives of the

cooperators; an organization must first be an organization consisting of employees ready for cooperation to ensure its continuity. For Barnard, effectiveness refers to achieving predetermined goals. On the other hand, efficiency describes the volunteering of the organization's employees in terms of performing in line with the organization's goals. Therefore, volunteering to achieve a goal or employees' belief that a goal can be transformed into a product constitutes the basis of this concept. However, Barnard does not consider individuals' readiness for cooperation regarding beliefs and attitudes to be sufficient. Because this state of readiness may change over time, thus, managers should ensure the organization's continuity by taking measures to make employees' motivation permanent (Şener, 2005).

The scientists and their views before 1970 emphasized the relationship between participation and productivity. However, this emphasis gains importance when participation is seen as a tool that increases productivity. After 1970, participation has become a goal rather than a tool in public administration political science members' approaches. The pluralism approach played a vital role in the process of becoming a goal.

3. PLURALISM AND SOCIAL CONTROL

The concept that needs to be defined first in developing the understanding of pluralism is the pluralist democracy. According to Özbudun (2013), political power should not receive power from a single center; it should distribute its power to different centers and balance the power distribution between centers. Only with such a distribution can we speak of pluralistic democracy. In addition, Fendoğlu (2015) stated that pluralistic democracy includes protecting the rights of relatively minority groups and allowing those who think differently to express their thoughts freely and organize (Güçyetmez, 2017). Pluralism, which is looking from the perspective of pluralist democracy, is a concept based on accepting the multi-layeredness of societies. The reflections of each layer can also be seen in the political decision processes, and public expectations of different groups are included in this process (Köker, 2006). The concepts of pluralist democracy and pluralism care about social differences and argue that these differences should be included in the administration. According to Dahl, although democracy theories focus on control mechanisms and the distribution of power, the importance of the factors affecting the society has been skipped. However, the changes made in the administrative dimension do not make any sense if social control is not established (Zabcı, 1999). The radical approach promotes public participation in decision-making of central importance (Dunleavy, 1982). Dahl, who advocates equal participation in decision-making processes and pluralism, states that governments should get approval when making decisions in policy-making. Governments that do not rely on consent are deprived of individual freedom; they may break the honor and dignity of people in society; moreover, decisions based on a single person's approval can serve personal interests (Şener, 2005).

Regarding the approval process of classical pluralism within the framework of the equality theory, in which there are ignored differences and class conflicts, but which is satisfactory according to Dahl, the more challenging situation for state administration is how to achieve the consent rather than why political decisions must be based on consent. He suggests that this problem can only be overcome by turning the disagreements into conclusions everyone approves of. In a way, the problem can be examined in the context of the decision-making process. In these circumstances, a decision-making mechanism must be decided and approved before the decision is put on the agenda. Thus, the result set as a decision would be approved by those who think otherwise. In this direction, the answer to "how the decision-making process should be" will find a solution within the concept of democracy (Şener, 2005). Dahl's idea that decision mechanisms should be built before making an important decision is directly related to consensus building idea, which Habermas associates with the concept of the public sphere. Individuals who come together through the public sphere and reach a common conclusion after discussing can continue addressing the topics on the agenda within certain principles.

4. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PUBLIC SPHERE AND PARTICIPATION

According to Dunleavy, what the public administration needs to do for a radical understanding is take a social position. At this point, the public administration attaches importance to "equal participation." The foundations of this concept are based on the views of Jürgen Habermas (Şener, 2005).

According to Habermas (1979), human activities differentiate two basic types: labor and interaction. Labor consists of all instrumental productive activities that allow human societies to exist and develop. On the other hand, interaction encompasses all the communicative actions involved in such communication, bringing society together and giving meaning to it (Dunleavy, 1982).

According to Habermas (2011), the interaction of individuals with the necessary competence towards consensus is defined as communicative action. When individuals take communicative action and establish verbal communication to compromise, it is essential that their speech be rational and not detached from reality. In the consensus process, people should express verbal statements that can move the consensus forward in accordance with the participants' reference area. The consensus reached in an environment where there is no doubt about the sincerity of mutual expressions will not disturb the individuals (Yıldırım, 2012). Habermas defines the public sphere as the discussion of themes related to society, aiming at the gain of the whole society. It would be correct to say that these discussions are based on individuals since people from the bourgeoisie initially took part in this formation. Thinking that the governors are responsible to the people, these people assumed the role of intermediary between the community and the state by following the principle of openness in discussion topics. Initially, the public sphere was a concept expressing the wish that state events and operational data be accessible and subject to control. It later turned into a concept that includes the freedom of expression guaranteed by laws and the transmission of ideas considering the agreed society's interests to the administrators (Özbek, 2004). Although the public sphere started with the bourgeoisie, it is not limited to this group. According to Habermas, who determined the essential characteristics of the public sphere, this concept, which is based on private individuals, is an action far from the state's control mechanism and does not consider personal/economic interests. The public sphere belongs to the private area. However, it is a field in which rationalist thinking is used to criticize policies related to the regulation of society and has a common set of institutional criteria. First, it is a set of social relations in which social status and titles are ignored. The equivalence criterion suggesting that everyone has equal freedom of expression replaced the tradition of higher-up and subordinate-superior relationships. Second, the issues that have never been questioned before can be brought to the agenda and questioned. Third, this area is open to the outside in principle. Although the public sphere initially tends not to include diversities, it cannot close itself completely. On the contrary, it should be open to anyone who wishes to participate in the discussion. Because if the community in a public sphere becomes institutionalized by a group of unchanging debaters, consensus will no longer form a public opinion (Ercins, 2013). In the concept of the public sphere, Habermas focused on the public interest, the non-state control in matters related to state policy, the freedom of discussion topics, the freedom of individuals in participation, and the equality and participation of individuals during discussions. In the discursive dimension of the public sphere, the discussion should be accessible to all and open to people of all statuses. In order for the result of such a discussion to represent the public, issues representing personal interests should not be on the agenda; status differences should not contribute positively or negatively to the argument of the idea, and the individuals in the discussion should negotiate by assuming that they are equal during the discussion (Özbek, 2004).

According to Benhabib (2006), the conception of participation, transformed with modernity, does not only occur within the framework of political issues. According to the

discursive public sphere, the principles of action in social and cultural fields should be determined through discussions. In this context, considering the multi-layered public structure and the number of individuals, the participatory approach of the discursive public sphere can contribute to the activation of liberal politics. According to the discourse theory, which aims to "form a discursive will," participation should exist in all areas of society. She emphasized that every individual who will be affected by the decision in the future should participate in the formation of action principles (Yükselbaba, 2008).

The conception of participation shaped by discourse theory includes intersubjectivity. Habermas aimed to provide a higher level of interaction with communication, which has the function of shaping each other and transferring experience, with the notion of intersubjectivity in the discursive public sphere (Yükselbaba, 2008). He points out that communication and "pure" communication can only be achieved under fundamental equality between the participants. Communication loses accuracy due to common meanings resulting from power differences or systematic distortions (Dunleavy, 1982).

Participants should have the opportunity to engage in intelligent and critical deliberation in the public sphere. At the end of the discussion, individuals should be able to reach a rational consensus. Individuals must get to know each other before the discussion begins when participation that possesses these characteristics is aimed. According to Connolly (1995), participants in public debate "expand opportunities for reckoning with the connective and contingent features of the identities that compose them," which creates the preconditions for a respectful conflict between the parties mutually accepting the controversial character of the beliefs that guide and define them relative to each other (Yükselbaba, 2008).

The prerequisite of deliberative democracy[1] is the discourse theory. According to this theory, in societies whose public sphere is composed of different layers, arrangements should be made so that each individual affected by the decisions taken can freely express their opinion on the decision, regardless of the subject. There are qualities that the deliberative democratic process in which such arrangements are made must possess. These can be summarized as equal participation, equal opportunities for each individual during the discussion, questioning the agenda items, and criticism of the criteria set in the discourse. The debaters' agenda and personality are not limited as long as the person or group who is excluded or can be excluded in the discussion prove that they are negatively affected by the determined rules (Yükselbaba, 2008). According to Habermas, the community should contribute to every decision that concerns it; he has taken measures by enclosing the discussions in the decision-making process within the framework of specific rules. The right of each individual to express their opinion in the public sphere may let us think that the decisions taken by non-specialized people can be dangerous; however, the philosophy of "anything goes," which Feyerabend talks about science, allows us to see this risk factor as positive. According to Feyerabend, every thought that is meaningless, absurd, old, or new for someone can be a tool for developing our knowledge (Şener, 2007). Feyerabend suggests that everything, every step, every thought can positively affect the development of science. What is essential is not reducing the theories. On the contrary, increasing them will contribute positively, and insisting on any method or theory will dull science and create bigotry (Şener, 2005). He attaches importance to differences and argues that everyone should be given a voice for an idea they want to express; this is very important for the progress of humanity. Everyone should be given equal opportunities to express their ideas. When there is a problem related to the society in question, it should be asked to the public, rather than the experts engaged in so-called science but not connected with the society and unaffiliated by location (Şener, 2007). The attitude of such a movement towards reality and, therefore, towards the administration will create a new problem area. "This attitude, which does not accept any power groups, also shows the radicalism within postmodernism" (Şener, 2005). In the philosophy of "anything goes," Feyerabend states that in a free society, all segments have equal opportunities in terms of access to equal rights, educational opportunities, and other

power centers (Şener, 2007). The individual with equal participation and freedom of speech mentioned by Feyerabend in "anything goes" and the debaters mentioned by Habermas in the public sphere have similar characteristics.

"Many people consider the Habermasian idea of the public sphere as the critique of the liberal democracy existing under the conditions of today's capitalism and one of the indispensable concepts in the design and construction of radical or socialist democratic life" (Özbek, 2004). Habermas's idea of the public sphere and his conception of egalitarian participation was accepted by most people, but they were also criticized by others such as Fox, Miller, and Mouffe. Fox and Miller, who have the same perspective as Habermas, do not adopt the idea that the discussions will reach a consensus. According to Fox (2000), discourse is a set of ideas that occur between people; it may change depending on the situation and is based on interpretation. As a result, it is assumed that any idea that is agreed upon is open to a new discussion. Also, according to him, there are two options for consensus; overt repression or intentional exclusion, and there is no apparent net decision in public discourse (Şener, 2005).

According to Dunleavy (1982), the radical approach plays a central role in the emergence of crises. The crisis is not a collapse point. On the contrary, it is a turning point. Administrative crises are often interpreted as a reflection of social conflicts. The frequent occurrence of crises in liberal democracies is due to the extremely high levels of social conflict in such societies. In this context, Dunleavy emphasizes that social conflicts are a common situation in liberal societies and that the crises resulting from these conflicts are a tool for positive change for improvement. From this point of view, it can be said that agonistic discourse theory includes a radical approach. The agonistic model advocated by Mouffe states that any rational consensus is not real and should not occur. In this respect, the goal of politics is not reducing or eliminating the conflicts that are the basis of politics. The concept of self and other, used to express two opposing views, does not intend to create a self-other dichotomy. The self-other dichotomy does not dissociate groups to create a rational consensus in the public sphere but re-forms opposing ideas within the framework of democratic principles. Mouffe (Çelik, 2019) argues that in the case of discussions about society and politics, it is impossible to form a rational consensus. Therefore, the idea of seeking a consensus that can be reached without exclusion should be abandoned. Because the prerequisite for the existence of "self" is the existence of "other." What should be done is not to end the differences that form self and others fundamentally but ensure that this conflict continues within the framework of respect, adhering to democratic principles. The necessary condition for this is to adopt a pluralist approach and ensure that the efforts of groups that make up different segments continue, aiming to prevail over each other by adhering to democratic principles. According to Laclau and Mouffe (2017), it is impossible to break away from antagonism[2], and pluralism is accepted as an ethical principle in radical democracy. In this case, the destruction of the conflict is both an impossible situation and an undesirable outcome in democracy. Thinking that there is a definite solution to the current conflict is nothing more than risking democracy. Because conflict strengthens democracy, it is the conflict that ensures the survival and continuity of democracy in politics. The goal should be to direct the conflict to prevent it from becoming social chaos (Çelik, 2019).

According to Mouffe (2015), who addresses conflict and consensus together on the same ground, agonistic democracy requires accepting the requirements of liberal democracy and not troubling head about different evaluations of other perspectives in interpreting these requirements. Therefore, it is not possible to distinguish between consensus and conflict. In this context, the consensus between the debaters can be considered a conflicting consensus (Çelik, 2019). According to Üstüner (2007), agonistic politics impair the accepted conflict against liberal democratic principles, and it is expected to reach a consensus from the impaired conflict." Although Mouffe's criticism of deliberative democracy is based on Schmittian theses, she approaches the deliberative model with the agonistic model she proposes" (Steel, 2019). Mouffe, one of the advocates of radical democracy, argues that the self/other distinction is

necessary to reach consensus. She states that consensus cannot be reached without exclusion and allowing pluralism to be defeated by hegemony due to the necessity of the self/other distinction. The notions of pluralism, participation, and efficiency have been interpreted as tools in organizations from many perspectives, including classical theorists in the field of public administration (Doğan, 2017). In the 1970s, participation was considered one of the tools of democracy that legitimized the decisions taken in the organizational and social contexts. In this case, the critical point is that the conception of participation is designed under liberal democracy or within the framework of social values (Şener, 2005). With the progress of public administration discipline, participation has been added to the concept of efficiency by drawing attention to humanism in the organization's management (Doğan, 2017).

5. MINNOWBROOK MOVEMENT AND CHANGE IN THE PUBLIC SPHERE

According to Dunleavy (1982), radical approaches replacing bureaucracy are defined as broad socialist values. The governing and the governed parties fully acknowledge the liberal values. These values are democracy, free elections, free speech, and protection and sustainability of civil rights.

With Fredericson, productivity gained a new meaning, which we can call "social," defending the interests of the oppressed. In addition, steps were taken to turn efficiency from being a tool into a goal, and the foundation was established in the conference held by Frederickson, Waldo, and their friends. Frederickson focused on the concept of social equality in his studies. He integrated the concept of social equality with the classical public administration (Hergüner, 2017). This concept also expresses the management approach in which the governors who meet citizen needs are responsible to the citizens. It reshapes the concept of efficiency with this perspective. From this point of view, efficiency is not just a notion related to acting. Conditions were set for productivity to turn into social productivity (Şener, 2005).

Dwight Waldo invited a group of young academicians to the Minnowbrook conference. The reason for the invitation was to evaluate the public administration area, which is in crisis. The definitive shift of the public administration discipline to a value-centered approach emerged through these evaluations (Hergüner, 2017). The foundations of this approach were laid in 1968 with a conference organized by Frederickson, Henry Lambright, and Frank Marini under the leadership of Waldo. This approach is also referred to as the Minnowbrook Perspective, as expressed by Waldo. Minnowbrook is the name of the conference center at Syracuse University (Yalçın, 2010). The objective was to move towards a "more liberal and non-Marxist left orientation," as verbalized by Waldo, from the dominant thought, which ignores people and democracy and brings the problem of representation to the agenda (Özmen and Yılmaz, 2019). The social chaos environment experienced in America at that time due to economic problems was also frequently brought to the agenda at the conference. First, the classical public administration theories were rejected at the conference, and more rationalistic principles were put forward (Hergüner, 2017). According to Özer (2015), Waldo and some academicians from the field emphasized the inadmissibility of blurring the concepts such as equality, freedom, and justice, which are the pillars of democracy, in the face of the intense pressure of the efficiency principle, which contributed to the emergence of a different trend from the conception of classical public administration. The inadequacy of the traditional public administration - especially in the political arena, its aspects that hinder democratization within the organization, and the fact that it causes problems among individuals have also laid the groundwork for forming a new approach (Özer et al., 2019). The movement that sprouted with the Minnowbrook Conference in 1968 emphasized that public administration is a separate discipline from political science (Özmen and Yılmaz, 2019). According to Wright (2011), after the identity crisis debates addressed at this conference, public administration started to take place as an interdisciplinary field built on the values and approaches of different disciplines

(Hergüner, 2017). The concepts such as social equality and social equity constituted the root of reform of the sprouting new discipline as the main elements (Özmen & Yılmaz, 2019).

According to Marini and Fredericson, the main topics discussed at the Minnowbrook Conference were the social problems of the period, antipositivism, social relations, promoting creativity, putting democratic principles and the public administration system together, citizen-based responsibility, and social equality (Özgür, 2014).

The answers to the questions asked by the traditional public administration about efficiency and savings were sought. Regarding efficiency, the first question was how the state could raise public services to better standards with existing resources. The second question was how the service standards could remain at the same level despite reducing the cost of public services in terms of savings. Today's New Public Administration (NPA) has added a new question to these with a different perspective. It seeks to determine how the provided public services contribute to social equality (Hergüner, 2017). Social justice has a stronger meaning than the fair distribution of public services within the framework of equity (Şener, 2005). This issue was brought to the agenda at the Minnowbrook Conference. It was stated that solving the public service personnel's economic, environmental, and psychologically disturbing problems is as necessary as reducing social problems. In the following years, Carol Edlund also stated that raising the working standards in public working areas is an important step that needs to be taken to ensure social justice (Özgür, 2014).

Stilmann (2000) states that in the conference, a group of young academicians opposed the principles of efficiency, efficiency, and savings, which are at the core of the POSCORB[3] acronym, which has an important place in the classical conception of public administration. According to him, this group of young academicians also opposed the dominance of rational research techniques and strict empirical quantitative methodology used in the discipline. According to them, this stance in the public administration is too rationalist; thus, it suffocates humanism and social principles and is too dominant; thus, it overlooks differences. As the evaluation was only made from the institution's perspective, it has moved away from democracy and has come to a position that harms the society in a social sense (Hergüner, 2017). After the birth of this approach, especially in the 1980s and 90s, an increase occurred in the number of public administration researchers using value-centered thinking in their studies. As a result, although Herbert Simon's tendency to create a logical positivist-centered[4] public administration that overlooks society's value judgments has not entirely lost its effect in public administration, it is not the first approach that comes to mind when public administration is mentioned. With the approach that puts social values at the center of the public administration discipline, collecting and analyzing qualitative data has begun to play a more significant role in research. New Public Administration has never been seen as a holistic approach due to the ideas of its participants that create dilemmas from time to time (Hergüner, 2017). The concept of New Public Administration is a generic concept used worldwide. The concept became a reform movement started in the USA because the Minnowbrook conference was held there; it showed its effect first in English-speaking countries and then in other countries (Özer et al., 2019). The factors that cause the need for reform in public administration vary from country to country. However, three deficits (budget gap, performance gap, confidence gap) triggered and approved the initiation of this reform.

> *The budget gap refers to the deficit arising from welfare state practices. The performance gap is the view that the public sector is costly and inefficient, depending on the welfare state's budget deficits and the size of the public. On the other hand, the confidence gap can be expressed as dissatisfaction created by the budget and performance gaps. (Ozer et al., 2019).*

This generic concept is encountered in different practices of different ideologies in every country and has aspects agreed on by almost all countries; it does not differ apparently in terms of content. Common grounds include minimizing expenditures, privatizing public economic enterprises, reducing the share of public expenditures, attaching importance to competition, and differentiation of budget systems (Özer et al., 2019). The cause of the reform varies from country to country. In the USA, where the change first started seriously, the political crises experienced led to the formation of cynical and skeptical approaches towards the government. As a result of all these, the confidence in the existing public institutions has been lost. The main reasons for the USA's crisis were the excessive expenditures made in the past, the social problems that could not be solved, and the malfunctioning of the system. In this case, the discussion addressed the problems that need to be solved and the changes to be made in public administration practices to solve these problems (Özer et al., 2019). Today, NPA emphasizes the concept of social justice and has led to the use of this concept in public administration. According to Frederickson (2010), the notion of social justice constitutes the third fundamental concept of public administration. The first is efficiency, the second is savings, and the third is social justice, which has entered into the discipline with New Public Administration and keeping up to date. At the Minnowbrook Conference, Frederickson conducted academic studies on the role of social justice in different disciplines, their relations, and current and future roles (Hergüner, 2017). NPA was fundamentally opposed to the New Public Management principles and its client-based approach to individuals. With this opposition, NPA stated that public institutions and managers should adopt a citizen-oriented approach and should not deviate from the principles of democracy (Hergüner, 2017). In this context, the customer concept in public service provision and the customer concept in the private sector are different. The state does not seek profit in the provision of public services. It does not go beyond the service provided to meet the needs of society. The relationship emerging from this process is the public institution-citizen relationship (Özer et al., 2019). NPA has a structure that supports participation as a citizen, which foresees the individual's participation as an alternative to social designs. In another sense, it argues that individuals, who are the building blocks of society, should be at the forefront instead of mass domination (Özcan & Ağca, 2010). Although the New Public Administration rejects the customer-based approach today, it is heavily influenced by business management and uses concepts close to it. Business administration did not manage only by following the procedures as in the traditional public administration. Rather than simply obeying the procedures, it has many functions such as determining the objectives of the institution, determining the priorities, executing the objectives that are decided to be implemented, ensuring the efficiency of the qualified workforce, evaluating the labor productivity after the implementation and responsibility (Özer et al., 2019).

Young academicians participating in Brillantes and Fernandez's conference stated that the traditional public administration approach, which breaks its connections with values for objectivity, leads to the alienation of the lower strata of the society and, therefore, their problems continue. The advocates of the New Public Administration emphasized that individuals at the management level in public should set business and social justice principles as goals for themselves, and they should reflect these goals in their conception of the corporate management system without compromising both principles. The basic principle of this approach is the paradigm shift. What is difficult for public administrators is the necessity of developing and changing themselves in parallel with this shift (Hergüner, 2017). The New Public Administration (NPA), which was defined and entered the field with the Minnowbrook Conference and is often called the Minnowbrook Perspective, does not create options in a rational sense, but it provides a different perspective to public administration by bringing into question the outdated principles of the traditional public administration approach (Özmen and Yılmaz, 2019).

Until the end of the 19th century, governments were seen as the solution authority to the problems. In this process, the classical public administration approach continued to exist as a valid administration model. By the mid-1970s, countries could not escape the economic crisis (Özer, 2005). The countries' economies were negatively affected during the oil crisis, and the effect of the new right movement came to the fore (Arslan and Arslan, 2010). With the interruption of economic growth, the conception of the social welfare state began to disappear. Bureaucracy, which is seen as a requirement of the capitalist order, has become a barrier to production. Formalities and procedures, which are a sine qua non of bureaucracy, cause time loss and cost increase. Bureaucracy, which is used to ensure efficiency, becomes a factor that reduces efficiency (Özer et al., 2019). For this reason, the need to abandon welfare state policies and withdraw to their former borders has been added to the agenda of the states worldwide. In addition, ideas such as public institutions should strictly adhere to the principles of efficiency and implement the techniques and methods used in the private sector also entered the agenda (Özer, 2005).

The withdrawal of the state from economic activities is significant for individual and social welfare. According to Güler (2005), competition in the market can self-regulate social welfare. The state's intervention blocks the forces existing in the system and prevents personal initiatives. As a result of this artificial intervention, the welfare of both the individual and the society are at risk. The existing resources are used inefficiently under the effect of the state's bureaucratic structure. As a result, the state's initiatives to ensure welfare create a barrier to the economic development of the individual and society (Arslan and Arslan, 2010).

According to Haque, the theorists of the public choice approach suggest downsizing the public sector that becomes negative, strengthening the more efficient market, and applying market rules that the private sector follows in the administration of public institutions (Arslan and Arslan, 2010). In its current form, NPA has created a system based on public choice economics by a strict separation from the traditional public administration (Özer et al., 2019). According to Bayraktar (2003), the public choice theory is an economic theory that examines public institutions and private sector organizations from the same perspective. Its basic themes are concepts such as "benefit", "supply", "demand", "highest output" (Arslan & Arslan, 2010).

In the USA, a deterioration occurred in the relations during the Reagan period between those who were already a part of the bureaucratic staff and those who took office through elections. As a result of these deteriorations, those who took office through elections described the appointed people as public officials who only thought of their interests (Özgür, 2014). Hence, those appointed according to the public choice theory were rational actors who tried to put their interests at the top. When they are transferred from one field to another, there is no sufficient reason to shift from making decisions in line with their own interests to those that promote the public interest. This approach is skeptical, considering that public employees will act for their interests (Arslan & Arslan, 2010). In this context, maintaining human resources management in a public administration system that respects individual and social rights, excludes interest-oriented bureaucratic processes, and attaches importance to social justice, has become one of the issues on the agenda. From the perspective of the Minnowbrook Conference, this problem will be resolved if bureaucrats try to create an environment suitable for their subordinates to act in harmony and on the same ground with their core values and motives related to public policy (Özgür, 2014). There are serious doubts about bureaucratic management in public choice theory, and it is often interpreted negatively. The bureaucracy's efforts to increase its budget have led to the focus on public choice theory. The distinction and management styles between the public and private sectors have come to the fore again today (Arslan and Arslan, 2010).

According to Eryılmaz (2008), the NPA approach redefined the state's role. In this approach, the state's structure should regulate the relations between itself and the people,

markets, and the regime and take a proper position. In this case, the state should abandon welfare policies, withdraw to its own borders, use its power more effectively and efficiently, and take the necessary measures so that its people can participate in the administration (Eryılmaz, 2008). NPA and public choice intersect at this point. The public choice theory suggests that the state is not superfluous, but its duty should be determined by boundaries (Arslan and Arslan, 2010). The NPA paradigm says that the society's ability to have more free choices depends on reducing the state's economic intervention. In fact, the idea that "steering not rowing, result not process, production not policy, empowerment not power, cooperation not conflict" also affects our day (Özer et al., 2019).

Organizations under the influence of bureaucracy are criticized because of being born from a discipline and control approach, being away from flexibility, focusing on doing tasks rather than outputs, preventing entrepreneurship and inventiveness, and not allowing participation. Such criticisms are thought to create a solid tendency for transferring the rational view of the private sector to the public administration (Özer et al., 2019). According to Al, instead of Weber's bureaucracy, it adopted an approach that does not have strict rules, can change according to the market, depends on individual satisfaction, has a more straightforward decision-making process, is output-oriented, and values entrepreneurship. On the other hand, the entrepreneurship concept includes the combination of many abilities, such as taking the initiative, taking risks when necessary, and taking responsibility for their work. According to this approach, the techniques and knowledge developed by the private sector should be used to evaluate the performance of public administration and maximize its quality and efficiency (Özer, 2005). NPA comes from individual applications; it is an ongoing innovation process and is not a monolithic approach. Therefore, there are many different approaches to defining the concept of NPA. (Özer, 2005). NPA has not been a typical social sciences model, produced and studied using the deductive method. On the contrary, this approach was created by the inductive method based on examining specific cases. It is an innovative concept that has taken its place in the literature, and its development is still being continued (Özer et al., 2019).

With NPA, a shift occurred from the traditional conception of "administration" to the conception of "management." In this process, the administration approach, which means conducting the work within the framework of the rules and doing business only by following the instructions, was replaced by a management approach which is based on performance measurements, taking responsibility for the work done, using the resources under the principles of efficiency and economy, and determining the objectives and priority order according to the rational approach (Özer et al., 2019).

6. CONCLUSION

In order to evaluate the benefits of a radical approach in public administration, it is necessary to look at the basic features of the field in which it is applied. In this sense, the change parameter of Follet, Barnard, and Mayo for productivity focuses on social relations and cooperation. The classical management approach's conception of order and obedience should now be left behind, and the cooperation-based management approach, in which intra-organizational harmony comes to the fore, should be adopted. This issue has a character that points out the postmodern period. Exceptionalism and community orientation allowed the development of the public interest. Internal decision-making processes should be evaluated and associated with specific criteria so that the people with different opinions respect the decision taken and reach a consensus. The idea of the public sphere, which started with the bourgeoisie in Habermas, has expanded its influence and transformed into the discursive public sphere. This concept, which has developed with the understanding of egalitarian participation, aims at equality for everyone and achieving consensus in a setting free of status; but this will not be possible in practice. Another criticism directed at the concept is that opposing ideas cannot be born without the others. Although the concepts of the public sphere and agonistic discourse

seem to be opposing, they defend democracy with similar perspectives because the agonistic discourse approaches deliberative democracy, which is one of the basic thesis of the public sphere, with the idea it asserts. These theories and concepts contributed to the development of the 1980s' American pragmatism and were discussed after 1980. With Simon's conception of logical positivism, the transformation of public administration discipline, which experienced an identity crisis from the 1940s to the 1960s and existed as a theme under political sciences, was realized with the New Public Administration. The most significant contribution to this transformation is the Minnowbrook conference and Waldo et al. After the Minnowbrook conference, many academic studies were published, and the New Public Administration approach was rooted. Regarding the development of this conception, perspective on economic conditions and requirements formed the basic principles of the approach. The countries whose economies were affected by the financial crises have turned to privatization by abandoning the welfare state approach under the effect of the new rights movement. In this context, the most appropriate solution for the crisis period was the New Public Administration. As a result, the crisis has brought an improvement with it.

[1]According to Derdiman (2006), deliberative democracy is based on an approach that prioritizes mutual negotiations and consultation in the establishment of institutions and rules and solving all kinds of problems.

[2] Democratic logic is always built on the boundary between those who belong to the demos and those who do not. The existence of the self/other dichotomy is the basis of the antagonistic conception of politics (Çelik, 2019).

[3] In his theory, Glucick increased the five management principles to seven and systematized them as POSCORB (planning, organization, staff management, coordination, orientation, reporting, budgeting) (Özer, 2015).

[4] Logical positivism suggests focusing on propositions that exhibit a scientific approach, based on justifications to know and question. The emphasis on rationality suggests that a distinction must be made between facts and values. According to this approach, facts are empirical and scientifically verifiable (Hergüner, 2017).

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Durkheim: Progression, Morality, Division Of Labor, Nation, Individual And Collectivity

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Introduction

Emile Durkheim is one of the prominent figures in the field of sociology. However, his ideas hold significant importance in various disciplines of social sciences such as political science. Durkheim, with his views, attempted to systematize a new understanding of morality in a changing world. His ideas have been influenced by the environment in which France finds itself. Widespread dissatisfaction, violence, and chaos were prevalent in French society. Conflicts among various groups such as conservatives, secularists, catholics, monarchists, and liberals were disrupting social order. In 1870, France was defeated by Germany and suffered significant losses in World War I. As a result of internal turmoil (conflicts) and the incurred losses, France experienced a moral crisis (depression). Durkheim sought to provide a solution to the moral crisis (Pope, 2008: 76-77). Like Saint-Simon, Comte, Weber, and Marx, Durkheim also investigated the sources of social problems. He aimed to explain the emerging social order (Giddens, 1986: 11-13), thereby establishing the foundations for social order. According to him, societies are dependent on the effects of a law called the "division of labor" (Durkheim, 2020: 63).

Durkheim stated that the characteristics of division of labor changed according to the conditions of the time in which societies exist. He explained this difference with the concepts of "mechanical solidarity" and "organic solidarity". In both cases, although the form of solidarity changes, its existence persists. All biological or social forms of life are regulated by specific principles. The existence of any type of community depends on being regulated by moral rules (Giddens, 1986: 10). Durkheim indicates the emergence of new processes such as industrialization, large-scale production, extensive capital, division of labor, and increasing specialization. These changes, which are not limited to the economy, affect functions in political, administrative, judicial, artistic, and scientific domains, leading to increased specialization in these areas (Durkheim, 2020: 63-64). The division of labor, which arises independently from human intelligence and will, also affects our moral structure (Durkheim, 2020: 65). According to Durkheim, individuals tend to transform this natural law (division of labor) into a definite rule of morality and accept it as a duty (2020: 66). Consequently, just like changes occurring in all domains, there is also change in the moral sphere. The understanding of morality, which used to be one-sided and independent of the person, is increasingly diversifying. Individuals, in addition to the unique characteristics of being human, also acquire the obligation to acquire the skills required by their work. The new imperative of moral conscience is for individuals to put themselves in a position to perform a specific task effectively. What is expected of individuals is to consolidate their activities into a concentrated sphere rather than spreading them over a wide area, thereby gaining intensity in terms of focus (Durkheim, 2020: 66-67). He has explained all of these ideas through the concepts of progress, change, individual and collectivity, morality, and nation.

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Progression and Contradiction

Durkheim states that societies have a variable nature since the social environment is constantly in flux. The source of progression lies in the continuous change of societies. As society changes, individuals also undergo change. Therefore, individuals, like societies, are subject to change because they are dependent on social causes. Society is a reality in which individuals must adapt to in order to live (Durkheim, 2020: 395-396). Within societies, the collective influence (imitation) of individuals upon each other leads to mutual change (Durkheim, 2013: 100).

Societal variability is the source of individual differences. In a society, as the intensity of social life increases, development also increases. The source of development lies in the density of individuals involved in relationships and the material and spiritual proximity among these individuals. At the core of development lies social breadth and intensity. The development of civilization is also dependent on the increase in social density. Thus, the "division of labor" that Durkheim mentioned is formed. Civilization does not have an inherent and absolute value on its own. The division of labor exists as long as it is necessary for civilization to exist. As the number of individuals increases, each individual needs to specialize more, work more, and develop their abilities further in order to sustain their existence. This leads to the progress of cultures and the development of civilization (Durkheim, 2020: 388-389). The ability of individuals to adapt to the new conditions in which societies exist requires the expansion and enlightenment of both individual and social conscience. However, the environment in which societies exist is becoming increasingly complex and dynamic. As societies grow and develop, traditions inevitably become less resistant to individual differences and become more flexible. This situation requires societies to undergo frequent changes in order to sustain their existence (Durkheim, 2020: 77-78; Giddens, 1986: 14). As the process of evolution progresses, the bonds that connect an individual to their family, place of birth, common traditions, and customs loosen. As the individual becomes more dynamic, they are more inclined to change their surroundings. They may leave their loved ones behind and migrate to other places in order to live a more autonomous life. They begin to shape their own thoughts and emotions. Thus, collective consciousness gradually weakens but does not completely disappear. For example, respect for individual dignity always remains (Durkheim, 2020: 455). For morality to remain unchanged, it means that the individual remains connected to the community through an equal power as in the past. In this case, the individual's ties to the past would be stronger and more numerous, keeping them connected to their roots. In this case, the strength and number of bonds that connect the individual to the past would be greater. However, if morality were to solely arise from similarities, then when primitive societies disintegrate, morality would also cease to exist. In such a scenario, individuals would not be adequately restrained. The influence of society, which restricts selfishness and transforms the individual into a moral being, would diminish. However, in advanced societies, the continuity of morality is sustained through division of labor. Each individual, through division of labor, rediscovers their connection to society. Division of labor becomes a primary source of social solidarity and forms the foundation of moral order (Durkheim, 2020: 456). In societies where mechanical solidarity prevails, individuals are subjected to the same values and norms within the "collective conscience". Individuals are integrated into the group in a mechanical manner, that is, naturally and without the need for reintegration. In contrast, advanced societies transition from mechanical solidarity to organic solidarity, which is based on differentiation. Highly Specialized professions emerge, and many other social functions become distinct from one another. People become separated from each other through the division of specialized fields. However, in this case, individuals become interdependent. Thus, social solidarity, unlike mechanical solidarity, relies on the interdependence among individuals that arises from the division of labor (Karlsson and Månson, 2017: 31). According to Durkheim, in advanced societies, the duty of the individual is not to expand their sphere of activity, but rather to

concentrate and specialize. The state of specialization should be advanced to the extent that is necessary, not to the furthest extent possible, without any arbitrary limitations imposed by society (Durkheim, 2020: 456-457). As societies progress, they undergo different forms of transformation, and in this transformation, the role of the individual also changes. This change occurs in the moral domain as well, but morality continues to exist in a different form, just like society. In advanced societies, the focus is on intensifying and specializing one's activities rather than expanding them. The condition of specialization should be advanced to the extent that is necessary, without arbitrary constraints, until it reaches the highest level that is required (Durkheim, 2020: 456-457). As societies evolve, they take on different forms, and in this transformation, the role of the individual also changes. This change also takes place in the moral domain, but morality continues to exist in a different form, much like society itself.

In Durkheim's thought, there is a progression from solidarity based on similarity to solidarity based on difference. How can both similarity and difference create solidarity? Durkheim seeks to answer this question by examining the source of love and harmony. By providing examples from thinkers such as Aristotle, Euripides, and Heraclitus, Durkheim (2020: 81) attempts to demonstrate the role of harmony and disharmony in the division of labor. Aristotle stated, love originates from similarity according to some, while others argue that similarity gives rise to disharmony. Heraclitus expresses that the most beautiful harmony arises from disharmony and that disharmony is the law of existence (Aristotle, 1999: 120; Durkheim, 2020: 81). According to Durkheim, humans are dualistic beings consisting of two consciousnesses with different aims (Durkheim, 2016: 174). In Plato's work "Lysis", it is mentioned that the like is friendly to the like (Plato, 2006: 214). Similarly, Homer expresses that God unites those who resemble each other (Homer, 2008: 289). Durkheim synthesizes these two opposing views. According to him, both similarity and dissimilarity can be causes of mutual attraction. However, he does not include all forms of opposition in this notion. Attraction based on differences is not exclusionary. These differences are not mutually exclusive but complementary to each other. Each individual has a unique function. As a result, small friendship groups are formed consisting of individuals who mutually serve each other. One protects, the other sustains; one guides, the other implements. This division of labor, or division of tasks, is the reason that forms the bonds of affection. As a result of the division of labor, economic services are also realized. However, what is even more important is the moral impact it creates. The real great function of the division of labor is to evoke a sense of solidarity between two or more individuals (Durkheim, 2020: 82-83). The importance of division of labor is not primarily to increase the efficiency of differentiated functions among individuals. The true importance of division of labor lies in fostering solidarity among individuals. Division of labor makes the existence of societies possible; otherwise, societies cannot exist (Durkheim, 2020: 87). The less encounters there are among members of a society, the more disconnected and weak their bonds become. When social solidarity is strong, individuals are strongly oriented towards each other and develop close relationships (Durkheim, 2020: 91-92). In this sense, division of labor brings about social harmony. Division of labor is not a labor theory. In fact, Durkheim does not attempt to explain the concept of work. Division of labor is a biological process that exists alongside life. It facilitates the division of tasks, which in turn increases social solidarity and transforms into a moral function. The division of tasks is more important than the tasks themselves. Durkheim's primary focus is social integration (Karlsson and Manson, 2017: 112-115). In this sense, societies progress from a form of solidarity based on similarity to a form of solidarity based on difference. Differences bind the members of a society together.

Division of labor and its nature

According to Durkheim, society consists of positive or negative cooperation. Following in Spencer's (1981: 109) path, Durkheim emphasizes that individuals need to establish

relationships with their peers in order to sustain their lives and compete with their rivals (Durkheim, 2020: 393). Division of labor can occur among the members of an established society (Durkheim, 2020: 320). Division of labor means the sharing of collective functions that were previously held in common. However, this sharing does not occur according to a preconceived plan. Differentiation and specialization occur in a particular task based on numerous different circumstances. For two complementary parts to form a division of labor, there must be constant communication between the specialized parts. This is because one part must take over the function left by the other and adapt to each other. Thus, individuals in constant interaction form a collective society. At the core of the division of labor among individuals are not material needs but rather spiritual bonds. Durkheim finds the idea that social order is based on a social contract formed by free and competing individuals insufficient. Contracts are expected to occur in a place where a legal order, and thus a society, already exists. Therefore, the division of labor does not signify the foundation of social life. The foundation of the division of labor is not the collaboration of independent and differently talented individuals coming together before society. Instead, it is based on the differences that emerge during the societal stage. The division of labor can emerge within society under the pressure of social sentiments and needs (Durkheim, 2020: 321-322). Indeed, Durkheim's approach is concerned with the issue of social variability and transformation (Malczewski, 2018: 56).

Spencer (1891: 265-308) stated that in order for society to exist, there is a need for individuals who are interconnected and cooperate (Spencer, 1981: 5, 441) with each other (Swingewood, 1998: 76). Durkheim, following in the footsteps of Auguste Comte, does not accept cooperation as a prerequisite for the existence of society. On the contrary, the existence of cooperation is dependent on society being previously and spontaneously established. It is mechanical causes and spiritual forces that hold people together as a group. Factors such as blood ties, attachment to the same land, ancestor worship, and common habits are the reasons that bring people closer to each other. Cooperation can be organized only after the existence of clusters formed on such foundations. First, a mass is formed, and then cooperation arises as a result of movements within the cluster. Once cooperation emerges, it strengthens social ties and gives the society a more competent identity. In order for social units to differentiate from each other, they need to be drawn to each other and cluster together initially due to their similarities. This process occurs not only at the beginning but at every stage of evolution. In summary, in order for the differentiation necessary for division of labor to occur, individuals need to mix with each other within a shared consciousness. (Durkheim, 2020: 323). Once society is formed, division of labor takes place. In order to talk about division of labor, there needs to be the development of different related specializations among individuals. As society forms and density increases among individuals, the autonomous individual begins to specialize in a particular field. This situation leads to mutual solidarity among individuals.

The reason why division of labor leads to solidarity is because it creates a system of rights and obligations that constantly connect individuals to each other. Division of labor establishes the rules that enable the harmonious and orderly competition of divided activities. It primarily brings together social functions rather than individuals. However, the form in which these functions are perceived is related to society. For the healthy continuity of society, competition among individuals must be regulated. However, the presence of rules alone is not sufficient. The rules must also be fair. Therefore, the external conditions of competition should be equal. In fact, what determines the morality of organized societies is their rationality and humanity (Durkheim, 2020: 462-463).

Division of labor emerges in places where societies exist. The most distinct characteristic of societies is their possession of collective consciousness. However, as division of labor develops within a society, collective consciousness diminishes. Therefore, Durkheim attempted to revitalize forms of collective consciousness (Malczewski, 2018: 56). As collective consciousness declines, division of labor advances and becomes a new source of solidarity. The

stronger the collective consciousness, the more challenging the progress of division of labor becomes. For division of labor to advance, individuals need to establish harmony with their personal environment, and everyone should be free to adapt to this environment. Even though the entire collective does not move simultaneously and in the same direction, each individual should be able to act independently. In order for the conditions that give rise to division of labor to emerge, laws and customs should not rigidly enforce the inalienability and indivisibility of property. Otherwise, each family would be engaged in working on inherited property, and everyone would be involved in the same occupation. In such a situation, specialization and differentiation would not be possible (Durkheim, 2020: 329-330). On the other hand, factors such as guilds, religion, and the influence of a particular ideology have a significant impact on the relationship between the individual and the community. They ensure the continuity of collective consciousness. In these types of societies, the individual is dissolved within the community. Therefore, the complete independence of the individual is not emphasized. However, with the decline of collective consciousness, the independence of the individual increases, and it progresses in an orderly manner along with division of labor (Durkheim, 2020: 332-333). Another factor influencing the individuation of the individual is the size of the society. In smaller communities, the development of collective consciousness is much easier. This is because living conditions are nearly identical. They experience the same sun and rain, and consume the same resources such as water and food. Therefore, the development of collective consciousness is facilitated. Living in the same environment leads to shared impressions in each individual. However, as societies expand to larger areas, collective consciousness undergoes a transformation. In this case, collective consciousness seeks to dominate the expanding and diversifying domain. Local differences are transcended, and it gradually takes on a more abstract form. Initially concrete phenomena such as religion, law, and morality become more abstract and universal as society expands. Rules that initially develop based on local conditions, ethnicity, and climatic conditions start to acquire more general qualities. Formalism recedes, making way for generalization. As civilization progresses, sentiment gives way to rationality. As collective consciousness becomes more universal, it allows for greater individual variability. When collective consciousness becomes more rational, it becomes less coercive, facilitating the free development of individual variability (Durkheim, 2020: 333-337). Yet collective consciousness is formed slowly and changes slowly. Collective consciousness is a product of the past. Special respect is given to what comes from the past. An important respect is formed towards a practice that everyone follows unanimously. The influence of collective consciousness largely stems from tradition, but as society becomes more fragmented, the influence of tradition also diminishes. However, in communities based on family or kinship ties, overcoming the boundaries that bind members to each other is more difficult. In such cases, families form larger, cohesive, and insular units. As a result, the boundaries that separate different parts of society begin to fade. Individuals want to move to different regions due to the limitations of their place of birth. However, migration is only possible to the extent of the freedom that presents itself to individuals. As freedom is provided, children no longer feel a sense of attachment to the place where their parents live and spread to different regions for better opportunities. This leads to increased migration, and with increasing migration, cities emerge (Durkheim, 2020: 337-339). Cities are spaces where dynamism increases and traditions gradually weaken. This is because the generations migrating to cities are gradually distancing themselves from the traditions and the older generations who transmit them. The older generations are witnesses to the ancestors, and they are the most important link between the present and the past. Children are aware of their own smallness in the presence of the elderly. They feel dependent on the elderly in their surroundings and hold deep respect for them. This respect encompasses everything the elderly leave behind and say. Age represents the power of tradition. For innovations to occur in society, the new generations need to liberate themselves from the influence of the previous generations' wrong habits, not just by enlightening themselves. With migration, the new generations distance

themselves from the influence of the older generations. However, there are also elderly people in the place of migration. But these elderly individuals are not the ones who have had an influence on the childhood of the new generation. Therefore, the respect and reverence of the young towards the elderly in cities are more symbolic in nature. The young generations that migrate to cities are at an age where they do not want to be restricted and are eager for change (Durkheim, 2020: 340-342). Therefore, cities are the nests of progress. All new developments such as thoughts, fashions, customs primarily emerge in large cities and then spread to other parts of the country over time. The transformation of society also usually occurs after the changes in cities. Thoughts in cities are naturally oriented towards the future. As a result, life undergoes rapid change. Beliefs, tastes, and passions are constantly evolving. Therefore, the power of tradition constantly diminishes in these areas. This weakening is a consequence of the conditions that dominate historical development (Durkheim, 2020: 343-344).

Non-Solidarity Division of Labor

For the continuity of social solidarity, division of labor should not be pathological. Abnormal or pathological division of labor does not lead to social cohesion (Karlsson and Manson, 2017: 114). For example, when there is no moral integration among different professional organizations, anomie arises. In this regard, professional associations have significant responsibilities. The primary function of professional associations is to strengthen ethical regulation and promote organic solidarity. In modern societies, professional organizations have become the place where social solidarity is learned, transitioning from the family. Professional groups are close enough to inspire direct trust in individuals. Additionally, these associations are influential groups that can shape an individual's perspective. Trade unions that are constantly in conflict with employers cannot fulfill this social need. Indeed, they are more loosely organized (Giddens, 1973: 103).

There are various forms of pathological division of labor. Firstly, abnormal situations can arise in economic life. As the division of labor increases, there may be an increase in crises within industrial organizations and a contradiction between labor and capital, which turns the division of labor into a pathological state (Durkheim, 2020: 406; Karlsson and Manson, 2017: 114). While the specialization of industrial jobs increases solidarity, it also leads to an increase in conflicts between classes. Unlike the medieval worker who lived alongside their master under similar conditions, in the modern era, a deep division has emerged between masters, journeymen, and workers. Journeymen and workers are like separate guilds, with their own habits, rules, and independent associations. When these groups feel they have been treated unfairly, they can collectively take a stance by going on strike (Durkheim, 2020: 406-407). Secondly, the increasing specialization in science makes organic solidarity more difficult (Karlsson and Manson, 2017: 114). While the diversity of functions is beneficial and necessary, it leads to the disintegration of unity. In this case, the independent organ within the social organism, namely the state or government, is responsible for maintaining the unity of differentiated functions (Durkheim, 2020: 410-411). Thirdly, a division of labor based on lawlessness cannot create social solidarity. In such a situation, the relationships between organs are not regulated. Division of labor requires individuals to not only focus on their own work area but also to follow, influence, and be influenced by the people they work with. Individuals must have a sense of where their actions are leading and perceive that they are contributing to something (Durkheim, 2020: 425). Another reason why division of labor does not lead to solidarity is class struggle. It occurs when individuals do not conform to their functions because they are forcibly imposed on them. Relying solely on rules is not sufficient for the division of labor to be effective. These rules must also be healthy. Lower classes who are dissatisfied with the work assigned to them seek to perform the forbidden functions and take them away from those who currently perform them. This leads to conflicts regarding the division of labor. No one is destined for a particular job. However, our choices are limited by our preferences and

abilities. For solidarity to develop, it is not enough for everyone to have a job; rather, everyone must do a job that is suitable for them (Durkheim, 2020: 427-428). Lastly, division of labor does not create solidarity when there is a lack of sufficient jobs. Specialized sectors must have functional activities. Having a regulatory activity alone is not enough. Additionally, jobs need to be distributed in a way that allows everyone to have sufficient engagement, and the functional effectiveness of all workers must be enhanced (Durkheim, 2020: 443-444).

Morality

Human beings are creatures with the ability to think. Through this ability, humans create concepts and establish laws. They preserve the past and also exert control over the future. It is with this characteristic that humans differ from animals. These attributes that humans possess arise from the continuous change in the social environment (Durkheim, 2020: 399). As societies change, there are also changes in laws and the nature of morality. When discussing a moral situation, an immoral situation will also be mentioned. As in Hegel's thought based on opposition (Hegel, 1940: 75), a dualistic relationship emerges. Durkheim divides phenomena into two categories: those that are as they should be and those that should be different from what they are. These are normal phenomena and pathological phenomena, respectively (Durkheim, 2015: 61). Durkheim is concerned with what is normal. For this reason, the criterion of generality and normality of phenomena must be taken into account (Durkheim, 2015: 80). The duty of a statesman is also based on the same principle. Their task is not to forcefully push societies towards an appealing ideal. Their duty is similar to that of a doctor. It is to prevent diseases through good healthcare and to heal them when they arise (Durkheim, 2015: 81).

It is conceived that human beings consist of two radically heterogeneous entities: the soul and the body (Durkheim, 2016: 162). The body is learned through sensory experiences and is an inseparable part of the material universe. The soul, on the other hand, possesses a divine quality and inspires emotions. In this sense, human nature exhibits a dualistic characteristic. Human intelligence also exhibits a similar duality. One form of intelligence includes senses and sensory inclinations, while the other form includes conceptual thinking and moral activities. Our sensory appetite is egoistic, encompassing individualism and serving individualistic purposes. Moral activities, however, pursue non-personal objectives. Morality begins with the attachment to something beyond ourselves (Durkheim, 2016: 163). Therefore, these two aspects of spiritual life, the personal and the non-personal, are as much antagonistic to each other as they are to ourselves. In this distinction, sensory perceptions and concepts hold significant positions. Sensory perceptions are unique to each individual, whereas concepts are specific to the majority of humans. Concepts are formed through words. The vocabulary and grammar of a language are far from being the product of a single individual. They are the result of collective elaboration, representing anonymous collectivity. When thinking through the concepts received from society, individuals personalize them; however, there is nothing personal that is not susceptible to this kind of personalization (Durkheim, 2016: 164). In this sense, on one hand, we have our individuality and our body as its foundation. On the other hand, there exists within us something that represents the rest, something other than ourselves. An antagonism arises between these two aspects; they mutually contradict and reject each other. Therefore, we cannot pursue moral purposes without causing internal division or discomforting our instincts and passions deeply rooted in our bodies. We cannot live without offering ourselves to the surrounding world and all kinds of objects that fill it. By offering ourselves to it, it enters us and becomes a part of us. Hence, we value the world (Durkheim, 2016: 165). Human beings have two senses in order to think both as individuals and in universal (non-personal) terms. The first is called sensitivity, while the second is called common sense (Durkheim, 2016: 170). Common sense exhibits a social nature. The social arises from the minds and individualities of every person, forming itself through mutual influence. Thus, collective ideals emerge. Although they may be our own, they speak to us with a tone that differs from our own consciousness.

They command us and impose respect upon us. In this situation, we feel that what is superior to us represents something within ourselves (Durkheim, 2016: 174).

Durkheim argues that while progress in areas such as industry, science, and art has brought about a new form of division of labor, progress itself does not inherently bring happiness and morality. Durkheim has observed that economic progress, which accompanies civilization, not only fails to contribute to the progress of morality but also correlates with higher crime rates and suicide rates, especially in large industrial centers. Despite the advancements in the economic field and lifestyle, these developments do not inherently bring about moral obligations. In other words, economic progress and material improvements do not automatically lead to the development of a strong moral framework or sense of moral responsibility. Durkheim indeed suggests that nations possess a moral consciousness, and he even goes so far as to describe this consciousness as infallible. According to Durkheim, this moral consciousness prioritizes justice over all industrial advancements. This consciousness somewhat prioritizes justice over all industrial advancements. While industrial activities may have their own purpose in fulfilling certain needs, these needs themselves lack inherent moral qualities. According to Durkheim, morality is a necessity of a society's ability to live, and it encompasses more than what is minimally acceptable. Morality is essential for human beings and is as important as the daily bread they require (Durkheim, 2020: 77-78). In other words, Durkheim emphasizes that moral values and considerations should not be overshadowed or neglected by the mere pursuit of industrial progress. In the modern age, the characteristic problem faced by the formation of moral authority is the confrontation between egoism and moral individualism. In this period, the moral authority of traditional societies, where individuality is suppressed, is entirely incompatible with highly differentiated modern societies (Giddens, 1986: 11). The relationship between civilization and morality stems from the division of labor making civilization possible. Civilization does not have inherent and absolute value on its own. The value of civilization arises from fulfilling certain needs. However, these needs themselves are the result of the division of labor (Durkheim, 2020: 80). Spiritual and social life, therefore, takes primary importance (Durkheim, 2020: 325), allowing for the existence of social order.

Morality is the situation where each individual realizes the fundamental characteristics of the common type within themselves. This holds true for both primitive societies and advanced societies. However, in primitive societies, moral rules are enforced most rigorously. In these societies, the primary duty is for everyone to conform. There is no personal distinction in belief and practice within these communities. In advanced societies, the desired similarities are fewer in number. However, even in these societies, certain similarities exist, and the absence of these few similarities is considered a flaw. Whether in primitive or advanced societies, morality is a shared element. Morality requires individuals to embody what it means to be human and encompasses all thoughts and emotions that constitute human conscience. The individual conscience that each person must actualize within themselves is, in reality, the collective conscience of the community they belong to. This conscience is formed by the deepest thoughts and emotions to which one is profoundly connected (Durkheim, 2020: 451).

For Durkheim, society is a necessary condition of morality. In fact, individuals are moral beings only because they live within a society. Moral conduct arises from being in a state of solidarity within a community and varies accordingly. In this sense, society does not arise from the coming together of individuals who bring inner morality to it. At the core of society lies the solidarity between its parts. Morality is observed only within the social environment. It cannot be discussed as an individual morality concept with its purpose and subject being solely the individual and consisting of obligations that bind only oneself. The duties of the individual towards oneself are, in reality, duties towards society. These duties are certain common sentiments that cannot be violated by the individual. What is referred to as individual morality is the respect shown to human dignity. (Durkheim, 2020: 454-455). The control of egoism is achieved through discipline. Discipline is the fundamental characteristic of the state or other

institutions (all moral authority). Discipline is not an obstacle to self-realization for individual (Giddens, 1986: 10). This is because respect for human dignity benefits every individual.

The value of morality does not stem from it being more authoritative, rigid, or inhibiting of thought. Its value arises from its capacity to bind individuals to something beyond themselves. However, this binding does not require the individual to restrict themselves to the point of immobilization (Durkheim, 2020: 464). In fact, the egoism found in individuals is largely a product of society. Durkheim's moral individualism emphasizes the abstract values that highlight the dignity and worth of the individual. Individuals apply these values both for others and for themselves. As a result, they become more sensitive to both the emotions and needs of others and themselves (Giddens, 1986: 10). In this way, both social order is maintained, and the self-realization of the individual becomes possible.

Freedom and the Advancement of Individual Rights

As societies expand and centralize, the autonomy of the individual increases. In such centralization, the individual is less under control, allowing for easier manifestation of opposing tendencies. Conversely, in small towns, those who seek to deviate from traditions and customs encounter strong reaction. Independent action is seen as shameful by public condemnation, and individuals who face public censure are deprived of the freedom to act. In contrast, the situation is different in large cities. Here, individuals have liberated themselves to a greater extent from societal constraints, as public scrutiny cannot be as close. As social clusters expand and become denser, social attention is spread over a wider area. Consequently, social attention cannot monitor the behavior of each individual. In summary, as the number of individuals increases, the power of social attention decreases, leading to the expansion of individual freedoms (Durkheim, 2020: 344-345).

The expansion and intensification of societies lead to the proliferation of alienated and indifferent individuals. Durkheim states that in such a situation, there will be a decrease in interest among individuals who do not harbor memories and enthusiasm related to themselves. The fact that each individual entering into relationships with a larger number of people results in these relationships being less frequent and shorter. The increase in the number of individuals leads to the proliferation of people who are less familiar with each other. In societies where density increases, the ties between individuals are less frequent and weaker. This situation leads to mutual indifference and a relaxation of social control. As a result, the scope for each individual to act freely expands, and over time, this becomes a right. Additionally, once freedom is exercised, the need for it increases. Thus, freedom becomes as necessary for the individual as it is for others. Freedom now takes on a sacred quality. Individuals become intolerant of control to which they are not accustomed (Durkheim, 2020: 346-347). At the heart of moral change lies the transition of societies from mechanical solidarity to organic solidarity. In societies with mechanical solidarity, collective conscience dominates individuals. The continuity of social life is dependent on a set of collective beliefs and values (Giddens, 1986: 2). In this particular structure, society has a closer understanding of the individual. The individual tightly binds their private life to the environment and traditions in which they live. The reasons for the advancement and development of division of labor, which provide greater flexibility and adaptability to the social organism, are also similar. However, this change and liberation do not arise because they are beneficial. This change is inevitable. In organic solidarity, division of labor leads to the division of many tasks. This means the emergence of many professional ethics and legal rules. However, these moral and legal rules do not hinder the expansion of the individual's sphere of activity (Durkheim, 2020: 349-350).

Morality cannot be defined by freedom. Morality and law are the sum of connections that bind individuals to one another and to society, forming a unified and harmonious community. Anything that serves as a source of solidarity directs individuals to consider everyone and regulate their behavior beyond the influence of selfishness. Morality essentially signifies a state

of interdependence. The function of morality is not to detach individuals from these connections and make them independent of their environment. On the contrary, the distinctive function of morality is to make individuals an integral part of the whole. In this case, a portion of the individual's freedom of action is diminished (Durkheim, 2020: 453-454). The value possessed by an individual comes from society. It is society that enhances or diminishes an individual's value, and it is society itself that evaluates the individual. The foundation of individual rights lies not within the individual but within society. However, individual rights undergo evolution and continuously progress. The state is the entity that emancipates the individual in this process (Durkheim, 2021: 87).

Individuals can serve as means to the state without contradicting themselves. Because being instruments to the state means realizing themselves. The activity of the state is to realize every human being as individuals. The state aims to develop the individual as a species, not to develop this or that individual. However, in doing so, the state relies on the support of each individual. Each individual, in reality, serves their own individuality as an agent of the state. The individual has duties that go beyond their personal goals and are devoid of personal interests. (Durkheim, 2021: 90). As societies become more complex, the main tendency of development is the emancipation of the individual. The collective conscience replaces submission. Thus, moral ideals that emphasize the rights and dignity of the individual emerge (Giddens, 1973: 103). The duty of the state is to call upon the individual to become a more spiritual being. Because the foundation of civic morality can only be based on spiritual reasons, and giving the highest value to human personality is the only sustainable path. Durkheim refers to this situation as the concept of the "religion of exalting humanity". However, the similar value given to private individuals must also be given to the state (Durkheim, 2021: 90). The exaltation of the state can lead to the diminishment of the individual in the face of the state. What prevents this is the secondary groups. The rights of the individual can be protected depending on the balance between the state and the secondary groups. The increasing bureaucratic activities of the state can turn into tyranny. This occurs when secondary groups do not develop sufficiently in relation to the state. The state expands with the expansion of moral individualism and growth of the division of labor. However, no modern state can act solely as the guarantor and administrator of citizenship rights (Giddens, 1973: 101).

Individual and Collectivity

In Durkheim's sociology, social facts cannot be explained based on the underlying individual sub-facts that constitute them. Social facts cannot be explained solely in the context of individual attributes. Social facts are natural phenomena. These social facts are new formations that arise from the relative interactions of the qualities of the individuals that constitute them (Pope, 2008: 78). The mind state of the individual is largely influenced by societal factors. The whole is largely composed of its parts. Therefore, the whole cannot be explained without explaining the parts (Durkheim, 2016: 161). Society is the environment that shapes the individual. Each individual is more a product of society than a constructor of society. The foundations of society are not found ready-made in consciousness; society constructs them itself. Indeed, almost everything existing in individual consciousness comes from society. The state of consciousness of a person generally does not originate from their own psychological nature. Consciousness arises from the mutual influence of individuals coming together (Durkheim, 2020: 401-402). However, this does not mean that individual personalities do not exist. As societies expand and intensify, a new type of mental life emerges. Thus, individual personalities that have reached their own consciousness develop. Despite the expansion in mental life, there is no weakening in social life. As societies expand and intensify, they become more free and comprehensive. In this case, individual consciousness becomes more complex and flexible. While the way of life in society changes, society itself continues to exist (Durkheim, 2020: 398-399). However, for society to survive, it needs to penetrate the

consciousness of individuals. Society must shape the individual with its image and likeness (Durkheim, 2016: 161). Social life is the result of positive and long-lasting relationships established among individuals. However, individuals are more products of social life than determinants of social life (Durkheim, 2020: 388-399).

Durkheim argues that with the development of civilization, the position of the individual within society also advances and expands (Durkheim, 2020: 232). In primitive societies, the prevailing condition of homogeneity and the absence of individual separation from the collective have led to the erasure of the individual. Individual consciousness and collective consciousness have remained almost indistinguishable. It is assumed that individuals will not willingly abandon their individuality (Durkheim, 2020: 233). The members of a society can be subjugated only by a superior power. The only power of this kind is the power of the group. Regardless of how great an individual's power may be, they cannot act alone against an entire society. Therefore, the power of authoritarian governments is derived not from themselves but from the structure of society (Durkheim, 2020: 234). Here, Durkheim differs from Spencer (1898: 153; 1981: 23-24) in not seeing the establishment of authority as the beginning of the erasure of individuality. On the contrary, this situation marks the first step towards individualism. For example, presidents are the first individual personalities emerging from within society. Since these individuals dominate the society, they are not obliged to conform to every behavior of the society. While their power originates from the collective, once organized, it becomes autonomous and gives presidents the ability to act on a personal level. This disrupts the balance and allows for the existence of someone who may act contrary to shared customs. The foundation of this situation lies not in the special conditions of the rulers, but in the nature of the societies they govern (Durkheim, 2020: 235). This implies that the idea that selfishness is the starting point of humanity and altruism is a recent acquisition is erroneous. Durkheim states that Social Darwinism has had an influence on this mistaken belief. According to the concept of the struggle for existence and natural selection, primitive humans compete and fight each other for limited resources. Durkheim argues that this notion is unscientific. In reality, wherever there are societies, there is altruism because solidarity exists in societies. This has been the case since the beginning of humanity. There are examples showing that primitive humans have sacrificed themselves and their lives for the sake of the community. The sense of attachment individuals has towards those with whom they have lived together for a long time is evidence of this. Moreover, these convictions do not depend on reasoning; they precede it (Durkheim, 2020: 236-237).

Durkheim states that individualism and philanthropy have existed in the consciousness of all human beings since the beginning. One is concerned with matters that are solely relevant to the individual, while the other pertains to realities that are not dependent on one's personality (2020: 238). Therefore, communal life does not arise from individual life; in reality, individual life emerges from communal life. The formation and growth of individual personalities, which constitute the social units, can only be explained in this way without causing the dissolution of society. The individual is prepared within an existing social environment. Thus, the individual carries the imprint of society. While realizing oneself, the individual does not harm the collective order of solidarity. Even when separated from the society in which they are embedded, the individual remains adapted to it. There is no opposition to society within the individual personality. No individual is a self-sufficient monadic entity capable of completely renouncing everything in the world. The individual is akin to an organ with a specific function that, if detached from the whole organism, risks dying. Cooperation becomes both possible and necessary in this manner (Durkheim, 2020: 325). In fact, as social groups become denser and more developed, division of labor advances, and societies transition to organic solidarity. It is at this stage that the state emerges. In the new order, the sole power that protects individual space is the state. As individual rights develop, the state's responsibilities to safeguard those rights also increase (Giddens, 1986: 2-3). The role of the state is not to subjugate the individual

but to enable the individual to realize oneself. The state cannot fulfill this role by minimizing its sphere of activity. Concrete rights of individualism are protected and enhanced by the state (Giddens, 1986: 9). Therefore, the growth of the state does not imply the erosion of individualism.

Durkheim, as we can see, employs the imagery of natural sciences and biology in his analysis of society. In the imagery of natural sciences, Durkheim views the relationship between the individual and society as two opposing forces. He attempts to demonstrate how individuality is shaped and socialized under the influence of social forces. The fundamental characteristic that sets humans apart from animals is sociability. As a matter of fact, phenomena such as thought, language, worldview, rationality, morality and culture emerge from society. An unsocialized individual is akin to an animal living within society. The second imagery Durkheim uses in the relationship between the individual and society is biology. According to him, society is a whole composed of interconnected and mutually supportive parts that contribute to the sustenance of the whole's life. Society is a structural and functional system composed of interacting parts that are examined in terms of their functions within the whole (Pope, 2008: 79). In advanced societies, individuals gain their status as social beings as they integrate themselves into society. If individuals cannot extend their field of activity beyond mere imitation, prefer acquiring only general knowledge, and choose not to participate in a professional organization, they will be met with colder reception by society. In this case, individuals are not sufficiently connected to society, or society does not sufficiently bind them. Such individuals cannot perceive society's required vitality and continuity. Consequently, they cannot be aware of all the responsibilities imposed on them by their status as social beings. A person without specific goals cannot attach themselves to great things to any significant degree. On the other hand, a person who dedicates themselves to a particular task is called upon by the sense of social solidarity imposed by professional ethics (Durkheim, 2020: 457). This is made possible by the development of individualism. Individualism in this sense is not about pursuing personal interests. On the contrary, Durkheim's moral individualism is rational and entails promoting the welfare of others. Collaboration ethics is fundamental to individualism. Individualism is built on the desire for equality and justice. This "individual culture" does not rely on traditional deism or hierocratic control model upheld by the church but carries a religious quality like all moral rules (Giddens, 1986: 13-14). The mutual relationship between individuals and institutions occurs based on complementary differentiations that make them mutually dependent. However, in this case, the collective conscience weakens, leading to increased freedom and the development of personality. Organic solidarity based on the mutual interdependence of individuals and groups is formed. (Pope, 2008: 80). Division of labor may concentrate individuals in a specific field but does not diminish their individuality. Firstly, a more comprehensive yet scattered activity is replaced by a narrower yet more comprehensive activity. Secondly, what is lost through specialization is complemented by others who possess it, thus completing the deficiencies. In lower-level societies, the expected behavior from individuals is to resemble the people they live with. In advanced societies, however, the role assigned to individuals is to be an organ of society (Durkheim, 2020: 458). Indeed, being an individual means having an autonomous source of activity that gives one individuality. When an individual possesses a characteristic that is exclusively their own and grants them individuality, they acquire personality. As individuals detach themselves from the fragmented structure and become liberated through specialization, they also distance themselves from the social environment that envelops their individual consciousness. Through this dual liberation, individuals become a more significant factor in determining their own behavior independently. The division of labor contributes to this liberation itself. Through specialization, the nature of the individual becomes more complex. Thus, the individual partially frees themselves from the influences of the community and heredity (Durkheim, 2020: 458-459). Durkheim tries to distinguish "liberal individualism" from "methodological individualism" (Giddens, 2008: 127).

Durkheim demonstrated the relationship between the individual and society, as well as the importance of sociology in his work "Le Suicide". The thinker aimed to identify the social causes of suicide, setting aside personal characteristics and highlighting differences in suicide rates among different groups (Pope, 2008: 81). Durkheim elucidated the relationship between selfishness, altruism, and anomie (normlessness) with morality. There is a connection between the disproportions among these three phenomena and suicide (Durkheim, 1897: 363). According to Durkheim, selfishness and anomie are two fundamental causes of suicide. These two phenomena are often two different aspects of the same social condition. Selfishness and anomie can coexist within an individual. Indeed, a selfish person tends to incline towards disorderliness, indicating a detachment from society (Durkheim, 2005: 251). However, unlike Hegel, altruism does not require the individual to be subordinated to the state (Giddens, 1973: 100). The nature and consciousness of the individual make them social beings. The individual possesses two classes of consciousness. One class includes only the individual's body and directly related objects. This purely individual consciousness connects us only to ourselves. Just as we cannot separate from our own bodies, we cannot separate from this form of consciousness. The other class of consciousness comes from society and transmits society into us. It binds us to something that surpasses us. Being a collective attribute, it is not personal. This type of consciousness directs us towards a shared purpose known to others. It facilitates communication with other individuals. The individual is an existence that is social and nothing but an extension of society (Durkheim, 2016: 174-175). Therefore, the individual and their autonomy originate from society.

Nation and Citizenship Morality

Durkheim defines the concept of citizenship morality as the rules that regulate the relationships between the dominant power and the individuals under its influence. Citizenship ethics encompasses the duties of citizens towards the state and, in turn, the obligations of the state towards individuals (Durkheim, 2021: 65-66). Each nation has its own moral understanding linked to its specific characteristics. This serves to prevent any disturbances in collective consciousness and social solidarity. This function is only realized when it possesses moral qualities. Attacks on the fundamental shared sentiments encounter resistance in unresolved societies. Similar situations arise in advanced societies as well. These societies are based on specialization, while less developed societies emphasize integration. (Durkheim, 2020: 452-453). The state emerges in societies where organic solidarity is realized (Giddens, 1986: 2).

According to Durkheim, the concept of citizenship morality is shaped by the conditions in which societies of mechanical or organic solidarity exist. In both cases, societies have a common spiritual life, but this life is not spread throughout the social existence. The spiritual life is shared within a specific organ, which is the central government. Activities such as legislation by the parliament or decision-making within the government are carried out depending on the general condition of the society. However, these kinds of decisions, although they have a broad impact, remain secondary and as echoes. This is because the parliament and the government are in contact with the mass of the nation. Such interactions influence the decisions and behaviors of the parliament and the government. Nevertheless, the decision-makers are still the organs of the parliament and the government. While the state thinks and makes decisions, it cannot be said that society thinks and makes decisions through it. The state is a unit that thinks and makes decisions on its behalf. Therefore, the state does not represent the collective consciousness. It only directs the collective into action (Durkheim, 2021: 67-69). The organizational principles of the state are products of collective consciousness to some extent, but the state itself is not merely a reflection of collective consciousness. Regulatory principles partly reflect collective consciousness and are shaped by the historical context in which they are realized. Therefore, each form of collective consciousness reflects an

autonomous form of society (Malczewski, 2018: 57-58). Collective consciousness transcends the state in every aspect. The designs of the state are realized in a more conscious manner. The designers, goals, reasons of these designs are clear. On the other hand, the collective designs, myths, moral tales, etc. that develop within societies are vague. It is not clear where they come from and what they are directed towards. Durkheim defines the state as a special organ responsible for making certain designs that are important for society. However, making designs means thinking. Accordingly, the state is not the executive power because the state does not execute anything. The cabinet or the parliament does not act on their own. They give orders for things to be done. The life of the state is spent in discussions and designs. As a center that organizes the subunits, the state is a social thinking organ. However, it thinks not for the sake of thinking but to govern social behavior. This mode of thinking by the state determines the obligations of the state and the citizens towards each other (Durkheim, 2021: 67-69). The state and society, in general, condition and shape each other mutually. However, there are clear differences between them. The collective consciousness of the state possesses a kind of self-consciousness. Once established, the state develops relatively autonomously. The founding principles of the state evolve along the line provided by the most sacred elements of collective consciousness (Malczewski, 2018: 57-58). Collective consciousness is independent of individual consciousnesses. Nevertheless, society exists within and through individual minds (Emirbayer, 1996: 124).

Society is a social organism (Corning, 1982: 377). For this reason, like the individual, the state also undergoes transformation over time. As the relationship between the individual and collectivity evolves, the role of the state in relation to the individual also evolves. The individual is neither a god nor a tool in the hands of the gods. However, as history progresses, the individual's self and dignity are elevated. The autonomy and freedom of the individual expand. This situation imposes a new task on the state: to bring forth the nature of the individual. However, despite the expansion of individual rights, there is also an expansion of the state's duties. This is not a contradiction. Because the rights that the individual possesses do not exist independently of the individual. Individual rights come from the state. Therefore, despite the increasing role of the state, the freedom of the individual expands. As the state strengthens, the individual is also respected more. This is because the effectiveness of the state actually has a liberating quality for the individual (Durkheim, 2021: 74-77). Durkheim argues that the state is the actual creator, organizer, and enforcer of an individual's natural rights (Durkheim, 2021: 80).

Society is an ontological structure that is distinct from all individual realities (Emirbayer, 1996: 124). Society cannot exist without the continuous and costly sacrifices of individuals. Society is superior to the individual, which requires the individual to transcend oneself, and to some extent, separate from one's nature. This separation cannot occur without causing tensions, to a greater or lesser degree (Durkheim, 1973: 163). Human beings derive meaning from society because they become fully human only within society. Individuals obtain gains that they cannot achieve alone through society. The combination of individuals in society brings together spiritual forces and creates a new type of spiritual life. This spiritual life permeates each individual and transforms them. While society nourishes and enriches the individual, it also makes itself dependent on the individual. In this relationship, a spiritual mechanical law comes into play, where parts cannot deny their dependence on the whole. However, every society is oppressive. Every social group strives to shape its members according to its own design and prevent them from deviating from its thoughts and behaviors. The oppression created by the social group is necessary because in some cases, societies cannot sustain their existence otherwise. However, this oppression does not possess an unbearable quality. No individual senses this oppression because the individual is raised by the community in such a way that what the society desires feels natural to the individual. For the individual to become aware of this situation and resist it, individualistic aspirations must arise. For this to happen, the society

must grow because small societies surround the individual from all sides and do not allow the individual to develop freely. However, as the number of individuals increases, control over them becomes more difficult. Thus, in larger communities, individuals are more free. In such communities, social pressure on individuals decreases, individual differences emerge more easily, individualism becomes established as a fact, and over time, this fact turns into law. Durkheim conditions the sustainability of all these developments on one factor: secondary groups within society should not become so autonomous within the larger society that they transform into small societies. As secondary groups that constitute the political society become more autonomous, they act as if they are the only society and everything operates as if the larger society does not exist. Autonomized secondary groups hinder the development of their members by tightly surrounding them. Moreover, the formation of such secondary groups is inevitable because as society expands, local, occupational, and special interests that bring related individuals closer also arise. Associations, friend groups, professional groups are examples of such secondary groups. Unless an element can balance the effects of secondary groups, they tend to make their members completely dependent on them. At least the family group has such a tendency. However, similar situations can be observed in societies where secondary groups do not exist. In such societies, if there is a common power against the individual, the individual becomes dependent on that power alone. Thus, the autonomy of the individual is contingent on certain conditions. Firstly, society must expand. However, this alone is not sufficient. Secondly, the secondary groups within the expanding society should not be in a position to narrow the individual's sphere of freedom. Secondary groups should not become masters of the individual and shape the individual at will. This is where the importance of the state emerges. The state stands above all secondary groups. It is the legislator for everyone. The state reminds all secondary groups that they are parts of itself. The state prevents the excessive pressure exerted by simple communities it contains on the individual. The fundamental function of the state is to liberate the personalities of individuals. Instead of creating a destructive impact on individuals, the state reduces the destructive effects on individuals. However, this does not mean that the state does not have a destructive impact on the individual. In the absence of any counterweight, the state can also have a destructive effect on individuals. For the state to be the savior of the individual, it needs counterbalancing forces (secondary groups) to keep it in check. Individual freedom arises from the conflict between individualism and the state as a collective force. Secondary groups, as the components of the whole represented by the state, are crucial not only for regulating and managing their own interests within their sphere of influence but also as one of the fundamental means of individual liberation. In summary, a balance is established between the state, which represents the whole, and the secondary groups that are parts of the whole, creating a space for individual freedom. Therefore, the state is not opposed to the individual; on the contrary, it enables the realization of individuality under certain conditions. Individuality is not possible without the state. For example, it is the state that frees the child from patriarchal dependence. Therefore, it is natural for the responsibilities and powers of the state to expand, and this expansion not only restricts individual freedom but also protects it. In fact, as societies grow and become more complex, the state has a greater duty and responsibility to protect individual freedom. The source of the individual's spiritual existence is solely the state (Durkheim, 2021: 80-86). Additionally, since individual rights evolve continuously, the duties of the state also expand ceaselessly. Therefore, the task of the state does not end (Durkheim, 2021: 88-89). Durkheim investigated the internal logic of secondary groups such as family, associations, and civil society organizations, which he referred to as secondary groups, and evaluated their contributions to social integration, individual autonomy, and voluntary community (Emirbayer, 1996: 112-113). He argued that professional organizations should play a greater role in contemporary societies (Giddens, 1973: 102-103). The state, as the highest legal entity (Öztekin, 2016: 49), protects the secondary groups, in turn, the protect the individual from the state.

Nations have responsibilities not only towards individuals but also towards the national community as a whole. Nations, as units that constitute the same society and are subject to the same laws, are capable of establishing peace among individuals. However, the sense of fraternity that exists among individuals is not observed between societies. This is because international relations are not based on common laws. If all humans formed the same society and were dependent on the same laws, peace could be established between societies. The only power that can alleviate individual selfishness is the power of the group. And the only power that can alleviate the selfishness of groups is the power of another encompassing group. However, there exist various types of communities coexisting on Earth. These communities exhibit significant intellectual and moral differences. These differences do not allow all humans to live together peacefully within a single society. The possible situation is the unity of similar types of societies. Durkheim, citing Europe as an example, indicates that evolution progresses in this direction (2020: 460-461). However, the differences between communities create a conflict between national ideals and ideals of humanity. As members of a nation, every individual carries a sense of patriotism within them. This situation leads to tension with cosmopolitanism and thus creates moral conflict. Patriotism and citizenship ethics stand against the ideal of humanity (Durkheim, 2006: 125). Although nationalism becomes of secondary importance in modern societies, a conflict still arises between loyalty to national ideals and concepts like individual equality and freedom, such as cosmopolitanism (Giddens, 1973: 101). Even civilized states act with the consideration of the risk of war among themselves. Due to the possibility of states posing a threat to each other, each member of a state has a responsibility. The primary duty of a state towards its members is to protect the common existence they have established. Therefore, there is a need for the organization of the state. The state must be prepared to protect itself at any moment or launch an attack in the face of threats. Hence, it needs to be organized to safeguard and maintain its security. For this reason, the state requires a strict order. This form of organization is separate from the task of elevating the individual but focuses on the national community. The international system necessitates the maintenance of a military process. However, over time, the priorities of these historical responsibilities of states may change. Indeed, Durkheim states that the actions of the state, which used to be entirely outwardly oriented in the past, have been replaced by inwardly oriented actions. The increasing complexity of social life will direct states more towards internal issues. The internal issues referred to here are not problems such as increasing production or consumption. They include ensuring that these processes operate more justly, guaranteeing that everyone is treated in proportion to their worth, liberating them from any unjust and demeaning dependency, and enabling them to connect with other individuals and society without losing their individuality. All of these responsibilities are the moral responsibility of the state. The destiny of the state is to establish a strict moral order (2021: 91-93) and fulfill its moral functions (Giddens, 1973: 100).

Ethical relationships are social phenomena since they involve relationships between consciousnesses (Durkheim, 1968: 59). Family, nation, or humanity are groups that include every individual simultaneously. Loyalty to one group does not imply disloyalty to another. Family, nation, and humanity represent different stages of our social and ethical evolution, stages that are prepared for and built upon each other. These groups do not exclude each other. Each has a different function and complements the others mutually. For example, the family encompasses the individual in a completely different way and responds to different ethical needs than the nation. Without making choices between them, a person can only be morally fulfilled when they are governed by the threefold force that acts upon them (Durkheim, 1968: 74). There are ethical and legal rules that regulate a person's relationships with oneself, the family unit, and the professional group. However, humans are also part of a political group outside of these sets. Within the "political cluster", there are rules that regulate relationships between individuals. The sum of these rules is referred to as "citizenship morality". Citizenship

morality primarily relates to the political society. The political society is based on oppositions: the governing and the governed, the powerful and the dependent. The political society is a simple form of organization. In this group, there is mention of power exerted over individuals (Kapani, 2018: 45). The significance of power's influence on individuals being weak or strong, temporary or permanent is irrelevant (Durkheim, 2021: 59). Within the political concept, there exist authority and those subject to it (Giddens, 1986: 32). However, the distinguishing feature of the political society is not merely the presence of power exhibited over individuals. Power can also be found within other groups, such as the family. As society moves away from being a religion, a collection of unique traditions, or loyalty to a dynasty, it begins to be associated with a specific territory. The society that exists on this territory also represents a certain population (Durkheim, 2021: 61; Giddens, 1973: 99-100). In this sense, territory and population (Yayla, 2015: 123) are seen as distinguishing characteristics of a political society. However, these three characteristics can also be found within a lineage or a family living on a specific territory. The distinguishing feature of the population that constitutes a political society is its composition of secondary clusters with different qualities. For example, a political society encompasses different family communities and professional groups. The totality of these combinations creates something other than the sum of its elements. A political society emerges from the combination of secondary groups with various qualities, but it does not possess a secondary nature compared to a larger society. Accordingly, a political society is a society established by the merging of numerous secondary groups, which is dependent on an authority that does not stem from a superior and regular order (Durkheim, 2021: 62). However, the existence of one does not rely on the other. Therefore, the organization of fragmentary groups, clans, families, etc., does not precede the organization of the aggregate resulting from their union. They exist together and mutually condition each other. All parts organize themselves simultaneously (Durkheim, 2021: 64). However, the state should not be equated entirely with the political society. The state refers to the organization of officials, which serves as a focus for governmental authority (Giddens, 1973: 100).

Nationality is a group of people who desire to live under the same laws due to ethnic origin, historical reasons, or perhaps solely for the purpose of forming a large or small, single state. This phenomenon is a principle accepted among civilized nations, and when this common desire is strongly affirmed, it commands respect. This is also the solid foundation of the state (Durkheim, 1915: 40). Therefore, the nation is perceived as the highest reality for the individual (Mitchell, 1931: 96). Durkheim, like Aristotle, prioritizes the nation over the individual. According to Aristotle, the politeia takes precedence over everything else (such as the family and each individual). This is because the whole precedes the part (Aristotle, 2014: 12; Yalçınkaya & Ağaoğulları, 2013: 21). Without the whole, the individual cannot exist.

Universality, Nation and Peace

Even if it is not possible for all people to live within a single society, the continuous expansion of societies can make the international order more peaceful. However, larger societies cannot be formed without the development of division of labor. The constant expansion of advanced societies and the absorption and assimilation of less advanced societies reduce the intellectual and moral differences that exist among them. Furthermore, there is no reason to preserve moral and intellectual differences between societies. The reduction of differences implies the formation of closeness, for which the development of division of labor is necessary. The ideal of human fraternity is possible to the extent that division of labor progresses. However, the obligations towards humanity are not above the obligations one has towards their own country. The sense of duty that an individual has towards their own country is directed towards the community to which they belong. On the other hand, the situation where all people live in solidarity within a single community is an aspiration that is not certain to be realized (Durkheim, 2020: 461-462). If division of labor can develop within a society, why not

at the international level? In the case of international division of labor, individuals who share work are not members of the same society. A group can exist within another group that is larger and includes many groups while preserving its individuality. However, for a people to allow another people to enter within themselves, they must abandon a patriotism that is solely self-centered and adopt a more comprehensive understanding of patriotism. Durkheim suggests that such division of labor has occurred only in Europe. However, groups that have never come together or even see each other as enemies, even if they engage in some form of regular product exchange, do not constitute division of labor. These are merely simple reciprocal connections. Because while two different organisms may benefit each other in certain situations and certain aspects, this does not mean that the functions are divided between the two organisms (Durkheim, 2020: 326-327).

There has been a change over time between patriotism and universality. In ancient times, there was nothing above the greatness and glory of the state. The sole object of worship for people was their own states. However, this situation has changed over time. Today, although people continue to be patriotic, they believe that there are higher powers above national powers. As evolution progresses, local and ethnic contexts are being replaced by tendencies towards universality. As a result, it can be said that aims concerning humanity will surpass national aims. However, this situation implies a void for morally inclined individuals. This is because morality is inherent in individuals who live within an organized society. (2021: 93-94). In this sense, nations are moral units. Morality requires strict order and authority, and it is possible within nations. Morality comes into play when there is a power that imposes sanctions on individuals in their environment and over them. Morality can exist where social organization is possible. Morality cannot exist in a place where social organization is disrupted and political disorder prevails. In such an environment, the sense of duty in individuals weakens. Patriotism develops the sense of duty in individuals. Patriotism is the sum of thoughts and emotions that bind individuals to a specific nation. The development of moral sentiments is not possible without a specific society that reminds individuals of their duties and makes them aware of the necessity of rules. This is because morality is a product of society, and morality is what society is. Durkheim does not accept the notion that morality is a natural phenomenon inherent in each individual's consciousness. The source of morality is society, and morality enters the individual from the outside, compelling the individual's natural constitution in certain respects. States are the most highly organized societies. Some forms of universality that would replace patriotism are inclined towards selfish individualism, and they tend to eliminate existing moral laws rather than creating a higher moral law. In order for universality to establish a moral law, all of humanity would need to organize itself in the form of a society. However, Durkheim states that such a process is not currently feasible. (Durkheim, 2021: 94-95). Can the ideal of the nation be reconciled with the ideal of humanity? Durkheim suggests that the solution lies once again in the states. According to him, every state should strive to regulate its autonomy in the best possible way, call its members to a higher moral life, and work to eliminate any contradictions between national morality and human morality. The state should strive to make its citizens truly human and transform the duties of citizenship into a special form of human obligations. Additionally, as societies focus more on their internal lives and become larger and more complex, they will move away from conflicts that pit universality against patriotism. This is because patriotism will become a small part of universality. The patriotism that Durkheim sees as beneficial is not based on the expansion of society outward, but on striving for internal autonomy. The self-respect of societies is not derived from being the largest or the most comfortable societies, but from being the most just, the best organized, and the morally superior societies (Durkheim, 2021: 96-97).

Durkheim attempted to lay the foundations of social order in the face of the social chaos of his time. Societies are constantly undergoing change and progress in all aspects. Therefore, the changes in societies and the principles that ensure social solidarity are subject to change over

time. At its core, there is a change in the relationship between the individual and society. This change manifests itself in various areas, from the nation-state to morality. The conditions of the time in which one lives determine the conditions of change.

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Investigation of the Problems and Solution Suggestions of Physical Education Teacher Candidates in Teaching Practice Class

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Introduction

Teaching is an important and indispensable profession for all societies with its identity that can shape people and society. The teacher, who is the performer of this profession, is one of the most strategic parts of the social system called "school" (Bursalıoğlu, 2012). The roles and responsibilities of teachers in the social, cultural, scientific and economic development of countries are quite high. For this reason, teachers are obliged not only to have knowledge in their field, but also to convey this knowledge to students with alternative teaching methods. For this, pre-service teachers need to be trained in a qualified manner and equipped to perform these functions in pre-service education processes (Özdemir and Tokcan, 2010).

Teachers are undoubtedly one of the indispensable elements of education and training. Considering today's conditions, teachers make important contributions to education. Obtaining the necessary efficiency from the education-teaching process is only directly related to the satisfaction of the teachers in their profession and their profession (Yıkılmaz and Alıncak, 2022). The teacher is the basic element of the education system. Although this is the basic element of the system, it is a factor that affects and is affected by the system. Since the teacher is an element that has an impact on the development and progress of the society he is in, people in this profession should be given value and importance. It will contribute to the quality and efficiency of the teacher's education. (Ira, 2004). A qualified educator uses multiple factors to determine their students' knowledge and learning approaches. They use the information obtained from the factors they use to make their students more effective and qualified. In order for these students to be successful, they organize these factors and materials according to the developmental levels of the students. (Darling-Hammond and Baratz-Snowden, 2007). An effective and efficient educator has an impact and success on school and students. (Stronge, Ward and Grant, 2011).

One of the most important factors affecting the quality of the teachers trained in the teacher training process is the practice studies. These practices should be done in the early stages of pre-service training, without waiting for pre-service teachers to start working. Thus, better trained teachers who are ready to do their jobs can be trained (Farrel, 2016). With the teaching practice, pre-service teachers have the opportunity to be in the real school environment, interact with the students, get the opportunity to apply their theoretical knowledge, ensure their professional development, and thus start the teaching profession more ready (Aslan, 2015).

Therefore, in order for education to become high quality, or in other words, to reach the outputs required by the age, it primarily depends on the entry of qualified teachers into the

education system as input (Sağlam and Kürüm, 2005). Because the spirit of the school institution is formed by the teacher and the quality of a school is directly proportional to the quality of the teacher (Özcan, 2011).

It is of great importance for social development that teachers are trained to meet the needs of the age. This importance necessitates teachers to undertake various roles in the development and socialization of the individual. The most important of these roles is the role of guiding the acquisition of knowledge to the student. In this role, the teacher creates the desired behavioral changes in the student, gives him good relations and makes him competent (Gürses, Bayrak, Yalçın, Açıkyıldız and Doğan, 2005).

Teaching practice Pedagogical formation education is a professional experience process that gives pre-service teachers the opportunity to apply their knowledge, skills and experience that they have gained during their faculty education and helps the teacher to determine his/her competence. (Yeşilyurt, 2010). For this reason, this course is a great opportunity for teacher candidates to see their pre-professional deficiencies in the process of preparing for the profession and to eliminate these deficiencies (Dursun and Kuzu, 2008).

Teaching Practice course is of great importance in terms of making a full introduction to the teaching profession and interacting with students, which is one of the basic elements of teaching. During these practices, students who prepare for the teaching profession have the opportunity to transfer the theoretical knowledge they learned at the undergraduate level to the real environment, and they also have the opportunity to develop themselves professionally. In this respect, the teaching practice course, in which the teaching profession is experienced, is a field where students who are preparing for the teaching profession in the pre-service period reinforce their knowledge, see their deficiencies in practice and what they can do. With this aspect, the teaching practice course, in which theory, theory and practice education are given together, is one of the important courses in which the candidates can experience the teaching profession and school life (Kazu and Yenen, 2015).

The main purpose of the teaching practice is to contribute to the professional development of teacher candidates by providing them with the opportunity to use the skills, attitudes, values and habits they will use in their professional life efficiently and effectively. It is to ensure that teacher candidates are suitable for this profession and gain experience in the profession (LaMaster, 2001).

Teaching practices are a very useful practice in terms of allowing pre-service teachers to practice their professional knowledge through lessons in the school atmosphere. On the other hand, it is also important in terms of giving pre-service teachers the opportunity to question themselves and see their deficiencies before starting the profession (Akpınar, Çolak and Yiğit, 2012). When considered within the framework of this process, teaching practices contribute to pre-service teachers gaining experience in education and developing their personal characteristics (Çiçek and İnce, 2005).

Implementation studies in Turkey took place in the curriculum in the form of School Experience, Teaching Practice I and Teaching Practice II with the amendment made in 2006-2007. The pre-service teachers have the opportunity to test their theoretical knowledge in real environments by actively participating in the teaching-learning process thanks to the practice studies. The real environment of teaching practice is school (YÖK, World Bank, 1998). Teacher candidates need to be in the school environment in order to develop their teaching skills and comprehend the subtleties of the profession. In this context, it is aimed that teacher candidates get to know the school in a systematic way, and to recognize the school management and activities in the school through observation (Köroğlu, Başer and Yavuz, 2000).

According to the directive regarding the teaching practice of pre-service teachers, it is aimed to better prepare the pre-service teachers for the teaching profession, to gain the

competence to use the knowledge, skills, attitudes and habits related to the general culture, field education and teaching profession they have gained during their education in a real education-teaching environment. (MEB, 1998). Thus, it is aimed that pre-service teachers will see practice in the field they will teach and at the teaching level. This situation is important for pre-service teachers to gain teaching experience and use their skills in the classroom. As a matter of fact, pre-service teachers acquire the knowledge and skills required by the profession only through teaching practices (Küçükoğlu, Köse, Taşgın and Karademir, 2012). In this respect, teaching practice is one of the indispensable elements in pre-service teacher training. Because knowing the theory of a job does not mean being able to do it effectively (Yeşilyurt and Semerci, 2011). With this aspect, teacher candidates have the opportunity to get to know their profession closely and have the opportunity to apply the knowledge they have learned theoretically (Şişman and Acat, 2003).

In the teacher education programs updated in 2018, School Experience was abolished and a two-term implementation process as Teaching Practice I and II was included. Within the scope of Teaching Practice I, it is necessary to carry out studies such as observing teaching methods and techniques related to the field, micro-teaching individually and in groups using special teaching methods, developing activities and materials related to the field, preparing teaching environments, managing the classroom, measuring-evaluation and reflections. Within the scope of Teaching Practice II, it was stated that in addition to these studies, teacher candidates should be able to plan a lesson independently (YÖK, 2018).

Evaluation of teaching practice courses can also reveal the problems experienced in these courses. In addition, determining which variables (target, activities, functioning, instructor, practice teacher) caused these problems can guide the solution of these problems. Evaluation of teaching practice courses, which have an important place in teacher training, can guide the new regulations to be made by YÖK and program development experts. In addition, the results of the study may contribute to the better training of physical education teachers by conducting these lessons more effectively. The main purpose of this research is; The aim of this study is to examine the problems experienced by physical education teacher candidates in the teaching practice course and the solution proposals. In line with this main purpose, answers to the following questions were sought in the study.

1. What are the opinions of the physical education teacher candidates about the teaching practice course?

2. What are the opinions of the physical education teacher candidates about the teaching practice course?

3. What are the problems that physical education teacher candidates have experienced in the teaching practice course?

4. What are the suggestions for solutions to the problems experienced by the physical education teacher candidates in the teaching practice course?

5. What are the suggestions of the physical education teacher candidates regarding the teaching practice course?

METHOD

The interview method, which is one of the qualitative research methods, was used in the research. Qualitative research is a method that offers flexible action to the researcher compared to quantitative research, and offers different approaches to data collection method, analysis and research design (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006). Qualitative research is defined as research in which qualitative data collection methods such as observation, interview and document analysis are used, and a qualitative process is followed to reveal perceptions and events in a natural

environment in a realistic and holistic way. Qualitative research is an approach that focuses on researching and understanding social phenomena in their environment with an understanding based on theory building (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2013). The interview method is prepared in order to get the same type of information from different people by focusing on similar issues (Patton, 1987:111; cited in Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2013).

Research Group

In the study, it was aimed to examine the problems and solution proposals experienced by the physical education teacher candidates in the teaching practice course. For this purpose, the study group of the research consists of physical education teacher candidates studying at Iğdır University Faculty of Sports Sciences. Maximum variation sampling, which is one of the purposive sampling methods, was used in the selection of the study group. According to Yıldırım and Şimşek (2013), the aim is to create a relatively small sample and to reflect the diversity of individuals who may be a party to the problem studied in this sample at the maximum level. The number of physical education teachers in the sample group in this study was determined as 20.

Preparation and Application of the Open-Ended Questionnaire

In the research, a semi-structured interview form consisting of 5 items was used to collect qualitative data. Through the interview technique, which is frequently used in qualitative research, the researcher tries to understand unobservable situations such as attitudes, experiences, intentions, thoughts, mental perceptions, comments and reactions (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2013). In order to prepare the interview form, a comprehensive literature review was conducted and the interview form was prepared. While preparing the semi-structured interview form, which is used as a data collection tool, a field survey was first conducted by the researcher and a semi-structured interview form question pool was created, which includes questions that can be asked to physical education teacher candidates regarding the subject. Then, the questions created by three experts were examined and the semi-structured interview form was finalized. None of the participants included in the study were compelled to participate in the research, and the principle of confidentiality was meticulously complied with during the application and collection of the questionnaires. The interviews were recorded with a voice recorder and then these recordings were transcribed.

Data Collection

Qualitative research data were collected from 20 physical education teacher candidates studying at Iğdır University Faculty of Sport Sciences. One-on-one and face-to-face interviews were conducted with all the participants. During the interview process, interviews were conducted with those who wanted to participate in the research voluntarily and by obtaining permission for the place and time they deemed appropriate for them. A tape recorder and note-taking technique were used to record the interviews. The interviews lasted between 15 minutes and 45 minutes.

Analysis of Data

The data obtained from the interview form used in the research were recorded with a voice recorder. After the application, the qualitative data in the audio recordings containing the answers of the physical education teachers were transferred to the computer environment by the researcher. Then, qualitative data were analyzed by content analysis method. Content analysis technique, which is frequently used, was used in the analysis of the data obtained from the questions in the interview form. The aim is to reach concepts that can explain the collected data (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013).

The steps followed are as follows;

Collection of research data

Coding of data

Creation of themes

Organizing data according to codes and themes

Interpretation of the findings

FINDINGS and COMMENT

In this section, the findings related to the data obtained after the interviews with the working group are included.

Table 1. *Distribution of physical education teacher candidates' views on the teaching practice course.*

Themes	**n**	**%**
A useful lesson for the teaching profession	10	16.7
A course that provides professional competence	9	15
A lesson that makes you love the teaching profession	9	15
A course that teaches communication skills	8	13.4
A course that contributes to observation	7	11.6
A lesson that enables efficient and effective use of time	6	10
A course that facilitates adaptation to school and student	6	10
A lesson that provides the opportunity to observe different teachers	5	8.3
Total	**60**	**100**

When the opinions of the physical education teacher candidates participating in the study on the teaching practice course are examined in Table 1, 16.7% of all stated that it is a useful course for the teaching profession. 15% of the teacher candidates participating in the study; They stated that it is a course that gives professional competence and a course that makes the teaching profession popular. In addition, regarding the course, the participants; 13.4% of the students think that it is a lesson that provides communication skills, 11.6% is a lesson that contributes in terms of observation, 10% is a lesson that provides efficient and effective use of time, and 10% is a lesson that facilitates adaptation to school and students. has put it. 5 pre-service teachers stated that it is a course that provides the opportunity to observe different teachers. It was observed that the participants expressed more than one opinion.

Table 2. *Distribution of physical education teacher candidates' views on the teaching practice course.*

Themes	**n**	**%**
Processing in a healthy way	9	34.7
It works efficiently in terms of observation.	7	26.9
Counselor does not spend much time	7	26.9
We have little opportunity to observe	3	11.5
Total	**26**	**100**

When the views of the physical education teacher candidates participating in the study on the functioning of the teaching practice course are examined in Table 2, almost all of them, 34.7% stated that it was taught in a healthy way. In addition, 26.9% of the pre-service teachers who participated in the research stated that the lesson was taught efficiently in terms of observation, but the advisor did not spare much time. 3 pre-service teachers said that there is little opportunity to observe the course. It was observed that the participants expressed more than one opinion.

Table 3. *Distribution of physical education teacher candidates' views on the problems they experienced in the teaching practice course.*

Themes	**N**	**%**
Classroom management	9	15.8
Lack of tools	8	14.1
Lack of physical environment	8	14.1
Exam anxiety	8	14.1
Lack of communication	7	12.3
High expectation	6	10.5
Class size	5	8.7
Lack of professional knowledge	3	5.2
Practice teacher	2	3.5
Practice instructor	1	1.7
Total	**57**	**100**

When the views of the physical education teacher candidates participating in the study on the problems they experienced in the teaching practice course are examined in Table 3, almost all of them; 15.8% stated that they had problems with classroom management, 14.1% lack of equipment, 14.1% lack of physical environment, and 14.1% stated that they had problems due to exam anxiety. In addition, teacher candidates participating in the study; 12.3% of them stated that they had problems due to lack of communication, 10.5% of them had high expectations, 8.7% of them were class sizes, and 5.2% of them had problems due to lack of professional knowledge. In addition, 2 pre-service teachers who participated in the research stated that they had problems with the practice teacher and 1 pre-service teacher stated that they had problems with the practice instructor. It was observed that the participants expressed more than one opinion.

Table 4. *Distribution of the solution proposals regarding the problems experienced by the physical education teacher candidates in the teaching practice course.*

Themes	**N**	**%**
The lesson should be given due importance	10	17.1
Communication process should be healthier	9	15.3
Teacher candidate should be more active	8	13.6
The ideas of the teacher candidates should be given importance	8	13.6
Guidance and counseling services should be provided within the scope of the course.	7	11.9
Feedback must be received	6	10.1
Opportunity to observe different teachers should be provided.	5	8.4
Class sizes should be reduced	4	6.7
School must be close	2	3.3
Total	**59**	**100**

When the solution suggestions for the problems experienced by the physical education teacher candidates participating in the study were examined in Table 4, 17.1% of all stated that the necessary importance should be given to the lesson. Almost all of the participants; 15.3% of them stated that the communication process should be healthier, 13.6% of them stated that the pre-service teacher should be more active and the ideas of the pre-service teacher should be given importance. In addition, 11.9% of the teacher candidates stated that guidance and counseling services should be provided within the scope of the course, 10.1% should be given feedback, and 10.1% should be given the opportunity to observe different teachers. In addition, as solution suggestions for the problems experienced in the teaching practice course; 4 participants expressed the opinion that class sizes should be reduced, and 2 participants expressed that the practice school should be close. It was observed that the participants expressed more than one opinion.

Table 5. *Distribution of physical education teacher candidates' suggestions regarding the teaching practice course*

Themes	**N**	**%**
Opportunities and conditions should be improved	9	14.6
Communication and cooperation should be ensured	9	14.6
Time should be increased	9	14.6
Instructions for the application should be prepared	8	13
School administration and practice teacher should help the pre-service teacher.	7	11.2
The lesson must be well planned	6	9.6
Seminar on the application can be given	6	9.6
Must go to different schools	4	6.4
Village schools should be included in the practice	4	6.4
Total	**62**	**100**

When the suggestions of physical education teacher candidates regarding the teaching practice course are examined in Table 5, almost all of them are 14.6%; He stated that opportunities and conditions should be improved, communication and cooperation should be ensured and time should be increased. In addition, 13% of the participants suggested that the instruction regarding the implementation should be prepared, and 11.2% suggested that the school administration and the practice teacher should help the pre-service teacher. As a suggestion of some participants; It was seen that they suggested that the course should be well planned, seminars on the application could be given, different schools should be attended, village schools should be included in the practice. It was observed that the participants expressed more than one opinion.

DISCUSSION and CONCLUSION

In this part of the research, the results obtained depending on the findings obtained with the aim of examining the problems and solution proposals experienced by the physical education teacher candidates in the teaching practice course are given.

When we look at the opinions of the physical education teacher candidates participating in the research about the teaching practice course, 16.7% of all stated that it is a useful course for the teaching profession. In addition, the teaching practice course; the opinion that it is a course that gives professional competence and a course that makes the teaching profession popular has come to the fore. In addition, the participants' teaching practice course; It has been stated that they see it as a course that provides communication skills, contributes to observation, enables efficient and effective use of time, facilitates adaptation to school and students, and provides the opportunity to observe different teachers. From this point of view, we can say that physical education teacher candidates generally have a positive attitude towards the teaching practice course and the course contributes to them in many ways.

In their studies, Altıntaş and Şahin (2020), Altıntaş and Görgen (2014) also concluded that the teaching practice course is an effective course in gaining pre-professional experience and getting to know the profession closely.

In the study of Aytaçlı (2012), more than half of the pre-service teachers reported positive opinions about the teaching practice course to communicate effectively with primary school students, to gain useful experiences when they start teaching, to observe different learning characteristics of students, and to have positive communication and interaction with other teachers at school. Canbolat (2014) stated that with the teaching practice course, it allows pre-service teachers to see what level they are at in teaching. Teaching practice course offers a great opportunity for teacher candidates to complete their deficiencies and prepare themselves for the profession before starting the profession.

In the study conducted by Görgen, Çokçalışkan, and Korkut (2012), it was evaluated that the Teaching Practice course was seen as the most functional course as a result of the questionnaire applied to the teacher candidates, and the reason for this was shown to be the course that meets the teacher's qualifications the most.

When we look at the views of the physical education teacher candidates participating in the research on the functioning of the teaching practice course, almost all of them, 34.7%, stated that it was taught in a healthy way. In addition, it was observed that some of the pre-service teachers who participated in the study stated that the lesson was taught efficiently in terms of observation, but that the advisor did not spend much time. In line with the opinions expressed by the pre-service teachers, we can say that the course is efficient in terms of operation and observation, but the counselor should allocate more time to the pre-service teachers.

When we look at the problems experienced by the physical education teacher candidates participating in the research in the teaching practice course; It is seen that they experience problems due to classroom management, lack of equipment, lack of physical environment and exam anxiety. In addition, teacher candidates participating in the study; It has come to the fore that they have problems due to lack of communication, high expectations, class size and lack of professional knowledge. In addition, it was seen that some of the pre-service teachers who participated in the research had problems with the practice teacher and the practice instructor. Therefore, it can be said that pre-service teachers have problems in the implementation process due to different reasons. In studies conducted in the literature, it has been stated that pre-service teachers have problems in classroom management in the teaching practice course (Tonga and Tantekin-Erden, 2021; Karasu Avcı and Ünal İbret, 2016; Demir and Çamlı, 2011; Karaca and Aral, 2011; Karadüz et al., 2009). .

Yıkılmaz (2021), in his study on pre-service teachers, states that communication is one of the most important and indispensable tools we use at every stage of our lives, while emphasizing effective communication during the lesson.

In the study conducted by Aslan and Sağlam (2017), it was stated that teacher candidates do not pay enough attention to the teaching practice course due to exam anxiety such as KPSS and ALES.

It has been observed that teacher candidates being worried about KPSS in their last year reduces the efficiency of teaching practice (Yılmaz and Kab, 2013; Eraslan, 2009; Gökçe and Demirhan, 2005). Sılay and Gök (2004), on the other hand, determined that the studies carried out in the practice school were not taken seriously, the classes in the practice schools were too crowded and there were not enough documents in the schools.

According to Ekiz (2006), pre-service teachers have difficulties in subjects such as classroom discipline, time management and practical culture of teaching. In a study conducted by Şahin, Şenel, and İpek (2007), it was observed that pre-service teachers had the most

difficulties in classroom management, obtaining equipment and using time effectively in their teaching practices. Similar results were obtained in the studies conducted by Koç and Yıldız (2012) and Güven (2004).

In his research, Atmiş (2013) concluded that the teacher candidates did not guide them enough from the instructors. Among the results of the research conducted by Sağlam and Sağlam (2004) and Sevim (2002), it was determined that the teaching staff did not allocate enough time to the practice courses due to the high course load. It has also emerged in some studies (Alıncak and Şahin, 2020; Aslan, 2015; Topkaya, Tokcan and Kara, 2012; Yılmaz, 2011) about teaching practice that there are problems with the instructor.

When the solution suggestions for the problems experienced by the physical education teacher candidates participating in the research were examined in the teaching practice course, 17.1% of all stated that the necessary importance should be given to the lesson. Almost all of the participants; It was stated that the communication process should be healthier, the pre-service teacher should be more active and the ideas of the pre-service teacher should be given importance. In addition, teacher candidates; They stated that guidance and counseling services should be provided, feedback and the opportunity to observe different teachers should be given within the scope of the course. In addition, as solution suggestions for the problems experienced in the teaching practice course; There was an opinion that the class sizes should be reduced and the practice school should be close. From this point of view, we can say that teacher candidates in different fields should be supported in order to solve the problems experienced in the lesson. According to the results obtained from different studies, mentoring teachers to guide pre-service teachers in preparing lesson plans and materials (Gökçe and Demirhan, 2005; Kiraz, 2002) and giving constructive and positive feedback (Beck and Kosnik, 2000; Edward and Collins, 1996; Maynard, 2000) It was concluded that these feedbacks should be aimed at developing the teacher candidates professionally and that they should allocate enough time to the teacher candidates.

Dursun and Kuzu (2008) stated that students need the guidance of the instructor more during the teaching practice process. Yıkılmaz and Altıncak (2021) stated in their study that teachers should have classroom management skills in order to manage the classroom.

While similar studies emphasize the importance of the communication to be established between the teacher candidate and the practice teacher (Oğuz and Avcı, 2014; Karaca and Aral, 2011; Gündoğdu, Coşkun, Albez and Bay, 2010; Seçer, Çeliköz and Kayılı, 2010), some It has been argued that feedback is important for the professional development of teacher candidates (Aslan and Sağlam, 2018; Değirmençay and Kasap, 2013; Eraslan, 2009; Özmen, 2008; Sarıçoban, 2008).

Paker (2008) revealed in his research that pre-service teachers could not get enough feedback from their mentor teachers. In addition, in his research, he found that pre-service teachers wanted meeting hours in which both the practice teacher and the practice instructor could convey their observations to the pre-service teacher and discuss their performance in order to receive feedback.

Şahin, Şenel, and İpek (2007) found in their study that the teacher candidates had the most difficulty in classroom management among the problems encountered in teaching practices, which also coincides with the conclusion that the teacher candidates in our study had the most difficulty in classroom management during the adaptation process in the first weeks.

When the suggestions of the physical education teacher candidates participating in the research regarding the teaching practice course are examined, almost all of them are 14.6%; He stated that opportunities and conditions should be improved, communication and cooperation should be ensured and time should be increased. In addition, the participants; They suggested that the instruction about the application should be prepared, the school administration and the

practice teacher should help the pre-service teacher. Some participants as suggestions; It was seen that they suggested that the lesson should be well planned, seminars on the application could be given, going to different schools and including village schools in the practice. The result of the research conducted by Şahin (2003), Gökçe and Demirhan (2005) and Küçükyılmaz (2010) is that the implementation period should be increased. In addition, as a result of the study conducted by Yazçayır (2010), it was revealed that the candidates could not fully acquire some competencies due to the inadequacy of the teaching practice course of the teachers.

In different studies (Şimşek, Alkan, and Erdem, 2013; Şaşmaz-Ören, Sevinç, and Erdoğmuş, 2009; Aydın, Selçuk and Yeşilyurt, 2007; Şahin, 2003) it was concluded that the time allocated to teaching practice is similarly insufficient.

In the study conducted by Aslan (2015), the importance of preparing a directive that includes the purpose of teaching practice, the work to be done and the responsibilities of the stakeholders was emphasized. It can be stated that such a directive will make the teaching practice process more regular and effective.

As a result, physical education teacher candidates stated that the teaching practice course is beneficial for the teaching profession, while they stated that it is a course that provides professional competence and a course that makes the teaching profession popular. Within the scope of the course, physical education teacher candidates participating in the research; It is seen that they experience problems due to classroom management, lack of equipment, lack of physical environment and exam anxiety. At the same time, the participants; It is seen that they experience problems due to lack of communication, high expectations, class size and lack of professional knowledge. As a solution proposal to the problems experienced in the lesson, teacher candidates; It has been stated that emphasis should be given to the lesson, the communication process should be healthier, the pre-service teacher should be more active and the ideas of the pre-service teacher should be given importance. At the same time, they stated that guidance and counseling services should be provided, feedback and the opportunity to observe different teachers should be given within the scope of the course. In addition, when we look at the suggestions of the participants regarding the teaching practice course; they suggested that the instruction about the application should be prepared, the school administration and the practice teacher should help the pre-service teacher. In addition, teacher candidates; It was seen that they suggested that the lesson should be well planned, seminars on the application could be given, going to different schools and including village schools in the practice.

SUGGESTIONS

In-service training seminars can be held regarding the teaching practice process.

Similar studies can be conducted with prospective teachers in all branches, and the results of the study can be compared between branches.

Different alternatives can be developed to make the teaching practice course more active and productive.

Effective communication should be ensured in order to avoid conflicts between the pre-service teacher, the practice teacher and the practice instructor, who are the stakeholders of the Teaching Practice process.

Pre-service teachers should pay attention to the feedback given throughout the process, be prepared for their activities, and learn different methods to improve themselves in classroom management.

Studies should be carried out to increase the quality of the Teaching Practice course and its practice, and the results of these researches should be evaluated while developing teacher training programs.

The duration of the teaching practices course that supports the professional development of teacher candidates should be increased, and it should be ensured that the candidates gain experience in different courses in the pre-service period.

In order to make teaching practice courses more effective, the number of semesters can be increased or given every semester.

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The Effect Of The Sıtuatıonal Anxıety Levels Of The Athletes Partıcıpatıng In The Eurohockey Indoor Club 2022 Men Organızatıon On Theır Mental Well-Beıng And Psychologıcal Resılıence

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Introduction

Studies have revealed the relationship between anxiety and performance. The reason why people show low performance is related to high levels of anxiety. It is essential to dwell on the reasons for the anxiety experienced by the athletes in order to increase their performance. These reactions that occur in the case of anxiety have a negative impact on the performance of athletes (1). In this case, athletes feel under pressure and cannot perform their existing performances. This poses a significant problem for athletes. Being able to adapt to anxiety situations is very important for an athlete. Athletes who cannot adapt to this situation have problems with team harmony and their group performances are low (2).

Mental well-being is important in sports. Mental well-being allows you to enjoy the life being lived and create a state of satisfaction. For this reason, people participating in activities that they feel happy about contributes to their mental well-being. For this, sport is quite important. Because sports contribute to physical and mental health, and also reduce the level of stress and anxiety. The mental well-being and psychological endurance of those with a high level of status anxiety are also positively affected. In addition, it is important to examine the effect of athletes' state anxiety levels on mental well-being and psychological endurance (3).

Based on this, the aim of our study is to examine the effect of the situational anxiety levels of the athletes participating in the Eurohockey indoor club 2022 men's organization on their mental well-being and psychological endurance.

Materıal Method

Study Design and Content

In this part of the study, information about the research model, study group, data collection tools and process is given. Our study was designed according to the relational screening model with questionnaire. Situational anxiety, Mental Well-Being and Psychological Resilience Scales were applied to team athletes participating in the 2022 Euro Hockey Indoor men's tournament. The questionnaire was applied to 70 athletes from 6 countries (Turkey, Russia, Austria, Belarus, Croatia, Spain). Questionnaire technique, one of the quantitative research methods, was used in a study to examine the effects of the state anxiety levels of these athletes on their mental well-being and psychological resilience. Situational Anxiety Scale, Mental Well-Being Scale and Psychological Resilience Scale were used to collect the data obtained from the research.

Situational Anxiety Scale

There are a total of 20 items on this scale. Here, the situational anxiety levels are determined by taking into account the individual's feelings about the mental state he is in at a desired moment and under certain conditions. The emotions or behaviors expressed on the situational anxiety scale are answered by marking one of the following styles according to the severity of such experiences: (1) none, (2) a little, (3) a lot, (4) completely. Items scored directly emphasize negative emotions, while items scored inversely emphasize positive emotions. On the Here, the situational anxiety levels are determined by taking into account the individual's feelings about the mental state he is in at a desired moment and under certain conditions. scale 1, 2, 5, 8, 10, 11, 15, 16, 19 and articles numbered 20 are encoded in reverse. The total score varies between 20 and 80. The last value obtained is the anxiety score of the individual. The reliability coefficient of the scale is between 0.94 and 0.96. The scores obtained in the state anxiety scale theoretically vary between 20 and 80 points. It is accepted that those who score below 36 have no anxiety, those who score between 37-42 have mild anxiety, and those who score 42 and above have high anxiety (4).

Mental Well-being Scale

This scale consists of 14 items and deals with the positive mental health of individuals by covering psychological well-being and subjective well-being. The scale is of 5-point likert type and minimum 14 and maximum 70 points are taken from the scale. The scoring of the scale is (1= disagree at all, 2= disagree, 3= slightly agree, 4=agree, 5= completely agree). All items of the scale are positive. The internal consistency reliability of the scale The data obtained from 70 people were calculated and the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the scale was found to be 0.91 (5).

Psychological Resilience Scale

The scale is in 5-point Likert type and consists of 21 items and 3 sub-dimensions. These sub-dimensions are; self-commitment, control, and challenge. Items 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 18 and 21 of the scale constitute the dimension of self-commitment; Items 4, 10, 11, 12, 15, 19 and 20 constitute the control dimension; Items 7, 8, 9, 13, 14, 16 and 17 constitute the challenge dimension. The score that can be taken from each item of the scale is at least 0, maximum 4. The total score that can be taken from the scale is at least 0 and at most 84. The scale items were prepared as “(0) I Strongly Disagree”, “(1) I Disagree”, “(2) I Neither Agree nor Disagree”, “(3) I Agree”, “(4) I Strongly Agree”. The 2nd and 15th items of the scale are scored in the opposite direction, that is, they are scored as 4-3-2-1-0. Operations can be made with the total scores of the scale and the scores obtained from its sub-dimensions. Higher scores from the sub-dimensions and the sum of the scale indicate that the level of resilience is high (6).

Analysis of the Data

SPSS 22.0 package program was used for the analysis of the data obtained from the research. It has been determined that the data show a normal distribution. Of the statistical test methods, parametric ones were preferred. The average scores of the participants obtained from the scales based on the countries, the minimum and maximum values and the standard deviation values were shown as descriptive statistics. The One Way Anova test was used to compare the average scores obtained from the scales between countries and to analyze the effect of the situational anxiety scale on mental well-being and psychological resilience. Post Hoc LSD technique was used to determine which group the significant differences were in favor of.

Results

Table 1. *Comparison of the average scores obtained from the psychological resilience scale among national athletes.*

		N	Av.	Std. D.	Std. E.	F	P	Diff.	
Psychological Resilience	**T**urkey	12	68.83	7.80	2.25	8.082	0.000		
	Russia	10	62.10	10.42	3.29			T-R	
	Austria	12	50.75	8.15	2.35			T-A	R-A
	Belarus	12	58.92	6.71	1.94			T-B	C-A
	Croatia	12	66.33	8.05	2.32			T-S	
	Spain	12	60.00	4.65	1.34				

In Table 1, the comparison of the total mean scores obtained from the psychological resilience scale between countries is given. As a result of the analysis of the data obtained, it was determined that the psychological resilience averages of the country athletes differed significantly from each other ($p<0.05$). The significant difference obtained between Turkey and Russia, Austria, Belarus and Spain has emerged in favor of Turkey. between Russia and Austria in favor of Russia; Between Croatia and Austria, the result was in favor of Croatia.

Table 2. *Comparison of the average scores obtained from the sub-dimension of Self-Commitment in psychological resilience among national athletes.*

		N	Av.	Std. D.	Std. E.	F	P	Diff.
Self-Commitment	**T**urkey	12	20.75	3.17	0.91	4.318	0.002	T-A
	Russia	10	19.10	4.04	1.28			T-B
	Austria	12	17.42	3.85	1.11			R-B
	Belarus	12	16.00	2.22	0.64			
	Croatia	12	20.83	2.89	0.83			
	Spain	12	18.50	2.50	0.72			

In Table 2, the comparison of the average scores obtained from the sub-dimension of self-commitment, which is one of the sub-dimensions of psychological resilience, between countries is given. As a result of the analysis of the data obtained, it was determined that the averages obtained from the sub-dimension of self-commitment to the country athletes differed significantly ($p<0.05$). The significant difference obtained between Türkiye, Austria and Belarus in favor of Turkey; Between Russia and Belarus, the result was in favor of Russia.

Table 3. *Comparison of the average scores obtained from the control sub-dimension in psychological resilience among national athletes.*

		N	Av.	Std. D.	Std. E.	F	P	Diff.
Control	**T**urkey	12	21.17	1.80	0.52	4.940	0.001	
	Russia	10	18.60	4.25	1.34			T-A
	Austria	12	15.58	3.48	1.00			T-B
	Belarus	12	17.25	3.36	0.97			T-S
	Croatia	12	20.00	3.05	0.88			R-A
	Spain	12	17.75	2.38	0.69			

In Table 3, the comparison of the average scores obtained from the control sub-dimension, which is one of the psychological resilience sub-dimensions, between countries is given. As a result of the analysis of the obtained data, it was determined that the averages obtained from the control sub-dimension of the country athletes differed significantly ($p<0.05$). The significant difference obtained between Turkey and Austria, Belarus and Spain in favor of Turkey; Between Russia and Austria, the result was in favor of Russia.

Table 4. *Comparison of the average scores obtained from the challenge sub-dimension in psychological resilience among national athletes.*

		N	Av.	Std. D.	Std. E.	F	P	Diff.
Challenge	**T**urkey	12	24.83	2.89	0.83	13.509	0.000	
	Russia	10	22.20	2.57	0.81			T-A
	Austria	12	14.83	4.69	1.35			T-S
	Belarus	12	22.08	3.18	0.92			R-A
	Croatia	12	24.67	3.92	1.13			B-A
	Spain	12	21.33	2.71	0.78			

In Table 4, the comparison of the average scores obtained from the challenge sub-dimension, which is one of the psychological resilience sub-dimensions, between countries is given. As a result of the analysis of the data obtained, it was determined that the averages of the country athletes from the challenge sub-dimension differed significantly ($p<0.05$). The significant difference obtained between Türkiye, Austria and Spain in favor of Turkey; It was concluded in favor of Russia between Russia and Austria and in favor of Belarus between Belarus and Austria.

Table 5. *Comparison of the average scores obtained from the mental well-being scale among national athletes.*

		N	Av.	Std. D.	Std. E.	F	P	Diff.	
Mental Well-being	**T**urkey	12	60.33	6.18	1.79	8.868	0.000		
	Russia	10	51.80	9.95	3.15			T-R	T-S
	Austria	12	47.50	8.48	2.45			T-A	C-A
	Belarus	12	48.17	5.47	1.58			T-B	C-B
	Croatia	12	62.42	6.76	1.95				
	Spain	12	52.83	6.03	1.74				

In Table 5, the comparison of the total mean scores obtained from the mental well-being scale of the participants between countries is given. As a result of the analysis of the data obtained, it was determined that the averages obtained from the mental well-being scale of the country athletes differed significantly ($p<0.05$). The resulting significant difference between Turkey and Russia, Austria, Belarus and Spain in favor of Turkey; Between Croatia, Austria and Belarus, it was concluded in favor of Croatia.

Table 6. *Comparison of mean scores from the situational anxiety scale among country athletes.*

		N	Av.	Std. D.	Std. E.	F	P	Diff.
Situational Anxiety	**T**urkey	12	57.00	8.18	2.36	18.378	0.000	
	Russia	10	32.70	8.78	2.78			R-T
	Austria	12	37.17	5.34	1.54			R-B
	Belarus	12	48.17	3.71	1.07			C-T
	Croatia	12	33.58	10.39	3.00			C-B
	Spain	12	37.33	7.74	2.23			

In Table 6, the comparison of the total mean scores of the participants from the situational anxiety scale between countries is given. As a result of the analysis of the obtained data, it was found that the averages obtained from the situational anxiety scale of the country athletes differed significantly ($p<0.05$). The significant difference obtained is between Russia and Turkey and Belarus in favor of Russia; Between Croatia and Turkey and Belarus, it was concluded in favor of Croatia. Russia and Croatia were found to have fewer situational concerns.

Table 7. *Comparison of the effects of the situational anxiety of the athletes participating in the tournament on the resilience scale and its sub-dimensions total score averages.*

	Situational Anxiety (points)	Av.	Std. D.	f	p	Diff.
Psychological Resilience	No anxiety *(<36)*	63.27	9.76	2.561	0.085	
	Mild anxiety *(36-42)*	56.47	7.05			
	High anxiety *(>42)*	61.82	9.84			
Self-Commitment	No anxiety *(<36)*	20.41	2.61	3.857	0.026	1-2
	Mild anxiety *(36-42)*	18.07	3.67			1-3
	High anxiety *(>42)*	17.97	3.66			
Control	No anxiety *(<36)*	19.14	3.93	1.848	0.166	
	Mild anxiety *(36-42)*	16.93	2.12			
	High anxiety *(>42)*	18.55	3.65			
Challenge	No anxiety *(<36)*	21.73	4.95	3.962	0.024	3-2
	Mild anxiety *(36-42)*	18.87	4.82			
	High anxiety *(>42)*	22.85	4.12			

Table 7 shows the effect of the situational anxiety of the athletes participating in the tournament on the average scores obtained from the resilience scale and its sub-dimensions. The state anxiety of the athletes participating in the tournament did not have any significant effect on the psychological resilience total scores and control sub-dimension ($p>0.05$). The situational anxiety of the athletes participating in the tournament had a significant effect on the psychological resilience sub-dimensions, self-commitment and challenge ($p<0.05$). It was determined that those with low situational anxiety on the self-commitment sub-dimension had a higher mean. In the challenge sub-dimension, a significance was found in favor of those with high situational anxiety averages.

Table 8. *Comparison of the effects of the situational anxiety of the athletes participating in the tournament on the mean scores of the mental well-being scale.*

	Situational Anxiety (points)	Av.	Std. D.	f	p	Diff.
Mental Well-being	No anxiety *(<36)*	58.09	8.72	4.083	0.021	1-2 1-3
	Mild anxiety *(36-42)*	50.47	6.67			
	High anxiety *(>42)*	52.67	9.37			

Table 8 shows the effect of the situational anxiety of the athletes participating in the tournament on their mental well-being. The state anxiety of the athletes participating in the tournament had a significant effect on the total score averages obtained from the mental well-being scale ($p<0.05$). It has been determined that the mental well-being levels of the athletes with low situational anxiety are better.

Discussion and Conclusion

The aim of this study was to examine the effect of the situational anxiety levels of the athletes participating in the Eurohockey indoor club 2022 men's organization on their mental well-being and psychological resilience. For this purpose, a total of 70 athletes were administered questionnaires on anxiety, mental well-being and psychological resilience.

A statistical result was created with the data obtained as a result of the applied survey. According to the results obtained, the state anxiety levels, mental well-being and psychological resilience levels of the athletes differed significantly from each other. In addition, significant differences were found among the athletes in the data examining the effects of situational anxiety levels on mental well-being and psychological resilience.

In a study conducted in 2020, the psychological resilience of the athletes was measured by taking into account the levels (amateur-professional). Significant changes were recorded in psychological resilience according to the age variable. It has been determined that as the average age gets older, their psychological resilience is at higher levels (7). In addition, in another study, it was revealed that teachers' dealing with any job other than the teaching profession did not have any significance on psychological resilience (8). Again, in a study where the psychological resilience of the athletes was measured, when the athletes were grouped according to their education levels, the level of psychological resilience showed a distribution of 29.2% at university level, 65.5% at high school level, and 5.3% at secondary school level. In line with this information, it has been shown that the psychological resilience of university graduate athletes and high school graduate athletes is better than primary school students participating in the research. In another study, a psychological resilience scale was applied to coaches. Their psychological resilience was questioned based on the work experiences of the coaches. It has been determined that there is a decrease in the psychological resilience levels of the coaches as their work experience increases on the basis of coaching (9).

In a study, it was stated that high anxiety levels of people would contribute positively to performance. According to Altıparmak (1997), it has been revealed that an increase in the anxiety level of the person can have a positive effect on his performance. This situational anxiety that occurs in the person increases the motivation of the person towards the work he/she does. In other words, the increase in situational anxiety of the person affected the increase in performance. With the positive relationship between situational anxiety and the duration of exercise, it was understood that the instant stress of the person would increase with exercise. This is indirectly reflected in his relationships with others and other activities (10). In addition, in a study conducted by Akman (2004), it was stated that the current exercise activities would have an important place in the increase of situational anxiety, and as a result of the study, a positive relationship was found between this type of anxiety and the duration of exercise. It has been discussed that this situation may be caused by the increase in arousal of the person with exercise (11).

When the literature studies are examined, it is possible to come across studies in which situational anxiety is examined in terms of various variables. Bingol et al. (2012) examined the pre-match anxiety levels of taekwondo national team athletes studying at universities and determined that the level of situational anxiety did not differ between genders (12). Ghorbanzadeh and Bayar (2013) determined that the anxiety levels of taekwondo female athletes differed negatively compared to men the day before the competition, but there was no difference in the anxiety levels of male and female athletes one hour before and one hour after the competition (13). Karabulut and Var (2019) observed that the situational and trait anxiety levels of male and female athletes during the competition of university students engaged in taekwondo sports do not make a significant difference (14). On the other hand, Öntürk et al. (2019) stated that in the pre-competition situational anxiety level of elite taekwondo female athletes, female athletes have more anxiety than male athletes, and this situation causes differences between genders (15).

Conclusion and Recommendations

As a result, it can be said that the situational anxiety levels of the athletes have a significant effect on mental well-being and psychological resilience. Situational anxiety levels, psychological resilience levels and mental well-being levels differ significantly among athletes on the basis of countries. We can say that such a difference can be an important factor in the success of the athletes as a team. The following suggestions are given for the development of the research subject and for more effective results:

- It can be ensured that the results are more effective by applying the scale before and after the tournament. In this way, a meaningful relationship can be established between anxiety levels, psychological resilience and mental well-being and competition results.
- The larger number of participants and the implementation of scale applications in tournaments organized specifically for different branches will be effective in making the results more generalizable.
- Carrying out studies in which anxiety levels are investigated simultaneously on coaches as it is applied to athletes will be effective in determining the factors that affect team success.

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Making Sense Of The Career And Work-Family Balance Of Professional Women İn Eastern Societies

Aysel Doğaç

1. Introduction

In societies characterized by patriarchal hegemony, commonly referred to as "hegemonic masculinity" by Connell (2005), women's actions and social hierarchy are significantly influenced, particularly in developing regions. This study examines the work-life balance of women in Eastern countries, where patriarchy holds a strong presence, by analyzing the impact of patriarchy through semi-structured interviews. The participants include women who work full-time while also juggling personal commitments, such as domestic and caregiving responsibilities.

The patriarchal system systematically denies women certain non-work-life activities, which serves as a visible display of male dominance over women. Adisa et al. (2014) argue that patriarchy functions as a system of social stratification and differentiation, rooted in gender, that establishes the boundaries for women's inequalities. Consequently, it imposes limitations on women's roles and activities, as supported by Makama (2013) and Salaam (2003). When women prioritize their career aspirations over their primary responsibilities at home and within the family, they may encounter domestic conflicts and face potential societal sanctions, as suggested by Adisa et al.

The rise in women's labor market involvement has been one of the most noticeable trends of the twenty-first century (Cortes, 2018). According to researchers, the stereotypes of male breadwinners and female housewives are quickly vanishing because women are now making equal financial contributions to families (Zuo and Tang, 2000; Trappe et al., 2015). Women must so integrate and balance their duties at work and outside of it. More women frequently face significant levels of role overload and caregiver stress as a result of this predicament (Duxbury and Higgins, 2008). In addition, studies have shown that women frequently receive less spousal assistance than their male counterparts (De Klerk and Mostert, 2010).

Research shows that female housewives are starting to decline because women now make an equal financial contributions to families. However, due to societal standards and gender roles, women in these nations typically have few career options and difficulty juggling work and family obligations. Economically active women typically need women's work-life balance more than their male counterparts because of their familial and caregiving responsibilities for children and other senior dependents (Bardoel et al., 1999).

Hence, women who face unequal living conditions in comparison to men may experience disadvantages when it comes to accessing, participating in, and navigating work life (İrey, 2011). Additionally, the ability to achieve work-life balance can vary for women based on cultural factors. For instance, in certain Eastern regions, there is a tendency to categorize jobs for both men and women, prioritizing men's career advancement. In contrast, in Western societies, measures such as flexible working hours, childcare support, and work-life balance programs are implemented to enhance women's integration into the workforce (Aydın, 2019).

Therefore, this study aims to determine whether decisions affect the work-life balance and career choices of female professionals in East Nations. This research has increased the importance of the study in terms of contributing to the deficiency in the literature and making

suggestions by conducting studies on gender equality and balance in the workplace. In addition, it is expected that the results obtained will make beneficial contributions to the enterprises. The concept of understanding the impact of social characteristics on women's work-life balance is mentioned.

2. The meaning of career and work-family balance

The increasing self-improvement and emphasis on education for women have paved the way for their active involvement in the workforce and the potential for success in various fields. However, it is believed that women's active roles in the workplace lifetime. While hindering their fulfillment of societal expectations regarding domestic roles. Consequently, there are several obstacles to women's advancement and success in their professional lives. These obstacles primarily stem from traditional gender roles conflicting with women's career aspirations and the psychological dilemma they face between family and career. In the context of this dilemma, it is necessary to highlight the significance of career development for women and determine what a career means for them in today's society. Additionally, it is important to identify the reasons why women aspire to advance in their careers.

The word "career," derived from the French word "carrière," is perceived as a progression in one's profession, specialization, diplomatic career, stages to be achieved in a profession, and the chosen direction in life, encompassing a series of work performed throughout one's career is generally defined as the total of the jobs undertaken by an individual throughout their working life, the concept of career represents a broader meaning. In this broader sense, an individual's career encompasses not only the jobs they hold but also their education to express expectations, goals, emotions, and desires related to the work role assigned to them in the workplace, enabling them to progress with the knowledge, skills, abilities, and work motivation they possess (Bayraktaroğlu, 2003: 117).

Women also face various career-related challenges, including the need to take extended breaks from their careers and unfair wage discrepancies. In American and European countries, for instance, studies have revealed that female managers earn lower wages compared to their male counterparts. This disparity can be attributed to factors such as women's acceptance of inequality and their lesser emphasis on wage sensitivity compared to men (Karaca, 2007). Additionally, according to Güder's (2019) research based on TUIK data, women with vocational high school qualifications earn an average of 22.7% less than their male counterparts. As a result, women often find themselves earning lower wages, which negatively impacts their work-life balance and can potentially undermine job satisfaction and overall motivation (Güder, 2019).

Research conducted by Kozak (2020) in the tourism sector indicates that male employees have more influence and women are often relegated to the background. Women also face discrimination related to their gender-specific rights, such as pregnancy and motherhood, particularly concerning promotions and salary raises. These findings highlight the connection between gender and work-life balance, which varies based on societal expectations placed on men and women (Sondergaard, 2000). Connell's (2005) interviews with female public sector workers in Australia reveal that women bear the responsibility of managing household affairs while simultaneously navigating the demands of their workplace. Additionally, within their families, women are primarily responsible for providing emotional support, such as listening to their children and offering psychological assistance when needed (Strazdins & Broom, 2004). Particularly for women with young children who work extended or flexible hours, they often struggle to reconcile the demands of motherhood, a central role ascribed to women, with their work responsibilities. Consequently, women encounter difficulties in maintaining work-life balance and may find it challenging to focus on their work (Smithson & Stokoe, 2005). Women tend to gravitate towards jobs that offer more flexibility and enable them to spend time with their children (Connell, 2005).

Numerous studies in the literature, including Halford (2006), explore how men and women navigate the interplay between work and their personal lives, such as social and family life. These studies delve into the gendered responsibilities assigned to men and women. When it comes to parenting roles, the mother is typically expected to handle tasks such as household chores, childcare, and caring for elders, while the father's primary responsibility is often seen as providing for the household (Brush, 1992). Generally, men are more likely to undertake tasks that involve high control and occur less frequently, such as gardening, and domestic and car repairs. On the other hand, tasks like cooking, dishwashing, laundry, ironing, and cooking for children, which are mandatory and consistently required, are traditionally considered the responsibilities of women (Estes et al., 2007; Pedersen et al., 2009; Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2008).

Women face challenges in maintaining work-life balance not only due to family obligations but also in work environments where men are given preferential treatment. Gökçil (2019) highlights that women may encounter difficulties in managing their work-life balance when they work in settings where men are granted more privileges. Mirage (1994) emphasizes that gender-based differences can manifest in the workplace. It has been observed that male employees are often favored over female employees in professional positions, making it more challenging for women to secure promotions (Herrbach and Mignonac, 2012). Such difficulties can have a detrimental impact on women's work-life balance. For instance, Gülcan's (2004) study on 100 working women across three companies in Kütahya and Gümüşhane investigated potential discrimination in terms of wages, education, employment, and promotion between male and female employees. The findings revealed that male employees were afforded more privileges (Bakıcı and Aydın, 2020).

We do not perceive balance as a mechanism that directly links work and family because it does not clarify the causal relationship between conditions or experiences in one role and those in the other role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Contrary to the prevailing notion of organizing roles in a hierarchical manner, work-family balance is better understood as an interconnected phenomenon encompassing various life roles. According to Marks and MacDermid (1996), who reference Mead (1964), individuals have the capacity and the ideal situation to exhibit equally positive commitments across multiple life roles. In other words, maintaining a balanced orientation to diverse roles is both possible and desirable. This perspective challenges the traditional belief that certain roles naturally take precedence over others in a hierarchical fashion.

Marks and MacDermid (1996) define role balance as a predisposition to wholeheartedly engage in fulfilling each role within one's comprehensive role system. This involves approaching typical roles and role partners with attentiveness and care, and practicing an impartial form of mindfulness. They also acknowledge the existence of two distinct manifestations: positive role balance and negative role balance. Positive role balance represents a state of being fully engaged and invested in each role, reflecting the desired outcome. In contrast, negative role balance refers to complete disengagement from all roles. While Marks and MacDermid (1996) understandably prioritize the significance of positive role balance, they underscore the importance of differentiating between these two concepts.

Similar to Marks and MacDermid's (1996) definition of positive role balance, other academics have defined work-family balance or work-life balance. Kirchmeyer, for instance, defines a balanced existence as "achieving satisfying experiences in all domains of life, and to do so requires personal resources such as energy, time, and commitment to be well distributed across domains" (Kirchmeyer, 2000). Similar to this, Clark defines work-family balance as "happiness and well functioning at work and home with a minimum of role conflict" (Clark, 2000). "A fulfilling, healthy, and productive life that incorporates work, leisure, and love..." is what Kofodimos defines as "balance" (Kofodimos, 1993).

These definitions of equilibrium have a few things in common. They first underline the idea of near-equality between experiences in the roles of family and job. High levels of pleasure, functionality, health, or effectiveness across many positions are suggested by Clark (2000), Kirchmeyer (2000), and Kofodimos (1993), among others. Perhaps most directly highlighting the equality of role commitments is the concept of "evenhanded alertness" as a trait of positive balance proposed by Marks and MacDermid (1996). Even negative balance denotes an equal lack of attention in various jobs, according to Marks and MacDermid's (1996) description. A weighing scale is said to be balanced when there are equal weights on both sides of the fulcrum, whether the weights are equally heavy or equally light, to use an analogy from common life.

Additionally, the definitions of work-family balance implicitly include the concepts of inputs and results, which are two aspects of equality. The people resources (Kirchmeyer, 2000) assigned to each role are referred to as inputs. To achieve balance, one must provide each role—whether it be family or work—roughly the same amount of thought, effort, time, or devotion. A positive balance means that these inputs are present in an equal amount, whereas a negative balance means that they are present in an equal amount. These inputs show a person's level of involvement in each function, taking into account elements like time commitment or psychological commitment. It is difficult to picture a balanced person who favors one role over the other significantly in terms of their level of engagement (Greenhaus et al., 2003).

The other aspect of balance pertains to the resulting outcomes experienced in both work and family roles. Satisfaction is often included as one of the outcomes in definitions of balance (Clark, 2000; Kirchmeyer, 2000; Kofodimos, 1993). Positive balance implies an equally high level of satisfaction with both work and family roles, while negative balance suggests an equally low level of satisfaction in each role. Once again, it is challenging to conceive of individuals achieving work-family balance if they exhibit significantly higher satisfaction in one role compared to the other. One of the measures used by Marks and MacDermid (1996) to assess positive role balance examines the extent to which individuals experience equal satisfaction across all life roles.

The degree to which a person is equally involved in and content with both their work role and family role is how we define work-family balance. According to Marks and MacDermid's (1996) viewpoint, both positive balance and negative balance are included in our definition. We suggest three dimensions of work-family balance since role engagement can be further divided into temporal and psychological participation components:

• Time balance: the fair division of time between family and work obligations.

• Involvement balance: a psychological commitment to work and family responsibilities that is equal.

• Satisfaction balance: a similar degree of contentment with one's roles in the home and at work.

Depending on whether the levels of time, involvement, or satisfaction are equally high or equally low, each component of work-family balance can imply either a good balance or a negative balance Greenhaus et al., 2003).

Our perspective on work-family balance is that it exists on a continuum, ranging from extensive imbalance favoring a specific role (e.g., family) to a state of relative balance, and further to extensive imbalance favoring the other role (e.g., work) as the opposite anchor point. In addition, we distinguish between an individual's values and desires and balance. Lambert (1990) talked about the idea of "maintaining a particular balance between work and home," while Bielby and Bielby (1989) noted that married working women can prioritize their families "in balancing work and family identities". Rather than placing an emphasis on equal commitments across jobs, it appears that these researchers use the term "balance" to refer to a

variety of commitment patterns. We contend that an individual who significantly prioritizes one role over the other is relatively imbalanced, even if their distribution of commitment to family and work aligns closely with their desires or values.

3. Related Studies

The work-life balance of women in certain professions may be significantly impacted by these issues. As they are frequently expected to prioritize their household responsibilities above their jobs, women may have difficulty juggling their professional commitments with their family responsibilities. As a result, there may be little assistance from employers and little chance for job progression. These difficulties for women in business might be made worse by social and cultural settings. For instance, women may have less access to opportunities for education and training if they are expected to put marriage and motherhood before their jobs in particular countries. Additionally, it can be challenging for women to achieve financial independence and balance their work and personal lives due to economic reasons including low earnings and limited career choices.

The career choices of female professionals in East countries can be influenced by a variety of factors. These include factors such as gender norms, family expectations, education level, economic conditions, workplace culture, and supportive policies.

The study conducted by Adisa et al. (2014) focuses on the challenges faced by Nigerian female doctors and nurses in achieving work-family balance. The research results indicate that females experience various workplace and domestic problems that pose significant obstacles to achieving work-family balance. Because at home, female doctors and nurses often encounter traditional gender roles and expectations. Responsibilities such as housework, childcare, and care work are expected to be largely on them. These expectations can create additional stress and time constraints, making it difficult for them to balance their professional and personal lives. According to Zuo and Tang (2016), men and women with different socioeconomic statuses are more likely to have unconventional gender ideas. Contrarily, men with higher socioeconomic position and women with lower socioeconomic status are shown to be more traditional.

The work-life balance of women in certain professions may be significantly impacted by these issues. Women A typical patriarchal society, like Nigeria, tends to be gender-based in its organization and has internalized the concept. This study looks at how patriarchy affects women's ability to manage work and family in Nigeria, a non-Western society. The writers use a qualitative study methodology to deepen their understanding of the patriarchy and women's work-life balance issues. Semi-structured interviews served as the main mode of data gathering during the study's four-month data-collecting period. In this region of the world, patriarchal standards are pervasive and frequently stand in the way of women's attempts to achieve work-life balance.

The findings of this study demonstrate that patriarchal cultures are characterized by male dominance and excessive female subordination, home and gender-based labor division, and higher patriarchal tendencies among men. According to the conclusions drawn from this study, the pervasive patriarchy and patriarchal standards in the culture present significant obstacles for women in the global south, particularly in Nigeria, in maintaining a work-life balance. Strong patriarchal norms and tendencies hurt women's ability to combine work and family obligations, which may therefore affect employee productivity, organizational effectiveness, employee performance, and employee punctuality at work (Adisa et al., 2019).

Çetin (2019), the objective was to compare the approach towards paid women's labor in Greece and Turkey, both being European Union member countries, with the social policy of the European Union. The findings highlighted the similarities and differences between Greece

and Turkey while revealing the limited impact of the European Union on the regulations about paid women's labor in both countries.

Wang and Peng (2017) examined the relationship between work-family conflict and depression in professional women Chinese. This study shows that there is a significant relationship between work-family conflict and depression mediated by job and life satisfaction.

Using both qualitative and quantitative research techniques, including in-depth interviews and surveys, the study seeks to understand the experiences and viewpoints of female leaders in China. The study discusses obstacles faced by women leaders as they advance in their careers, the need to strike a balance between work and home obligations, motivating elements, and new prospects. The study's findings deepen our comprehension of the challenges and advancements female leaders in China have experienced. It also draws attention to the advantages, aptitude for leadership, and potential of female leaders. In this study, Wang and Shirmohammadi (2016) underline the importance of women leaders in the corporate world and call for deliberate action to foster their advancement.

It focuses on an exploratory empirical study that looks into variables linked to Chinese managers' professional achievement in an East setting. The study investigates the connections between numerous individual and environmental elements, including gender, educational attainment, professional experience, organizational support, job satisfaction, and the advancement of Chinese managers' careers. This paper advances knowledge of career development in non-Western settings and sheds light on the elements that help Chinese professionals succeed in their professional lives (Tu et al., 2006).

Oplatka (2006) the study is based on a systematic analysis of 13 English-language articles published in the fields of educational administration, gender studies in education, and comparative education. The review reveals that women face challenges in their career progression due to factors such as education systems, strong family obligations, limited educational opportunities for girls, and a predominantly male presence in teaching positions

Losoncza and Bortolottoa (2014) conducted a study to explore the experiences of Australian working mothers in achieving work-life balance. The research findings indicated that work-life conflict was associated with various challenges, including long working hours, excessive workloads, and insufficient support from others. About 30% of mothers found that they had negative effects on their physical and mental health, as well as lower levels of satisfaction and work-life conflict in both their work and family life.

In a study conducted by Sanderson and Whitehead in 2016, female administrators working in international schools were asked about the obstacles they faced in their career development and how they overcame these obstacles. According to the results obtained, it is stated that in Western societies, men are seen as natural leaders, which leads to a cultural bias against women's promotions. It is also emphasized that married women having a supportive spouse is crucial for their promotions. This is because women have expressed the need for someone who will give them the courage to pursue promotions.

The aim of the study conducted by Tlaiss and Kauser in 2011 was to understand the impact of gender, work, and family factors on the career development of Lebanese female executives. According to the research, management requires a demanding work pace, dedication, sacrifice, and significant responsibility. In Lebanon, economic responsibility lies with men within the family, leading women to prefer working in socially significant jobs rather than pursuing careers. In Lebanon, social class is the major determinant in planning women's career development. Women from privileged backgrounds and higher social classes receive more education and have more opportunities to climb the career ladder. This indicates that women from lower socioeconomic backgrounds have lower chances of success.

In our study, inspired by the research of French et al. (2020), we explore the connections between profile membership, gender, and the time individuals spend on housework, childcare, and eldercare. Additionally, we investigate the associations between profile membership and work-family balance, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and turnover intentions by employing competing theories such as job enrichment and the effort-reward imbalance model. Our findings reveal that women are more likely to be part of the teaching profile compared to the research profile, and the research profile is linked to the least amount of time spent on housework. Classic profile members exhibit the highest levels of work-family balance and job satisfaction, while members of the teaching profile experience the lowest levels across these variables.

Greenhaus et al. (2020) aim to investigate the relationship between work-family balance and quality of life among professionals working in the field of public accounting. They examined three aspects of work-family balance. These; are time balance (equal distribution of time for work and family), participation balance (equal participation in work and family), and satisfaction balance (equal satisfaction with work and family). The findings show that individuals who spend significant time on both their work and family roles experience different levels of quality of life. Specifically, those who devote more time to their families from work reported a higher quality of life compared to individuals who distributed their time evenly, and those who spent more time with their family at work reported the lowest quality of life.

In the present study conducted by Beham et al. (2012), we aimed to explore the variations in satisfaction with the work-family balance between professional and nonprofessional part-time employees in the service sector across five Western European countries. The results indicated that part-time employees, regardless of their professional status, exhibited higher levels of satisfaction with work-family balance compared to their full-time counterparts, even after considering various demands and resources. However, it is important to note that there were notable distinctions among the part-time employees. Specifically, those in marginal part-time employment with significantly reduced working hours reported the highest levels of satisfaction. On the other hand, professionals derived less satisfaction from reduced working hours and experienced lower levels of work-family balance compared to non-professionals. Interestingly, no significant differences in satisfaction with work-family balance were observed between male and female part-time workers

The objective of Bakıcı and Aydın's (2020) study is to explore the influence of patriarchy on the work-life balance of female employees, drawing insights from existing literature. This study delves into various dimensions that may impact the work-life balance of women, including gender, culture, religion, and belief. Through an examination of these factors, the research sheds light on the experiences of women in the workforce, the role of cultural diversity, and relevant theories about work-life balance within the Turkish context. By considering the impact of patriarchy, this study provides a comprehensive perspective on work-life balance and its implications for female employees.

4. Results

This study attempts to investigate the difficulties that women encounter in the workplace and the variables that influence their careers. examines how the social, cultural, and economic circumstances in different nations affect the professional career choices and work-life balance of women. By offering policy recommendations for women's equality and balance in the workplace, the research aims to enhance the career growth and work-life balance of women professionals. This study is expected to shed light on the factors that affect women's career decisions in Eastern countries, as well as the difficulties in balancing work and family. It will also help us understand how these factors are influenced by social, cultural, and economic surroundings.

While women's labor market involvement has increased in recent years, societal standards and gender roles still limit their career options and create difficulties in balancing work and family obligations. Patriarchy, as a system of social stratification and differentiation based on gender, imposes restrictions on women's roles and activities, leading to inequalities and challenges in achieving work-life balance. Women face various career-related challenges, such as extended career breaks and unfair wage discrepancies, which negatively impact their work-life balance and job satisfaction. Discrimination and gender-based differences in the workplace further contribute to the difficulties faced by women in maintaining work-life balance.

Work-family balance is understood as an individual's overall orientation across various life roles. It emphasizes equality or near-equality between experiences in the work and family domains. Positive balance entails being fully involved and attentive in each role, while negative balance represents disengagement in every role. Balance is characterized by an equitable allocation of time, an equal level of psychological engagement, and equivalent satisfaction with both work and family roles.

When individuals achieve work-life balance, they experience high satisfaction in both their work and non-work aspects of life. This equilibrium has been linked to increased productivity among employees. Studies suggest that achieving a harmonious balance between work and non-work activities plays a crucial role. On the other hand, when a work-life balance remains unattainable, heightened stress levels can have detrimental effects on both physical and psychological well-being Burchell et al., 2001; Lewis and Cooper, 1999).

To ensure the work-life balance of women and promote overall happiness and efficiency among employees in their professional and personal lives, it becomes crucial to implement regulations within the working environment. Such regulations should be put in place by both the government and employers, aiming to prevent work-life imbalance.

There is a need for practitioners and legislators to set rules that provide positive discrimination against women or are based entirely on equality between men and women. However, the rules set by the authority will not be enough to change the perspective of society. For this reason, it should be checked whether companies adopt an approach based on gender equality both in their recruitment processes and towards their employees. This can be done by public institutions or independent audit firms. By recognizing and addressing challenges, steps can be taken to create a more equitable and supportive environment for women to succeed in their careers while maintaining a healthy work-life balance. It may be necessary to consider issues like working hours, flexible work schedules, childcare, and assistance for family duties to achieve this balance.

In future studies, how to build mechanisms that will encourage women to achieve work-life balance and what the role of independent auditors or audit institutions can be in these mechanisms should be revealed. Thus, in light of both regulations and practices, it can be contributed to women's work-life balance.

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